ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF SCHOOL GOVERNANCE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE LIMPOPO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO MANKWENG AND POLOKWANE CIRCUITS

BY

SENTSHUHLENG JACOB MOTHAPO

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE, SCHOOL OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION,

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

SUPERVISOR
PROF M H KANYANE

COMPLETED
DECEMBER 2011
DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis on “Assessing the impact of school governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education” for the degree of Doctor of Public Administration has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my own work in design and execution and that all material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

Signed: ............................................................

Date: ...............................................................
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Modimowabarwa Kanyane, for the professional guidance and support he provided throughout the study. There were times when I got lost and felt that a study of this magnitude belonged to the chosen few, but the patience and the words of encouragement expressed by my supervisor resuscitated my passion and strength, so that I was able to complete this work.

I would also like to thank all the selected circuit managers and their deputies for governance, school principals and the members of the school management teams, the chairpersons of the school governing bodies of the selected schools, and the learners who shared their knowledge regarding the topic under investigation. Words of gratitude also go to the educators at the selected schools who made themselves available as subjects in this study and responded honestly to the posed questions as requested.

Special words of thanks go to Dr Lutz Ackerman for his support and the design of the presentation of quantitative data, which without him it would have been difficult to present. The Subjects librarians and the other members of the library staff who assisted me in many different ways to access information relevant to this study, I salute you all.

Special words of thanks go to my wife, Mologadi, for her support and encouragement to complete this work; also to my children Mpho, Mathaba, Mapula, Lesiba, and Katlego (son-in-law) for accepting me as your father although I was unable to spend quality time with you.

I would also like to thank the Universities of Limpopo and Fort Hare for the financial support that carried me through the study.

Above all, thanks to the Almighty God for giving me life and the strength to complete this research work.
DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to my parents, my late father Nakedi Mothapo, my mother, Kgaugelo Mothapo, and my family.
ABSTRACT

Education has been identified as a priority area by the South African government, in particular by the African National Congress as the ruling party. To this end, huge amounts of money are being spent on education as a service that has been approved by the legislators. Rules and regulations have been promulgated, and among others, the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996, has been enacted. Rich research has also been funded with the sole intention of providing quality education to the people. Education of unacceptably poor quality has, however, been the result, as postulated by Peterson and Hassel (1998:55). The above are attested to by the findings that the political tensions emanating from the conduct of the South African Democratic Teachers’ Union and the Professional Educators’ Union, leading to class disruptions and general instability, erode the ethos of accountability on the part of educators and therefore impact negatively on service delivery. Furthermore, the Limpopo Department of Education is not immune to the challenges ranging from the elements of corrupt activities that often surface, teacher attrition which in the main is caused by lack of discipline. Winkler, Modise and Dawber (1998) indicate that teaching has never been easy, and many teachers are leaving their jobs because of the many problems with children in classrooms. Some of the problems cited are children who do not want to learn and learning that is becoming too difficult for the students because they do not want to listen.

This study adopted sequential mixed methods namely, quantitative and qualitative research methods which are viewed as complementary rather than opposing approaches. Information was amassed from the subjects through interviews, observation, documentary survey and observation and the information has since been triangulated to validate the facts. All the methodologies employed proved to be useful in this study. The study sought to test the hypothesis “Good governance is informed by strong accountability and future-oriented organisation, continuously steering it towards its mission and vision, and thereby ensuring that the day-to-day management and administration are always linked with the organisation’s values and goals and thus eventually bringing about effectual and accelerated service delivery” to the South African populace without compromise. After empirically testing the hypothesis, showing mixed reaction informed by the findings of the study, five recommendations were made, based on the conclusions arrived at.
# LIST OF ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANC</td>
<td>African National Congress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Development Appraisal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Department of Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DfE</td>
<td>Department for Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSG</td>
<td>Development Support Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEA</td>
<td>Employment Equity Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICTs</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQMS</td>
<td>Integrated Quality Management Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAN</td>
<td>Local Area Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>Member of the Executive Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEPI</td>
<td>National Education Policy Investigation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGP</td>
<td>Personal Growth Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POLC</td>
<td>Planning, Organising, Leading and Controlling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>Public Private Partnership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM</td>
<td>Performance Measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SADTU</td>
<td>South African Democratic Teachers’ Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SASA</td>
<td>South African Schools Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDT</td>
<td>Staff Development Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGBs</td>
<td>School Governing Bodies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGTs</td>
<td>Self-Governing Territories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIP</td>
<td>School Improvement Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMSs</td>
<td>Short Messages Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMTs</td>
<td>School Management Teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBVC</td>
<td>Transvaal, Bophuthatswana, Venda, Ciskei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TED</td>
<td>Transvaal Education Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBE</td>
<td>Universal Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSE</td>
<td>Whole School Evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ACRONYMS</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER ONE**

**INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL ORIENTATION** 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND 1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM 2
1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES 3
1.4 HYPOTHESIS 3
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY 4
1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY 4
1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS 5
1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH 5
1.9 CONCLUSIONS 6

**CHAPTER TWO**

**LITERATURE REVIEW** 7

2.1 INTRODUCTION 7
2.2 THE ORIGIN OF THE CONCEPT “GOVERNANCE” 9
2.3 THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT “GOVERNANCE” 9
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1</td>
<td>Conceptualising governance</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>THEORIES OF GOVERNANCE</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.1</td>
<td>The theoretical foundations of governance</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF GOVERNANCE</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.1</td>
<td>An historical overview of educational governance in South Africa</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.2</td>
<td>An historical overview of educational governance in Bangladesh</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.3</td>
<td>An historical overview of educational governance in Uganda</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.4</td>
<td>An historical overview of educational governance in Zimbabwe</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.5</td>
<td>An historical overview of educational governance in Nigeria</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>TYPES OF GOVERNANCE</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.1</td>
<td>Global governance</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.2</td>
<td>Ethical governance</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.3</td>
<td>Democratic governance</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.4</td>
<td>E-governance</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.5</td>
<td>Corporate and collaborative governance</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>SCHOOLS AS ORGANISATIONS</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7.1</td>
<td>Organisational structures within a school setting</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7.2</td>
<td>Forms of organisational structure</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7.3</td>
<td>Organisational culture or school culture</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>SCHOOL GOVERNANCE</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.1</td>
<td>Democratic ethos and school governance</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.2</td>
<td>The typology or forms of decentralisation</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8.3</td>
<td>Reasons for decentralisation</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.10 EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE 52
2.10.1 Functions of management and leadership model 54
2.10.2 The value system and commitment to service delivery in a school context 55

2.11 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE 71
2.11.1 Problems related to performance appraisal 74
2.11.2 Capacity building within the context of educational governance 76
2.11.3 The role and responsibility of the Development Support Group (DSG) 78
2.11.4 The role of the inspectorate within the context of school governance 79

2.12 ACCOUNTABILITY AND GOVERNANCE 81
2.12.1 Types of accountability 84

2.13 QUALITY ASSURANCE IN EDUCATION AND GOVERNANCE 88

2.14 CURRICULA GOVERNANCE 90

2.15 CONCLUSION 92

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 95

3.1 INTRODUCTION 95

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN 95
3.2.1 Qualitative research methods 97
3.2.2 Quantitative research methods 100
3.2.3 Population and sampling 101
3.2.4 Gaining access 105

3.3 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES 107
3.3.1 Observation 109
3.3.2 Questionnaire survey 112
3.3.3 Interview survey 116
ANNEXURE E: QUESTIONNAIRE: Guide for educators 201

ANNEXURE F: INTERVIEW GUIDE: Targeting the school principals, deputies and HODs 212

ANNEXURE G: INTERVIEWE GUIDE: Targeting circuit managers and deputy managers for governance 216

ANNEXURE H: INTERVIEW GUIDE: Targeting the governors/parents 219

ANNEXURE I: INTERVIEW GUIDE: Targeting the learner representative 222

ANNEXURE J: LETTER CONFIRMING EDITING 224

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 2.1: Types of governance 23
Table 2.2: The characteristics of E-Government and E-Governance 35
Table 2.3: Levels, forms and functions of decentralization (UNESCO) 45
Table 2.4: Forms of decentralization (Turner & Hulme, 1997:153) 46
Figure 2.1: How leadership differs from management 54
Figure 2.2: Dimensions of the employment relationship 72
Bar chart 1: The respondents by age group 132
Bar chart 2: The respondents by gender 132
Bar chart 3: The respondents by level of academic education attained 133
Bar chart 4: The level of professional qualification attained 134
Bar chart 5: The number of years served by the respondent in the teaching Field 135
Bar chart 6: The labour movements to which the respondents are affiliated 136
Bar chart 7: Respondents’ influence in developing school policies 137
Bar chart 8: Working relationship between the educators and the school management team 138
Bar chart 9: The working relationship among educators 139
Bar chart 10: Accountability rests with the principal alone 140
Bar chart 11: The relationship with the circuit, parents, local public and
Bar chart 12: The balancing of the schools’ mission and vision with other major missions and visions

Bar chart 13: The fair representation of all stakeholders in the SGBs

Bar chart 14: School governors being the law enforcement agencies for both the educators and the learners

Bar chart 15: The influence on the relationship between governance and the pass rates

Bar chart 16: Governors are not vulnerable to fraud and corruption

Bar chart 17: The question of remaining in the teaching profession if given a chance

Bar chart 18: Discipline being the concern of the principal alone

Bar chart 19: Effective bargaining of schools with the governors and the Department on budgeting matters

Bar chart 20: Allocation of funds in a fair and transparent manner by schools

Bar chart 21: Integrated quality management system being a witch-hunt performance tool

Bar chart 22: Educators having a role to play in whole school evaluation

Bar chart 23: Development appraisal being the domain of educators and its significance to the educators and the school

Bar chart 24: Curriculum preparing the learners for future educational needs and to compete in the global economy

Bar chart 25: Equal sharing of teaching responsibilities among educators

Bar chart 26: The role played by educators in curriculum development
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The National Education Policy Act, Act 27 of 1996 empowers the Minister of Education to determine the national norms and standards for education planning, provisioning, governance, monitoring and evaluation. The principle of democratic decision making must also be exercised within the context of overall policy goals (http://www.info.gov.za.aboutsa/education.htm 4/30/2009).

The Limpopo Department of Education is mandated by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa to provide quality public education without bias to all learners in the province of Limpopo, and has since adopted the following vision and mission statement.

The vision of the Limpopo Department of Education is “to equip the people of our province, through the provision of quality, lifelong education and training with values, knowledge and skills, to enable them to fulfil a productive role in society”, while its mission is “finding solutions to educational challenges through collective management and participation until the doors of learning are open to all”.

In the same breath, the Limpopo Department of Education has committed itself to the following values with a view to providing quality service:

- Upholding the constitution of the Republic of South Africa.
- Respecting the clients, listening to them and rendering meaningful and quality service to them.
- Optimal delivering of services by professional, capable, accountable and disciplined staff.
- Getting the best value for money through the effective and efficient utilisation of resources.
- Fostering a good work ethic, dedication and innovation, recognising excellence and rewarding it.
- Creating and maintaining a positive corporative image and organisational culture and climate.
- Upholding the principles of equity and democracy as well as respecting cultural diversity.
- Fostering and promoting collegial bonding in the spirit of teamwork and nation-building.

Educational services are provided at several levels, namely at Head Office located in Polokwane, five District Offices, namely Vhembe, Mopani, Capricorn, Waterberg and Greater Sekhukhune, several Circuit Offices and Further Education and Training colleges throughout the province. This system is led by the MEC for Education, Head of Department, District Senior Managers, Departmental Senior Management Service, Circuit Managers, School principals, Management teams and Governing bodies respectively.

The year 1994 marked the emergence of democracy in South Africa, which underpinned the need for behavioural change and change of mindset in the provisioning of services to the people. Education provisioning was among the services which had to be rendered according to the stipulations of the following pieces of legislation, picking up from past experiences.

- Public Service Act, (Act no. 103 of 1994) as amended
- PSCBC Resolution no.2 of 1999
- PSCBC Resolution no.1 of 2003
- PSCBC Resolution no.4 of 2000
- Public Service Regulations; Employment of Educators Act, (Act no.76 of 1998)
- Labour Relations Act (Act no. 66 of 1995)
- South African Schools Act (Act no. 84 of 1996) and,

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Legislators have approved and are still approving huge amounts to be spent on education. They have also enacted acts, promulgated rules and regulations, and funded much research
with the intention of having a positive impact on the quality of education. Unacceptably poor education has, however, been the result (Peterson & Hassel, 1998:55). Parents and communities appear to be inadequately committed to the educational affairs of their children, and do not execute their school governance roles properly. Another common problem is inadequate knowledge in terms of policy analysis, interpretation and implementation which leads to non-performance of schools. Lack of accountability on the part of both the SGBs and the educators leads to the misuse of both human and capital resources. As the political landscape continues to present itself as one of the main challenges in educational governance, politics seems to be overshadowing education administration and management.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

On the one hand, the general objective of the study was to assess the impact of school governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education and also to check whether there was strong accountability and a harmonious relationship between the Department, districts, circuits, schools and the communities. On the other hand, the specific objectives of the study are postulated below as follows:

- Investigate the nature and extent of governance and its impact on service delivery in the Department of Education under study.
- Provide possible mechanisms and ways to resolve governance issues which have a negative impact on service delivery.

1.4 HYPOTHESIS

Good governance is informed by strong accountability and future-oriented organisation, continuously steering it towards its mission and vision, and thereby ensuring that the day-to-day management and administration are always linked with the values and goals of the organisation and thus eventually bringing about effectual and accelerated service delivery. The hypothesis postulated here is empirically tested in Chapter Four and concluded in Chapter Five.
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study aimed at benefitting both the national and provincial government, in that the study sought to close the identified gaps within the governance structures of the Limpopo Department of Education right from the top, down to schools, with a view to strengthening the leadership function as the core of governance of any organisation.

The study was meant to benefit government and society and to serve as an awareness tool with regard to governance issues. It was also meant to help create an accountable workforce to render the service as per the mandate of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act (Act 108 of 1996), and the South African Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996).

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

According to Locke, et al. (1993:17), “delimit” literally means to define the limits inherent in the use of a particular construct or population. Delimitations describe the populations to which generalisations may be safely made. Since the Limpopo Department of Education, Capricorn District is quite big, the study was limited to two circuits, namely Polokwane and Mankweng.

The concept “governance” falls directly under the context of the constitution, and for that reason, the researcher did not find it easy to work with the relevant stakeholders and, in addition to this, there were elements of fear due to the sensitivity of the topic under investigation. The political stance in the country also had a negative impact on the research. First, it was claimed that the government under the current ruling party had failed the Department of Education with the education policies and their implementation. The targeted groups were members of the educators’ unions which are allied to the ruling party and also the defendants. This posed itself as a limitation to the study, looking at the newly-elected political leadership. Although the study started in 2009 at a time when the fourth democratic government was just being put in place and political squabbles in the country were anticipated, the researcher was resilient and completed the study under investigation in 2011 despite all the limitations posed.
1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Moore (2006:19) advises researchers that thinking about legal and ethical issues is imperative in research endeavours, how, for example the researcher would protect people’s privacy and ensure that conforming to the data protection law, was the rule of the game. In the thickets of ethical complexity faced by the novice researcher it was sometimes difficult to keep one’s moral bearings. A suggestion by the authors is to keep something in the value system and use it as a benchmark to test a decision. For example, a traditional concern was about the physical and psychological safety of the participants. Here the belief rested within the context that “the right to protection begins with the right of free and informed choice” (Locke, et al. 1993:29).

The participants in this study were advised and requested to offer information freely and willingly. Furthermore, the researcher treated the participants with dignity and respect and also ensured that throughout the research process anonymity prevailed. Lastly, the participants were assured that they would be given the results of the study.

The researcher did not in any way force the participants to offer information by perhaps taking advantage of their position. According to Locke, et al. (1993:32), there is “cooperation by coercion”, a spirit as well as a letter to be observed in the rules about informed consent that, when individuals are under the supervision or control of another individual, it may be difficult for them to refuse an invitation to participate in a study. Finally the researcher sought permission from the authorities to conduct research through the relevant offices and officials.

1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The research work consists of five (5) chapters. Chapter One served to introduce the research topic and further described the structure as follows: statement of the research problem, research objectives, hypothesis, significance of the study, literature review, research methodology, delimitation of the study and ethical considerations.

Chapter Two. In this chapter the researcher presented the consulted literature relevant to developing the theoretical exposition.
Chapter Three presented the qualitative and quantitative methods used as well as the designs chosen in this study. In this chapter the researcher also identified the target groups, sampling methods, including the size of the population and the research methods.

Chapter Four explained to the reader how the collected data was analysed and further presented the findings of the study.

In Chapter Five conclusions based on the findings of the study were drawn and the recommendations were made. This included identifying areas for further research based on the results of the study.

1.9 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter introduced and described in detail the background to the study. The chapter further identified all the role players who need to critically devote their strength towards delivering quality education as a service to the learners as mandated by the South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) and the South African Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996). The statement of the problem, the research objectives, hypothesis, significance of the study, delimitations, and ethical considerations were put into context regarding the topic under study.

The next chapter presents the literature reviewed in pursuance of the research study.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa, like the rest of the world, had to reform its educational systems based on the demands for quality education. 1994 was the year during which South Africa as a country had to take a sharp turn in reforming major policies, including education governance. The basic principles of South Africa’s democratic constitution, particularly those that are enshrined in the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2) of the South African Constitution, formed the basis for quality education to be provided. The South African Schools Act (Act no. 84 of 1996) and other related pieces of legislation were enacted to bring about change in the education system. This was reinforced by the statement of the South African President who argued that the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) aimed at providing a uniform system for the organisation, governance and funding of schools, with a view to amending and repealing certain laws relating to schools, and providing for matters connected with them.

The preamble of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) concerns itself with the adoption of a new national system for schools which will redress past injustices in educational provision, provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners and so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all people’s talents and capabilities, advance the democratic transformation of society, combat racism and sexism and all forms of discrimination and intolerance, contribute to the eradication of poverty and promote the economic well-being of society, protect and advance our diverse cultures and languages, uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance, and funding of schools in partnership with the state.

With all the good intentions and proper structures to provide quality education, after fifteen (15) years of democratic rule, the findings of the Professor Jonathan Jansen’s committee, the National Education and Development Unit (NEDU), still pointed to the fact that throughout the country in each of the provinces, from government officials, unionists, and teachers alike, the Committee heard the strongest expressions of concern, often in very passionate terms,
that there was an indisputable crisis in education, and that it needed to be resolved. The findings went on to indicate that it would indeed be a serious mistake to underestimate the depth and intensity of concern among all education stakeholders. Adding to all the concerns registered, the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga contends that the culture of learning has disappeared in most rural and township schools. The big question that needs to be answered is, who is fooling whom, while the tax payers’ money is being expended on all sorts of resources, including the conducting of research (http://www.politicsweb.co.za/politicsweb/view/politicsweb/en/page7165?oid=134657&s...) accessed on 11/4/2009.

In an attempt to instill a sense of effective service delivery in education, government has, among others, introduced an inclusive and complex evaluation system which is set to be integrated and considered important. It is integrated in the sense that it accounts for three major programmes which need to be implemented forthwith, with the sole intent of enhancing and monitoring the performance of the overall education system, inter alia, Development Appraisal (DA), which stands for the appraisal of the individual educators in a transparent manner with a view to determining areas of strength and weakness, and draw up programmes for individual development. The second programme, known as Performance Measurement (PM), is set to evaluate the individual teachers for salary progression, grade progression, affirmation of appointments, rewards and incentives. The third is Whole School Evaluation (WSE), which accounts for the evaluation of the overall effectiveness of a school, including the support provided by the district, school management, infrastructure and learning resources as well as the quality of teaching and learning (Collective Agreement, No. 8 of 2003).

In support of the Collective agreement, no. 8. of 2003, Monyatsi, Steyn, and Kamper (2006: 427) argue that teacher appraisal is a concept that is a global concern as governments are becoming aware of the need to critically examine educational provision to ensure that it is relevant and appropriate to the needs of the youth (Motswake, 1990:6). Monyatsi et al. (2006:427) conclude that teacher appraisal is of great importance since its main objective is to improve individual performance and motivation (cited in Bartlett, 2000:25; Danielson, 2001:1; Donaldson & Stobbe, 2000; Lam, 2001:161; Painter, 2001:61; Wanzare, 2002:213). Poster and Poster (1992:1) postulate that employees perform effectively when they are well
motivated, understand what is expected of them and have acquired the necessary abilities and skills to fulfil their responsibilities.

The scenario as presented in the preceding paragraph is vital since there are many parties within government who would want to woo voters to their side during election time. This would normally be done from the stand of economic development at grassroots level where poverty is rife, with a view to emancipating and empowering the poor and marginal sectors of the communities. The debate is around a number of enacted policies and legislation which includes the governance of the education system in South Africa.

In this chapter the researcher will focus on educational governance and related pertinent matters.

2.2 THE ORIGIN OF THE CONCEPT “GOVERNANCE”

The word “governance” originates from the Greek verb “kubernao” which means “to steer” and was used for the first time in a metaphorical sense by Plato, then passed on to the Latin language and later to many other languages (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/governance accessed on 2/17/2009).

2.3 THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT “GOVERNANCE”

Lindblad, Ozga and Zambeta (2002:619) argue that the change from government to governance relates to the redesign of the welfare system, which identifies the shift towards decentralisation, devolution and deregulation as the key principles of restructuring. Linblad, et al. (2002:621) further indicate that one of the ostensible purposes of decentralisation is to increase citizen involvement in education and sustain the development of civil society, financial devolution, and legislative change that give local municipalities and regions more flexibility in management of the teaching force and the school curriculum. However, they also believe that it is an institutional strategy to produce personal feelings of efficacy through participation as well as governing strategy that produces increasing loyalty to the system itself in a period when changes are being sought.
Maha (1997:181), quoting several researchers, has advanced the following reasons for the decentralisation of power: Lewis and Loveridge (1965:23) who argue that it is wasteful of effort and time if decisions are not made quickly by the first person who becomes aware of the need and who is capable of making them; Wolfers et al. (1982:5) who asserts that decentralisation increases the efficiency and responsiveness of the administrative system by reducing delays, and thereby making decisions more relevant to local needs; Bray (1985) who adds that participation in relation to educational planning at the local level is seen both as an end in itself and a way to improve relevance and accuracy of planning.

2.3.1 Conceptualising governance
Hyden, Olowu & Okoth-Ogendo (2000:296) define governance as the ability and competence of the government to use the structures of the state for the betterment and upliftment of the populace. Hyden’s (1992) further definition of governance “in an influential way” (in Hyden et al., 2000), suggests that governance is “the conscious management of regime structures with a view to enhancing the legitimacy of the public realm”.

In a research paper, “Strengthening school governance”, Wood (1996), quoted by Kouri, maintains that governance consists of decisions and actions that are linked to defining an organisation’s mission, establishing its policies and control mechanisms to allocate power, determine decision-making processes, establish organisational culture, and set up procedures for performing specific tasks (http://saskschoolboards.ca/research/governance/99-01.htm accessed on 3/4/2008).

Maile (2002:326), using the auditor-general (1988:B2) and Buckley and Hofmeyer’s (1993:30) words, defines governance as the exercising of power in the management of resources that involves the nature and extent of authority, as well as the control and incentives applied to deploy human and economic resources for the wellbeing of an organisation, and not simply as the system of administration and control of education in a country. It is the whole process by which education policies are formulated, adopted, implemented and monitored not only at national level, but also at every level of the system down to the individual school.
In line with Maha (2002), McCormick, Barnett, Alavi and Newcombe (2006:430), using Bohen’s (1995) words, contend that it is generally accepted that governance has more to do with responsibility and accountability for the overall operation of an organisation.

2.4 THEORIES OF GOVERNANCE

Theory is defined as a statement intended to describe and explain phenomena and events in the world around us and it is comprised of a system of assumptions and accepted principles accompanied by recognised rules of procedure by which events may be analysed and explained (Owens, 1995:43).

Governance is understood to be dealing with legislation, policy making and policy implementation. Cooper, Fusarelli and Randall (2004:9-10) mention the following theories of education policy within the ambit of governance in their thesis:

- Systems theory which provides a means for analysing the “policy”, including demands, needs and resources, the “throughputs” that involve the key actors who implement policy, and “policy outputs”, for example, the educated and the civic-minded students of improved economic productivity. Likewise, Brevis, Vrba and De Klerk (1997:63) describe systems theory from the perspective of key actors or role players, as they argue that a system is broken into four basic concepts, namely an open system as opposed to a closed system, subsystems, synergy, and entropy. They argue further that a system is open when it is dependent on the environment and vice versa and there is a specific interaction between the system and the environment.

In describing a subsystem, Brevis et al. (1997:63) argue that a subsystem is a system within a system, and this is best backed up by a university or school’s library or laboratories and administration as examples which are regarded as subsystems on the one hand and on the other they are systems in their own right. Democratically speaking, other subsystems within the education system could be the educators’ unions that are directly involved in the delivery of education as a commodity at school level, the communities who are the parents of the learners and the business people who are the potential partners, as well as politicians and other stakeholders who should be taken on board to form a well-grounded system.
The reality is that organisations are open systems which are dependent on their environment and consist of various interdependent subsystems like marketing, finance, and others which are vital to the whole system (Brevis et al. 1997:63). The researcher’s view of the rejection of outcomes-based education by the teachers is that it was not properly sold to them from the beginning and also that sufficient finances to provide the required resources was not catered for by the government.

- Neopluralist advocacy and interest group theories are said to be grounded in a political science perspective that seeks to answer the questions: “who gets what, when, and how”, as key coalitions struggle to obtain from government the resources and support they believe necessary. The legislators, governors, superintendents, and school boards who form part of the key actors, work out their interest group concerns in a variety of arenas, and this depends on the level of federalist system (federal, state, county, city, school district, and individual schools). It is believed that in bringing these interest groups and their arenas together, a useful means of understanding how laws are passed, shaped, implemented, and evaluated could be provided. Cooper et al. (2004) and Brevis et al. (1997:6) bring the concept of “synergy” which simply refers to a situation where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, or that the individual subsystems are simultaneously applied in such a way that the result of their simultaneous application is greater than their individual efforts. That is, if the various subsections of the organisation cooperate as subsystems, they become more productive than would have been the case had they functioned individually. The practical scenario in this instance is Curriculum 2005 and outcomes-based education in South Africa where the teaching fraternity and its unions, and other interested parties, did not buy into their implementation, with the result that today the country is faced with poor quality education.

- Neoinstitutional theory is the theory that relates to the structure of societal and political organisations that exert independent effects on policy. It would in actual fact be difficult to analyse school policies without understanding both the political institutions that enact and enforce laws and regulations and the schools and classrooms where policy is implemented. The structure, culture, leadership and
demands of organisations that pass and implement education policy are essential to
any true understanding of policy making in education.

The South African School’s Act of 1996 (as amended) was enacted to take charge of school
governance in South Africa after the new dispensation had come into being. Schools operate
within a very diverse environment whereby parliament as the political institution passes laws
to be implemented and enforced in the lower spheres. Procedurally the principal and the
governing body manage schools through acts, policies and regulations to attain efficient,
effective, and economic service delivery. The hierarchy that represents the structure from top
to bottom is there to handle mixed cultures, beliefs, and attitude in its endeavour to pursue
governance objectives.

- Critical theory seeks to know and understand the existing economic, political and
societal purposes of schooling and examines policy through the lenses of oppressed
groups, with a normative orientation towards freeing disenfranchised groups from
conditions of domination and subjugation. This endeavour is primarily concerned
with issues of equity and social justice. Policy analysis from the perspective of critical
theory focuses on the hidden (and often equal) uses of power through which policy is
transformed into practice.

In addition to the context of the critical theory, Chapter two of the South African Constitution
of 1996 plays a vital role in ensuring that every person enjoys the right to basic education.
Effectively, it is incumbent upon the state to ensure that both human and physical resources
are made available for quality education to take place (Section 29). However, the opposite is
always the result in that the outputs are not commensurate with the inputs. The oppressed
groups remain oppressed as the illiteracy rate manifests itself within societies.

- Feminist theory concerns itself primarily with the often unequal effects of education
policies, more especially on issues relating to gender and sexual differences that
include how education policies are translated through institutional processes that serve
to reinforce or encourage gender inequity. From a feminist theoretical perspective this
would include related issues such as policies affecting women’s access to and choices
within the educational system, women’s “ways of knowing” and the (re)structuration of power relations through policy.

There is a saying that “the woman’s place is in the kitchen”. This has changed since the new dispensation, in that the provisions of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, (Act No. 108 of 1996) and the Employment Equity Act, 1998 (Act No. 55 of 1998) have stood firm in redressing the inequalities of the past in the work environment. Section nine of the Constitution categorically states that the state may not discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on the basis of race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, or colour, to mention but a few. It is against the background of the aforementioned provisions and stipulations that today women are appointed across all levels of operation within the work environment. However, the question that still remains to be answered is, whether women in positions of power are delivering according to the expected levels, or whether they are just there as window-dressing to give the impression that the notion and principles of gender equality are being promoted.

- Postmodernism is said to be taking a much different view of education policy outcomes to the traditional policy, in that it rejects out of hand the “scientific”, or more positivistic perspectives on policymaking. It is further argued that policy is contextually defined by those in authority and has little validity when separated from its setting. These critics argue that the neutral, scientific pretence of policy analysis merely screens the highly racist, sexist, and classist nature of most policies. According to the postmodernists, schools do not readily improve because the privileged elite in society seek to maintain the status quo, allowing the predominantly upper class, anglo male leadership to remain in authority at the expense of the poor, women, and people of colour.

The new dispensation in South Africa came with a number of acts, policies, rules and regulations to be applied by all spheres of government with a view to addressing the past imbalances. The South African Schools Act of 1996 (as amended) in line with other national and provincial laws was enacted to effect changes in the governance of schools in South Africa. Among others, the intention of the Schools Act is to ensure that school governors are elected and operate within the parameters of the said Act.
In support of the proponents of the postmodernist theory, Bush and Bell (2003:22) bring another theoretical viewpoint that speaks about micropolitics which refers to a political activity which takes place inside schools or colleges. The two argue further that micropolitics may be contrasted with macropolitics which relates to debate and disagreement within the wider policy-making process. The apparent example of the micropolitical activity in education is school governing bodies, because they arise from the interaction of officially sanctioned interest groups. These are forums designed to constitute the framework for community participation and local democracy and they also provide a platform for conflict among different representative groups. In South Africa, schools which were well resourced, under the trusteeship of the whites and the elite, resisted change with a view to pursuing their own interests. This act did not only hinder progress, but also affected the delivery of essential services in education.

- Ideological theories of policymaking put policy into a partisan, politically value-laden structure, with the hope to gain insight into the econo-political context surrounding key politics. In its simplest form, it is the particular policy associated with a left-liberal perspective, stressing equity, involvement, or multicultural, multilingual values, or the policy sponsored and supported by a right-wing neoconservative coalition that stresses competition, choice, minimal government involvement, and a more free-market, privatised approach. It is further argued that besides the left-right perspective on policy, this ideological lens permits a more fine-tuned look at subtle value differences held on both the right and the left, as between the radical religious right or moderate economic right versus the radical left, socialist, Marxist, moderate or neoliberal positions.

Arguably, the education system under apartheid had good and bad policies which were radically changed without being well thought through by the left. The ideological theory, in line with the Constitution, puts more emphasis on equity, involvement or participation in all educational matters by the stakeholders. However, there is a continuing problem, whereby positions are not being filled because of the opposing ideas emanating from the unions, governing bodies, and the Department as to who qualifies for the position in question. This tells one a great deal about the flooded recruitment policy which is being overshadowed by politics.
2.4.1 The theoretical foundations of governance

The following are the theoretical foundations of governance as presented by Cooper, et al. (2004:145-148) in pursuance of Gutmann and Katz’s two useful frameworks for approaching and understanding the issues of governance in education, in introducing the dilemmas and potential solutions.

- The family state. It is in this state where the state has total and absolute control over education, including educational content, its distribution, and means of distribution, with neither local control nor parental input. It is also apparent in this state that shared decision making outside the state apparatus is anathema and dangerous to societal harmony and order. Cooper et al. (2004:145), quoting Gutmann, assert that the defining feature of the family state is that it claims exclusive educational authority as a means of establishing a harmony … between the individual and social good, based on knowledge.

- State of families. Cooper et al. (2004:146), using Gutmann’s work as represented by Locke’s writings, indicate that in the state of families, the locus of control in education is vested in the parents, unlike in the family state. It is the parents who are in the best position to know the needs of their children and how these needs of their children can best be met. Added to this, it is the parents who have a vested interest in the success of their children and can be counted upon more than anyone else or any other social agency to provide for the essential needs of children’s values and way of life and to see that they are inculcated in the children. Furthermore, Cooper et al., on the same page, present Gutmann’s challenge to the state of families that says, “Children are not simply the extensions of parents and members of families, but are also members of society. It is against this background that society also has a vested interest in the education of children. Since no individual or organisation is incapable of error, parents cannot always be counted on to provide their children with adequate education, especially one that will equip their children with the intellectual skills necessary for deliberation.”

- State of individuals. Gutmann in Cooper et al. (2004:147), contends that the major weakness of the family state and state of families is that some agency or group
external to the individual makes decisions about the education of the individual and with this involvement comes the potential for bias and ignorance. Added to this, these two approaches to governance ignore the agency of the individual and the right that each person has to self-determination and fulfilment. The state of individuals proposes to solve this fatal weakness by championing the dual goals of opportunity for choice and neutrality among conceptions of the good life. It is further asserted that every child must have his or her own notion of the good life, while the role of the state and the family in the state of the individual is to facilitate the ability of students for rational thinking and discourse and of taking a neutral stance with regard to worldviews and value systems.

2.5 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF GOVERNANCE

2.5.1 An historical overview of educational governance in South Africa

The education system during the term of the National Party was equally under the control of the state and provided for whites only. The education system of the time was based on the policy of centralised control and decentralised administration. There was an African education system which came into being after the proclamation of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 and was based on ethnicity (National Education Policy Investigation [NEPI] 1992:6).

There were two systems of education established in terms of the 1983 Constitution namely, the “general” and the “own affairs” In terms of the 1983 constitution, general education affairs were the responsibility of a white cabinet minister, and African education was designated a “general affair”, while Own affairs education referred to the education of Coloureds, Whites, and Indians. All these were the responsibility of the racially segregated coloureds, whites, and Indian education departments (NEPI, 1992:7).

The well-thought-out control of the South African education systems during the National Party era produced four separate systems, namely Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda, and Ciskei (the TBVC states), six self-governing territories (SGTs), one for white education, one for coloured education, one for Indian education, and one general education system for African education under the Department of Education and Training (DET) (NEPI, 1992:7).
NEPI (1992:9) describes the system of education in South Africa as a complex mixture of centralised and decentralised forms of administration and control. The report further says that the six main policy areas of basic South African education (school organisation; curriculum and teaching methods; examination and supervision; teacher recruitment; school compensation and finance of recurrent expenditure; and school construction and finance) were centralised, nationally or regionally.

Mahomole (2008:39), referring to the South African Constitution Act (1961), indicates that prior to 1994, the education provisioning in South Africa was fragmented and based on race, colour, and ethnicity. After the National Party took over in 1948 the practice was enforced by the constitution in the form of apartheid. Mahomole further indicates that both the 1961 and 1963 South African constitutions emphasised the concept of “own affairs” which simply meant that each race and ethnic group should take care of its own business pertaining to the education system and other social issues.

Van Schalkwyk (1990, in Mahomole, 2008:39) reports that “white” education was organised and administered under the Department of Education and Culture – House of Assembly, and implemented at provincial level according to each provincial education department. In the former Transvaal Province, the Transvaal Education Department (TED) was responsible for education provisioning. Education for Coloureds and Indians was organised and administered by the Department of Education and Culture - House of Assembly, and the Department of Education and Culture - House of Representatives respectively.

Currently the South African Education system, as observed by the researcher, is divided into three spheres, namely National, Provincial, and Local. The first and highest level is the National Department of Education headed by a political head in the capacity of a Minister. The second level is that of the Provincial Department of Education, also led by a political head in the capacity of a Member of the Executive Committee (MEC), and the third level is Local which is led by Circuit Managers. The South African Schools Act (Act no. 84 of 1996) has introduced an additional level of governance at the lowest level of the structure known as the School Governing Bodies. Furthermore, the South African Education system is all-inclusive, in that it is one education system for all, unlike in the past where it was fragmented according to race, colour, religion and ethnicity, which resulted in the South African
Government’s servicing nine provincial education departments together with the then TBVC states. (Transkei; Botswana; Venda; and Ciskei).

2.5.2 An historical overview of educational governance in Bangladesh

Like most developing countries, Bangladesh has undergone various education systems based on historic events that evolved over time. This did not only have an adverse effect on methodologies but also on governance. The first rough experience was that under British rule which was reserved mainly for the wealthy class. It was during this era that the language of pedagogy was the language in use, which was English, as schools were administered by religious and other British people (http://sanisoft.tripod.com/bdeshedu/systems.html, accessed 2/25/2010).

The 1971 liberation war marked the turnaround in the historic events in Bangladesh. This led to the People’s Republic of Bangladesh becoming an independent nation, free to choose its educational destiny. Being a secular state, Bangladesh permitted many forms of education to co-exist. The Bangladeshi system of education is presently divided into three different branches, namely the English medium, the Bengali Medium, and the Religious branch. Added to these three branches of the Bangladeshi system of education, there is one that is military inclined, offered at cadet colleges and boarding schools, where upon graduation the children join the national army forthwith (http://sanisoft.tripod.com/bdeshedu/systems.html, accessed 2/25/2010).

In further promoting the Bangladeshi education reform, a 21-member committee, the National Curriculum Coordinating Committee, was formed in 2002 to specifically address the recognised deficiencies in education. The proposed education system was the Unitrek Education which refers to the unification of Madrasha ‘A’ level cadet and general medium of education (http://www/emancipating-education-for-all.org.unitrek-education-system-bangla accessed 2/25/2010).

2.5.3 An historical overview of educational governance in Uganda

Similar to the Bangladeshi system of education, Uganda ran missionary or religious schools which were established in the 1890s. The year 1924 marked the period during which the Ugandan government established the first secondary schools for Africans. However, the government controlled only three of the fifty-six secondary schools for Africans by 1950.
Three were privately funded and the other fifty were functioning under the trusteeship of religious organisations. During this era, education was accessed with ease by the rural farmers and the urban elite. The situation changed after independence when most villages, especially in the south, were able to build schools, appoint educators of their own, and appeal for and eventually receive government assistance to administer their own village schools (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_system_in_Uganda, accessed 2/25/2010).

Even though Uganda uses traditional languages as a medium of instruction, as a former colony of the British, it still uses English as a medium of instruction in schools. This is strengthened by the fact that, Uganda being a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, it still receives many teachers annually to offer lessons from within the Commonwealth who still follow the English model (http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1585/Uganda-educational-system-overview.html, accessed 2/25/2010).

In July 1987, immediately after the national Resistance Movement came into power, an Education Review Commission was set up. Its main objectives were precisely to appraise the entire system of education in Uganda and recommend measures and strategies for improving the system in question. At that time the commission was to direct its energy to the betterment of the education system in order to progressively embrace modern curriculum and pedagogic trends and development; equip students with productive and modern marketable skills; produce socially responsible citizens; review and reformulate the general objectives of the schools as a whole as well as at each level; reassess the systems of financing schools and tertiary institutions and rendering service (Report on the Development of Education for the 46th Session of (ice) 5th -7th September 2001).


2.5.4 An historical overview of educational governance in Zimbabwe

Like most developing African countries, Zimbabwe reformed its educational system with a view to making it accessible to all, irrespective of race. This was easy because the economic
imperatives of the time created an increasing demand for education among Africans. The colonial government came to realise the need for intervention in educational affairs to ensure that the missionaries did not overeducate the Africans as this would work against their master plan. “Africans were to be given the type of education which was practical in nature, that is, related to agriculture and industry to prepare them to be labourers, but not to the extent that they could compete with the Europeans. Industrial training in African schools was limited to elementary knowledge of agriculture, carpentry and building” (Kanyongo, 2005:65, quoting Nyerera, 2000; Atkinson, 1972; Dorsey, 1975; O’Callaghan & Austin, 1977).

The Zimbabwean education system in the pre-independence period was discriminatory in nature. The divisions were such that whites were educated apart from Asians and coloureds, who were lumped together, while black Africans attended schools for Africans alone. It was only in the 1950s that the education wheel turned in favour of the Africans who became educated through the missionary schools and this became even better during the 1980s (http://www.wozazimbabwe.org). According to the National Report on the Republic of Zimbabwe (July, 2001:6) during the first decade of Zimbabweans’ independence, a socialist path was embraced as the principle of Growth with Equity. This endeavour was adopted with the sole view of redressing the inherited inequalities and imbalances of the past and to access basic needs such as education, health facilities and services in general. Quality education in Zimbabwe, as in most developing countries, was deemed necessary. The adoption of a decentralised system of educational governance which allowed the powers previously vested in the higher levels of the education system to filter down to the individuals and clusters of schools (Chikoko, 2008:202).

2.5.5 An historical overview of educational governance in Nigeria

Similarly, Nigeria could not escape the educational tribulations imposed by the British government on most developing countries. The education system in Nigeria underwent three historical periods, namely before independence in 1960, from 1960 to 1969, and from 1970 to date. During the period from before 1960 up to 1967, the Nigerian education system was administered by the Christian and Muslim missionaries. Due to the social, political and economic instability in Nigeria, the civil war of 1967-1970 erupted and caused more chaos for education (Maduagwu, accessed 2010).
Educational development in Nigeria was eminent. The colonial government established a National Board of Education in 1926. It was as a result of the established board that the education departments of Southern and Northern Nigeria were able to merge shortly thereafter to form the federal Department of Education. Following the end of World War II, the Nigerian government rolled out its plan to reshape the education system. The government’s plan, known as the 1946 ten-year plan, accelerated the expansion of schools especially in the South. Later, in 1951, Nigeria experienced a division of power into three regions, namely, North, East, and West. Each region had its own Board of Education and Ministry of Education (http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1101/nigeria-constitutional-legal-foundation.html, accessed 5/4/2010).

In pursuing its educational dream, the West took the lead in universal primary education (UPE) by passing a law making primary education free. Two years later, the East followed by making its first three years of primary education free. Over and above all the governmental initiatives to improve education, the federal government initiated a national Universal Primary Education programme in 1976. Unfortunately, the programme achieved mixed success because of the political and economic turmoil of the following two decades. In line with this objective, a declaration that says “education is an instrument for national development” was made in September 1976. This was strengthened by the 1983 and 1999 Constitutions respectively, which advocated for the placement of elementary schools under the responsibility of local government and secondary schools under the combined administration of state and federal government. It also advocated for equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels to promote science and technology and also to eradicate illiteracy by working towards a free, compulsory education and universal primary education; free secondary education; free university education; and free adult literacy programmes (http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1101/nigeria-constitutional-legal-foundation.html, accessed 5/4/2010).

In September 1999 President Obasanjo introduced Universal Basic Education (UBE) which also promised the Nigerian populace a free education through junior secondary school (grade nine). The implementation of this programme (Universal Basic Education) became successful through a loan from the World Bank. The result of this enriching endeavour, left Nigeria with 28 000 classrooms by the year 2000.
2.6 TYPES OF GOVERNANCE

Kanyane (2008:99, in Olivier & Kunhle, 2008) presents the following types of governance and their correspondent basic values in tabular form:

Table 2.1: Types of governance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Governance Structures</th>
<th>Corresponding Basic Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global governance</td>
<td>Independence, Uniformity, and Diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical governance</td>
<td>Legitimacy, Publicity, Impartiality, Accountability,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integrity and Responsiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic governance</td>
<td>Legitimacy, Accountability, Consultation, Participation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Representation, Equity and Justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-governance</td>
<td>Confidentiality, Privacy, Transparency, User-friendliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and Quality assurance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.6.1 Global governance

In terms of Kanyane’s (2008:98) assertion, global governance in the case of South Africa is somewhat different to that of the Norwegian public administration which is organised at three separate levels, being a state of 19 counties (“fylkeskommuner”) and 435 municipal corporations (“komuner”). The Norwegian counties and municipalities are exceptions to the general principle in the constitution, in that the executive powers are vested in the King that is the cabinet, based upon a special Municipal Corporation Act (“Kommunevolen”). Its parliamentary system is commonly known as Stortieget, which acts as a major force in administration matters, not merely through funding and status, but also through direct instruction. However, the county and local corporations are separate legal entities with administrations headed by directly-elected political bodies.

Finklestein (in Whitman, 2002:46) maintains that global governance is governing without sovereign authority, relationships that transcend national frontiers. According to Finklestein’s assertion, global governance does internationally what governments do at home.
In agreeing with Finklestein, Czempiel maintains that “governance” refers to the capacity to get things done without the legal competence to command that they be done. Where governments can distribute values authoritatively, governance can distribute them in a way that is not authoritative but equally effective (Whitman, 2002:46). In addition, Rosenau in Whitman (2002:46) indicates that systems of rule can be maintained and their controls successfully and consistently exerted even in the absence of established legal or political authority.

Whitman (2002:48) contends that global governance will be regarded as an aggregate form of the varieties of governance that come under examination within the context of international/world politics (that is, excluding matters such as “corporate governance”). On the same page, Whitman states that from the definition of global governance offered, in “our global neighborhood” indeed, in any plausible view, governance can be understood as global by way of the nature and sum of many governance systems, across sectors and at high and low levels. Furthermore, it can be understood in the sense that all of the world’s human systems can be regarded as interconnected. However patchy and incoherent in their entirety, global governance is an established fact of the human condition.

After having studied Rosenau’s contentions regarding the broad use of the term “global governance” and the related ambiguities, Finkelstein (1995:368) argues that global governance is any purposeful activity intended to control or influence someone else that either occurs in the arena occupied by nations or, occurring at other levels, projects influence into that arena.

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, presents global governance, or as it is sometimes called, world governance, as the political interaction of transnational actors aimed at solving problems that affect more than one state or region when there is no power of enforcing compliance. It is indicated that the question of world governance arises in the context of globalisation, and also that in responding to the acceleration of interdependences on a world scale, both human societies and between humankind and biosphere, world governance designates regulations intended for the global scale  (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_governance, accessed on 11/4/2009).
The context on which world governance is grounded, rests with those who believe that world architecture depends on establishing a system of world governance. However, the question, “what is the context for referring to world governance?” is currently becoming more complex than ever before. Whereas the process used to be about regulating and limiting the individual power of states to avoid disturbing or overturning the status quo, the issue for today’s world governance is to have collective influence on the world’s destiny by establishing a system for regulating the many interactions that lie beyond the province of state action. Finally, the political homogeneousation of the planet that has followed a world governance system that goes beyond market laissez-faire and the democratic peace originally formulated by Immanuel Kant, which constitutes a sort of geopolitical laissez-faire (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_Governance accessed on 11/4/2009).

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, presents the following world governance issues and five principles of governance:

- **Legitimacy of the exercise of power and its rooting**
  This first principle states that, “the exercise of power must be linked to a clearly expressed mandate from the people involved as to how they are to be governed; while persons placed in positions of authority must be deemed worthy of the confidence in them”. On the one hand, limitations on private freedoms have to be reduced to a minimum and clearly perceived as necessary for the commons; also, that organisations of society must be based on ethical principles that are recognised and respected.

- **Conformity with the democratic ideal and the principles of citizenship**
  This is the second principle that advocates the idea that “all individuals must feel free that they are part of a shared destiny, which excludes, for example, tyranny by the majority. Rights, power, and responsibility must be evenly balanced. In that regard no one can exercise power without being subjected to checks and balances.”

- **Competence and efficacy**
  In terms of this third principle, “The way that public or private institutions are set up, their organisational structures and the people working within them must all be reviewed to ensure that they remain pertinent, and that they have the necessary skills and capacity to assume the
responsible for responding to the needs of the society.” It is further stated in this third principle that, if there is no consistent, responsible, efficient, and legitimate form of political organisation of the world community, market principles will dominate international relations and produce anarchy and irresponsible world governance that fails to meet social needs and be consistently illegitimate from the political standpoint.

- Cooperation and partnership.

The fourth principle states that it is essential that everyone work together for the common good and that governance organise relationships and cooperation among various types of actors, whether public or private, the various levels of governance, and the various administrations, in accordance with procedures established by common agreement.

- Relationships linking the local and the global, and linking the various levels of governance.

The fifth principle states that the problem of linking the local, global and various levels of governance as part of the construction of a new world governance could be addressed on the following three levels:

- Linking up levels of governance
- Internal transformation of the state and evolution of its role.
- Construction of new mechanisms for coexistence between states and public institutions in general, for a better reflection of the actual links among societies.

In the work “The power and legitimacy of governance networks”, Slaughter argues that global governance is beyond people’s comprehension. It is governance through a collection of nation states via presidents, prime ministers, foreign ministers, and the United Nations. These include non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and corporations also take part in various ways. But a core part of infrastructure of global governance - typically overlooked or ignored - is a complex global web of government networks (Slaughter, http://www.princeton.edu/~Slaughter/articles/govtnetworks.pfd).

2.6.2 Ethical governance

Chapter ten (10) of the South African Constitution lists nine basic values and principles governing public administration, of which principle one refers to a high standard of
professional ethics, which must be promoted and maintained. All these form the basis of good
governance which is characterised by the following:

- Integrity, which is measured by the extent to which government officials carry out their
duties according to the rule of law and without favouritism.
- Responsiveness, which is measured by the ability of citizens to secure performance to
given standards from government officials or to obtain redress if these standards are not
met.
- Transparency, which is measured by the extent to which citizens are well informed about
the actions the respective departments in this case take and the rules governing those
actions (Kanyane, in Olivier & Kuhnle, 2008:100).

In line with Kanyane’s assertion, Lamond, in the work “Transparency and Ethical
Governance: Promoting Accountability in Australia”, maintains that good governance
requires that organisations discharge their functions in two fundamental respects, being:

- Performance which refers to an instance whereby the organisation uses its governance
arrangements to contribute to its overall performance and guarantees the delivery of
its goods and services.
- Conformance, whereby the organisation utilises its governance arrangements to
ensure that it meets mandatory legal, regulatory and (published) standards and
requirements of the law as well as community expectations of probity, accountability

Alongside performance and conformance, Lamond presents the following six foundation
principles underpinning public sector governance as per the Australian experience:

- *Accountability*, being the process whereby public sector organisations and individuals
within them are responsible for their decisions and actions and submit themselves to
appropriate external scrutiny. Lamond further asserts that accountability is best
achieved when parties have a sound understanding of those responsibilities, and
clearly defined roles within a robust management structure. In fact, accountability is
an obligation for a responsibility conferred. This responsibility, which encompasses a
range of concerns, such as values and ethics and effective and efficient implementation of programmes, entails a range of processes

- **Transparency/Openness**, which is required to ensure that stakeholders and citizens can have confidence in the decision-making processes and actions of public sector organisations, in the management of their activities; and in the individuals within them. Openness, through meaningful consultation with stakeholders and the communication of full, accurate and clear information, leads to timely and effective action that stands up to scrutiny.

- **Integrity**, which comprises both straightforward dealing and completeness, is based chiefly upon honesty and objectivity. Integrity anchors the high standards of propriety and probity in the stewardship of public funds and resources, and prudent ethical management of an organisation’s affairs. This principle is dependent on the effectiveness of the control framework, which is influenced by the relevant legislation (APS Values and Code of Conduct) and is ultimately determined by the personal standards and professionalism of the individuals within the organisation. Integrity is reflected both in the decision-making procedures and in the quality of its financial and performance reporting.

- **Stewardship** is where public officials exercise their responsibilities on behalf of the nation, whereby the resources that are held in trust are not accessible by private interests. Officials are therefore stewards of those powers and resources. It is imperative to govern public sector organisations so that their capacity to serve government and the public interest is maintained or improved over time. In the main this will include financial sustainability, the optimal management of resources and capabilities of staff, as well as less tangible factors, for example, maintaining trust in the organisation and/or the government as a whole.

- **Leadership**, on the basis of its central role in creating an entity’s overall framework and direction, and its capacity to serve as an exemplar of an entity’s values and ethos, is absolutely critical to achieving organisation-wide commitment to good governance and confidence of those outside who have dealings with the organisation.

- **Efficiency**, as defined in Lamond’s work, is the optimum use of resources to further the aims of the organisation based on commitment to evidence-based strategies for improvement. Efficiency thus requires objectivity and the applications of the merit principles. For instance, in conducting public business, including making public

Post (2002, in Agatiello, 2008:1133), holds the notion that generally there is no accepted definition of corporate responsibility, largely due to the tension between the specific and expanding responsibilities of the firm. On the same page Post presents qualitative questions that deal with how profit is made, distributed and recorded, permeating the values and standards of operation of the firm and filtering through its activity, from sourcing inputs to selecting modes of production to designing advertising. Post (2002) further indicates that that gives the firm the opportunity to showcase its legitimacy, in terms of authenticity which means, “We are who say we are”; accountability which means, “We do what we say we do”; and also integrity that means, “We deal with all stakeholders fairly”.

The alternative definition of corporate responsibility as quoted from Aaronson and Reeves (2002), refers to an ethical commitment to operate in an economically and environmentally sustainable manner while recognising the interests of stakeholders, a decision-making strategy linked to ethical values, compliance with legal requirements, and respect for people, communities, and the environment. Further, it asserts that a combined approach would consider it a line of business action in which companies conduct business responsibly by contributing to the economic health and sustainable development of the communities in which they operate, offer employees healthy, safe, and rewarding work conditions, supply quality, reliable products and services, are accountable to stakeholders, and provide a fair return to shareholders while fulfilling an expanded social mandate (Agatiello, 2008:1133).

2.6.3 Democratic governance
Kanyane (in Olivier & Kunhle, 2008:101), argues that participation is but another important social governance principle. According to Kanyane, the quality, relevance and effectiveness of social policy depend on ensuring wide participation throughout the policy cycle (from conception and implementation to evaluation). Kanyane continues to indicate that the most solid form of participation is the power to decide.

In cautioning the South African citizenry, Kanyane further argues that when resolving the problems related to participation, care should be exercised not to involve all stakeholders in
the decision-making process. To do so would cost time and eventually block the very
decision-making process. It is therefore apparent that an intelligent selection of relevant
stakeholders will possibly increase the legitimisation of the organisation and its organs.

Ntalaja (2004:2) asserts that democratic governance refers to the management of societal
affairs in accordance with the universal principles of democracy as a system of rule that
maximizes popular consent and participation, the legitimacy and accountability of rulers, and
the responsiveness of the latter to the expressed interests and needs of the public.

The following three major attributes of democratic governance have been identified on the
basis of the definition as provided in the preceding paragraph:

- **First**, democratic governance is both an end in itself and a means towards other ends.
  Ntalaja, (2004:2) contends that it is an end in itself as a moral imperative consistent
  with the permanent aspiration of human beings for freedom and for a better social and
  political order, one that is more humane and more or less egalitarian. It is, in other
  words, a fundamental human right as the realisation of the dignity and worth inherent
  in the human person, the empowerment of this person to satisfy his/her fundamental
  rights, and his/her participation in a political system likely to respect, protect and
  fulfil these rights.

- **Second**, democratic governance is never perfect, for it is a process rather than an end
  product. It is, all over the world, a continuous process of expanding the political space
  to ensure for everyone equal access to basic rights and liberties. In ancient Greece,
  slaves and women were not citizens and could therefore not take part in the political
  process. Also, in many ancient African societies, political decision making was the
  preserve of older men, while women and young people were excluded. The other
  assertion is that, in many parts of the world today, ethnic and racial minorities are still
discriminated against in respect of the enjoyment of their full citizenship rights. This
anomaly happens even where such rights are guaranteed in the national constitutions.
The poor and vulnerable groups may for a variety of reasons not be able to exercise
them fully (Ntalaja, 2004:2).

- **The third** attribute describes democratic governance in the context of a form of
  political practice based on a universal principle of rule of law, popular legitimacy,
participation and the accountability and alternation of rulers. With well-functioning institutions and representation mechanisms from the community to national and international levels, democratic governance should maximize popular consent and participation, the legitimacy and accountability of rulers, and better management of available resources to respond to the basic needs and aspirations of the population. It is in this instance that democratic governance is viewed primarily as a means towards other ends, being development and security (Ntalaja, 2004:2).

2.6.4 E-governance

According to Kroukamp (2005) and Chisenga (2004 in Mphidi), the apparent disparity (known as the digital divide) in access to information and communication technology systems (ICTS) which may result from the differences in class, race, age, culture, geography and other factors, can effectively deprive certain citizens from partaking in the global economy. They further assert that there is a dire need for governments around the world to bridge the digital divide. It is in this context that the use of the internet to capture and provide access to appropriate and relevant digital information produced by governments could also contribute towards bridging the digital divide (http://www.ais.up.za/digi/docs/mphidi-).

Kroukamp (2005) asserts that the idea of e-governance has changed the way in which governments communicate with one another and with their citizens. Kroukamp argues further that in the past communication used to be via public meetings, printed media, radio and television, but today it also happens via modern information communication technology, for example, via the internet and satellite. Tlagadi (2007, in Mphidi) indicates that e-governance involves new styles of leadership, new ways of debating and deciding policy and investment, new ways of accessing education, new ways of listening to citizens and new ways of organising and delivering information and services (http://www.ais.up.za/digi/docs/mphidi-).

Kroukamp (2005:53) argues that public organisations are there to ensure that government activities are executed effectively and efficiently, meaning to exercise control over society and also to manage its resources for social and economic development. Quoting Turner (1998:36), Kroukamp asserts that the concepts of governance and government are not synonymous, although both refer to purposive behaviour, to goal-oriented activities and systems of rule. In describing the two concepts, Kroukamp indicates that government relates to activities backed by formal authority to ensure the implementation of duly-constituted
policies, whereas governance refers to activities backed by shared goals that may or may not derive from legal or formally-prescribed responsibilities (Kroukamp, 2005:53-54).

In any developmental endeavour with specific reference to the emergence of e-governance, there have to be many potential pitfalls, showcasing fresh challenges that might surface (Kroukamp, 2005:55). In terms of Kroukamp’s (2005) presentation, the following are the pitfalls/challenges of e-governance.

- **Security.** It is imperative for governments to protect their information and systems from breaches of computer security that threaten not only the integrity and availability of services, but also the confidence of users and the general public in systems. Security in e-governance also includes protecting systems and data from hackers and viruses, ensuring the integrity of electronic records, preventing the interception and falsification of information and being able to control the authorisation, sharing and disclosure of information. In fighting all these, South Africa has enacted the Electronic Transaction Act of 2002, and the Interception and Monitoring Prohibition Act of 1992 (Kroukamp, 2005:56; Reylea, 2002:16).

- **Privacy.** Governments are sensitive to privacy. They put up centralised structures to protect the privacy of the citizen. However, e-governance continues to present new and evolving challenges. It is argued that the use of electronic databases to store information is rapidly eroding the concept of the individual’s right to privacy, as databases share and match personal details with ease. In addition to this, many e-government systems collect, store and use the personal details of those who use their services or visit their websites. In order to retain user trust and prevent fraudulent activities in respect of personal information, a government must ensure that the dissemination of sensitive personal information to unauthorised individuals or organisations is strictly prohibited (Jaeger et al. 2002:322, in Kroukamp, 2005:56).

- **The digital divide.** This refers to the disparity in access to e-governance which may be the result of the difference in class, race, culture, age, location or other factors that, “through the digital divide”, can effectively deprive certain citizens of their rights to hold such a franchise and that must be guarded against. Since the divide pertains to
the ability to access both services and content, it is imperative for the South African government, through its financial means, to bridge and eliminate the divide. (Stone, 2000:10; Van der Waldt, 2003:49 in Kroukamp, 2005:56).

- Economic disparities. In terms of the debates of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2003:4), the economically disadvantaged have the lowest levels of access to e-governance, yet often have high levels of interaction with government. It is further argued that in countries with relatively little money for government services and limited access to internet connections, economics will play a pivotal role in preventing people from using e-government. Norries (2001:92, in Kroukamp, 2005) asserts that even for wealthier nations, economic disparities can create gaps in e-government usage, much as the countries with the most severe income-based digital divide (the United States of America, Australia and South Africa alike) have a high overall income inequality.

- Education. The higher the level of education, the higher the level of internet consumption. It is contended that, at any level of income, individuals with better education have higher rates of internet usage than any other (Booz Allen Hamilton, 2002:87 in Kroukamp, 2005:57), while those with the lower levels of education tend to show the least interest in learning to use the internet or going online (cf Borins, 2001:12 in Kroukamp, 2005).

- Accessibility. Chapter two of the South African Constitution, subsection 20, indicates that no citizen may be deprived of citizenship. In line with subsection 20 of the Constitution, Kroukamp (2005) and the Department of Justice (2001:1) contend that it is the responsibility of government to ensure that all members of society are served equally irrespective of, for example, ethnicity, colour and disability. Furthermore, it is contended that, in service provisioning, government must also ensure that people with disabilities are taken into account, for example, when the e-governance infrastructure is being developed. This endeavour is yet another pitfall, as meeting the needs of people with disabilities presents particular challenges. Many of the changes that generally make it easier for non-disabled people to use computers can create barriers for people with disabilities.
Prioritisation. The democracy of South Africa inherited a number of social challenges such as housing and water provisioning for the indigent inhabitants against which long-term objectives must be weighed. The danger in embracing e-governance at the expense of more basic functions of government is also realised, hence a need for prioritisation (Van Rooyen et al., 2003:241, in Kroukamp, 2005:58).

Citizen awareness and confidence. Jaeger (2003:27 in Kroukamp, 2005:58) argues that the challenges involved in creating e-governance infrastructure are not just technological, but informing and educating the consumers of e-governance, and instilling confidence in using the system also forms part of the major challenges.

Lack of leadership and management. According to Accenture (2003, in Kroukamp, 2005:58), political leadership which lacks the necessary drive to effect change in the public sector poses the biggest obstacle to development. Governments that do not view e-governance as a priority pay little attention to ensuring that information technology (IT) policies and programmes are introduced to meet the needs of their citizens.

Bureaucratic government organisation. In most instances the strong and viable link is between government departments and its agencies, which makes it easier for information to flow between the government departments and agencies. While this relationship is enjoyed by the two, the citizens are more slowly served with e-governance and the developmental endeavours are delayed (Kroukamp, 2005:58).

Resistance to change. Van Rooyen et al. (2003:242, in Kroukamp, 2005), are of the opinion that many public officials feel comfortable with the old way of doing things. They fear the novelty of e-governance and as a result the development of government structures is compromised.

The table below as presented by Kettl (1990, in Riley, 2003:3), provides the characteristics of e-government and e-governance:
Table 2.2: The characteristics of E-Government and E-Governance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E-Government</th>
<th>E-Governance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>electronic service delivery</td>
<td>electronic consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electronic workflow</td>
<td>electronic controllership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electronic voting</td>
<td>electronic voting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electronic productivity</td>
<td>network societal guidance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Through *electronic service delivery* government can query, inform and transact the public over electronic networks. It is argued further that, since the public began to use the internet for leisure and business, governments have been progressively migrating their service delivery onto electronic platforms (Riley, 2003:19).

- Riley (2003:20) declares that *electronic workflow* relates to the kinds of templates that the public wants on internet to complete its transactions with government. They can also be the basis for automating the internet workflow that constitutes most of government “back office” activity, while at that time, this was being handled within the public service by attaching documents to e-mails for collegial circulation.

- Regarding *electro voting*, there is the potential for designing an effective ballot based on a template similar to an electronic form and choice options could be designed into such ballots so that only one alternative per category could be entered. However, the concerns about security, privacy and confidentiality are more worrisome that with most other electronic interventions (Riley, 2003:21).

- According to Riley’s (2003:22) assertion, *electronic productivity*, the rationale for e-government is better operations at lower cost “productivity”. The social need to ensure public health and safety, national security and crime control, economic prosperity and environmental sustainability, will all guarantee the presence of governments and their active involvement in people’s lives, whether visibly or behind the scenes.

- *Electronic engagement, as one of the characteristics of e-governance* refers to the possibilities for the public to engage in the process via electronic networks ranging all
the way from sending elected officials an e-mail to creating a distinct conference facility (e-mail box, document repository, chatroom, etc.) for each major policy initiative (whether a new policy, or changes in an existing policy). Furthermore, electronic citizen engagement is an area in which examples are so varied, and changing so quickly that any list of current practices would be out of date between the time it was compiled and the time it was published (Riley, 2003:22-23).

- Riley (2003:24) asserts that electronic consultation is that part of governance that refers to interaction between public servants and the citizenry and interest groups.

- *Electronic controllership*, according to Riley (2003:25), consists of protocols used to manage the cost, performance, and services of an organisation. Reylea (2005) argues that in electronic controllership the capability is placed on a network, thereby reflexively managing the network’s infrastructure and content. In this instance there are two aspects to successful controllership, both of which must be optimised and integrated to achieve full benefits, viz, hardware configuration, and software customisation. Speaking of capacity, Reylea, on the same page, submits that it should be standardised, while employee e-mail boxes should have similar storage space, all internet connections having the same band width, and attached documents all having the same byte limit on their size.

- *Networked societal guidance* refers to a situation where the concept of distribution of powers, between branches within a government, and between jurisdictions within a country, has gone part of the way in seeking to respond to a question that asks, “who watches the watchers, who governs the governors?” (Riley, 2003:26).

### 2.6.5 Corporate or collaborative governance

Corporate governance is described as a system through which companies are directed and controlled. More precisely, it is concerned with the structures and processes associated with management, decision making and control in organisations (Wixley & Everingham, 2002:1).

The following are further definitions of corporate governance as taken from some organisations:
Sinthumule (2005:7), in using the words of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 1997:7), sees corporate government as a system through which business organisations are directed and controlled. The other element of the definition as presented in Sinthumule (2005:7), indicates that the governance structures specify the rights and responsibilities among different participants in the corporation such as the boards, managers, shareholders and other stakeholders, and clearly spell out the rules and procedures for making decisions on corporate affairs. In addition, Sinthumule (2005), quoting Shleifer and Vishny (in King, 2003:8), views corporate governance as the concept that deals with ways through which the suppliers of finance to corporations assure themselves of getting a return on their investment.

Callahan (2007) holds the view that the rigid structure and authoritarian nature of public administration has an element of limiting the potential for meaningful participation and collaboration to take place and reinforcing the role of public administrators as expected. Further on the same page, Callahan (2007) postulates that the look and shape of government is changing character from the authoritative, bureaucratic model of command and control to horizontal networks of cooperation among public, private and non-profit organisations, which creates opportunities for citizens to play a significant role in shaping public policy and framing solutions.

2.7 SCHOOLS AS ORGANISATIONS

In defining an organisation, Handy and Aitken (1986:45, in Naidu et al. 2008), say an organisation is comprised of people who work together in different ways to meet shared goals. It is further deduced from the preceding assertion that organisations are structures that have the following two aspects: 1) a human dimension that refers to the interpersonal relations within an organisation; and 2) a task dimension that refers to the task related to activities of the people focusing on common goals. Handy and Aitken (1986), Mackenna (2000) and Mullins (1995) (in Naidu et al., 2008:75) assert that a formal organisation is a planned coordination of the activities of a group of people for the achievement of common and explicit goals.

According to Everard and Morris (1996:150 in Naidu et al., 2008:75), the following four interdependent elements constitute organisations:
• Structure: an organisation’s hierarchical chart, committees, departments, procedures, etc.
• People: teachers with their professionalism, knowledge, experience, skills and attitudes, pupils and non-teaching personnel.
• Technology: the plant and the processes associated with it; in the case of a school, the latter refers to the processes of education while the former refers to the classrooms, workshops, chalkboards and other related working tools.
• Culture, which relates to all the intangibles such as the organisation’s tone and value system, the standard by which merit is judged, and personal relations.

In adding to the definition of an organisation, Van der Westhuizen (2000:37, in Naidu et al., 2008:75) further postulates that an organisation is the framework within which human activities are directed and coordinated. It is a formal structure of authority that comes into being by grouping activities into departments and by arranging them in the order that would describe a school as an organisation, as “a collection of teachers, pupils, parents and non-teaching staff, working towards the common goal of ensuring that learners are provided with quality teaching and learning”.

Handy and Aitken (1986:45, in Naidu, et al., 2008), in supporting Van der Westhuizen’s view of the school as an organisation, argue that in most societies schools are the most important organisations that are geared towards young people and they consist of:

• Groups of people (educators, learners, principals, school management teams [SMTs], school governing bodies [SGBs] and parents),
• who work together in different ways (learning, teaching, managing, leading, and supporting)
• with a view to meeting shared goals (educating young people, providing teaching and learning).

2.7.1 Organisational structures within a school setting
Naidu et al. (2008:75) argue that it is imperative for every school to have structures and systems in place that help deliver quality education. This endeavour would assist in
identifying who is accountable for professional management and governance and also determine who will be held responsible for the assigned tasks.

Mothapo (2007:15), using Carnal’s words (1999:28), states that organisational structures allow managers to organise and deploy resources, make provision for job descriptions or activities to be well defined, and provide for clearly-outlined responsibilities and accountabilities. Added to that, organisations must ensure that decisions are communicated on time and effectively with a view to allowing for a proper flow of information. People should be influenced by organisational structures to really fulfil that sense of belonging, and identify themselves with the image of the organisation. Lastly, organisational structures must make provision for the establishment of people’s attitudes and behaviour which constitute the total corporate culture.

### 2.7.2 Forms of organisational structure

In terms of Handy and Aitken’s presentation (1986:47, in Naidu et al., 2007), there are two basic structures in organisations, namely *bureaucracy*, and *participation in organisation*.

On the same page they assert that in *bureaucracies*, each person is appointed to an office or position, which has clear tasks and which relates to other offices according to fixed rules, and procedures. Reporting structures and lines of accountability and responsibility are clearly set out. Work is done in uniform, no matter who holds the office. Usually, government offices are administered as bureaucracies. It is further argued that organisations often have hierarchical structures, where there are chains of command, and people are responsible to those above them. In this type of structure, the organisation is usually shown as an organogram that shows positions of people and their jobs, and lines showing who reports to whom.

*Bureaucracy*, as defined by Weber (in Guthrie & Reed, 1991:191), refers to an ideal design for organisational effectiveness and a rational system of organising human means to accomplish specific ends.

It is postulated that in many respects the basic organisational structure of the local schools system reflects a hierarchical arrangement in which:
- There is a relatively clear separation of authority relationships.
- There is a fixed division of labour.
- Professional personnel are selected on the basis of technical knowledge.
- There are implicit rules governing performance and,
- Personnel are separated from official property or the ownership of means of production.

All these characteristics put together define schools as a bureaucratic structure, while in reality, schools do not operate with the precise authority relationships depicted by the hierarchical structure in question. (Guthrie & Reed, 1991:191).

Owens (1995:44) states that the bureaucratic approach tends to emphasise the following five mechanisms in dealing with issues of controlling and coordinating the behaviour of people in the organisation:

- Maintain firm hierarchical control of authority and close supervision of those in the lower ranks. In this concept, the role of the administrator as inspector and evaluator is stressed.
- Establish and maintain vertical communication which will help to assure that good information will be transmitted to the decision makers and orders will be clearly and quickly transmitted down the line for implementation.
- Develop clear written rules and procedures to set standards and guide actions, which should include curriculum guides, policy handbooks, instructions, standard forms, duty rosters, rules and regulations, and standard operating procedures.
- Promulgate clear plans and schedules for participants to adhere to; these should include teachers’ lesson plans, bell schedules, lunch schedules, duty roosters, pull-out schedules, and many other related schedules.
- Add supervisory and administrative positions to the hierarchy of the organisation as necessary to meet problems that arise from changing conditions confronted by the organisation. An example provided would be “as district and schools grow in size, such positions as assistant principal, chairperson, director, and coordinator would appear”. As programmes become more complex, positions for specialists would also
appear and a few examples provided are director of special education, coordinator of drug-abuse programmes, school psychologist, and school social worker.

The second form is participation in organisations. According to Handy and Aitken (1986:48 in Naidu et al., 2007) organisations may have flat structures, where there are fewer layers of people, and broader job responsibilities. The flatter structure is said to allow for greater participation in decision making. More often, schools and education departments are hierarchical and bureaucratic. However, with the advent of the new dispensation, there are changes in legislation and policies that force schools to adopt flatter and more open structures in their organisation.

In line with the sentiments in the preceding paragraphs, Sergiovanni, Burlingame, Coombs, and Thurston (1999:122) point out that in many respects schools are organised and operated according to certain established principles of good management. With this type of setting, a division of labour exists and this allows for instructional and coordinative tasks to be allocated to specific roles. On the same page, Sergiovanni et al. (1999) postulate that roles are defined by job descriptions that are clearly linked to some overall conception of what the school wishes to accomplish, while certain guides, such as span of control and student:teacher ratio, have been accepted to help decide the number of teachers needed and how they should be assigned their tasks.

It is argued that roles are subdivided and specialists are appointed for some specific functions, while roles are ordered according to rank, with some enjoying more authority and privileges than others. This endeavour helps to ensure that those who are lower in the hierarchy will function in manners consistent with their job expectations and goals. Furthermore, the day-to-day decisions are routinised and controlled by establishing and monitoring a system of policies and rules. It is believed that this would in turn ensure more reliable behaviour in terms of goals. Finally, proper channels would be established and objectives would also be developed for handling disputes, allocating resources, and evaluating personnel (Sergiovanni et al., 1999:122).

2.7.3 Organisational culture or school culture
Ivancevich and Matteson (1996:81-82) quoting Schein, define organisational culture as a pattern of beliefs invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope
with the problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems. In encapsulating this definition, it is argued that culture involves assumptions, adaptations, perceptions and learning. Further contentions regarding organisational culture are presented (Walter Disney Hotel is given as an example “that organisational culture has three layers and each layer has its own elements”). Layer number one includes artifacts and creations that are visible but not interpretable. Listed as examples of this layer are annual reports, a newsletter, wall dividers between workers, and furnishings. Layer two comprises of values or the things that are important to people and as such are conscious, affective desires or wants. Layer three is said to be basic assumptions people make that guide their behaviour, and such are assumptions that tell individuals how to perceive, think about, and feel about work, performance goals, human relationships, and the performance of colleagues.

Likewise, Brevis, Vrba, and De Klerk (1997:269) contend that culture, also known as corporate culture, is comprised of the beliefs and values shared by the people in an organisation. In agreeing with Brevis et al. (1997), Handy and Aitken (1986:48, in Naidu et al., 2007) argue that different schools have different feels and each school has its own culture. In their view, culture tells one more about what people do in their daily lives, and how they make sense of what they do. This, among others, accounts for assemblies which refer to a situation whereby schools gather every morning and afternoon in a designated area before the start of the day’s activities and also before they disperse for home, ceremonies which include farewell parties, school uniforms and songs schools are identified with.

Culture as embedded in leadership influences how people deal with conflict and participation. Bush and Bell (2002:77), using Bond’s (1991) words, argue that the disturbance of interpersonal relations and group harmony through conflict can cause lasting animosity in Chinese culture. Hence the Chinese tend to avoid open confrontation and assertiveness. In the school or group context this is evidenced by teachers and principals tending to avoid open disagreement, with leaders’ view apparently being accepted (quoted from Walker, Bridges & Chan, 1996, in Bush & Bell, 2002).

Ivancevich and Matteson (1996:86) contend that organisational culture affects the organisation. This is drawn from the notion that since organisational culture involves shared
expectations, values and attitudes, it therefore exercises an influence on the individuals, groups, and organisational processes. Often educators and learners of a school adopt an attitude of reporting late for school and unfortunately that eventually becomes a culture of that particular school. In some cases, educators’ unions tend to neglect their responsibilities, arguing that they have rights which, in the main, contradict their professional obligations. History has proved that this has become more of a culture than an adherence to rights, and also that the code of conduct and the quality of education have been drastically devalued.

Talking about managers and organisational culture, Bounds, Dobbins and Fowler (1995:351) argue that since values, beliefs, and underlying assumptions are the ingredients of the culture that dictates the terms of the organisation’s conduct or behaviour, it is incumbent upon managers to ensure that only a positive and rewarding culture prevails for an organisation to succeed. Although it is acknowledged that managers do not have full control of their organisation’s culture, they are accountable at the end of the day. They, the “managers”, school principals and the management teams, should strive to create a culture that is facilitating in nature rather than a hindrance to success.

2.8 SCHOOL GOVERNANCE

Mashamaite (2005:6), quoting Potgieter et al. (1997:11) and Pretorius and Lemmer (1998:20), defines school governance as the formulation, adoption and implementation of policies that will ensure the smooth administering of schools and consequently ensure that learners benefit from the education phenomenon. Maile (2002:326), quoting Potgieter, Visser, Van der Bank, Mohata and Squelch (1997:11), defines school governance as an act of determining policy and rules by which a school is to be organised and controlled, including ensuring that such rules and policies are carried out effectively in terms of the law and the budget of the school.

A number of researchers in the United States (Carol et al., 1996; Danzberger et al., 1992; Goodman et al., 1997; Speer, 1998) have identified several characteristics in pursuance of the concept “effective school governance”, which include focusing on achievement and policy, effective management, development of conditions and structures that allow the head to manage, agreement on processes to evaluate the head, communication, trust and collaborative relationships with the head and among board members, communication with outside groups
and government, effective performance in policy making and financial management, evaluation and training, regular board meetings and long-term service of board members and head (McCormick, Barnett, Alavi, & Newcombe, 2006).

2.8.1 Democratic ethos and school governance
Turner and Hulme (1997:151) submit that a major obstacle to the effective performance of public bureaucracies in most developing countries is the excessive concentration of decision-making authority within central government. They further contend that the public sector institutions are commonly perceived to be both geographically and socially remote from the people, and make decisions without knowledge of or concern about actual problems and preferences. It is deduced that the popular remedy for the existing centralisation is decentralisation, which is said to be associated with inspiring concepts such as proximity, relevance, autonomy, participation, accountability and even democracy (Turner and Hulme, 1997:151).

Mncube and Harber (2009:33) contend that democratic school governance is a form of school-based management (SBM) and is regarded as the most radical form of educational decentralisation, which involves the transfer of power or decision making to the school level. In quoting Edge (2000) and Johnson (1994), Mncube and Harber (2009:33) define school-level governance as a form of decentralisation that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement and relies on the redistribution of decision-making authority to the school level as the primary means through which improvements might be stimulated and sustained.

The view in the preceding paragraph is supported by Johnson (1994), who presents New South Wales in Australia as an example where the control and responsibility of education has been transferred to the local level, arguing that the school is the key element of the education system, and that the needs of each school are best determined at local level, as each school can meet its distinctive needs. Added to all these, Johnson (1994) asserts that schools can meet their needs best where they are fundamentally self-determining, the role of the state being to support the schools (Mncube & Harber, 2009:36).
2.8.2 The typology or forms of decentralisation

Turner and Hulme (1997:152) present a definition of decentralization, agreed upon by most authors, that says, “decentralisation within the state involves a transfer of authority to perform some service to the public from an individual or an agency in central government to some other individual or agency that is closer to the public to be served; the basis for such transfer is often territorial, that is grounded in the desire to place authority at a lower level in a territorial hierarchy and thus geographically closer to service providers and clients” (Forms of decentralisation as provided by the United Educational Scientific, Cultural Organisation [UNESCO] (2007:12).

Table 2.3: Levels, forms and functions of decentralization (UNESCO)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>FORM</th>
<th>FUNCTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central government to provincial, state, regional or district offices</td>
<td>Deconcentration</td>
<td>Regional/district offices are in charge of functions that control personnel and financial management. The central government retains control of fiscal allocations and appointments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central government to municipal, country or district governments</td>
<td>Delegation and/or devolution</td>
<td>Management decisions, staff appointments and allocation of local education budget, central government retains accountability and controls transfers from national treasury.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From central government and regional/district offices to schools and communities</td>
<td>Devolution</td>
<td>Schools are responsible for routine administrative decisions and/or more substantial powers. These might include maintenance, staffing, school policy, development plans, curriculum choices, fund raising, and financial management. School or community-based structures might exercise power over some school and education decisions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Forms of decentralisation as presented by Turner and Hulme (1997:153) in support of the one in the preceding paragraph.

### Table 2.4: Forms of decentralization (Turner & Hulme, 1997:153)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NATURE OF DELEGATION</th>
<th>BASIS FOR DELEGATION (TERRITORIAL)</th>
<th>BASIS FOR DELEGATION (FUNCTIONAL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Within formal political structures</td>
<td>Devolution (political decentralisation, local governance, democratic decentralisation)</td>
<td>Interest group representation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within public administrative or parastatal structures</td>
<td>Deconcentration (administrative decentralisation, field administration)</td>
<td>Establishment of parastatals and quangos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From state to private sector</td>
<td>Privatisation of devolved functions (deregulation, contracting out, voucher schemes)</td>
<td>Privatisation of national functions (divertiture, deregulation, economic liberalisation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UNESCO (2007:2) defines deconcentration as the process through which the central Ministry of Education establishes field units, staffing them with its own officers. Turner and Hulme (1997:160-161) define deconcentration as the process whereby all developing countries operate administrative structures that delegate responsibilities for functions within specific territories to field level civil servants. Furthermore, they argue that it is noteworthy that while such systems decentralise decision-making and power from the headquarters of the administrative system, the delegation of power is to an official appointed by and accountable to the central government rather than to a representative of the local community who is responsible to that community.

In addition to the forms of decentralisation, UNESCO (2007) argues that delegation suggests stronger decision-making powers at local level; however, the power remains mainly with the central authority, who can withdraw it at any given time without resorting to legislation. Devolution is understood to be the transferring of decision-making authority to local levels, and powers are formally held at subnational or local levels. The devolution of power to subnational units of government is seen by many as the ideal form of decentralisation as it
combines the promise of local democracy with technical efficiency. Subnational governments include local governments, local authorities, districts councils, provincial governments and state governments.

2.8.3 Reasons for decentralisation
Daun (2007:28-29) provides the following as the reasons for decentralisation with the understanding that it would differ from one country to another.

- Economic system. This reason suggests that states have fewer resources than before, due first, to the economic recession of the 1970s and 1980s and second, to liberalisation and completion, and therefore try to make the education system cost effective and efficient (Hawkins, 2000; ILO, 1996). And, also in the South, decentralisation has often been part of or a corollary to structural adjustment programmes, and subsequent shrinking of the public sector (Reimers & Tiburico, 1993). Added to these, the inability of governments to finance the high or increasing cost of the education system (ILO, 1996), and the declining performance of the education system have been other explanations (Henig, 1993).

- Cultural factors. It has been submitted that in many countries there is a diversity of culture and centralised systems have tended to respond to them in a standardised manner (Beare and Boyd, 1993), while minority cultural demands have become more legitimate than ever before (Wilson, 1997). In the process, cultural shifts between generations have taken place in many countries. A culture of participation is emerging, making people demand direct influence over their own situation and in decisions affecting their situation (Gilbert, 2004; Inglehart, 1997; Norris & Inglehart, 2004). In support of this view, Bray (2003 in UNESCO, 2007:15), submits that cultural differences and linguistic pluralism are those reasons that relate to the way countries ensure that education is relevant to the local context.

On second thoughts, it is asserted that it might advocate centralisation on the grounds that it sets standards in respect of central elements in the curriculum and instruction for the purpose of achieving intra-national diversity.
• Weakening legitimacy of the state/public sector turns out to be the other reason noticed by researchers (Slater, 1993; Weiler, 1993), and some of them are noticing a combination of centralisation and decentralisation as attempts by the central state to increase its legitimacy by neutralising or “atomising” conflicts in society and mobilising more resources from society (McGinn & Pereira, 1992; Weiler, 1993).

• State overload and the increasing complexity of society and therefore, problems of steering as well, have been cited as other reasons (Johnson, 1987; Pierre, 2000).

• Globalisation and/or international pressure refers to an increasing tendency to borrow and imitate educational models for the sake of modernisation, improved competitiveness or both, or because of pressure on international bodies (Crossley & Watson, 2003; Dale, 1999, 2000; Steiner-Khamsi, 2004).

• UNESCO (2007:15) submits that increased efficiency as one of the reasons for decentralisation refers to the way a country uses its education resources, and bureaucrats often emphasise reasons of efficiency in advocating centralisation and/or decentralisation; whereby administrative reform to facilitate operations is introduced. This endeavour would suggest that by moving decision-making to local level, the sector alleviates problems of wastage and mismanagement, and also promotes efficiency because it eliminates certain procedures, and thus motivates officers to be more productive.

• Redistribution of political power refers to the way in which a country distributes authority in respect of decision-making. It is thought that decentralising education is a means of establishing institutional legitimacy because it distributes power, giving local communities a greater role in management. This view is an attempt for administration and accountability to improve schools because they will be in a better position to respond to parents and to the local community. In this endeavour political motivation leads those in power to include or exclude certain groups from the decision-making processes (UNESCO, 2007:15).

• Finance. This reason refers to how a country raises money for education. In some countries it is expected that decentralisation will generate extra revenue because it
takes advantage of local taxes, reduces operating costs, and shifts some of the financial burden to regional and local governments, community organisations and parents. Bray (2003, in UNESCO, 2007:15) asserts that it is noteworthy that financial stringency should not be a country’s primary reason; in fact, sometimes central governments try to abdicate responsibilities to lower tiers or non-government bodies.

- Another reason for decentralisation as presented by UNESCO (2007:15) is educational improvement that relates to the way in which teaching and learning is affected. This rationale argues that decentralisation improves the quality of teaching and learning in that it locates relevant decisions close to the point where they are carried out.

2.9 EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

The principles of management date as far back as 1911 when Frederick Winslow Taylor, passionately known as the father of the scientific management movement, offered four principles that formed the basis of his science of work and organisations, namely, to replace intuitive methods of doing the work of the organisation with a scientific method based on observation and analysis to obtain the best cost benefit ratio; to select the best person for the job scientifically and train this person thoroughly in the tasks and procedures to be followed; to cooperate heartily with the person to ensure, through monitoring and close supervision, and incentive systems that the work is being done according to established standards and procedures; and to divide the work of managers and workers so that managers assume responsibility for planning and preparing work and for supervising. This had an impact on organisations and management in education and has since been reviewed to suit the current situation (Sergiovanni et al., 1999:122).

Likewise, Brevis et al. (1997) indicate that despite all the ideologies regarding management functions, the proponents of the school of thought of management agree that planning or decision making; coordinating as part of organising; leading or directing; and controlling are the core functions of management. There are other two management functions which form part of the generic functions of public administration without which organisations will not survive, and which are financing and staffing (Cloete, 1989:139).
Brevis *et al.* (1997:9) argue that the chemistry that makes up management as a concept is the coordination of activities, the deployment of resources or inputs, in such a manner that the goals of the organisation are achieved as productively as possible. They present planning as the first management function that determines the mission and goals of the organization. This process involves the identification of ways and means of attaining goals and the resources needed for the task. One of the goals to be attained after the new dispensation regarding education in South Africa was the transformation of the system. The only workable means was to pass Acts (The South African Constitution, 108 of 1996; the South African Schools Act, No. 27 of 1996, as amended) that would support one another in addressing the problems at hand. In ensuring that quality education is provided to the society, the State must dream about having better facilities, “accounting for buildings and grounds” well-trained and informed educators who are lifelong researchers, better curricula, and a cultivated, conducive environment to promote both the culture of learning and teaching through acceptable means of discipline.

The second step in the management process as articulated by Brevis *et al.* is organising, which relates to the practical allocation of human and physical resources to relevant departments. Cloete (1986:78) agrees with Brevis *et al.* (1997:11) and contends that organising consists of grouping people (individuals or as groups) in an orderly pattern so that everything they do is aimed at achieving predetermined objectives. From the foregoing assertions, it should be noted that there is more than one element brought together to complete the whole which is the organisation. Reference can also be made to two distinct elements, namely the employee and the employer who enter into a mutual agreement that, at the end of their endeavour, they will both benefit while motivated to work together and produce more. In a school context, the school management team will allocate the well-qualified Mathematics and Science educators to teach and direct the discipline with the sole intention of producing quality outcomes at the end of the day. In the main, the organisational process should conform to the tune of the recruitment and selection processes as directed by the Employment of Educators Act and other related pieces of legislation.

In an effort to make sense of the concept “leading”, Brevis *et al.* (1997:11) are of the opinion that it refers to directing the human resources of the organisation and motivating them in such a way that their actions agree with previously-stated goals and plans. In conforming to the principles of cooperative governance, managers should not perceive the organisation as
“them”, referring to “them” as the managers and “they” as superiors, equals, and subordinates, but should strive to work together as a collective with a view to attaining the goals of the organisation (Brevis et al. 1997:11).

Furthermore, “leading” in an organisational context refers to making use of influence and power to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals, communicating goals through the organisation and motivating departments and individuals to perform as well as they possibly can (Brevis, 1997:11). From the foregoing meanings of “leading”, it is noted that motivation and communication are prime factors in management. Likewise, Ivancevich (1998:310) adds that motivation is the set of attitudes and values that predisposes a person to act in a specific goal-directed manner, while Middlemist and Hitt’s (1988:145) definition of motivation points to the forces acting on and coming from a person that account, in part, for the purposeful direction of one’s efforts toward the achievement of specific goals. Therefore, motivation as a psychological concept plays a pivotal role since it bears both the negative and positive effects of the productivity or performance of the organisation and the total workforce.

The fourth management principle as per the prescripts of Brevis et al. (1997:12) is control, which calls for managers to constantly ensure that the organisation is on its toes, to attain the intended goals. It is also emphasised that control aims at checking whether employees’ performance of actions conform to plans to attain the predetermined goals. It is also intended to enable management, through proper procedures and systems, to identify and rectify any deviations from the plans, and to take into account factors which might oblige them to review the existing goals and objectives.

In corroborating with Brevis et al. (1997), Cloete (1986) speaks of control and rendering accounts, whereby various forms of control measures are enumerated. Internal control is emphasised, which is said to form part of the task of political office bearers who are in charge of executive institutions and the officials attached to public institutions. The contextual meaning of control as espoused by Cloete, refers to the demarcation of work environments, physical environments or other environments within which the functionaries have to operate, pointing the way (by the exercise of authority through example and leadership) so that the functionaries will individually and collectively pursue their respective goals.
This also counts for education management where schools are controlled through Acts enforced by the Provincial Education Department as mandated by the National Education Department. This is evidenced by the visits of government officials from the province to inspect and investigate whether or not matters pertaining to education are being carried out as per the predetermined goals. The books of the schools are audited with a view to verifying the correctness and compliance with the demands of the Public Finance Management Act and other related financial policies, and also to account for the actions as prescribed by the law (Cloete, 1986:181-187).

Similarly, Naidu, Joubert, Mestry, Mosoge and Ngcobo (2008:5) quoting Glater (1979:16), argue that management is the internal operation of an institution that involves dealing with the systems, structures and culture of a school for effective and smooth day-to-day operation. Furthermore, Naidu et al. (2008:5) quote Bush’s (2003:4) definition of education management in terms of educational operations, in which case the purpose of management in all areas of the school is to enable the creation and support of conditions under which high quality teaching and learning can take place (The Department of Education, 1996). All managers and leaders of schools, like all other employees in the public sector, are bound to ensure effective and efficient service delivery to their clientele (parents and learners) based on the values of the country.

2.10 EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE

Maxcy (1995:105) argues that educational leadership has never had a single definition, nor does it attach itself neatly and unambiguously to social arrangements such as schools. However, schools have both a developmental and egalitarian purpose. It is in this case where leadership poses a particular problem for free democratic societies. Maxcy (1995:105) points out, furthermore, that unlike totalitarian regimes in which citizens have no say as to who their leaders shall be, democracies require good leadership to grow from public selection processes.

The American republic was established to give the citizens the right to choose their leaders. The nature of that leadership became focal. However, although a democracy allowed them to choose their leaders on the basis of certain criteria (campaign promises, political platforms, voting records, experience, moral character, and decision-making ability - all these play a role
in their choices), their freedom to choose has not always resulted in the best type of leadership (Maxcy, 2007:105).

Aesthetic leadership in terms of Maxcy (2007:107) must become democratic in nature, while the democratic ethos commands appeal for a full and free flow of information and also for the open discussion of issues. It is in this context that, rather than being trained in particular narrow disciplines, educational leadership in schools must be redesigned and moved to teachers, parents, and students (Maxcy, 2007:108).

Northouse (2007:3) defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. In addition to this definition, Northouse (2007:3) presents the following components of leadership:

- Defining leadership as a process means that it is not a trait or characteristic that resides in the leader but a transactional event that occurs between the leader and his or her followers. Process implies that a leader affects and is also affected by the followers, and also emphasises that leadership is not a linear, one way event but rather an interactive event.
- Leadership involves influence in that it is concerned with how the leader affects followers.
- Leadership occurs in groups. Groups are the context in which leadership takes place. Leadership involves influencing a group of individuals who have a common purpose, be it a small task group, a community group, or a large group encompassing an entire organisation.
- Leadership includes attention to goal; this means that leadership has to do with directing a group of individuals toward accomplishing some task or end. Furthermore, leaders direct their energy towards individuals who are trying to achieve something together. Therefore leadership occurs and has effects in contexts where individuals are moving toward a goal.
2.10.1 Functions of management and leadership model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>LEADERSHIP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Produce order and consistency</strong></td>
<td><strong>Produce change and movement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establish agendas</td>
<td>Create vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set timetables</td>
<td>Clarify big picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allocate resources</td>
<td>Set strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organising staff</strong></td>
<td><strong>Aligning staff</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides structure</td>
<td>Communicate goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes job placements</td>
<td>Seek commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishes rules and procedures</td>
<td>Build teams and coalitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Controlling and problem solving</strong></td>
<td><strong>Motivating and Inspiring</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop incentives</td>
<td>Inspire and energize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generate creative solutions</td>
<td>Empower subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take corrective action</td>
<td>Satisfy unmet needs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.1 How leadership differs from management

According to Brundrett, Burton and Smith (2003:5), powerful global and international trends in education policy are creating leadership contexts that are increasingly alike, namely school-based management, outcomes-oriented curricula, market forces and competition. A need to forge united school communities and a focus on standards and accountability are commonplace environments within which schools are expected to function.

In referring to the principles of gender in educational leadership, Brundrett et al. (2003:36) using Coleman’s (2002) work, argue that most leadership positions in education and elsewhere are held by men. Even though the proposition of women managers and leaders is gradually increasing as a result of the equal opportunity legislation of the late twentieth century, there has been no radical change. England and Wales are cited as examples. In addition, Brundrett et al. (2003:37) submit that leadership is a gendered concept in that in a wide variety of cultural contexts, leadership continues to be identified with the male. Even
though women occupy positions of leadership responsibility, this tendency to assume that the rightful leader is a male continues to exist.

Educational leadership put in other contexts by Naidu et al. (2008:6) is comprised of the ability to understand emerging trends in education and to guide a school through various challenges by achieving a vision based on shared values.

2.10.2 The value system and commitment to service delivery in a school context

Naidu et al. (2008:7) argue that leadership and management are not and cannot be neutral in terms of values or outcomes. It is in this instance that values underpin the organisational behaviour of an institution. It is essential to understand that while each school and each person in the school may have a different value system, and while values are fluid and flexible, there are certain values enshrined in the South African Constitution which purport to inform the education policy.

The following are the values that should pervade each school in the country:

- Social justice and equity

In a society, who ensures that there are equal opportunities for all the people? These refer to opportunities of accessing education, of entering the economic market and other opportunities in one’s life. Social institutions like schools need to ensure that no one is discriminated against. This seems not be an easy task for one to execute for various reasons, since it means that between any two persons who fulfil the same requirements, there must not be any bias or favouritism. The fundamental question that needs to be answered is who will exactly define such requirements? The ideal is also in conflict to some degree with the concept of free market when citing education as an example. In this context, no one should be deprived of access to education on economic grounds, for example access to private schools for those who can pay for it, as opposed to those who cannot afford it. This in itself is a challenge that seeks to answer the question as to where the limits to equity and social justice are.

Following on the arguments raised in the preceding paragraph, Fiske and Ladd (2004:5-7) present three set of standards of racial equity in education, namely, equal treatment, equal educational opportunity, and educational adequacy. They argue that equal treatment which can also be described as “race blindness” denotes that no one should be treated differently
simply because of his or her race. In addition, they purport that a racially equitable education system would be one in which race played no explicit role in the decisions made by any of its officials, and thus equal treatment would rule out racially discriminatory school admission policies, thereby requiring that school funding formulas should not make a distinction between schools on the basis of race.

Consistent with Rawl’s principle that there should be “fair equality of opportunity” for social and economic advancement, likewise, Fiske and Ladd (2004:7) submit that equal educational opportunity being a broader standard expands the concept of equal treatment to include the potential for attainment. An example of this would be the South African experience of the introduction and implementation of outcomes-based education and the National Curriculum Statement of 2005. Fiske and Ladd (2004) postulate that a uniform curriculum for all schools would be inequitable if educators in schools serving black students were less qualified to implement it effectively than were the educators serving in white schools. To balance the inequalities realised, in a more general sense, the standard requires that the principle of affirmative or positive action should be employed forthwith.

The education adequacy which is sometimes referred to as the criterion of adequacy is known to be shifting the attention to educational outcomes and to the minimum acceptable or adequate level of education. It is argued that for as long as all schools are providing such an education, under the standard it would not be inequitable for some schools to surpass this level. Further than that, there would be challenges to define the threshold level of adequate education. The big question that needs an honest answer would be: adequate for what? The answer to this fundamental question lies in the Rawlsian concept of primary goods and the notion that every student should attain a minimum set of educational outcomes connected to his or her long-term life chances. Added to this is the philosophy of Amy Gutmann’s concept of democratic threshold that emphasises the view that the primary role of education is to promote a democratic society, characterised by deliberative and collective decision making, and hence the threshold is the level at which a person has the ability to participate effectively in the democratic process (Fiske & Ladd, 2004:9).

The utterances of the then South African president, Verwoerd, who argued in his speech in 1953 that black people were not expected to advance beyond the level of a labourer in terms of appointment, promoted the notion of social injustice and inequities within the education
system of the time. This hypothetical statement was made in support of the inadequate level of education that was architectured for black people (Fiske & Ladd, 2004:9). This came to public notice again during the implementation of outcomes-based education when educators were labelled “under-qualified” for the first time in their careers. In this instance the distinction between the educators’ qualifications became the debate in all government circles. The victims of the circumstances were the Primary Teacher’s Certificate holders who were sent to universities to improve their qualifications. The ironic part of the whole exercise was that public money was spent on educators, the majority of whom could not complete the new qualification, and whose impact after having attained the qualification was not noticed and monitored, and also many of whom were left with approximately less than five years to retirement. This represented a serious lack of value for money on the part of government.

Contrary to the preceding paragraph, the current talk of adequate and inadequate delivery of quality education is among educators who received their professional training from the training colleges and those who graduated from Universities. The emphasis is on who could present a lesson better and more effectively in practical terms. “A hypothetical statement is that a highly qualified educator would do better than a lower qualified educator.”

The South African Education system/s prior to 1994 under the apartheid regime promoted inequities to the extent that public money was expended to perpetuate racial discrimination through a number of education systems within provinces. It was in these provinces that inequities in terms of resource provisioning was experienced. Davies (1999:16) holds the view that intraprovincial equity remedied the situation in that resources were now channelled to the areas which were previously disadvantaged. In support of his statement, Davies goes on to indicate that, “indeed, the recently published National Norms and Standards for School Funding (1998) specifically refers to the poorest of the poor and purposively targets historically deprived groups as primary recipients of state funding within the school system”. Furthermore, Davies indicates that, in the education context, some geographic areas and communities have better and more schools than adjacent geographic areas and communities and this is the situation which will probably continue for some years (Davies, 1999:16). Contrary to the whole notion of redressing the past, the South African Education system is promoting inequities through the public and private schools it maintains. This can be seen through the comprehension of English as a language and its usage by learners in private school in comparison with those in public schools, especially in deep rural areas.
Equality

Quoted from the Concise Oxford Dictionary (Ninth edition, 1995:456-457), the concept “equality” refers to a state of being equal, while equity refers first to fairness, and second, to the application of general principles of justice to correct or supplement the law. Likewise, Secada, in his article “Educational equity versus equality of education”, talks of the alternative conception that poses some interesting and thoughtful new ideas on how education could be made fair for all. Arguably, Secada indicates that equity is not synonymous with equality, and, instead of striving for equality among groups of people, rather works towards equitable inequalities that reflect the needs and strengths of various groups (http://mste.illinois.edu/hill/papers/equity.html).

Chapter two of the Constitution, section nine, subsection two, firmly emphasises the right to equality, in which the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms are included. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures, designed to protect or advance persons or categories of persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination, may be taken. Pieces of legislation, Acts of parliament, were enacted with a view to promoting equality. Among others, the Employment Equity Act, Act No. 55 of 1998 is one that ensures that affirmative action in the workplace takes place without compromise.

Davies (1999:17) emphasises that the Act makes provision for the conscious and deliberate advancement of what it describes as designated groups, referring to women, the physically disabled and black persons, the latter group including African, Coloured and Indian persons. However, in the education setting, most top positions in schools are still occupied by male principals. Chairpersons of school governing bodies are also predominantly male persons. This anomaly exists to the detriment of the intents of the Act.

Non-racialism and non-sexism

Racism and sexism constitute elements of favouritism or bias on the grounds of race or gender. Be that as it may, its negation, “non-racialism and non-sexism” would be special cases of social justice and equity. Secada argues along the lines of groupings, in which case, race and sex or gender are the examples, even in the educational context (within the school and its administration), in which their meanings are well understood. He goes on to justify his argument, saying that students must be dealt with on an individual level. However, it is an
unfortunate situation that human beings are creatures of bias, and certain inequalities are bound to exist. In pursuance of his argument, Secada (quoting Volmink, 1994:51) gives an example of mathematics being the sole creature of a few, singularly brilliant white males. In contrast to Secada’s view, the South African government stands tall in appointing black women in ministerial positions and other equivalent positions.

- Ubuntu or human dignity
In the African context, the concept “ubuntu” is frequently given as the ultimate source or motivation of social justice and equity as desirable values. Based on the understanding that motho ke motho ka batho (a human being is a human being through other human beings), ubuntu naturally opposes a common western approach that is strongly attached to individualism, that is, an approach that values the individual more than the social group, be it a family or a larger community. Adherence to the ubuntu principle can also help to overcome the effects of individuals thriving to the detriment of other individuals. It may, however, also lead to some group egoism or tribalism where social justice, attained within a group, is not realised between different groups or communities in a society or among societies on a global scale. This is evidenced by xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals in South African communities as well as within schools.

In expanding the notion of ubuntu as a philosophy, Broodryk (2002:44) emphatically states that humanness, which is synonymous with ubuntu, is the basic point of departure for one to understand the concept “ubuntu”. In conforming to the principles of Ubuntu, it is imperative that a conducive environment (being in a school setting or community) should be cultivated to allow for empathy and equality to prevail. In this context, officials at the districts, circuits, educators and learners alike, notwithstanding other stakeholders, should treat one another as humanely as possible.

Dignity, as enshrined in the Constitution of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996), is understood to be the fundamental or basic right of human beings. In this context, social justice is not inflicted by lack of fairness, through which someone suffers from discrimination (either financial or physical damage), but, can also happen where the dignity of a human being is not acknowledged or denied. This is anchored by Section ten of the Constitution that says, “everyone has inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected”. In honour of this principle, the South African government established schools for
physically challenged persons in which case Bana ba Thari in Mankweng Circuit, and Grace and Hope in Polokwane Circuit are typical examples.

- **Rule of law**

In situations where social affairs are taking place in an orderly manner, that is, being ruled by some form of law, fairly so, the outcome of such interactions would not be dependent on someone’s good will or mercy, but would be expressed in the form of the rights and obligations of the individuals and the society. Acceptance of this rule of law is a social contract which allows individuals to interact with society around them, while countries would interact socially, politically and economically in a well-defined way.

Likewise, schools as social organisations, would conform to the rule of law as set out by the Constitution as backed up by pieces of legislation enacted, as well as education policies. Section 23(1) states that everyone has the right to fair labour practices. (2a) prescribes that every worker has the right to form and join a trade union (b) and also to participate in activities and programmes of an employee organisation and above all, to strike (c). These are a synopsis of the Labour Relations Act, Act No. 66 of 1995. Over and above the Labour Relations Act, government has enacted the Employment of Educators Act, Act No.76 of 1998 with a view to providing for the employment of educators by the state, and the regulation of the conditions of service, discipline, retirement and discharge of educators and connected matters.

The South African Schools Act, Act no. 84 of 1996, Chapter 2 (3.1) and other applicable provincial laws, mandate parents to force their children to attend a school especially from the age of seven to fifteen. This mandatory practice should be monitored from the first to the last day of the school year. More often than not, this noble notion is failed by the rights accorded to the educators by the Labour Relations Act, and the Constitution, in particular the right to strike.

In an attempt to pursue quality education, government introduced the National Policy on Whole School Evaluation upon which quality assurance in schools is based. The aims of the policy in question are to moderate externally, on a sampling basis, the results of self-evaluation carried out by the schools; to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of the national goals, using national criteria; and to increase the level of accountability within the
education system, just to mention a few (Government Gazette vol.433, no. 22512 of July 2001).

Section 16 (1) of the South African Schools Act describes a governing body as a statutory body of people who are democratically elected to effectively and efficiently govern a school. Being a statutory body means that a governing body is set up through an Act of Parliament, being precisely the South African Schools Act, Act no.84 of 1996.

- Accountability

A society delegates certain functions to individuals, for example, education to teachers/educators, law enforcement to the police, et cetera. In that sense, in every work environment there are various levels of delegation within a hierarchy, for example, a senior and those who report to him or her. Such a delegation of power is usually anchored by some degree of accountability. Therefore, whoever functions in such a social system needs to be acquainted with the basic understanding that authority goes with responsibility and answerability to avoid abuse of power, or even promote an element of neglect to the detriment of efficient service delivery. Accountability defined within the context of performance management, means that managers are held responsible for carrying out a defined set of duties or tasks, and conforming with rules and standards applicable to their post (Pauw, Woods, Van der Linde, Fourie & Visser, 2002:136).

In the context of a school, principals or head masters, their deputies and heads of department all render a management function at different levels. Since all the role players in a school setting are government employees, they are bound to report and answer for their actions for which they are rewarded in the form of a salary and may further be rewarded for good performance or even suffer the consequences of inadequate performance. The worst scenario in this instance is that the manager of an organisation unit (school principal) may be held accountable for the actions of subordinate staff (Pauw et al., 2002:136).

Naidu et al. (2008:41) agree with the assertion by Pauw et al. and present another form of accountability, “Bureaucratic accountability”, which emanates from the contractual relationship between the educator and the employer. It is the same contract that sets the tone for the educator as an employee to offer his or her labour to the employer who will in return offer the employee certain benefits such as a salary. To ensure that compliance with the
contractual obligations are met, it may be advisable for the employer to devise some means of ensuring that the employee performs as agreed.

- **Open society**

The preamble of the South African Constitution lays the foundation for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by the law. Over the centuries, societies have mostly been closed towards social mobility. For example, in South Africa one would find the so-called elite. The majority of these were whites and a few of the educated blacks. Then followed the middle class and in a third strata were the poorest of the poor or the social outcasts, to say the least. Ever since the age of enlightenment and the socio-political changes brought about with time, societies have turned away from the concept of closed societies and embraced the paradigm shift of openness. Broodryk (2005:65) compares and contrasts closed and open societies in presenting that in the closed society individuals care for themselves firstly. An atmosphere of coldness and secrecy prevails while in an open society there is intense care for others in the group and life is characterised by openness, transparency and warmth which is the ideal for a happy society.

On page 69, Broodryk (2005) quoting Khoza (1994:89), presents a typical example of individualism as opposed to collectivism where he says, “the world has experienced the failure of reckless individualism, influencing a movement towards traditional values. Brash competitiveness, as experienced in the West, is morbid”. Even in a postgraduate class situation, where participants would benefit more by sharing, the tendency to shine in class is overwhelming. Broodryk closes his argument by saying that in Africa cooperation is preferred to competition, not undermining the spirit of competition, but because it is believed that institutions are better served by interdependence in a cooperative spirit.

Parallel to the scenario in the preceding paragraph, one would express the presence of a similar situation where schools in Mankweng and Polokwane Circuits, instead of working together with a view to producing quality results in Maths and Science, tend to compete for awards and praise. It is therefore imperative for the District to deal with the situation through implementing cooperative governance within schools, and also by encouraging the spirit of clusters. This would cultivate a conducive environment for effective communication between the feeder and the fed schools.
• Reconciliation

Whenever people live together in a society, there will be conflicting interests. Usually in the process of sorting out such conflicting interests, people may in one way or another hurt, insult or disadvantage each other. In order to reestablish a balance of good relationships, social peace, and prosperity, it is imperative for individuals or groups within a society to reconcile with each other. South Africa found a formal way after the end of apartheid in the form of the “truth and reconciliation” commission as the best approach to achieve such processes of reconciliation. But, apart from such ways of reconciliation, a healthy society needs mechanisms for effecting reconciliation between its members. Without doubt, one of the goals of education should be to enhance the knowledge of members of the society regarding such processes.

In the same spirit as the preceding paragraph, the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI), after much deliberation and robust debate, presented the five principles, namely “non-racism, non-sexism, unity, democracy, and historical redress” on which the new education was to be based (NEPI, 1992:3). This process was meant to reconcile the fragmented education system which in terms of the objectives of the national party was segregated, differentiated, and unequal for different racial groups, and with political control over all education in the interests of Afrikanerdom (NEPI, 1992:6).

• Respect

It is contended that in the relationship between people, respect is perceived to be a very important ingredient. While it may not always be possible to enforce a certain level of respect, at least without compromising other more fundamental rights, one can attach an important role to respect as a value, meaning that usually things would go smoother if people respected one another. Likewise, (Broodryk, 2002:54) indicates that respect is an important concept in the Ubuntu lifestyle, and it is related to discipline, law and order.

Unpacking the concept “respect” further, Broodryk quoting Mdluli (1987:67), argues that respect is regarded as the most central theme of the Ubuntu world view which embraces a number of customary rules that govern relationships at different levels of society. Respect stipulates the authority of elders over the younger people, parents over children, leaders over followers, and traditionally men enjoy respect over women. This practice also applies in a
school environment where the school principal enjoys respect over his or her subordinates according to their levels of operation, and also the learners and stakeholders alike.

- Democracy

The concept “democracy” as a form of political order has had a great comeback since the beginning of modern society. While it has become the basis for the social contract between people of many nations around the globe, it has also become a general value surpassing the sphere of the purely political. Included in the concept “democracy” are ideas such as participatory governance, meaning that those who are under the rule of some kind of governance should have a say in the constitution of such governance. The democracy referred to comes with rights, principles and values as enshrined in the South African Constitution Act (Act No. 108 of 1996).

Education is but one of those fundamental rights that are recognised by the Constitution. Chapter two, on the Bill of Rights, emphatically states that “everyone has the right to basic education” and it rests upon the government through its reasonable means to ensure that schools are built, and human and physical resources are provided and taken care of. Since South Africa is very diverse in nature, the Constitution has taken note of that, and made provision to ensure that everyone is taught in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. To ensure optimal implementation of this right, the state must consider all reasonable education alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account equity, practicability and the need to redress the racially discriminatory laws and practices of the past.

It is therefore imperative for school principals to examine the values as presented in the preceding paragraph and understand how they can be embraced in the culture of the school, since they reflect the fundamental principles that underpin transformation and democracy. The historical background of the school should be taken into account as it forms the basis of the culture of the school with a view to matching these values (Naidu et al., 2008:8).

On the same page, Naidu et al. (2008) further contend that the Department of Education is a Public Service Department and for that reason, it has to follow the principles of the government’s “Batho Pele” guidelines (which translate into “People first”), for service delivery in the country. There has to be a shift in focus, perceiving schools as primarily
serving the state, as they will be serving parents and learners. It is against this background that compliance with that principle is non-negotiable.

The following eight points against which school principals need to weigh their own service delivery are presented:

- **Consultation**

Organisations that are participatory and democratic in the ethos of their governance will strive to make decisions based upon the input of all those affected by such decisions. A process of consultation prior to decisions being taken is essential, especially in situations of change. A lack of consultation or a form that does not take the contribution of various stakeholders into consideration will normally lead to unhappiness on the ground, which often translates into ineffective forms of governance.

The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, published on 18 September 1997, points out emphatically that all national and provincial departments must, regularly and systematically, consult not only about the services currently provided but also about the provision of new basic services to those who lack them. It is further stated in the same white paper that consultation can also help to foster a more participative and cooperative relationship between the providers and users of public services. Likewise, education in South Africa is being provided through a cooperative mode of governance, starting from national, provincial, districts, circuits, schools and also communities at the local level represented by the few elected SGBs. This kind of endeavour embraces the notion of cooperatives within the spheres of government and participation within schools whereby school governing bodies jointly with the school management are responsible for the governance of a school. However, the effect of such cooperatives and participation is still unsatisfactory in that poor results are still being produced despite their efforts.

- **Service and standards**

Services are a key element of modern economies, equated with products and means of payment. To some degree, services represent the third major element of exchange. But apart from the commercial world, service is a central commodity in the sphere of social governmental institutions, even to such an extent that one speaks of delivery of services as if
they were goods. In as much as safe, prompt and reliable delivery of goods is expected, the term “service delivery” denotes that a particular level of quality is expected, even when it comes to such goods as “services”, whether it be someone mowing the lawns, delivering mail or educating learners.

Historically, South African education was characterised by a number of distortions, ranging from unfair discrimination based on racial inequalities, ethnicity, intolerance and other forms of segregation. The advent of the new democracy came with the new system of education which purported to redress the past imbalances in education provisioning. In achieving this, words such as progressively high quality were used to emphasise standards. (Preamble of the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996). Agreeing with the contents of Sasa (Act No. 84 of 1996), Naidu et al. (2008:38), quoting Teu (2002:12) and De Jager and Nieuwenhuis (2005:252), mention (first) that quality is generally seen as fitness for purpose, indicating an exceptional product or service, perfection, or zero defect; (second), as a dynamic state associated with products, services, people, processes and the environment that meets or exceeds customer expectations.

Noting from the expressions on quality in the preceding paragraph, its authors affirm that quality has to do with products and services, except for a few negating elements, namely, processes, people, as well as the environment. Teu (2002:12 in Naidu et al., 2008:38), citing MacRobert, further contends that quality refers to the ability of a product or service to satisfy its stated needs. This is why in the educational context, one is able to qualify and define quality education in terms of the ability to fulfil the aspirations of a given community. Nothing is achievable, however, unless for a quality education to be attained, government ensures that better qualified educators, better methods of teaching, developmental-oriented curricula, and better school conditions (for both educators and learners) are provided with a view to producing desirable outcomes.

• Courtesy

Economic processes and transactions are governed by a legal framework, that is, a set of rules and regulations. Over and above that, business partners have to agree upon terms and conditions. But smooth relationships between the partners involved in a transaction often require more than just sticking to the rules. In a normal situation, providers of goods or services have the leeway to be generous to customers and such acts of courtesy are offered to
faithful customers, to build a positive image simply to speed up and simplify processes. This goes on to suggest that the concept “courtesy” covers a much wider spectrum than asking public servants to give a polite smile and to say “please” and “thank you” without compromise (The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 18 September 1997).

In line with the spirit of the Constitution, the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, calls for the national and provincial departments to spell out the standards for the way in which customers should be treated. This norm also holds for the education department since it has personnel to take charge of and learners to develop into parenthood. The standards as spelled out in terms of the White paper cover, among other things, greeting and addressing customers, and the identification of staff by name when dealing with customers, whether in person, on the telephone or in writing. Since the Department of Education is not operating in isolation, it is imperative for it to observe the principles of public private partnerships (PPP). Learners and members of the community should be treated alike as potential customers.

- Access

Access can be seen as one of the central aspects in a society committed to values of fairness and justice. While availability speaks of the general or potential presence of a commodity, that is goods or a service on the market, access to such a commodity may be a completely different story. In a free market economy access is generally regulated via payment, but this is not always the case because there are certain things that money cannot buy. Arguing from a standpoint of social justice and equality, a discussion of access needs to take into account socioeconomic, cultural and political aspects as well as technological ones.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) (32.1.a), states that everyone has the right to access information held by the state; and (b), any information held by another person that is required for exercise or protection of that right, while subsection (2) states that national legislation must be enacted to give effect to the right, and may provide for reasonable measures to alleviate the administrative and financial burden on the state.

In line with the Constitutional principle in the preceding paragraph, the Department of Education came up with a policy regarding the teacher laptop initiative. The main intention of
the initiative was solely to capacitate every school-based educator employed in terms of the Educators Act who occupied a permanent post on the establishment. This endeavour would enhance access to government information, improve communication, and also eradicate computer illiteracy among educators (Government Gazette no.32207, 08 May 2009).

The package relating to the educator laptop initiative as presented was lucrative and essential to many. This notion was based on the minimum specifications for the teacher laptop initiative package: Wireless LAN (local area network) and a voice fax modem which would give the educators access to internet connectivity and also the use of a common domain e-mail address (Government Gazette no. 32207, 08 May 2009).

- Information

The modern world has frequently been characterised as an age of information. In contrast to previous centuries where access to information was almost exclusive to a small minority, the world has moved to a much more information-driven way of life. A concept like “intellectual property” denotes that knowledge as well as other types of information has become a commodity to which a monetary value can be attached. This change emerged because of the electronic revolution, and more specifically because of the advent of digital computers. Another concept which is being coined regarding the relative ease of access to information is the digital divide.

Adding to the preceding paragraph, the white paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery states that information is one of the most powerful tools at the customers’ disposal in exercising his or her right to good service. It is incumbent upon the national and provincial departments to provide full, accurate and up-to-date information about the services they provide and who are entitled to them. To fulfil this right, government has established community radio stations with a view to reaching the populace. Likewise, Section 16(2) of the South African Schools Act emphasises the need to realise the significance of information when it says, “A governing body stands in a position of trust towards the school”. A relationship of trust is experienced between two or more parties in real life, whereas in a school setting it is experienced between the school governing body, the school principal and the community. In ensuring efficiency in their attempt to govern, all the affected parties need to act in good faith. Since all the parties are accountable, it is essential that information-
sharing becomes the norm with a view to enhancing performance (South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996).

- Openness and transparency
  The transition from a more autocratic to a clearly democratic approach, be it in the political realm, the corporate world or in the other public sectors, requires a fundamental realignment of values, when it comes to issues of openness/transparency. The understanding in this instance is that institutions and organisations offering participatory ways of governance must also operate in a way that allows for transparency for the various stakeholders. However, problems with openness and transparency often arise from a simple lack of communication, especially in the more hierarchical organisations.

In line with the principles of the Constitution, Section 4.6.1, the White paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery provides that openness and transparency are the hallmarks of a democratic government and are fundamental to the public service transformation processes. It therefore becomes imperative for government to be more vigilant in its dealings with the public and business with a view to restoring investor confidence and trust. A key aspect that becomes apparent is that the public should know more about the way national and provincial departments are administered, how well they perform, the resources they consume, and who is in charge. Whether the same principle applies in a school setting is another story.

- Dealing with complaints
  Social organisations will in general comprise a variety of different interest groups. Consequently, there has to be some institutional code in place to regulate potential conflicts emanating from such differences in interests. However, such a code cannot effect much unless there are mechanisms in place, which allow for an organisation to deal with a complaint in a fair and efficient manner. Obviously the fairness would require that a complaint is dealt with equally, irrespective of who the complainant is. While efficiency requires that dealing with a complainant does not bind undue amounts of resources, time, etcetera, more often the procedures in place for dealing with complaints will reflect the structure of an organisation.
To err is human; however, this has never been a sweet pill to swallow for those who are alleged to have engaged in wrongdoing or to have underperformed in delivering public services. In a school context, learners would complain to the principal that teacher X is not doing his or her job appropriately. Having noted the complaint and investigated, the principal should intervene through the prescribed procedures with a view to resolving the problem. Astonishingly enough, the educator under investigation would also lay a complaint against the principal through the Union office under the pretext of being intimidated. Evidence has shown that some such cases are swept under the carpet for the sake of peace, harmony and, in some instances, the safety of the principal.

Having said all that, there are still numerous questions which remain unanswered. Is the school principal capacitated enough to deal with situations as they present themselves? Or does the same principal lack the willpower to take action when things go wrong? Or have schools become the playing field where protectionism is promoted at the expense of service delivery (The white paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 18 September 1997)?

In an attempt to enhance this principle, “remedying mistakes and failures or dealing with complaints”, the state has established the Public Protector, the Human Rights Commission and the Auditor General with the sole intent to protect the public from maladministration and impropriety by government departments or organs of state, of which schools are one (White paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 18 September 1997). Further than that, there are toll-free lines (including the one in the presidency) open to the public for lodging complaints. The big question is whether such lines are indeed yielding positive outcomes or not.

- Giving best value

In any commercial situation, it is imperative for one to focus on value for money. Societies are used to situations where the value of a commodity, goods or service delivery is in some way proportional to its price. In the case of public service delivery, where the price factor is not negotiable, all efforts must be focused on the optimisation of the other part of the equation, i.e. the value. Educationally, the focus will be on the optimisation of “education” as a value in society.
In line with this constitutional principle, the white paper encourages all national and provincial departments to double their efforts when providing services to the general public. In archiving this initiative, the Batho Pele principles must be implemented, and it must be administered parallel with the government’s Gear strategy with a view to reducing public expenditure and creating a more cost-effective public service. Educationally, there have to be well-qualified educators, administrators, well-defined public private partnership initiatives, as well as well-informed and skilled governors to ensure that quality education is speedily provided with a view to coping with the demands of the economy (White paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 18 September 1997). In this endeavour lies a challenge for institutions or organisations to be more committed to the idea of giving best value to the general and diverse public.

2.11 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

Before attempting to define the concept “performance”, it is imperative first to understand the core meaning, being work that has to be executed by individuals within an organisation. The fundamental question that needs to be answered is, “What determines the effectiveness of an organisation?” In this situation, there is a two-pronged answer, being the human factor and the organisation. Parallel to the two are incentives. Work is defined as the exertion of effort and the application of knowledge and skills to achieve a purpose while most people work, first, to earn a living by making money with a view to satisfying specific survival needs, and for example to be seen to be doing something worthwhile, to be seen to be achieving something, to be accorded the opportunity to use and develop abilities, to feel a sense of prestige and recognition, to be accorded the opportunity to exercise power, as well as for companionship (Armstrong, 1999:175).

In strengthening his argument, Armstrong (1999:186) presents the dimensions of the employment relationship in a figurative form that depicts the essence of organisational behaviour as the prime determinant of organisational effectiveness, inter alia:
Following the definition of the concept “work” and the dimensions of the employment relationship, Middlemist and Hitt, (1998:518) are of the opinion that high levels of employee performance determine the organisation’s prosperity while poor performance compromises the organisation. Therefore, it is incumbent upon managers to really know how employees perform their tasks, and also imperative that accurate appraisal and proper compensation of employee performance are developed and properly monitored. Dessler (1997:343) holds the same view in that he contends that it is actually the supervisor’s task to appraise subordinates. He or she must be acquainted with the basic appraisal techniques, understand and avoid problems that can cripple an appraisal, and conduct the appraisal fairly.

In supporting the arguments presented in the preceding paragraph, Bounds, Dobbins and Fowler (1995:329) contend that performance appraisal is a way of evaluating how well employees have met the expected levels of accomplishment compared to some standard or goal. Agreeing with Bounds et al. (1995), Middlemist and Hitt (1988:520) assert that performance appraisal is the assessment of employee work behaviour and performance for
the general purpose of determining the degree of employee effectiveness on the job. These two definitions complement one another as the first one relates to how well employees meet their expected levels of accomplishment compared to some standard or goal, while the second one relates to employee behaviour which is said to be the fundamental factor that boosts employee performance to square efficiency and effectiveness. In these definitions, the authors use words such as “evaluation” and “assessment”, in which case the former in an educational context can denote the performance of individual students, or the performance of the entire educational system, for example, a school district or a state education system. The latter can denote the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness, or value of a programme, product, project, process, goal, curriculum or some other educational entity. In the main, focus could be paralleled to the roll out of the occupational specific dispensation (OSD) for the educators, outcomes-based education (OBE) and Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) in South Africa (Worthen, Borg & White, 1993:67-68).

According to Section A.1 of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), it is the responsibility of the Department of Education and all educators to provide quality public education and to constantly improve the quality of learning and teaching which in the end is accounted for by all the role players. Emphasis is also put on the Department whose further responsibility is to ensure that proper facilities and resources to support learning and teaching are duly provided, since the success of educational outcomes depend mainly upon empowering, motivating and training of educators, while on the other hand quality management stands to monitor and support the processes (Collective Agreement, No. 8 of 2003:3).

Middlewood (in Bush & Bell, 2002:119) argues that performance management in education is a concept borrowed from business and industry by governments, to assess the performance of teachers and head teachers or principals alike. It is also asserted that in some instances performance is related to pay, while in the main performance management of teachers and head teachers is linked to specific areas, namely learning and teaching which are tested through accountability as a means of control to ensure effective performance in education. “Teachers fulfil their role of providing effective teaching for quality learning for the learners” (quoted from O’Neill, 1997a:1 & Bush, 1999:15, in Bush & Bell, 2002). In line with these, the Collective Agreement (no. 8 of 2003) within the context of the Integrated quality
management systems which in simple terms relates to performance evaluation, successful performance management has to be linked to:

(i) Development appraisal of which the main purpose is to appraise individual educators in a transparent manner with a view to determining areas of strength and weakness and draw up programmes for individual development. Development appraisal can be used interchangeably with the professional development of teachers which concerns itself with the capacity of teachers to remain curious about the classroom, to identify significant concerns in the process of teaching and learning, to value and seek dialogue with experienced colleagues as support in the analysis of data, and to adjust patterns of classroom action in the light of new understanding (Wideen & Andrews, 1987:129). The sentiments as echoed by Wideen and Andrews (1987) relate well to the notion of life-long learning.

(ii) Performance management which purports to evaluate individual teachers for salary progression, grade progression, affirmation of appointments, rewards and incentives.

(iii) Whole school evaluation which also purports to evaluate the overall effectiveness of a school, including the support provided by the district, school management, infrastructure and learning resources as well as the quality of teaching and learning.

In addition, Ivancevich (1998:264) argues that in any organisational endeavour to apply or practise performance management with a view to improving effectiveness, notice of other imperatives, inter alia, motivation which has a positive effect that encourages initiatives, develops a sense of responsibility, and stimulates efforts to perform even better. Legal compliance which requires organisations to recognise the rule of law through fair practice in dealing with matters pertaining to promotions, transfers, and discharges is mandatory. In a nutshell this refers to equity compliance. Bounds et al. (1995:337) point out that in equity of compensation, one of the greatest concerns for managers is who administers compensation systems in ensuring that the levels of compensation are equitable, or perceived to be fair. Communication forms the basis for ongoing discussion between the supervisor and the subordinates about job-related matters, human resource development and planning serve as a valuable input to skills inventories. Human resource planning must be taken into account.

2.11.1 Problems related to performance appraisal

There are problems related to any performance appraisal endeavour, as Dessler (1997:343-344) clearly points out. Often appraisals fail because subordinates are not told ahead of time
exactly what is expected of them in terms of good performance, while others fail because of the forms or procedures used to actually appraise their performance. The assertion by Bounds et al. (1995:331) points to the validity of the measures recorded during performance appraisal in that such objective measures for example, productivity and quality, more often reflect a team’s performance over an individual’s performance. The question of leniency on the part of the supervisor also presents itself as a problematic factor in the performance appraisal process based on the fact that the supervisor might rate all subordinates high. Ivancevich (1998:286) concurs with Dessler (1997), but adds the term “harshness” in his assertion to indicate that performance evaluations require the rater to reach an objective conclusion about performance. Ivancevich (1998:286) brings in another aspect to indicate further that not everyone is objective, and raters have their own rose-coloured spectacles through which they “objectively” view subordinates. In addition, Middlemist and Hitt (1988:530) equate the notion of own rose-coloured spectacles with the “halo” error which relates to the tendency of the rater to perceive another person primarily in terms of good or bad and to use the perceptions to rate the person’s other dimensions. That is, if the supervisor perceives a subordinate to be a good employee, all dimensions of that particular employee are rated superior, even if some areas of performance are actually weak.

Adding to the arguments in the preceding paragraph, Peterson (1995:64-65) believes that evaluation is political, and that it is used to allocate resources, cover up mistakes, build reputations, make money, correct mistakes, improve programmes, reward merit, and tell parents more about the welfare of their children. Bush and Bell (2002:119) agree that evaluation improves the quality of people’s life as he quotes Lofthouse et al. (1995:15), who argue that the American experience of the growth of economic competition leads to a widespread appreciation that knowledge is now the key to wealth creation. “Wise up or fall out” (an American expression) that translates into a growing perception that a highly trained, highly skilled workforce is the basis of future economic power. Arguably this calls for an accountable workforce. Bush and Bell (2002:121) contend that if accountability serves as an essential purpose of performance appraisal, then equally the development of the performer which encompasses training and retraining is crucial. On the other hand, Sergiovanni et al. (1999:65) adding to the notion of accountability, maintain that superintendents are evaluated by their school boards based on a perception of their performance, while superintendents evaluate principals similarly (quoted from Peterson, 1984) and the principals likewise use the
same pattern to evaluate the teachers (quoted from Cusick, 1983). In principle all these levels are accountable to one another, and in the main are accountable to the taxpayers.

Peterson (1995:65) argues that problems of teacher evaluation relate to how policy is determined, particularly to decisions about what data to gather, from whom, and for what use. Concurring with the proponents of evaluation, Cooper et al. (2004:99) contend that the systems model of education policy-making requires evaluations and feedback, and (as described by Wirt & Kirst) policies in education are the result of new demands and inputs, which affect the way schools are organised, financed, managed and controlled. Thus the outputs of this systems approach are hours of education, units taught, test results of students, and presumably well-educated students, ready to take up their place in society. In closing their argument, Cooper et al. (2004:99) indicate that the process of policy evaluation comes with its peculiar problems that are normative (ideological) structural (organisational) constituentive (political) and technical (practical). This raises the question pertaining to the whole idea of how outcomes-based education was implemented in South Africa, whether as a policy document it was evaluated before implementation or not; whether as a policy it was well sold to the citizenry with a view to establishing their buying into it, et cetera.

2.11.2 Capacity building within the context of educational governance
Capacity building emphasises the need for public management and developing the community’s governance, administration, managerial and leadership structures and skills in order to meet accountability requirements in terms of government funding and processes and to comply with relevant governance laws

Agreeing with most scholars, Govinda and Rashmi (2006:1) postulate that contemporary discourse on education management in all countries is full of references to various concepts that directly or indirectly point to the need for shifting the system of educational governance from central to local levels. In this context a number of ways such as decentralised management, local school management, an increased role for civil society, community empowerment in school management, et cetera, are being found.
The crucial point as submitted by Govinda and Rashmi (2006:1) leaves much to be desired as it indicates that change on the ground is not keeping pace with the pronouncements made in the policy and planning documents. Furthermore, they point out that in the traditional management framework, educational institutions such as schools are viewed as mere recipient bodies, implementing the decisions made for the system, whereas changing the perspective and shifting the locus of control over education to the local level, possibly in the school itself, demands a total change in perspective. However, the big question that stands to be answered is, “How would the envisaged change be effected?” A major challenge is presented as governance at local level requires a new set of skills and a change of attitude among all stakeholders. In order for the system to yield good results, the following questions have to be answered:

- Do community members who would take up new roles in governance of education need special orientation?
- Do the existing institutional arrangements suffice to reach out to all stakeholders?
- What would be the nature of inputs to be provided in such capacity-building efforts in respect of different groups of stakeholders from schools, the community and the education department (Govinda & Rashmi, 2006:2)?

Further arguments surrounding decentralised school management are raised by Govinda and Rashmi (2006:2), saying that “participation in local education management has a long historical legacy, as the first schools were founded and even funded solely by local community groups”. Later the State got involved in the history of schooling where initially, the role of the school was to wean the individual away from the emotional world of the home in order to socialise in the outside world, and also to introduce young men and women to the rational world of knowledge and learning. It was after the advent of industrialisation, along with the emphasis of compulsory schooling and education for informed citizenship, that national governments began to take over the responsibility of funding and organising school education.

Guthrie and Reed (1991:346) postulate that school effectiveness ultimately depends upon the skills and abilities of instructional and non-instructional staff. While careful selection procedures are more likely to ensure that excellent staff are initially secured, knowledge
expansion, changes in district operating procedures, and the importance of self-renewal for morale, personal and professional growth, mandate the school system provision for *staff development*.

In pursuance of performance measurement, the following structures operating within the school that will play significant roles in implementing integrated management system have to be established as presented in the Collective agreement (No. 8 of 2003).

- **Staff Development Team (SDT)**
- **Development Support Group (DSG)**

According to the agreement mentioned in the preceding paragraph, each institution must elect a staff development team consisting of the principal being the head of the institution, and democratically-elected staff members. The structure may include all or some of the school management team, but must also include post level 1 educators. Depending on the size of the school, the number of the educators and the work that needs to be done, the institution must decide for itself the size of the staff development team. This routine task could be done annually or on the basis of a specific term of office to allow for continuity.

### 2.11.3 The role and responsibility of the Development Support Group (DSG)

According to the Collective agreement 8 of 2003:13, the main purpose of the Development Support Group is to provide mentoring and support. If the immediate senior is the Education Specialist HOD (Head of Department) in the school, then mentoring and support fall within the job description. The DSG is responsible for assisting the educator to develop a personal growth plan (PGP) and to work with the Staff Development Team (SDT) to incorporate plans for development of the educator into the School Improvement Plan (SIP) The DSG is responsible for the baseline evaluation of the educator (for development purposes). The immediate senior is responsible for the summative evaluation at the end of the year for performance measurement (pay or grade progression). The accuracy of the information provided has to be verified by the DSG.

The other tool that is used in the evaluation measurement is the School Improvement Plan (SIP) which enables the school to measure its own progress through a process of ongoing
self-evaluation, and this must be a continuous process, especially in the years between the cyclical external Whole School Evaluation (WSE). The school evaluation plan is the responsibility of the School Management Team (SMT) and Staff Development Team (SDT) (and is submitted to the Regional/District/Area Manager). It enables the SMT and SDT to monitor progress and improvement within the school. The school improvement plan must be based on and linked to the strategic plans of the relevant department of education (Collective agreement 8 of 2003:14).

The same collective agreement as in the preceding paragraph indicates further, that the Regional/District/Area Improvement Plan enables the officials to plan, coordinate and monitor the delivery of support and development opportunities in the schools in their areas. This plan should be informed by the Strategic Plan of the relevant department of education and the SIPs submitted by schools under its jurisdiction.

2.11.4 The role of the inspectorate within the context of school governance

Sayer (1993:86) submits that in Britain the inspection of schools was known to be Her Majesty’s Inspectorate which was not always linked to the Department for Education or its precursors. It is further explained that the Inspectorate was established well before the board of education came into being. Sayer also points out that the original brief was to visit schools periodically, to collect information and report to the Privy Council, and to enable the promoters of schools to ascertain what improvements in school equipment, management, discipline and teaching methods had been sanctioned by the most extensive experience. It was emphasised that inspection was not intended as a means of control, but to afford assistance and not for the restraint of local efforts, but for their encouragement.

Sayer (1993:88), quoting the 1992 Education (Schools) Act, points out that a proposal calling for a much smaller national inspectorate, with a degree of statutory independence for the Department for Education (DfE) and to remit not only to advise on quality, but on the management of resources, and to supervise a system of inspection not necessarily carried out by themselves was made. It was submitted that Her Majesty’s Inspectorate would determine the suitability of other agencies, including private individuals or companies, as registered inspectors, and would guide and monitor them in their work.
In furtherance of the endeavour mentioned in the preceding paragraph, Sayer (1993:88) states that schools would be required to call for regular inspection at their own initiative, and this met with a considerable argument about the desirability of school governing bodies choosing their own inspection teams.

The Education Act, 1994, Section 77 quoted by Gann (1998:118), states that “It shall be the duty of the Secretary for State to cause inspection of every educational establishment at such intervals as appear to him to be appropriate and to cause a special inspection … to be made whenever he considers such an inspection to be desirable; and for the purpose of enabling such inspections … inspectors may be appointed by (Her) Majesty on the recommendation of the Secretary of State … Any local education authority may cause an inspection to be made by officers appointed by the (LEA) Local Education Authority”.

In corroborating with other academics on school inspection, Earley (1998:2) submits that the appraisal and evaluation of the quality and standards of education in the schools in an objective manner making use of the inspection framework remains the purpose of regular and systematic inspection. It is further argued that inspection is more than a mechanism to ensure accountability to government, parents and the taxpayer. Most importantly, it is about school development and the raising of standards. While in the main, as quoted from the work by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED, 1993a:17), it is to promote school improvement by identifying priorities for action, and to inform parents and local communities about a school’s strengths and weaknesses.

Like most academics and researchers, Bush and Bell (2002:296) submit that the main intention of evaluation is to report on the current performance of individuals and institutions and to be a spur to improvement either in preparation for the evaluation or as a result of the evaluation. They further concur with the others, in that they are also of the opinion that evaluation is being constituted for a number of reasons which would include accountability systems.

In supporting their argument, Bush and Bell (2002) present the following four principal means of formal evaluation which are said not to be exclusive:
• External inspection is that type of inspection that would involve the services of some external professionals visiting the institution in question to collect data. One of the tools utilised in data collection, according to Bush and Bell (2002:297), is the observation of teaching performance.

• External audit or review. This involves external evaluation but acts mainly as a check-up on an internal evaluation of performance which has been made against previously formulated institutional priorities. This is in line with the stipulations of Wiley and Everingham (2002:87), who submit that auditing has changed from checking only the records in detail and leaving out fundamental aspects such as the verification of the physical assets and the uncovering of deceptions performed by management.

• Performance indicators. With regard to this means of formal evaluation, the following requirements are suggested for the purpose of evaluation of institutional performance, following assertions by Gray and Jesson (1991) and Gray (1995):
  It should
  • be central to the process of teaching and learning
  • cover significant parts of a school’s activities
  • reflect a range of competing educational priorities
  • be capable of being assessed
  • allow meaningful comparisons to be made (over time among schools)
  • be capable of change by the school
  • be few in number (three or four as suggested); the suggested areas are academic progress; student satisfaction; and student-teacher relationships.

2.12 ACCOUNTABILITY AND GOVERNANCE

In educational circles around the globe, increasing accountability is ranked high on the agendas of most key policy makers at state, federal and local levels. Cooper et al. (2004:189), quoting Garn (2001:577), note that “Few people argue against increasing accountability in public education and everyone is talking about it, although it is by no means clear what they mean, when they do”. A number of questions were put with a view to clearing the uncertainty, “Nor is it clear for what purpose accountability systems are receiving so much attention; Is it performance-based accountability for the purpose of raising low student achievement? If that is the case, then presumably school personnel, either teachers,
administrators, or staff, are not doing their job well, or else student achievement would not be so poor.”

Maile (2002:326) refers to accountability as an essential aspect of school governance, and further quotes Beckmann (2008:8), who points out that accountability follows the exercise of power, use of resources and implementation of policy, and also that accountability is inextricably linked to democratic management and other related concepts such as participation, decentralisation, empowerment and transparency. On the whole, the demands of both democracy and efficiency require some form of accountability in the school.

Wagner (1989:23) presents the arguments of the proponents of accountability who say, “Teachers should be accountable for ‘results’ while their concern should primarily be actual outcomes of education as evidenced by student performance”, but it is clear that an assessment concerning the merit of such results presupposes an element of normative judgment; that is preconceptions of what these results ought to be or ought to have been, which serve as criteria in relation to which actual outcomes can be measured.

Most literature on public sector accountability points out that “accountability traditionally has to do with the means used to control and direct administrative behaviour by requiring answerability to external authority”. Callahan (2007:109), quoting Dubnick who agrees with Romzek and Ingraham on accountability in government, argues that accountability has to do with some amount of answerability to someone for expected performance. Fesler and Kettl in Callahan (2007:109) speak of two dimensions of accountability, namely “accountability being faithful obedience to the law; to higher officials’ directions, and to standards of efficiency and economy. The second is ethical behaviour, adherence to moral standards and avoidance of the appearance of unethical behaviour”.

In general terms Shafritz, in Callahan (2007:109-110), defines accountability within the context of administration as the concept that officials are to be held answerable for general notions of democracy and morality as well as for specific legal mandates.

In addition to the above, the concept “accountability” is viewed by Tompkins as an exercise through audits, investigations, and court reviews of court agency decision making typically
turning on whether rules have been violated, how to impose a punishment that will deter future transgressions on the one hand, while on the other hand, the definition of accountability that dominates, is that of command and is anchored in the enforcement of rules and regulations that limit bureaucratic discretion. Further arguments denoted to two approaches which are viewed as being limiting to the bureaucratic discretion are External accountability that involves controls by legislature through mechanisms such as legislative oversight, by the courts through mandates, and administrative law, and also by citizens through active participation and elections; and Internal accountability that has more to do with compliance regarding organisational procedures, administrative rules and regulations, professional standards and ethics (Callahan, 2007:113).

From the aforementioned definitions of accountability, it could be deduced that accountability as a concept derives its meaning from concepts such as responsibility and answerability. Wagner (1989:48) postulates that responsibility is a necessary condition, though not sufficient for the assignment of any obligation, including the obligation to account. Meanwhile, obligations are normally generated by the acts of individuals or groups in conjunction with those institutions and practices of a society that define such acts as obligatory. In line with Wagner’s contention of responsibility, section 3(1) of the South African Schools Act (Act of 1996), holds every parent responsible for causing every learner under their care to attend school. Since this is an order by the Act, parents remain obligated to ensure that their children between the age of seven and fifteen attend school. However, it is incumbent upon the learners themselves to ensure that they study and make progress, while the school principals within the context of leadership responsibilities promote goal attainment, to maintain the practices and resources that support coordination of organisational structures and processes in order to accomplish the desired goals (Hart & Bredeson, 1996:132). In the same breath, Robinson (2009:12) views accountability as the second mode of responsibility that is based on both formal and informal contract relationships. It is in this context that the educators are given formal appointment letters upon receipt of which they should accept the responsibility that comes with the contract, which is teaching. Accountability as a concept is being used interchangeably with responsibility and answerability, as Robinson (2009:11) rightfully puts it. A person is responsible or answerable to someone, and educators are answerable to the parents and the Department of Education as protocol dictates.
2.12.1 Types of accountability

The South African Department of Education has invented an Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) in its reform processes as a tool to instill a sense of accountability in the educators and also to raise the levels of professional development on the part of educators. All these efforts underpin the notion of quality teaching and learning with a view to providing quality education to the general populace. Against this background Naidu et al. (2008:40) present a scenario depicting a hierarchical structure within the education system whereby the school has a specific duty allocated to it by society, namely to educate the young people of the community. It is further presented that in discharging the obligation, the school is answerable to the community that it has indeed performed its task as ordered (quoted from Verbiest, 2006). This is evidenced by the mixed feelings of the communities when matriculation results have been released and the whole web of bureaucracy, namely the educators, the school principals, district officials including the Minister of Education, is equally subject to accountability (quoted from the theses of Ndlovu, 2006:10; Anon, 2006:17; Ngwetheni, 2007:1; Anon, 2007:1).

Based on the arguments as presented in the preceding paragraph, Naidu et al. (2008:41) coin a number of accountabilities, inter alia:

- Bureaucratic accountability, which emanates from the contractual relationship noticed between the educator and the employer who in this context is the Department of Education (DoE). In this kind of a contract, the educator who is the employee offers his or her labour to the employer (DoE) who, in turn, offers the employee benefits such as a salary. Naidu et al. (2008:41) argue further that the employer may, within reasonable terms, devise means of ensuring that the employee performs as agreed. In exercising their democratic rights, employers often subject their employees to signing performance agreement forms as per the labour practices relevant at that point in time. Notably, bureaucratic accountability in education favours both parties in that it is not geared towards the needs of the teachers, learners, and parents alone, but extends also to the needs of the bureaucracy itself.

Callahan (2007:114-116) concurs with Naidu et al. (2008:41) on the description of bureaucratic accountability but, draws in an argument that says this type of accountability is sometimes viewed as a resemblance to a hierarchy or is referred to as organisational
accountability. It sounds rather strict as it requires a clear-cut chain of command to clarify the relationship between the supervisor (principal) and the subordinate (agent or educator), as well as a clear set of regulations and procedures to guide administrative behaviour to reflect the obligation and responsibilities both parties have on their shoulders. Over and above that, it emphasises compliance with rules, regulations and organisational directives.

- The second accountability presented by Naidu et al. (2008:41) is based on the premise that professionalism demands a high sense of responsibility, commitment and competence in setting one’s targets. Basically, it means that educators as professionals are expected to be client-oriented and to put the interests of the learners foremost. In this way they will be embracing the principles of Batho Pele, and also that as members of a profession, school managers need to ensure that professional standards are set and adhered to by professionals themselves, rather than being enforced by external agencies like inspectorates. Naidu et al. (2008:41) explain their understanding of professional bureaucracy, but Callahan (2007:114-116) presents a slightly different viewpoint argued from the perspective of professionals (trained administrators) like doctors, lawyers, engineers, social workers and accountants who use a fair amount of discretion in performing their duties, while noting the fact that they are accountable for their actions. This type of accountability is viewed differently from the others based on its characteristics such as the difference in expertise, and socialisation. It also provides a higher degree of autonomy to individuals within an organisation whose decision-making ability is based on professional standards. Lastly, professionals are evaluated or held accountable to their determination of whether their behaviour or judgment is consistent with professional practice.

- A study conducted by Owens (1995:85) concludes that the study of symbolism is central to the study of organisational culture that comprises the rituals, myths, traditions, rites and language through which human meanings and values are transmitted literally from one generation of the organisation to another. Owens (1995:93) further contends that the elements of culture are subtle, unseen, and infect invisibly, while on the other hand, Naidu et al. (2008:41) link culture with accountability, thereby introducing a new concept “cultural accountability” which denotes accountability mechanisms that are in place in schools, unstated, ill coordinated or totally different from what policy makers want. Cultural accountability
considers the fact that the natural tendencies of the principals and management teams cause schools to develop their own ethos and culture of doing things. For example, a school where educators share a common vision and value learner achievement, expectations are set high with effective monitoring of both the learners’ and educators’ work.

In summing up, Naidu et al. (2008:41, quoting Dunford, 2003:9) submit that intelligent accountability comprises internal school processes with high levels of external monitoring appropriate to the state of development of each individual school, while Maile (2002:330, cited in Naidu et al., 2008:41) points out that the restoration of confidence and quality are more likely when contractual (bureaucratic) accountability is the safety net, professional accountability the support, and moral accountability the driving force.

- Naidu et al. (2008:21) argue that for one to understand how the legal framework for education is developed, it is imperative that one needs to be well versed in the hierarchy and bureaucracy of the education system itself, notably that there is one person at the top of the system (the national minister) with numerous levels of operation below him or her (subordinates), each of whom reports to an official of higher status. In relation to the assertion by Naidu et al. (2008:21), Callahan (2007:114-116) coins a concept, “legal accountability” which has some similarities with hierarchical accountability since the two involve the frequent application of control over individuals and programmes. However, there is a slight difference noticed with legal accountability in that its controls come from outside the organisation. The legal accountability type depicts the organisation’s obligation to elect officials of the courts, and relies entirely on compliance with the established mandates.

According to the South African Schools Act No.84 of 1996, the governance of every public school is vested in its governing body that stands in a position of trust towards the school, whereas the professional management of a public school must be undertaken by the principal under the authority of the Head of the Department. What becomes apparent in sections (15) and (16) of the Act, is the demonstration of mutual trust between the governing body and the school principal, a high level of cooperation and also intense compliance from the functionaries involved. Chapter two (4) of the South African Schools Act emphasises
compliance as it states that “if a member of the executive council cannot comply with Subsection 3, (every member of the executive council must ensure that there are enough schools so that …) because of lack capacity existing at the date of commencement of this Act, he or she must take steps to remedy any such lack of capacity as soon as possible and must make an annual report to the minister on the progress achieved”.

It is further contended that under a legal accountability system, managers are subject to external oversight such as court reviews of policies and procedures, fiscal audits and legislative oversight hearing. This is evidenced by the mandate that compels public schools to ensure that all educators and professional support staff hold appropriate certification, and also that they are legally accountable for providing mandated services to special needs children, are required to provide a thorough and efficient education to all students. Thus schools as public entities are legally obligated to carry out their responsibilities, while enforcement of such obligations comes from outside the organisation. It is for that reason that legal accountability is primarily characterised by external mechanisms, contractual relations, legal obligations, and a high degree of control (Callahan, 2007:114-116).

- Another accountability according to Callahan (2007:114-116), quoted from Romzek and Dubnick’s work, is political accountability, as it is best characterised by responsiveness to external stakeholders, namely elected officials, agency heads, and special interests groups. In this accountability type, a high level of discretion is enjoyed and individuals or agencies decide whether to respond to the expectations of certain external holders and then face the consequences of the decision taken. However, it is central to the pressures imposed on public administrators since its key relationship is between the public administrators and the constituency they serve.

In line with the sentiments echoed by Callahan (2007), the South African Teachers’ Union (SADTU) pledges itself to unite teachers and educationists and to work for a non-racial, non-sexist, just and democratic system of education in a free and democratic South Africa. It shall also observe and act in accordance with the spirit and principle of democracy in all the Union activities, and commits itself to expose the class nature of the South African society and combat it (SADTU Constitution as amended in September 2006). It therefore becomes clear from the contentions in the SADTU constitution that SADTU draws its mandate from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa which stands for a non-racial, non-sexist, just
and democratic system of education in a free and democratic South Africa. The apparent similarity between the two organisations is depicted by the mandate they draw from their constituencies which represents an element of political accountability. The thorny issue that impinges on the quality of education with respect to SADTU operations is that its constituency, namely the educators, seem to be accountable to the Union instead of to the employer, who in this case is the government.

In sharing the same view with other authors regarding political accountability, arguing from the teacher evaluation perspective, Peterson (1995:65) contends that there are two clusters of political factors that are essential for well-functioning teacher evaluation systems which demand that a district must practise rational decision making which is a tradition in which choices are made on the basis of deliberation backed by evidence, with goals of the greatest good for the most participants who use the priorities of clients as a value base, and inclusion of the minorities. However, the creation of a conducive environment for open deliberation and public debate is essential, while a good local political climate for teacher evaluation requires some intentional manipulation of power relationships. A corresponding degree of shared governance must, however, be evidence of a political framework that supports expanded teacher evaluation with an increased teacher participation in policy setting and decision making to showcase good politics for teacher evaluation.

2.13 QUALITY ASSURANCE IN EDUCATION AND GOVERNANCE

The global imperatives place education at the centre, as the hub of knowledge accumulation and skills building, with all these government departments that need to be able to meet institutional needs and objectives. Based on various market forces, governments have to ensure that their personnel are well equipped to meet the demands of quality.

Birzea, Harrison, Krek and Sapjic-Vrekas (2005:22) indicate that a good quality assurance system in school education sets out to make explicit, usually through an inclusive and consensual process of debate led by government involving stakeholders with clear educational goals and curriculum, and gives the responsibility for ensuring quality in the school system to the main actors in the system being the schools and the teachers themselves. It ensures that these actors are supported in generating and acquiring performance data about
the effectiveness of their own sphere of activity, and developing appropriate responses to their own analysis of need. It demands accountability from both teachers and schools for their performance, and ensures that a quality assurance system is set up in such a way as to ensure that it has its own internal dynamics for achieving high standards of performance.

Adding to the notion of quality assurance, Vermeulen (1997:40) speaks about quality assurance in relation to cultural perspectives. In the work “Cultural change: crucial for total quality management” Vermeulen (on the same page) asserts that the quality culture of an organisation is the first aspect which needs to be appraised with a view to establishing the current status of quality in an organisation. Further assertions relate to the attitudes of the members of an organisation, being the future primary determinants of the organisation. In agreeing with Vermeulen (1997), Naidu et al. (2008:39) state that quality assurance refers to a system of continuous assessment of a product during production with the purpose of ensuring that the product conforms to the standards required by customers. Examples provided are policies, attitudes, actions and procedures that are deemed necessary.

Sharing the same views with the other scholars in the preceding paragraphs, Schwella, Burger, Fox and Muller (1996:16-17) postulate that public resources managers should strive towards qualitative and quantitative objectives derived from policies and incorporated into programmes. Furthermore, they indicate that effectiveness has to do with the extent to which stated objectives are met, while efficiency refers to the optimal use of resources in attaining policy and programme objectives. Agreeing with Schwella, et al. (1996:16-17), Naidu, et al. (2008:39) argue that indicators are quantitative and qualitative pointers of how well a school is performing in a number of areas, scores and examinations.

The two concepts, namely “quality audit” and “climate survey” taken from Berry (1991:22) are used interchangeably by Vermeulen (1997:40), who asserts that quality audit consists of two parts, being that of measuring attitudes relating to work, life, and conditions such as satisfaction with pay, benefits, communication, and appraisal. The second part is said to be assessing the company culture. It is further asserted by Vermeulen on the same page, that an assessment of the company culture determines changes in company programmes, policies and management behaviour that are necessary to support a total quality management process.
2.14 CURRICULA GOVERNANCE

Duke and Canady (1991:9) submit that schools exist, to a large extent, to impart knowledge and provide experiences deemed important for the perpetuation of the society. They describe “curriculum” as an encompassing term to denote whatever it is that policymakers intend that young people will learn in class. Sharing the same view with Duke and Canady (1991), Kelly refers to curriculum as “all learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school” (quoted in Kelly, 1983:10 & 1999, http://www.infed.org/biblio/b-curric.htm).

In describing and sharing the same views with the academics in the preceding paragraph, Guthrie and Reed (1991:209-210) contend that curriculum as a concept is Latin in origin and it refers to “a circular course”. They further argue that by extrapolation, the subject content of the school curriculum came to be known as “courses”. The said courses should be capable of developing desired conditions within students. The “what” of schooling should result in a state of knowledge, cognitive understanding, character, or capacity that presumably was not present or fully present prior to the curriculum course content.

Duke and Canady (1991:9) quote Glantthorn, pointing out that there are five distinct types of curriculum to be noted and are:

- **The recommended curriculum**, that refers to the opinions of the scholars, professional groups, legislators, commissions, et cetera, about what should be taught.
- **The written curriculum**, referring to the curriculum embodied in the approved state and district curriculum guides.
- **The supported curriculum**, being the one curriculum which is said to be reflected and shaped by the resources allocated to deliver the curriculum.
- **The tested curriculum**, which includes the content for which students are held accountable in various tests.
- **The learned curriculum**, which denotes all the changes in student values, perceptions, and behaviour that occur as a result of what they are taught in school.

Curriculum policymaking evolved in the early days of the republic, when curriculum decisions were made at the local level. However, it was the belief of the educators that the
curriculum should be flexible if it was to meet the changing needs of various communities. It was the Tanners who contended that the idea of a relatively fixed or permanent curriculum did not arise until the advent of state support for local schools (Duke & Canady, 1991:9-10).

There was a time where the United States educators, policy makers and members of the community were faced with some fundamental choices about who would determine what should be taught in schools. It was argued that these choices had potentially serious consequences for education professionals whose central responsibilities involve the development and oversight of curricula in schools. The stakes of these choices are potentially acute for professionals, students, and also for the public, and everyone must understand the full scope of these choices (Elmore & Fuhrman, 1994:1).

Research done in Israel by Resh and Benavot suggests that the school curriculum constitutes a crucial means by schools to socialise the young and prepare them for future roles as labour-market participants, active citizens and agents of cultural production and consumption (Eggleston, 1977; Brint, 1998; McEneaney & Meyer 2000). “It is no wonder, thus, that the substance of the curriculum, for instance, subjects, textbooks, syllabi and examinations, generates considerable political conflict of school curriculum” (Apple 1979; Tyack 1974; Holmes & McLean 1989; Popkewitz 1987; Goodson 1993).

In their study, Resh and Benavot have focused on the curriculum put into practice by schools as the unit of analysis, since the schools are the organisational level at which curricular decisions are made in view of official curricular directives, being the mediator between the official curriculum and actual classroom implementation. It is in this manner that decisions at school level will determine the knowledge that students will be exposed to, and effectively enable or constrain instruction in the classroom.

The scenario as presented in the preceding paragraph resembles the South African situation during the implementation of Curriculum 2005 and outcomes-based education. According to the utterances of the MEC for Education at that time, Dr Aaron Motswanaledi, “there has been major criticism of the impact OBE has had on the literacy and numeracy levels of children, particularly the misconceptions about what teachers should teach and not teach. A question if this was valid was asked and answered positively”. The MEC sounded as if he was protecting the new curriculum as he argued that the misconceptions that were being realised, were not
the fault of the OBE policy. “In fact what happened was that the teachers thought OBE meant to teach in English, and as result of that many schools in Limpopo started teaching in English even in Grade one”. (http://www.theteacher.co.za/article/challenges-rather-than-obstacles).

Carl (1995:174-175) submits that there are various levels (taken from Jordan, 1989:392-400) at which curriculum implementation can take place:

- **Macro-implementation** which is the application of policy and curriculum initiatives as determined at national level by curriculum authorities.
- **Micro-implementation**, following the definition by Jordan (1989:393) and Mostert (1986), which is when local decisions are taken. Furthermore, the decision leads to application in practice and eventual institutionalisation. This would in practice mean that the core syllabi must be implemented at school and classroom level.

### 2.15 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the concept “governance” and how it evolved over time has been clearly defined and showcased. Local and international literature have been reviewed with the sole intention of determining how the global village has changed from the traditional system of government to governance as a new mode that takes into account decentralisation, devolution, and deregulation as the prime principles of restructuring (Lindbald, Ozga and Zambeta (2002:619).

Since the study seeks to evaluate educational effectiveness in South Africa, a number of governance theories were discussed with a view to analysing both the pre- and post-educational policies and how their implementation impacted on service delivery. A historical overview of educational governance in selected former colonised countries namely South Africa, Uganda, Zimbabwe, and Nigeria in Africa and Bangladesh in East Asia, were also discussed to illustrate how the colonial powers introduced and managed education in their former colonies. The reviewed literature revealed that education systems in the aforementioned colonised countries were based on racial groupings and also that they were initially put under the trusteeship of the missionaries.
In pursuance of the study, numerous types of governance were discussed and conceptualised, namely global governance which concerns itself with the governing of a state without sovereign authority, relationships that transcend national frontiers (Finklestein, in Whiteman, 2002:46); ethical governance which concerns itself with good governance characterised by integrity, responsiveness, and transparency (Kanyane in Olivier & Kuhnle, 2008:100); democratic governance which relates to the management of societal affairs in accordance with the universal principle of democracy as a system or rule that maximizes popular consent and participation, the legitimacy and accountability of rulers, and the responsiveness of the latter to expressed interests and needs of the public (Ntalaja, 2004:2); e-governance which according to Mphidi, involves new styles of leadership, new ways of debating, and deciding policy and investment, new ways of accessing education, new ways of listening to citizens and new ways of organising and delivering services (http://www.ais.up.za/digi/docs/mpidi-); and corporate governance which refers to a system through which business organisations are directed and controlled (Sinthumule, 2005:7).

Furthermore, a definition of an organisation was provided, with particular reference that describes a school as a collection of teachers, pupils, parents and non-teaching staff, working towards the common goal of ensuring that learners are provided with quality teaching and learning (Van der Westhuizen, 2003:37, in Naidu et al., 2008:75). A breakdown of the building blocks of an organisation was also listed with a view to resembling an organisation, inter alia, structure, people, technology and culture (Everard & Morris, 1996:150, in Naidu et al., 2008:75).

The study also revealed that it is imperative for organisations to have structures that drive governance imperatives such as bureaucracy and participation without overemphasising the job descriptions, “roles” that are clearly linked to some conception of what the school is to accomplish (Sergiovanni et al., 1999:122). Among other imperatives of good governance as revealed by the study are leadership, management and values within the context of education and the significant role they play in the provisioning of quality education.

It has emerged from the consulted literature that governance concerns itself with policy formulation, policy evaluation and its implementation process that needs to be handled with the outmost caution to avert unnecessary disarray. Individual employees have to be periodically appraised, evaluated or assessed in terms of their performance against the set
goals or standards with a view to correcting wrong behaviour that is an impediment to organisational effectiveness, as well as to compensating good behaviour with a view to promoting a sense of belonging and thereby increasing the chance for the organisation’s survival. However, the leadership’s readiness to embrace this crucial undertaking needs to be developed and sustained without political pollution or intervention as a matter of urgency.

The following chapter discusses the research design and the methodologies employed in pursuance of this study.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the concept of governance and how it originated. It included a review of both local and international literature to gain insight and to learn something about the history of educational governance in South Africa, Bangladesh, Uganda, Zimbabwe, and Nigeria, and the theories that underpin the phenomenon under study. The literature reviewed in pursuance of this study included among others, monographs, dissertations, and electronic sources relevant to the concept “governance”.

In this chapter the research design which was adopted in pursuance of this study is described. Research methods that were employed to elicit relevant and valid information from various sources and subjects with the sole intention of amassing sufficient data to address the hypothesis, “Good governance is informed by strong accountability and future-oriented organisation, continuously steering it towards its mission and vision, and thereby ensuring that the day-to-day management and administration are always linked with the organisation’s values and goals and thus eventually bringing about effectual and accelerated service delivery” are also discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

In terms of Mouton’s (1996:107) assertion, a research design is a series of guidelines and instructions on how to reach the goal that one has set or is needed for a particular project. Similarly, Armstrong and Grace (1994:16) maintain that the research design is the plan of how the research will be carried out, although it tends not to deal with specifics, but rather addresses the broad strategy of how the research will seek to answer the question. However, Armstrong and Grace caution that getting the research design right is very important.
Thyer (in De Vos & Fouché, 1998:77) concurs with the aforementioned authors in maintaining that the research design is a blueprint of a detailed plan of how a research study is to be conducted, while Bless and Higson-Smith’s (1995:63) definition points to a research design as the planning of any scientific research from the first step to the last and a programme to guide the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting observed facts.

In support of the authors in the preceding paragraph regarding the concept “research design”, Gibson and Brown (2009:48) maintain that research design is a process that refers to the practice of working through a given focus for research and the generation of a research plan and design for a particular topic. They further argue that the designing of a piece of research involves specifying the research topic; choosing research sites and participants; and thinking through how they are to be selected; and also thinking through the methods of data collection and working out how they are to be employed.

According to Leedy (in De Vos, Schurink & Strydom, 1998:15), qualitative research methodologies deal with data that are principally verbal, while quantitative research methodologies deal with data that are principally numerical. In agreeing with Leedy, McMillan and Schumacher (2006:26) maintain that qualitative designs are just as systematic as quantitative designs, but they differ only when qualitative designs emphasise gathering data on naturally occurring phenomena, and most of the data are in the form of words rather than numbers, and further advise that the researcher must research and explore with a variety of methods until a deep understanding is achieved.

Neuman (2000:122) adds that quantitative researchers speak the language of variables and hypotheses and thereby emphasise precisely measuring variables and testing hypotheses that are linked to general causal explanations, while qualitative researchers choose to use “cases and contexts” where they emphasise conducting detailed examinations of cases that arise in the natural flow of social life.
It is against the background as presented in the preceding paragraphs that the researcher chose to use both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to investigate and explore the impact of governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education. This type of approach to research followed by the researcher is defined as “mixed methods research” in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or a programme of inquiry (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007, in Clark, Creswell and Nebraska, 2008:xvi). In pursuance of this study, the researcher took cognisance of the fact that there are numerous and distinct mixed methods as postulated by Creswell (1994:177, in Clark et al., 2008:22) and adopted the one termed “equivalent status design”, which simply means that the researcher conducts the study using both the quantitative and qualitative approaches to equally to understand the phenomenon under study.

On the one hand, two hundred and fifty (250) questionnaires were distributed to the selected population as part of the qualitative method. On the other hand, face-to-face interviews were held with school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, circuit managers and deputy managers governance, and focus-group interviews with the learner representative councils. Documentary surveys, and observations were also qualitatively employed. In this endeavour, the researcher was able to learn and understand how different role players in school governance understand the phenomenon under study, and the mandate they have to carry out in pursuit of service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education (Clark et al., 2008:22).

3.2.1 Qualitative research methods

According to Holloway (1997:1), qualitative research methods relate to a form of social inquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experiences and the world in which they live. There are a number of different approaches that exist within the framework of qualitative research. However, Holloway advises that in most of these approaches, researchers find the same aim, being to understand the social reality of individuals, groups and cultures. In addition, researchers use qualitative approaches to explore the behaviour, perspectives and experiences of the people they study. In concurring
with Holloway, Creswell et al. (1998:14) contend that most writers agree that qualitative research is undertaken in a natural setting where the researcher is an instrument of data collection who gathers words or pictures, analyses them inductively, focuses on the meaning of participants, and describes a process that is expressive and persuasive in language.

The proponents of qualitative research claim that it is not the purpose of their research to produce generalisation, rather to produce rich or thick descriptions of social life, so as to accord the readers the opportunity to understand what it would be like to be someone else and experience the world from their point of view (Geertz 1973, in Gomm, 2004:13).

A twelve-and-half-page questionnaire comprising of both closed and open-ended questions organised in a subheading format was designed. In order to arouse interest and enhance participation, a quality questionnaire written in a simple language, comprised of relevant, brief and to the point questions and free from typographic errors was used. Data collected through this method were presented in the form of bar charts (see Chapter 4).

The following are critics of qualitative research methods as presented by Haslam and McGarty (2003:388-391).

- Qualitative research methods are not scientific: the researchers who hold this view, typically argue that, compared to quantitative research, the procedures for quantifying and minimising methodological and statistical uncertainty in qualitative research are vague and underdeveloped.
- Qualitative research methods do not tell much about psychology: instead they are only useful as tools of philosophical, sociological or linguistic analysis. Furthermore, it is argued that this criticism is targeted mainly at constructionist approaches, and it is one that many researchers in this tradition would themselves accept.
- Qualitative research methods fall foul of their own logic: the focus regarding this criticism is again on constructionist methods, with critics observing, although they are
not always perfect, that quantitative research methods at least lay down specific criteria though which research procedures and outcomes can be judged.

- Qualitative research methods focus on the particular rather than the general: the conclusion is that this undermines attempts to make far-reaching statements about psychology and behaviour. The argument here is that human beings and other creatures understand many aspects of their lives by generalising on the basis of repeated observation.

- Qualitative research methods are viewed as an easy option: Those who hold this view argue that the qualitative research method is for those who are simply not up to the challenging task of conducting rigorously designed studies and analysing complex numerical data, hence this method is said to be for losers.

In this study, data were also collected through among others, interviews which are certainly one form of social inquiry. One other fundamental aspect that added value to this study was that interviews were conducted in natural settings, for example, in schools as organisations where groups of people, namely educators, learners, principals, school management teams (SMTs), school governing bodies (SGBs) and parents were found, who worked together in different ways, learning, teaching, managing, leading, supporting, to meet shared goals, educating young people through providing teaching and learning (Understanding Schools as Organisations, http://peoplelearn.homestead.com).

Participants were also interviewed in their offices, at their dwelling places, as well as at neutral venues as arranged. The interviews were tape-recorded to enhance the reliability and validity of the data.

As mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, the study followed the principle of observation to understand and explore the behaviour, perspectives, and experiences of the people under study, for example, how the learners and educators responded to the bell or siren, as this translated into school culture. Furthermore, the study adopted the use of documentary survey such as minutes, circulars, learners’ registers, and other related documents through which rich and valid data were collected and this was found to be beneficial to the study.
3.2.2 Quantitative research methods

Quantitative research methods are viewed as procedures and techniques that are used to analyse data numerically, and they include a study of the valid methods used for collecting data, a discussion of the limits of validity of any given procedure, and of the ways the results are to be interpreted (Antonius, 2003:291). It is therefore contended that some of the phenomena observed can be quantified, meaning that some aspects of the observation can be translated into numbers (Antonius, 2003:291). Garbers (1996:282) concurs and maintains that quantitative research aims at testing theories, determining facts, statistical analysis, demonstrating relationships between variables, and predictions.

According to Garbers (1996:282-293), researchers who follow a quantitative approach will have to familiarise themselves thoroughly with the requirements for stating hypotheses, conceptualisation and operationalisation, statistical analysis techniques and also with the general requirements regarding the validity and reliability of the methods used. However, quantitative research methodology lends itself to the description of opinions and attitudes, thereby gauging the effect of one event or variable on another (Garbers, 1996:282). Similarly, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:183) argue that quantitative research which is sometimes termed survey research, refers to any form of descriptive research and involves acquiring information about the characteristics and previous experiences of one or more groups through asking questions and tabulating their answers.

The designed questionnaire required the participants to provide their personal information or characteristics which covered their age group, their level of academic qualifications attained, their highest level of professional training, their number of years in the field as educators, as well as information pertaining to their union affiliation status. All the responses were first counted, for example, the number of females compared to the number of males, and their age groupings, and this was presented numerically. The set of closed questions presented required the respondents to answer with a “yes” or a “no”, and their responses were duly counted and presented numerically.
Silverman (2001:31) provides the following as criticism of quantitative research:

- Quantitative research can amount to a quick-fix involving little or no contact with people or the field.
- Statistical correlation may be based upon variables that in the context of naturally occurring interaction are arbitrarily defined.
- After-the-fact speculation about the meaning of correlation can involve the very common-sense processes of reasoning that science tries to avoid.
- The pursuit of measurable phenomena can mean that unperceived values creep into research by simply taking on board highly problematic and unreliable concepts such as delinquency or intelligence.
- While it is important to test hypotheses, a purely statistical logic can make the development of hypotheses a trivial matter and fail to help in generating hypotheses from data.

In pursuance of this study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed to collect as much data as possible from the chosen subjects. The quantitative research methods enabled the researcher to count the number of those who affirmed or negated the statements as put in the questionnaires and also to present their responses in the form of pie charts, bar graphs, and tables, as well as in a qualitative, descriptive way. The data collected through quantitative means were also presented in the form of bar charts (see Chapter 4).

### 3.2.3 Population and sampling

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:119) contend that a population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which the intention is to generalise the results of the research. They further advise that this group is sometimes referred to as the target population and that it is often different from the list of elements from which the sample is actually drawn or selected. It is contended that one of the first steps in designing quantitative research is to choose the subjects, which are the individuals who participate in the study, and from whom data are collected (McMillan &
Schumacher, 2006:119). Babbie and Mouton (2001:100) concur and maintain that the population of a study is that group from whom conclusions are drawn.

According to Blaikie (2003:161), a sample is a selection of elements from a population which are used to make statements about the whole population. While concurring with Blaikie, Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:88) caution that the sample, being a subset of the population, must have properties that make it representative of the whole. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:144) indicate that apart from drawing data from different people, qualitative researchers draw data from numerous sources, for example, objects and textual material as well, and thereby use the process of sampling to select particular entities which will comprise a sample to work with.

Agreeing with Blaikie (2003) and Leedy and Ormrod (2005), Gibson and Brown (2009:56) are of the belief that the concept of sampling in a broad sense refers to the points of data collection or cases and may be a person, a document, an institution, a setting, or any instance of information or data-gathering that has to be included within a research project. Blaikie (2003:160) advises that it is imperative to work with samples rather than populations, particularly when the population under study is very large, tedious and sometimes costly.

In pursuance of this research, the Department of Education was chosen, together with its two circuits, namely Mankweng and Polokwane, as the population of the study. The two circuits under study are situated in the Capricorn District among the five districts which in terms of the research language are the population from which a sample could be drawn. Looking at the size of the five districts, a sample of four primary and four high schools, eight circuit managers, eight deputy managers: governance, eight school principals, eight deputy principals, eight heads of department, eight chairpersons of school governing bodies, four group interviews consisting of five participants each was employed. However, it turned out that in terms of the chairperson of the school governing bodies only seven made it to the cause while eventually only two groups participated in the group interviews.
Students who are undertaking a research project usually ask a fundamental question that seeks to know how big the sample should be, meaning what size sample will be acceptable to the examiner (Briggs & Coleman, 2007:136). According to Holloway (1997:142), a sample size in qualitative research is relatively small but consists of information-rich cases. In-depth interviews and immersion in a culture make a large sample size unnecessary, particularly as qualitative researches rarely seek to generalise. Contrary to Holloway’s (2005) assertion, Moore (1983:115) maintains that there is a need to work on a sample that is big enough to represent all the characteristics of the larger population. The basic principle of the size of samples is the bigger the better (Blaikie, 2003:166). Black (1999:136) concur and emphatically contends that there is an essential need for the researchers to predict optimum sample sizes with a view to achieving the minimum amount of error in the sample means.

Patton (1990:184) contends that in qualitative inquiry there are no clear-cut rules for sample size. The size of a sample depends on a number of aspects such as what the researcher wants to know, what the inquiry purports to find out, what the bone of contention is at the time of the inquiry, whether what is being researched or investigated will add value in the end, taking into account the available time and resources at the researcher’s disposal.

In pursuance of this study, the researcher settled for two hundred and fifty questionnaires which translated into two hundred and fifty participants from the population under study. With regard to the principals, their deputies, heads of department and chairpersons of school governing bodies as the population under study, the researcher worked according to Leedy and Ormod’s (2005:207) assertion that there is no point in sampling from small populations. Therefore the researcher engaged the subjects as per the essential roles they happened to be in at the time of the investigation.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:342), it is imperative for the researcher to make contact with whoever can grant permission for the research after a possible site has been identified. Patton (1990:250-251) concurs, but adds that entry into the field for evaluation research involves two separate parts namely, negotiation with the intended users of the evaluation about the nature of the fieldwork to be done and, the actual physical entry
into the field setting to begin collecting data. Patton is of the opinion that the two parts are closely related, for the negotiations with the intended evaluation user will establish the rules and conditions for how one would go about playing the role of observer and how that role is defined for the people being observed.

In this research the researcher adopted overt research to collect data and cooperated with whoever was responsible for gaining entry to the research site. Furthermore, this route was followed when the principals of the chosen schools were telephonically engaged to ask for permission to do research in their schools, speak to their deputies, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, and the members of the learner representative councils as well as to peruse official documents.

Firstly the researcher visited the District Office to obtain a written permission to conduct research in Polokwane and Mankweng circuits. The permission was granted under the condition that the research should not interfere with school work in any way. The researcher adhered to the condition and lived by it. Secondly, the researcher visited the circuit managers to ask permission to visit the chosen schools and that was endorsed, embraced and encouraged.

The six (6) primary schools and eight (8) secondary/high schools, making up a total of fourteen (14) schools which formed part of this study as the subjects, were chosen randomly. The researcher spent most of the time at these schools, perusing and making notes from the time books, school policies, minutes, inventory books, circulars, learner registers, audit reports, completed appraisal forms, admission books, learners’ books (class work and tests), information books and work books. While doing this tedious job, the researcher had an opportunity to observe and make notes as well. In making the act of observing more interesting, Blaikie (2003:15) suggests that the concept “data” is frequently equated with empirical evidence, being the products of systematic observations that are made through the use of human senses, and emphatically adds that in social research observations are made mainly through the use of sight and hearing.
In pursuance of this study, the researcher strategically reduced the number of subjects from fourteen to eight (four primary and four secondary/high schools, being two primary schools from the rural area and two from the urban area and so with the secondary or high schools). This was achieved easily through the employment of a purposive approach. Following Hagen’s (2006) assertion in Berg (2007:44), the researcher opted for purposive sampling which is sometimes called judgemental after field investigations in some schools to ensure that certain types of individuals or persons displaying certain attributes were included in the study. Similarly, Babbie and Mouton (2001:166) argue and maintain that sometimes it is most appropriate for the researcher to select a sample on the basis of his or her own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of the research aims based on the judgement and the purpose of the study.

In addition to Babbie and Mouton (2001) and Berg (2007), Mertens (2010:320) points out that researchers working within the constructivist paradigm typically select their samples with the sole goal of identifying information-rich cases that will allow them to study a case in depth, and further warn that the goal is not generalisation from a sample to the population. The use of purposive sampling was employed by the researcher, despite its limitations of “lack of wide generalisability” (Berg, 2007:44). In this study the subjects, being the school principals, their deputies and heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, learner representatives, circuit managers and their deputies, were purposefully chosen because they were found to be the ones who could provide rich information.

### 3.2.4 Gaining access

Mertens (2010:250), speaking to the concept “gaining permission”, submits that it is imperative for the researchers to follow appropriate procedures to gain permission from the gatekeepers of the organisation or agency (those with power in the organisation or agency) before data are collected. Bogdan and Biklen (2003:75) point out that getting permission to conduct a study is the first challenge to experience and often an enormous task to undertake, and further indicate that some would prefer to sidestep this mammoth task by doing covert research, but warn that it is advisable to do overt research. This approach was adapted in pursuance of this study.
In agreeing with the covert way of conducting research, Coolican (1999:135) maintains that disguise is one factor that might enhance the production of honest answers; obtain valid information where issues are highly sensitive, potentially embarrassing and otherwise felt to be a threat to the respondent if disclosed. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:342) agree that the field researcher would more often obtain information in advance through informal means. However, choosing a site is a negotiation process to obtain freedom of access to a site that is suitable for the research problems and feasible for the researcher’s resources of time, mobility, and skills (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:342). Bogdan and Biklen (2003:76) caution that getting permission to conduct the study involves more than getting an official blessing since it involves laying the ground for good rapport with those with whom the researcher will be spending time, so that they will accept him or her and what he or she will be doing.

Briggs and Coleman (2007:60) argue that it is often difficult to conduct research in some cultures and in some instances, even renowned academic researchers experience insurmountable problems regarding access. They further indicate that in some schools which are said to be highly researchable, access might always be difficult because many researchers wish to study them. Such schools become over-researched and eventually access is denied for the simple reason that there might be disruption to the normal school activities. Briggs and Coleman advise that there is always a need for the researchers to cultivate good relationships with potential participants, and where possible offer benefits to the school in return for their willingness to participate.

In this study, the researcher established a good working relationship and trust in some schools where there were secretaries, by talking to them humbly with a view to reaching the school principals and the other subjects. In the others where there were no secretaries, a list of the school’s directory was obtained from the circuit office and telephonic appointments were made directly with the principals and the purpose of the visit was explained in detail upon arrival at the site. In some school settings and government offices the entrances were manned by private security personnel who operated according to their terms whereby any visitor was required to sign in and out, while in some instances visitors were issued with access slips to
present to the host for signature and resubmit to the security personnel when leaving the premises. All these were possible through negotiation and regular visits to the sites.

### 3.3 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES

According to Holloway (1997:43), data are the information that the researcher amasses and generates the findings from. In concurring with Holloway (1997), Bogdan and Biklen (2003:109) refer to data as the rough material the researchers gather from the world they are studying and these are the particulars that form the core of analysis. Similarly, Blaikie (2003:15) contends that data are regarded as that which the researcher collects and analyses with a view to arriving at a research conclusion. Holloway (1997:43) and Bogdan and Biklen, (2003:109) agree that data comprise the following:

- Interview transcripts
- Diaries
- Participant observation field notes
- Photographs
- Official documents
- Journals and newspaper articles.

Mouton (1996:67) argues that the data-collection process is about applying the measuring instrument to the sample or cases selected for the investigation. He advises that researchers must bear in mind that the human senses, namely the eyes, ears, sometimes including taste and touch, are regarded as the first-order measuring instruments although they are qualitative. In terms of Mouton’s (1996:67) assertion, data collection purports to produce new information or data about the world that requires further processing, and the process involves two kinds of operations, namely data reduction during which the quantitative and qualitative data are summarised, and data analysis.
During the process of data collection, the study adhered to the following principles:

- Suspension of personal prejudices and biases
- Systematic and accurate recording of observations
- Establishment of trust and rapport with the interviewees
- Creating optimal conditions in terms of location or setting for the gathering of data (Mouton, 1996:111).

Among others, researchers have within their competencies triangulation as a process through which the same problem or phenomenon is investigated from different perspectives. This process is sometimes believed to have a positive impact on validity, thereby overcoming the biases inherent in a single perspective (Holloway, 1997:157). There are a number of triangulation types in research. In this study data triangulation was employed with a view to according the researcher the opportunity to gain data from different groups, locations and times. Data were collected from school principals, deputies, heads of department, chairpersons of school governing bodies, government officials and learners, through various research techniques, namely observation, interviews, documentary surveys and questionnaires as Holloway (1997:157) advises.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:374) concur with Holloway and maintain that triangulation is cross validation among data sources, data collection strategies, time periods and theoretical schemes. In this sense, they point out that a theme of institutional collaboration could be cross-checked by comparing data found from collections of artefacts (minutes, memos, official brochures, letters), informant interviews (project co-directors, teachers, principals) and field observation of project meetings.

In this study, permission was first sought from the school authorities with a view to accessing data from minutes of the school governing bodies and staff meetings, circulars, information books, educators’ work books, learners’ class and test books, learners’ registers and other related source documents which were found to be relevant to the phenomenon under
investigation. Additional data were obtained from the subjects through face-to-face and focus-group interviews which were recorded with the permission of the participants, and observation during which field notes were taken for reference. All these were possible because of a healthy environment cultivated, in that data were collected through sustained contact with the people in their natural setting where subjects normally spend their time, for example, classrooms and staffrooms in accordance with Bogdan and Biklen’s (2003:2) advice.

3.3.1 Observation

Denzin and Lincoln (2000:673, in Adler & Adler, 1994:389), point out that observation as one of the research techniques has been characterised as the fundamental basis of all research methods. This argument emanates from the assertion made that even studies based on direct interviews adapt observational techniques to note body language and other gestural cues that lend meaning to the words of the person who is being interviewed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:73). Holloway (1997:109) views observation as one of the strategies in data collection through which researchers as observers look at places and people in their natural setting.

While concurring with Holloway, Denzin and Lincoln (2000:674) add that observation in natural settings can be rendered as descriptions either through open-ended narrative or through the use of published checklists or field guides. Likewise, Gibson and Brown, (2009:100) using Emerson’s (1983) words, contend that observational research can be conducted for a number of specific reasons, in which case it is very often part of a general interest in understanding what people do and why are they doing that. However, this is in most instances articulated as being part of a broader concern with gaining insight from the insider’s point of view, while in Blumer’s (1969) words, it is imperative to understand the meanings that the activities have for the participants who carry them out.

According to Moyles in Briggs and Coleman (2007:250-251), observation is viewed as a useful and interesting tool for all researchers. Furthermore, it is a key means for leaders or managers to obtain both hard and soft evidence about the institution and well-conceived
structured informal observational methods can measure what exists and how it changes over time.

Holloway (1997:110-111) provides a four-tier description of observation, namely;

- The complete participant. In this observation session, the observer forms part of the setting and takes an insider role which often involves covert observation. However, be cautioned that this type of observation raises questions and concerns as to whether observing people without their knowledge is ethical or not.

- The participant as observer refers to observers who have negotiated their way into the setting, and assume the role of observers as part of the work group under study. This group often asks permission from the relevant gatekeepers. There are two advantages enjoyed in this form of observation, namely the ease of forging and extension of researcher participant relationships, and the free movement accorded to the researcher in the setting to do a detailed and in-depth observation.

- The third form of observation is the observer as participant. In this scenario, the observer as participant is only marginally involved in the situation but does not work directly as part of the workforce. But, they shall have made announcements regarding their interests and their public role, and gone through all the pains of gaining access. It is presented that the advantage that goes with this form of observation is that there are possibilities for the researcher to ask questions, and also to be accepted as a colleague and researcher but not called upon to assume the duties of the workforce.

- The complete observer refers to those researchers who do not take part in the setting and this form of observation is said to be only possible when the researcher observes through a two-way mirror in a setting where they are not visible and have no impact on the situation. However, permission should first be sought by the participants through the relevant authorities. It is in this form of observation where it is claimed that observers take three main steps being description, which involves all five senses, and also focuses on other important areas of the setting as they form an integral part of the research aim, and in the end the observation becomes highly selective (Spardley, 1980 in Holloway, 1997:111).
In this study, observation as a means of collecting data was employed in two different forms where in the first instance a passive mode was adapted in that the observer was somehow detached from the setting but looking intensively at the setting or the place of study and noting down the occurrences, while in the second, interaction by way of asking questions that related to the observed behaviour and the setting was also adapted with a view to understanding the meaning that participants attached to their activities. These added value to the study as enough information was gathered for the study.

Silverman (2001:46) synoptically provides the following as the aims of observational research:

- Seeing through the eyes of: viewing events, actions, norms, values, et cetera, from the perspective of the people being studied.
- Description: attending to mundane detail, to help us to understand what is going on in a particular context and to provide clues and pointers to other layers of reality.
- Contextualism: the basic message that qualitative research conveys is that whatever the sphere in which the data are being collected, events can only be understood when they are situated in the wider social and historical context.
- Process: viewing social life as involving interlocking series of events.
- Flexible research designs: qualitative researchers’ adherence to viewing social phenomena through the eyes of their subjects has led to a wariness regarding the imposition of prior and possibly inappropriate frames of reference on the field they study. This leads to a preference for an open and unstructured research design which increases the possibilities of coming across unexpected issues.
- Avoiding early use of theories and concepts: rejecting premature attempts to impose theories and concepts which may exhibit a poor fit with participants’ perspectives.

Permission was first sought with the authorities to enter the setting, as long as it did not interfere with teaching and learning. The authorities in this context were first the office of the Head of the Department in the district from whom permission was sought. The second level
of authority approached was the circuit office where negotiations were held with the circuit managers who also sanctioned the study and the third level was the school principals who embraced the study and encouraged the potential participants, who in this context were the educators, the learners and the chairpersons of the school governing bodies who showed interest and participated meaningfully in the study.

This approach was successful as the research was never viewed by the potential subjects as originating from management. Holloway (1997:2) warns that it is not always advisable to adopt this kind of approach as it might bring in an element of reluctance on the part of the participants and they might not disclose their thoughts. The researcher has over the period of three months observed a number of occurrences including verbal and non-verbal communication such as facial expressions, eye contact, relaxed natural posture, during the interview sessions. During this session, the observed behaviour which included how people acted and interacted in their natural settings were recorded in the form of field notes as they spontaneously occurred.

The topic under investigation was viewed as sensitive by some of the participants, especially the junior members of staff and some learner representatives who were at first uneasy about responding to some of the questions, even though the purpose of the study was clearly outlined. The only solution to this challenge was the maintenance of the established rapport between the subjects and the researcher as well as the assurance that the proceedings would be kept strictly confidential and the names of the participants anonymous. The observation technique provided the researcher with an opportunity to watch and study the subjects’ behaviour in their natural setting without much interference.

3.3.2 Questionnaire survey

Questionnaires are another means of collecting data about the phenomenon from the subjects or respondents. According to De Vos and Fouché (in De Vos et al., 1998:89), questionnaires are viewed as one of the methods relevant to the quantitative approach, and are also instruments through which the subjects are asked to respond to both open-ended and closed
questions or to respond to statements. Haslam and McGarty (2003:120) regard questionnaires as one of the most common forms of survey instrument which should not be viewed as being limited to survey research only, but as a research tool that could as well be used in many experimental designs.

Moore (1983:120) agrees with Haslam and McGarty (2003:120) that self-completion questionnaires are very popular with researchers, relatively easy to administer, user-friendly in that they can be used to collect a wide range of data in a number of different circumstances, highly valued economically, and probably the most commonly used social research method. McMillan and Schumacher concur with Haslam and McGarty on the characteristics of a questionnaire, and add that a questionnaire contains the same questions for all the subjects, which ensures anonymity.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:258) refer to a questionnaire as a method through which researchers ask the respondents to complete the written questions at their disposal themselves, hence the concept “self-administered questionnaires”. Babbie and Mouton (2001:258) advise that self-administered questionnaires are most suitable for the literate population. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:185) agree, and add that participants are likely to respond to the posed questions with the assurance that their responses will be anonymous, and in that way they will be encouraged to be more truthful than they would be in a personal interview. De Vos and Fouché (in De Vos et al., 1998:89) bring the following to the fore as other kinds of questionnaires: mailed or posted questionnaires, telephonic questionnaires and group questionnaires.

Adding to the kinds of questionnaires, Babbie and Mouton (2001:258) enlist home delivery as another method through which researchers mail the questionnaires to the households of the respondents and pick them up at a later stage or, alternatively, hand deliver the questionnaires to be mailed back using a self-addressed envelope, or the researchers collect themselves. Fouché (in De Vos et al., 1998:155) concurs and maintains that sometime researchers hand deliver the questionnaires themselves to the respondents so that they are able to complete them in their own time and then they collect them at a later stage. Fouché warns that it is
essential that an appointment be made to collect the questionnaires within forty-eight (48) hours of delivery. Moore (1983:127) does not agree with Fouché regarding the collection period, and says that the normal thing for a researcher to do is to give the respondents a two-week period to respond, perhaps sending a reminder towards the end of the first week. The researcher made a number of phone calls to remind the participants and to enhance the response rate.

In this study, a designed questionnaire comprising of seven subsections was used to collect data from the educators. The first section (A) of the questionnaire elicited personal information relating to age, gender, the level of academic qualification attained, the highest level of professional training, number of years in the field as an educator, and the union that individual educators belonged to. The second section (B) consisted of nineteen questions which aimed at gathering data on the experience, knowledge and perceptions of the participants on the concept “governance”. The third section (C) consisted of only one question that dealt with discipline in schools. The fourth section (D) consisting of three questions, aimed at gathering data on the issue of financial management. The fifth section (E) comprised of four questions and elicited data on performance management in schools. The sixth section (F) that consisted of three questions, aimed at gathering information about curriculum delivery, while the seventh section (G) that was made up of two questions, elicited data on a general overview regarding the phenomenon under study (see annexure four).

The questionnaires were hand delivered, with a clear consent form indicating that the participants may withdraw their participation. The questionnaires were hand delivered to the educators through the principals and in some instances to individual educators and were collected later, while some were returned by the respondents themselves. The researcher adhered to Babbie and Mouton’s advice in that the questionnaires were distributed to the educators who were literate and happened to form part of the population under investigation.

Moore (1983:127) says that arguably the most difficult exercise to undergo is to retrieve a questionnaire for correction. It is imperative to test the questionnaire before distributing it with a view to ensuring that it works. Moore contends that it is advisable for it to undergo
two stages of pre-testing, namely sending a draft to one or two people who can be trusted to give an honest opinion and this should include the client for the work and two other researchers who might be able to identify potential problems. Similarly, Armstrong and Grace (1994:78) contend that there are always unexpected problems and difficulties in any research endeavour. It is therefore essential for the researcher to first conduct what they term a pilot study. According to their assertion, a pilot study is a dress rehearsal for the main study during which the process of fine tuning takes place. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:148) argue that a pilot study purports to detect any flaws in the measuring instrument such as ambiguous instructions and inadequate time limits as well as to identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items.

It is emphasised that in order to have the piloting process correct, it is imperative to use a sample that resembles as much as possible the characteristics of the one that is going to be used in the main sample (Armstrong & Grace, 1994:78). Briggs and Coleman (2007:232) point out that it is only when a group similar to the chosen sample completes the questionnaire and provides feedback that one can confidently say that all is well. Briggs and Coleman (2007:232) advise that if a group with the same characteristics as the chosen population cannot be found, then friends, colleagues, or anyone who can be of service should be asked. Fortunately in this study, the targeted population being educators, suitable educators were found and each participant was issued with a questionnaire to respond to.

In this research the questionnaire as such was not piloted, but it was given to a renowned researcher and a colleague to edit and then sent to the researcher’s supervisor who, after effecting some corrections, approved the questionnaire.

Two hundred and fifty (250) questionnaires were issued to the respondents in envelopes and the researcher waited for their responses. All the respondents were advised to seal the envelopes upon returning the completed questionnaires to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. A record was kept of what was dispatched, and the returns of the filled questionnaire were monitored against the list of mailed questionnaires as they came in. Reminders by telephone and personal visits were made and in the end a response rate of one
hundred and fifty-seven (157), which makes up a percentage of sixty-two point eight (62.8%) was achieved. Black (1999:213) argues that there seems to be an understanding or an assumption that a sixty per cent (60%) response rate in research is acceptable. Contrary to Black (1999:213), Blaikie (2003:167) contends that it is imperative to achieve a very high response rate at eighty-five per cent (85%).

The ninety-three questionnaires which translate into thirty-seven point two percent (37.2%) that accounts for the number of unused as well as unreturned questionnaires were realised at the end. The main exacerbating factor that caused the shortfall was the sensitivity of the topic as well as the period during which the questionnaires were distributed, as the respondents, especially those in Secondary/High schools were engaged in their continuous assessment exercises. The other contributing factor was the length of the questionnaire as some of the subjects were honest enough to openly confess that they felt as if they were writing an examination, while others indicated that they had learnt a lot as the line of questioning had aroused their interest in the phenomenon under study. However, the response rate was just above par, as Black (1993:213) recommends. The researcher was therefore able to inductively analyse the data with a view to generalising from there.

### 3.3.3 Interview survey

An interview is one other research instrument used by researchers to elicit data regarding the topic under investigation. Arksey and Knight (1999:15) indicate that an interview is one method used in research through which the human world of beliefs and meanings may be explored. Similarly, Kvale (1996:5-6) points out that a research interview is based on the conversations of daily life which could be defined as an interview, the purpose of which is to obtain descriptions of the life of the interviewee in respect of interpreting the meaning of the descriptive phenomenon. Kvale (1996:6) adds emphatically that an interview is a conversation that has a structure and a purpose beyond the spontaneous exchange of views as in daily life and it becomes a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge. Neuman (2000:274) regards an interview as a short-term, secondary social interaction between two strangers with the explicit purpose of one person’s obtaining specific information from the other.
In justifying the reason for interviewing, Patton (1990:278) points out that since one cannot observe everything, cannot observe feelings, thoughts and intentions, behaviours that took place at some previous point in time, situations that preclude the present, how people organised the world and meanings they attach to what goes on in the world, it is imperative to ask people questions with a view to entering into other people’s perspectives. It is for that reason that Patton (1990) argues that qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspectives of others are meaningful, knowledgeable, and able to be made explicit. Denzin and Lincoln (2000:646) concur and argue that it would seem that everyone, not only the social researchers, relies on the interview as a source of information, assuming that interviewing produces true and accurate pictures of the respondents’ selves and lives.

Bogdan and Biklen (2003:95) declare that in qualitative research, interviews may be used in two ways, in that they may be the dominant strategy for data collection, or they may be employed in conjunction with participant observation, document analysis or other techniques. Agreeing with Bogdan and Biklen (1990), Arksey and Knight (1999:33) add and suggest that rather than seeing interviews and questionnaires in opposition to one another, it might be better to see them as complementary within a multipart study.

3.3.4 Individual or face-to-face interviews

According to Gomm (2004:176), one-to-one qualitative interviews are usually conducted with the aim of producing a picture of the interviewee as a person with their own way of understanding the world. In this study the researcher arranged with the participants to meet at the agreed setting and time to have a one-to-one conversation on the phenomenon under study. All the participants were informed that the conversation was going to be recorded and they all consented. Babbie and Mouton (2001:249) assert that due mainly to the low level of literacy of the South African population, face-to-face interviews are the most common method to collect survey data. Rather than asking the respondents to read the questionnaire and enter their own answers, instead the researchers send interviewers to ask the questions orally and record the respondents’ answers.

In pursuance of this study the researcher found this procedure beneficial as the questions were read to the participants to respond and their responses were recorded as agreed. Babbie
and Mouton (2001:251) agree, provided that the interviewer’s presence does not affect the answer given, and as they advise, it can be achieved by matching the following characteristics:

- The ability to match, speak the home language of the respondents is essential.
- It is desirable to match ethnic groupings, sex, and age category as young interviewers may have difficulty in interviewing their elders.
- It is preferable to use an interviewer from the same area, but not necessarily from the same village depending on the survey content.

The researcher had, with the permission of the relevant authorities, met with the school principals, deputy principals where applicable, heads of department, chairpersons of school governing bodies of the chosen schools, as well as the chosen government officials (the circuit managers and their deputies) individually at times and places agreed upon.

The time spent on the individual interviews with the chosen participants took at most one hour and forty-five minutes which is fifteen minutes more than Seideman (1998:13-14) considers to be appropriate. Seideman argues that an hour carries with it the consciousness of a standard unit of time that can have participants watching their clock, and cautions that two hours seems too long to sit at one time. What becomes explicit in terms of the required duration is a ninety minute format, as it is argued that anything shorter than ninety minutes for each interview seems too short (Seideman, 1998:14).

In this study, the researcher was able to communicate in their home language with those who could not converse in English. In this case, Northern Sotho was used as most of the people were Northern Sotho-speaking. The issue of the ethnic group, gender, age category in this study did not matter as the researcher was able to interview respondents of different ages, gender and ethnic groups with great success. This study was beneficial in the sense that the researcher was able to establish rapport with the potential respondents who were cooperative
as were all those who were approached. They participated, and honoured the appointments as Leedy and Ormrod (2005:184-185) advise.

The chosen schools were four high or secondary and four primary schools with different structures of management which translated into some schools having fewer positions in management than their counterparts. Against this background, the total population for this study was eight principals, four deputy principals, eight heads of department, and seven chairpersons of the individual school governing bodies. Added to these, the study also included eight circuit managers and eight deputy managers for governance. The difference in the schools’ structure did not affect the study since each participant contributed meaningfully, thereby significantly adding value to the study.

The study took place at the time when educators were on a national strike which required circuit managers to be on their toes to ensure that learning took place despite all the demonstrations. Apart from the strike action, the study was also affected by the work load on the part of the high or secondary school educators who were supposed to submit their continuous assessment reports shortly after the strike. Despite all these, the researcher met with all the participants at the agreed venues and times, although some appointments were disrupted and rescheduled for continuity. All the interviews were tape-recorded as per the agreement with the interviewees, except for the one school governing body chairperson who refused to take part in the study and was not in any way coerced. The interviewed number of the school governing body chairpersons remained at seven. However, the study yielded positive results as was intended.

3.3.5 Focus-group interviews

Briggs and Coleman (2007:212), in the words of Morgan (2002:141), regard focus-group interviews as a research technique that is used to amass data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. In agreeing with Briggs and Coleman (2007), Gomm (2004:170) contends that focus-group interviews consist of a group focused on a topic provided by the researcher and adds that the group size would typically range between eight
Focus groups are regarded as a special kind of interview situation that are largely non-quantitative, where the researcher brings together six (6) to twelve (12) people in a room with a moderator to discuss one issue or more for at least one to two hours (Neuman, 2000:274).

Bogdan and Biklen (2003:101) concur with Gomm (2004), Neuman (2000) and Berg (2007) regarding the numbers that constitute a focus group as between seven (7) and ten (10). In Arksy and Knight’s (1999:77) definition, a group interview refers to a selection of people who are invited to respond to the researcher’s questions. Like the other authors, Berg (2007:145) refers to a focus group as an interview style designed for small groups but in the words of Krueger (1994), he directs that for complex problems focus-group size should be kept to no more than about seven participants.

According to Berg (2009:158), in the words of Edmund (2000), focus-group interviews are sometimes used to collect data quickly and conveniently from several people simultaneously. However, group interactions are used explicitly as part of the data-gathering method. Furthermore, Berg points out emphatically that focus-group interviews are guided or unguided group discussions addressing a particular topic of interest or relevance to the group and the researcher. Quoting Gubrium and Holstein (2001), Berg (2009:159) says that the informal group-discussion atmosphere of the focus-group interview structure is intended to encourage participants to speak freely and openly about behaviours, attitudes, and opinions they possess, but caution that all should stay on the subject. Similarly, Gibson and Brown (2009:97) argue that when identifying an interview setting, it is imperative to consider such settings that would include convenience for the interviewee or interviewer, the appropriateness of the environment for recording the talk, as well as the level of privacy that a particular setting should afford. However, it should be added that research interests may also play a fundamental role in selecting the setting of an interview.

In addition, Bogdan and Biklen (2003:101) point out that focus-group interviews are useful when the topic to explore is general, and the purpose is either to stimulate the talk from multiple perspectives among the group participants so that the researcher can learn what the
range of views are, or promote talk on a topic that informants might not be able to talk about so thoughtfully in individual interviews. While participants can stimulate each other to articulate their views, or even realise what their own views are, the potential challenges may be that individuals may be embarrassed to share important experiences they have had, resulting in the researcher’s losing quality data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003:101).

Adding to Bogdan and Biklen’s (2003) understanding of focus-group interviews, McMillan and Schumacher (2006:360) refer to the focus-group interview as a purposively sampled group of people who are being interviewed, rather than each person individually. It is in this created social environment where group members are stimulated by others’ perceptions and ideas, through which the researcher can increase the quality and the richness of data more efficiently than in one-on-one interviews (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:360).

Patton (1990:335) concurs with Bogdan & Biklen (2003) and McMillan and Schumacher (2006), but describes a focus group as participants who are typically a relatively homogeneous group of people asked to reflect on the questions posed by the interviewer, with the sole intent of hearing each other’s responses and to make additional comments beyond their own original responses as they hear what other people have to say. It is cautioned that in this type of setting it is not necessary for the group to reach any kind of consensus, nor is it necessary for people to disagree, but in the main, to amass high-quality data in a social context where people can consider their own views in the context of the views of others (Patton, 1990:335).

In terms of Schurink, and Schurink and Poggenpoel’s assertion (in De Vos et al., 1998:314), the focus-group interview enables the researcher to develop inductively, that is from the bottom up rather than from the top down, the concepts, generalisations and theories that are grounded in or reflect the intimate knowledge of the people participating in the focus-group interview.
In pursuance of this task, the researcher also met with the representatives of the learners of the two high schools as the subjects in a group of five, as Holloway (1997:74) argues that the number of a focus group depends on the needs of the researcher and the demands of the topic, but adds that for a single research question the number ranges between three and four participants. He emphasises that the actual number depends on the complexity of the research topic. Five participants were given to the researcher as the top executive of the representative council of the learners. This provision of five participants was contrary to what Holloway (1997) and Neuman (2000:274) recommend. They contend that a researcher should gather a number ranging between six and twelve in a focus-group interview.

In this study the targeted population was chosen from the four high or secondary schools only, as the primary schools do not have learner representative councils as per the prescriptions of the South African Schools Act, 1996. This could be viewed as a shortfall, taking into account that only fifty per cent of the total targeted population participated in the study. The situation was worsened by the fact that the three high schools that had councils could not take part during the first attempt to have an interview due to the trial examination that was taking place, and subsequently the final examination also kept them busy until they left. At the second attempt, only two schools had learner representative councils and they were still new in their positions. Positive results were generated, however, as the two councils showed interest and their voluntarily participation was effective.

Both the individual and focus-group interviews were tape recorded with the permission of the participants and the participants’ words were preserved in the form of original data for future reference in case of accusations of abusing their interview material as precisely spelled out by Seideman (1998:97).

3.3.6 Documentary survey

According to Fitzgerald (in Briggs & Coleman, 2007:278), documents litter the worlds in which people live and provide evidence that narrates the details of people’s personal and professional lives. Birth certificates, school attendance records, examination results,
passports, drivers’ licenses, et cetera, are presented as examples of documents containing personal details that could assist in building a portrait of an individual (Briggs & Coleman, 2007:278). Another set of documents that according to Briggs and Coleman (2007:278) partially constitute public professional records are, among others, employer applications, teacher registration, performance management records, curriculum books and statements, school inspections, institutional website data, policies, meeting agendas and minutes, letters to parents, et cetera.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:300) concur, although they add that a human or personal document is one in which the human and personal characteristics of somebody who is in some sense the author of the document finds expression, so that through its means the reader of the document comes to know the author and his/her views of events with which the document is concerned. (quoted from Redfield in Gottsckalk et al., 1942:vii). In agreeing with Babbie and Mouton (2001), Holloway (1997:51) in the words of Merriam (1998), states that documents do not change through the presence of the researcher, but are grounded in their context, and this makes them useful and rich sources of information for researchers. Mason (1996 in Holloway, 1997:50) refers to documentary data as text-based or non text-based that consist of written documents and records as well as graphic presentation and photographs or films. In addition, Hammersley and Atkinson (1995, in Holloway, 1997:50) point out that documentary data provide valuable information that cannot be investigated by direct observation or questioning by the researchers.

Documentary survey enables the researchers or professionals to acquire a perspective on history which provides the insiders’ views on past lives and attitudes, while on the other hand, contemporary documents such as articles, and comments in the press can be analysed and make such professionals aware of the significant features of issues or the dramatisation of particular events (Holloway, 1997 51). As in the case of interviews, questionnaires and observations, qualitative researchers are most often obliged to seek access to diaries, people’s own accounts of their lives, letters, as well as to historical documents or the products of the media (Holloway, 1997:51).
Documents from schools, colleges and universities can provide valuable information about the context and culture of the said institutions and frequently provide another window for the researcher to read between the lines of official discourse with a view to triangulating information through interviews, observations and questionnaires (Fitzgerald, 2007, in Briggs & Coleman, 2007:278).

In pursuance of this study, the researcher sought permission first with the authorities with a view to accessing documents such as time books, learners’ registers, minutes of both the school management teams and the staff and the school governing bodies, admission records, information books, audited statements, learners’ registers, inventory registers, the learners’ class work and their test books, the educators’ work books et cetera, in accordance with Holloway’s (1997:51) advice.

The school principals were of great assistance in this regard in that they gathered the required documents, for example, the time book which revealed the different times at which the educators were reporting for work as well as when they were knocking off. In some instances where the educators were to leave earlier than the official times, some stated the reason while some just left an open space, for example, “union meeting” or “family responsibility as agreed”, and all this information was beneficial to the study. In situations where the school principals were taken away from the school by other business responsibilities, the deputy principals or heads of department were delegated to assist and that worked well. Minutes of both the school management teams and school governing bodies were beneficial to this study as the contents discussed included cases that impacted on service delivery and so did the resolutions that were taken. The information books that were used as a communication tool among and the members of the teaching staff were also perused. These books contained information that was being filtered down to the educators, for example information from the circuit office as well as internally from the school management team that pertained to the school’s wellbeing. The office of the school management team circulated a notebook referred to as an information book to make the educators aware of any noteworthy activity.
The learners’ registers assisted with the verification of the level of absenteeism in schools which would have a negative impact on service delivery. The audited statements bore testimony to how schools utilised the public funds at their disposal, in which case service delivery could be impacted upon negatively if not properly utilised and accounted for. Admission books revealed whether schools complied with the rule that required of them to admit all the learners from the previous year for the coming academic year as prescribed. Inventory records presented the number of assets the individual schools had and that was also translated into accountability. The learners’ class work and test books illustrated the progress made by the individual learners. The educators’ workbooks revealed whether the educators did preparation in line with their job requirements or not. The individual educators’ assessment files were also perused to check on how individual schools administered performance appraisal to enhance service delivery.

The process of documentary survey in schools went well, with the exception of two schools. One of the high schools literally denied the researcher access to the documents, arguing that it was the school’s policy not to allow strangers access to school documents. The dictates of the Access to Information Act, 2000 could have been utilised in this case to force the school to allow access to the required documents. However, issues of ethics were also taken into account. In one of the primary schools, the second-in-command member of personnel could not make all the documents that were needed for the study available in the absence of the principal, even though prior arrangements had been made. However, this did not affect the study as the principle of generalisation was applied in some instances within the prescripts of research.

### 3.3.7 Data analysis and interpretation

Data analysis refers to the process through which researchers are able to systematically search and arrange the interview transcripts, field notes, and other materials they have accumulated to enable them to come up with findings (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003:147). In this study, data was collected through questionnaires, observation, interviews (individual and focus-group), and documentary surveys. Patton (1990:371) concurs and indicates that the process of data analysis is not an end in itself. It is imperative for researchers to analyse,
interpret, and make a presentation of the findings. De Vos and Fouché (in De Vos, ed. 1998:14) concur and add that the analysis of research data does not in itself provide the answers to the research questions, but the interpretation of data is essential to explain and attach meaning to the phenomenon. In describing the interpretation of data, Bogdan and Biklen (2003:147) explain that the process of developing ideas is about the findings and relating them to the literature and other broader concerns and concepts, while analysis involves the process of working with data and organising them, breaking data into manageable units, coding data, and searching for patterns.

All data that were collected through qualitative and quantitative research means called for the qualitative analysis and quantitative data analysis that were employed in this study. This was done in line with Blaikie’s (2003:47) assertion, that qualitative methods are used when the data are in words and remain in words throughout the analysis, while quantitative methods are used when the data have been collected in or are soon to be converted into numbers for analysis. The data from the questionnaire were analysed as outlined in the following set of processes:

- **Organising the data**

The data that were collected from the questionnaire, observation, and documents were enormous and needed to be carefully scrutinised and organised for easy handling. In this study, data from the responses as presented by the individual subjects were read through and re-read with a view to establishing similarities, looking for consistent patterns of meaning, identifying and highlighting meaningful phrases as advised by Holloway (1997:44). McMillan and Schumacher (2006:417) maintain that it is important that the data be clear and well organised as quantitative analysis researchers will be compelled to look for redundancy in what is being communicated after they have gained a complete understanding of what has been observed and recorded. Quantitative data are summarised using simple descriptive statistics. This study followed the same principles, as the data were initially categorised or broken into manageable sections as suggested by McMillan and Schumacher (2006:417) and Holloway (1997:44). For example, raw data were grouped as scores or values and later
presented as frequency tables as advised by Black (1999:307) (see tables one and two in Chapter four).

- **Coding**

Neuman (2000:314) refers to coding as a systematic reorganising of raw data into a form that is machine-readable. The raw data were read from the responses in the individual questionnaire, field notes, grouped as categories, transferred into a minute book and later put into a computer using Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to convert the quantitative data into percentages. Holloway (1997:31) refers to a category as a conceptual label given to higher order concepts which are grouped together.

In further analysing the collected data, qualitative data in the form of text, written words, phrases, or symbols describing or representing people, actions or events in social life were also handled in this study. During the process of analysis, new concepts were formed through asking critical questions of data, while those concepts that are grounded in the data were refined with a view to acquiring more detailed and specifically defined meanings.

- **Data verification**

The last lap in data analysis is conclusions. In this study conclusions were drawn from the patterns apparent in the data which were first confirmed with a view to assuring that they are real and not merely wishful thinking on the part of the researcher, as Berg (2003:8) advises. During the process of verification, the collected data were thoroughly read through with a view to absorbing the essence of interviews conducted and the discussions, as well as understanding what the respondents had been thinking. The responses were re-read as they were being returned to with a view to specifically comparing and contrasting the responses. Moore (1983:134) explicitly asserts that researchers should check whether the responses are presenting the same view but expressed indirectly without losing the original thought.

- **Reliability and validity**

Holloway (1997:129) describes how researchers make sure that the findings of the research are trustworthy and authentic. Reliability refers to the extent to which a technique or procedure will generate the same results regardless of how, when, and where the research is carried out or the extent to which the instrument is consistent (Holloway, 1997:136-137),
while validity is twofold, namely internal validity referring to the extent to which its design and the data it yields draw accurate conclusions about cause and effect and other relationships within the data, whereas external validity refers to the extent to which its results apply to situations beyond the study itself, that is the extent to which conclusions can be generalised to other contexts.

In adhering to these fundamental aspects of research, the researcher found it wise to adapt to issues of reliability and validity to enhance credibility of the study as follows:

The procedure to be used in collecting data was first planned in that the settings from where the data were to be collected were decided upon. Negotiations were held with the potential subjects with a view to agreeing on where and when the meetings were going to take place depending on the circumstances. For example, some were met at their offices, homes or neutral places, while the learners were met at a place as arranged by the authorities at their schools as set out by McMillan and Schumacher (2006:133). In enhancing validity within the study, the researcher stayed in the setting for a period of three months and often visited the setting even after the three months’ period to verify other issues, in accordance with Denzin and Lincoln’s (2000:395) assertion. Finally, it was ensured that consistency was maintained in observing truth value and neutrality throughout the research process as proposed by Arkyn and Knight (1999:54-55).

- **Triangulation**

According to Briggs and Coleman (2007:100), triangulation is regarded as a means of comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information or phenomena, or it may refer to the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspects of human behaviour. In this study, different methods such as interviews with the school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, and learner representative councils, observation, questionnaires and documentary surveys were employed with a view to validating the findings.
3.3.8 Ethical issues

Briggs and Coleman (2007:110) argue that a key principle for conducting ethical research is that of voluntarism by the participants when engaging with research, while Holloway (1997:128) advises that researchers should consider and demonstrate ethical issues. In this sense the research was undertaken with a clear understanding that the ethical imperatives need not be compromised. Rather, a highly professional ethical standard was maintained with a view to producing a credible source document.

In adhering to the principles of ethics in this study, written permission was sought from the Department of Education to conduct research within its territory, being in schools or the circuits. Secondly, the researcher gained access to the participants through their principals. The participants voluntarily consented to complete the questionnaires which were distributed with an enclosed envelope to enhance confidentiality. Those participants who were subjected to the interview were also informed that the sessions were going to be recorded and therefore, their consent was essential to the study, and all agreed to being recorded.

The researcher also attached a letter of appeal and explanation to the consent form for the potential participants to understand that they were not in any way being coerced. They were informed that they were free to withdraw their participation as Cohen et al. (2000, in Briggs & Coleman, 2008:110) advise. According to Holloway (1997:7), anonymity in research means that the participants in the process cannot be identified at any time by the reader of the report. In ensuring that ethical principles are enhanced, the researcher promised the participants confidentiality and anonymity in that their names would not be reflected in the document unless they so directed, when entering the setting. Furthermore, the participants were also promised that pseudonyms or characters would be used instead to protect them from being identified. In the main, data were collected with respect and also handled with the sensitivity it deserved as per the dictates of ethical research.
3.3.9 Limitations of the study

According to Holloway (1997:98-99), the limitations of the study (design and methods) are its restrictions and shortcomings which translate into weaknesses over which the researcher has no control. Furthermore, such restrictions should be openly stated at the same time as the researcher explains the advantages and strengths of the design and should include the lack of representativeness. Arksey and Knight (1999:51), in the words of Campbell and Stanley (1963), give the classic account of threats to validity that researchers have to live with as there is sometimes little that can be done about some threats. The concept “delimitation” is often used side by side with limitation in research and it refers to both physical and social boundaries which limit the scope of the research. These are within the control of the researcher and are imposed by the researcher, but also inherent in the research questions (Creswell, 1994, in Holloway, 1997:47).

In this study the researcher was confined to the two circuits, namely Polokwane and Mankweng of the Limpopo Department of Education. The researcher was unfortunate in the sense that the timing of the study coincided with the national strike. However, the researcher was able to conduct interviews with some of the subjects at the agreed time and the preferred venue, engage in documentary surveys as well as observations in some settings which were accessible at the time.

One other limitation that was realised during the survey, was the subjects who could not converse in English and the researcher was forced to translate the questions into the language they understood better, and clarify and explain some questions to those who were puzzled as suggested by Arksey and Knight (1999:53). The researcher also experienced a number of postponements of the scheduled meetings with the subjects as they were equally affected by the strike. The other limitation experienced by the researcher was the refusal of some authorities to offer access to the school documents.
Chapter 3: CONCLUSION

This chapter described the research design that was adopted in pursuance of the study. It also described the methodologies that were employed in the study, namely, qualitative and quantitative research methods. The chapter further described how the population for the study was sampled and also how the schools, other participants and the sites were chosen. It also described in detail how access was gained to the settings and the difficulties that were experienced in the process. The chapter also described a number of gatekeepers that normally make it easy or difficult for the researchers to gain access to the settings or even to the documents which form part of the study. Data collection techniques that were employed to amass data, namely observation, questionnaires, interviews (individual and focus-group) were also discussed. The chapter described how data were analysed, organised, reduced, conceptualised, and verified. It also described how data were triangulated. Issues of validity and reliability which include internal and external validity were also described.

The study was successful, although there were a number of challenges experienced, starting with the access to documents in some instances, postponement of appointments with subjects and others as outlined in the limitation of the study (3.3.9). All the parties involved showed interest in the study and it was therefore possible to amicably counter any unforeseen and undesirable circumstances immediately.

The next chapter presents the findings of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of the data collected for the study on “Assessing the impact of school governance on service delivery in the Department of Education”. It is preceded by a detailed profile of the participants during the survey.

For this study, the word processor (Excel spreadsheet) was used to analyse the collected data from one hundred and fifty-seven (157) questionnaires, and a recording device to gather data from the school principals, their deputies and heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, government officials and the executive of the learners’ representative councils in the case of high or secondary schools. The collected data were analysed and presented in the form of bar charts.

4.2 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

4.2.1 The respondents’ personal information

4.2.1.1 Personal information of the respondents in terms of age
The information in the above bar chart illustrates the ages of the respondents to indicate that the 30%, 17% and 9% were working towards their exit, in terms of the official pensionable age of 55 years. However, it could be argued that they were the group to rely on in terms of their experience acquired over time, while on the other hand, they could be classified under those who had reached a plateau and were not performing well as could be expected any longer.

4.2.1.2 Gender of the respondents who participated in the study

Bar chart 2: The respondents by gender
This bar chart presents that the 44% of the respondents in this study were males while the 56% were females. The interpretation of the information reflected the principle of gender equality which promoted preference in the appointment of women.

4.2.1.3 The level of academic education attained by the respondents

Bar chart 3: The respondents’ level of academic education attained

The information in the above table indicates that 34% of the respondents had attained grade twelve as their highest level of academic qualification, while the 27% of the respondents had attained a Bachelor’s degree as their highest level of academic qualification attained at the time of the survey. There were 33% of the respondents who held senior degrees (Honours) as their highest level of qualification while 5% had attained a master’s degree as their highest level of academic qualification, and 1% of the respondents had attained a Doctoral degree at the time of the survey. These achievements could be viewed as embracing the ethos of lifelong learning and continuing education in South Africa. However, the research aspect in academic achievement appeared to be lagging behind as the chart indicated only five master’s degrees and one PhD.
4.2.1.4 The highest level of professional training

Bar chart 4: The level of professional qualification attained by the respondents

The information in the above bar chart elucidates the highest level of professional training attained by the respondents. The interpretation of the chart, read in conjunction with bar chart 3 above, indicated that there was a positive move in terms of the improvement of qualifications on the part of the respondents who participated in this study. It also implied that those educators who were referred to as under-qualified, had since improved both their academic and professional qualifications to reduce the sum of under-qualified educators that
had been a concern for the Department of Education. This was in line with the report that articulated the joint venture between the Limpopo Department of Education and the Department of Education of the University of Limpopo that endeavoured to have a positive impact on the educators’ professional qualifications through the introduction of a National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE). Added to this lucrative qualification, there were a four-year B.Ed degree, Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE), Certificate of Education in Mathematics (ACEM) and many more ACEs which were offered with the sole intent of having a positive impact on service delivery in the Department of Education.

4.2.1.5 The number of years the respondents have been in the education system

The information in the bar chart above indicates that the 15% of the respondents had been in the employ of the Department of Education as educators for a period of between 1 and 10 years, 36% for a period between 11 and 20 years, 38% for a period of between 21 and 30 years, 10% for a period of 31 to 40 years, while 1% had been in the system as educators for a period of between 41 and 50 years at the time of the survey. The interpretation of this information is that the majority of the respondents had worked for the Department of Education as educators for at most 46 years at a level of maturity that had been acquired over the years. The unpleasant situation was that these educators, although possessing the necessary qualifications, and having acquired the necessary experience and the level of
maturity over the years, might be looking at their work as unfulfilling and just a routine, since promotional posts in the teaching profession are few.

4.2.1.6 The labour movements

Bar chart 6: The labour movements to which the respondents are affiliated

The information in this bar chart indicates that the teaching fraternity was unionised and members were affiliated to the Professional Educators’ Union which represented sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents, and the South African Democratic Union which had a representation of eighty-four percent (84%) at the time of the survey. The information in this bar chart also elucidated that although other unions were represented, the South African Democratic Teachers’ Union had a large percentage in terms of membership at both the school and bargaining chamber levels. The interpretation could well be that when the South African Teachers’ Union opted to embark on a strike, there would be no effective service delivery in schools, and it would influence the decisions at the bargaining council during the negotiations as it enjoyed the majority membership.
4.2.1.7 Sufficient influence in developing school policies

Bar chart 7: Respondents’ influence in developing school policies

The information in the above bar chart depicts that 78% of the respondents indicated that they had an influence in developing the school policies, while 22% indicated that they did not have any influence in developing the school policies. The affirmation made by the seventy-eight percent (78%) could be viewed that educators were interested in the wellbeing of their schools and therefore they had a say in policy formulation. Discipline was one crucial aspect that needed to be regulated and handled with caution through policy or the learners’ code of conduct which advocated a safe and a conducive environment for learning and teaching. The 22% of respondents were perhaps not aware of the stipulations of the South African Schools Act (Act no. 84 of 1996), while the researcher might conclude that to the 22% of the respondents, pieces of legislation with specific reference to the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 1996 would be difficult to understand. Furthermore, on the negative side, the respondents might not have taken the process of consultation seriously as according to them there was no opportunity to add their views on policy development as such.
4.2.1.8 Good working relationship between the educators and the management team

The bar chart above indicates that 83% of the respondents contended that in their schools educators and the school management team had a good working relationship. They argued that whenever there was an issue that needed to be resolved, the school management team involved them and allowed inputs in meetings and briefings. A spirit of teamwork and participatory management was promoted. At times the team differed in opinion, but resolved such differences amicably. The researcher’s view was that the principal was the senior member of personnel in the school management team whose prime responsibility was to unite all the team players within the school and build a lasting trust among educators and the school governing body. The 17% that indicated that there was no good working relationship between themselves and the school management team in their schools, contended that the school management team made educators feel as if they were their masters, whereas they were all employees. It was observed that school principals in some schools were no longer participating in teaching and that elevated them to the position of overseers and facilitators within the school setting. The principal in this case was viewed as the ultimate head within the school management echelon whose fundamental role was to lead with his or her management team, thereby promoting participative management. Perhaps this scenario was viewed as dictatorship by those who argued that there was a sour relationship between them
and the school management team. The second argument as presented by the 17% leading to educators defying their school management teams, was the difference in qualifications attained, as well as the women leading management. The 17% could be displaying their non-acceptance of their school management team for other reasons known only to them.

4.2.1.9 **Good working relationship among educators**

The information in the above bar chart shows that eighty-eight percent (88%) of the respondents agreed that generally the relationship among educators in their schools was positive. They reckoned that this positive relationship was encouraged by the introduced system of sharing learning areas. However, they acknowledged that in some instances educators looked down on one another or even badmouthed one another due to the differences in union affiliation. This group forgot that they spent most of their time at work where they should learn to accept and tolerate each others’ mistakes and weaknesses with a view to enhancing a harmonious working relationship. The remaining twelve percent (12%) who indicated that there was no good working relationship among educators in their schools, maintained that since schools had a highly diverse workforce nowadays, the tendency of promoting racism and sexism was rife in school settings.
4.2.1.10 Accountability

Bar chart 10: Accountability rests with the principal alone

The information in the above bar chart shows that ninety percent (90%) of the respondents stated that accountability in schools was the competency of all stakeholders, in that the administering of a public school was a joint venture between the school governing body including the principal as the ex-officio member, educators, parents and learners alike in the case of secondary or high schools. The remaining ten percent (10%) of the respondents argued that accountability lay with the principal as he/she was the accounting officer. In essence, this setup would identify who was accountable for professional management and governance and would also determine who would be held responsible for the set tasks. However, the principal was the person to give account to the Departmental authorities.
4.2.1.11 *Good working relationship*

![Bar chart 11: The relationship with the circuit, parents, local public and business](image)

The information in the bar chart above indicates that eighty-seven percent (87%) of the respondents confirmed that there was a good working relationship with the circuit in that the circuit managers and their deputy managers for governance visited their schools to offer support on both professional and governance matters. The relationship with parents was also good in the sense that they positively attended to the affairs of the school when requested to do so, and also attended parents’ meetings when invited. Other respondents further indicated that the community or the local public was always welcomed to the school to the extent that they were even given the opportunity to use the school property such as photocopiers and faxes with a view to enhancing the third stream income of the school.

Regarding business or private agencies, the respondents pointed out that in their schools business people were involved in some projects that schools were undertaking while others offered financial support to administer such projects. This was evidenced by the efforts, among others, of an American company that assisted a school with maths and maths apparatus. This was noticed by the researcher during the perusal of the school circulars in which the mutual relationship between the two entities was clearly articulated.
The thirteen percent (13%) of the respondents who indicated that there was no relationship between their schools, the circuit, the parents, the community or the local public and the business people, argued that the circuit managers and their deputies for governance did not make convincing regular visits to their schools as they were in rural areas. The only time they visited their schools was when there were problems which needed their immediate attention. Secondly, parents did not attend parents’ meetings and this retarded progress, while the local people or the community just did not care about their schools. Fortunately the researcher had an opportunity to attend a meeting where the purpose was to debate the question of the overwhelming incidence of crime in schools.

It was at this meeting where the issue of community involvement was raised, and one teacher lamentably expressed his feelings on the negative attitudes that were being displayed by the community where he was working. He cited incidents where the community had been invited to the school to discuss issues of drug and alcohol abuse by the learners, domestic animals which literally lived in the school yard due to the poor security fence, and the turnout was dismally disappointing. Lastly, the respondents argued that business people did not visit their schools since they were situated in the rural areas.

Some researchers and authors raise a fundamental argument and attach a number of meanings to it that pupils are not only part of schools and families, but are also part of community groups, neighbourhoods, clubs, gangs, teams and other social, economic and political units. Therefore, partnership means recognising all these influences and attempting to bring some coherence to the multiple messages pupils receive. It may also mean initiating adult learning programmes to enable adults to help their children. This may mean involving the community in developing school development plans. It may mean wrapping various health and social agencies around the school to ensure coordinated services. Furthermore, it may mean building bridges to local business that could introduce young people to the world of work. But it has been observed that Adult Basic Education and Training is a government initiative that is not implemented to adequately address the levels of literacy especially in rural communities. It could therefore be concluded that if the spirit as advocated in the preceding paragraphs can prevail, schools will be better social places where communities can do more together.
4.2.1.12 The schools’ mission and vision

Bar chart 12: The balancing of the schools’ mission and vision with other major missions and visions

The information in the bar chart above indicates that seventy-eight percent (78%) of the respondents indicated that their schools’ missions and visions were aligned to other missions and visions in the sense that whatever endeavour their schools pursued, they first reflected on the major Departmental mission and vision. Secondly, in their mission and vision, they advocated issues of quality education, the production of responsible citizenry, safe and healthy environments, the production of learners who could compete in the global economy, et cetera. Their argument was based on the fact that all these advocacies, related well with the visions and missions of other government departments.

It was abundantly clear from the observation session that some schools’ mission and vision struck a balance with other missions and visions of government, as such schools practised commercial farming through gardening, farming with layers and selling their produce to the local communities, created a safe environment for the learners, educators and the school property through the erection of palisade fences, had engaged the services of security guards even during the day, and also the services of armed response security, while some proved this hypothesis through quality results.
Twenty-two percent (22%) of the respondents argued that their schools’ mission and vision statement had been drawn by their principals and implemented without their consent. It was for that reason that they were unable to say that their school’s mission and vision were aligned with the other governmental missions and visions. This act was in direct contrast with the notion that principals needed to ensure that the mission and vision of their schools were shared and understood by all in the school community so that they were able to buy in and adhere to the principles as advocated in the missions and visions.

4.2.1.13 The representation of all stakeholders

Bar chart 13: The fair representation of all stakeholders in the SGBs

The information in the bar chart above depicts that eighty-seven percent (87%) of the respondents agreed that there was a fair representation of all stakeholders in their schools broken down, as their schools’ governing bodies were constituted of four parents, two educators, seven or three learners depending on the size of the school, and the principal as the ex officio member. Governance literature within the concept “partnership” articulates that parents together with learners and educators are encouraged to accept responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools in partnership with the state.
### 4.2.1.14 The law enforcement agencies

**Bar chart 14:** School governors being the law enforcement agencies for both the educators and the learners

In responding to question fourteen above, fifty-four percent (54%) of the respondents argued that yes, the school governing bodies were the law enforcement agencies by virtue of their appointment through the stipulations of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996). Section 16(1) of SASA (1996) clearly states that the governance of every public school is vested in its governing body while 16(3) states that the professional management of a public school must be the competency of the principal. Literature refers to the school governing body as school boards that are ranked high in the structure but still execute their duties within the organisational framework. Its total authority is therefore matched by its total accountability to parents and the wider community for the school’s overall performance.

Two opposing ideas emerge from the aforementioned statements in that SASA (1996) limits the powers of the school governing bodies to governance only, while the other literature postulates that the governors account for the overall performance of the school. Contrary to that, research on school effectiveness has proved that the performance of an effective school is based on the performance of the head teacher. On the other hand, literature indicates that the school governing body is the accounting officer for school finances. From the
aforementioned arguments, it could be concluded that yes, the governing bodies are the law enforcement agencies since they and the school management teams are legally appointed to implement the school policies and the Acts within their means to ensure that good governance prevails in schools.

Forty-six percent (46%) of the respondents indicated that the school governing bodies were not law enforcement agencies for educators as they viewed themselves being accountable to the school management team and governed by the South African Council for Educators (SACE). It could further be interpreted that this group of respondents was in denial that the school governing bodies were the law enforcement agencies in schools, or they did not know, as one respondent alleged that most educators were ignorant and just lazy to read.

4.2.1.15 Governance and the pass rates

Bar chart 15: The influence on the relationship between governance and the pass rates

The information in the chart shows that sixty-eight percent (68%) of the respondents indicated that there was an influence on the relationship between governance and the pass rate in schools. In support of their statement, they maintained that through regular checks of the learners’ work, proper budgeting and effective utilisation of school resources and fostering accountability, as well as inviting learning area specialists to share ideas with the
educators, including motivational speakers to talk to the learners, a difference was made. Literature maintains that in order for a school to secure the best possible student learning outcomes, the principal and the teachers, with the support of the school governing bodies, must shoulder the responsibility of effectively and efficiently utilising the available resources. One of the core functions of school governance is accountability. Accountability with regard to performance relates to a situation where the person or body to which the manager must report and answer for his or her actions is made explicit and he or she may be rewarded for good performance or suffer the consequences of inadequate performance, and to a manager of an organisational unit who may be held accountable for the actions of subordinate staff. Thus, the school principals and their heads of department with the support of the school governing bodies are there to ensure that the outputs are commensurate with the inputs. There is a need for schools to consider establishing advisory committees such as a committee on excellence, a committee of stakeholders whose focus is directed at instructional improvement that is made up of teachers, students in the upper grades, parents, and administrators with a view to providing valuable ideas and assistance for school improvement. However, experience has shown that there is always an element of leniency in non-performing schools which is realised at the expense of taxpayers’ money.

Thirty-two percent (32%) of the subjects who responded negatively regarding the influence of, or relationship between governance and the pass rates in schools based their arguments on the fact that the school governing bodies did not play their role as expected. They blatantly indicated that the elected governors, especially the parent component, did not attend governance meetings, and if they did, they did not participate effectively due to their level of literacy. They did not look after the school’s resources. Therefore, the pass rates were only influenced by the concerted effort of the educators in the school.
4.2.1.16 Fraud and corruption

Bar chart 16: Governors are not vulnerable to fraud and corruption

The information in the above chart reveals that sixty-nine percent (69%) of the respondents indicated that the existing governance was not vulnerable to fraud and corruption because the majority of the governing bodies, especially in the urban and township areas, were literate enough to read and understand the finance policies and apply them as required. They were also able to stand their ground. This strength was derived from their occupational background, since the majority of them were holding positions of responsibility in their employment, for example school principals, managers in government, et cetera. Over and above their comprehension of what was expected of them, they worked not as individuals, but through committees such as the procurement and finance committees that promoted stakeholder participation through transparency and accountability.

Thirty-one percent (31%) of the respondents indicated that the existing governance was vulnerable to fraud and corruption, especially in rural schools, because the majority of the members were illiterate, and therefore easily manipulated by corrupt school principals who sometimes made them sign blank cheques and even kept the school’s cheque book to themselves. Furthermore, they argued that some principals connived with the finance officers and the treasurers to embezzle the schools’ finances. An example of the case of a principal
who fraudulently tore out a page from the cheque book and cashed it was cited as evidence to the statement under study. According to the literature as verified and presented, the history of school governing bodies dates back as far as the Dark Ages through to the Victorian times, via the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries, where boards of trustees were entrusted with the responsibility of setting up and administering English schools. Even though the governing bodies took an active and day-to-day interest, some didn’t take the job seriously, and the administering of the schools was left to often incompetent, sometimes corrupt, head teachers.

4.2.1.17 Educators remaining in the teaching profession

Bar chart 17: The question of remaining in the teaching profession if given a chance

The information as presented in the bar chart above depicts that fifty-three percent (53%) of the respondents indicated that they would not want to continue with teaching should they be given an alternative. Their arguments ranged from poor salaries and other unfavourable conditions especially in rural schools such as the workload that was caused by the structure of work and worsened by the unfilled posts and the delay in filling such vacant posts. Overcrowding in classrooms and the confused curricula as well as the unfavourable measures of discipline which accorded the learners more rights than educators were further factors that discouraged teachers. The respondents’ argument stressed the point of view revealed in the literature, that teaching has never been easy. However, these days many teachers want to
leave their jobs because they find that there are too many problems with children in classrooms. The educators’ arguments are based on the fact that children are undisciplined and do not want to learn, while others argue that learning is becoming too difficult for students because they don’t know how to listen. Research conducted in 2001 on all technical teachers in Sarawak revealed that nearly fifty percent (50%) of the teachers who were surveyed indicated that they would want to quit teaching, but given a chance to choose their place of work they would choose not to teach in their present schools. In the secondary schools, seventy-three percent (73%) of the 1,365 surveyed teachers exhibited moderate to high levels of intention to quit their jobs.

Arguments were raised, verified and supported that more and more teachers were leaving or planning to leave the profession to pursue their careers outside education, which provided an indication of the questionable level of commitment by teachers. When employees have an extremely low level of commitment, they are more inclined not to arrive for work when they are supposed to, nor to retain their jobs.

Forty-seven percent (47%) of the respondents indicated that they would still remain in teaching since to them teaching was a calling and a passion. The forty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that it made them feel good and proud to see their former learners in positions of responsibility in both government and the private sector, and contributing effectively to the global economy. Some writers argue that people have chosen to become teachers in the first place because they care. They care about children, about the world in which they live, and they care enough to dedicate themselves to a challenging, all-consuming, sometimes unappreciated profession, and fortunately enough, such teachers stay in teaching forever.
4.2.1.18 Discipline

Bar chart 18: Discipline being the concern of the principal alone

The above bar chart depicts that ninety-six percent (96%) of the respondents indicated that discipline in schools was not the concern of the principal alone but all stakeholders, namely the school management team, educators, and the learners in the case of secondary or high schools who, in consultation with the governing body, developed and adopted a code of conduct as per the prescripts of section 8 of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996). Government is also a stakeholder in this matter in that it has taken the initiative of enacting SASA as an Act to regulate and administer discipline in schools, but desisting from administering corporal punishment (Section 10, SASA, 1996).

The four percent (4%) of the respondents who indicated that discipline in schools was the concern of the principal alone, answered the question evasively, in that their arguments were based on the fact that principals did not involve all members of staff but only a chosen few who happened to be in the school management team. Others argued that each and every learner who misbehaved was referred to the principal to be disciplined. It could be interpreted that the respondents did not know the stipulations of the section and subsections of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) regarding discipline in schools. It could also be that the affected educators felt alienated. Generally discipline in schools is a problem as there
are still learners who come late for school. During the visit to the schools the researcher observed educators manning the gates in the morning and overhead one educator talking to some boys saying, “Why is it you every day?” One boy responded by saying, “We are staying far,” and they were allowed to enter the school premises. At another school it was observed that even if the bell had been rung, the learners did not respond until the educators instructed them to do so. One afternoon the researcher saw the deputy principal escorting two boys to her office and upon enquiring, the researcher was told that the one boy who looked younger than the other, had been caught with a stone in his hand trying to hit the other boy, who looked older than the former, in self-defence.

4.2.1.19 Schools bargaining with the governors on budgetary matters

Bar chart 19: Effective bargaining of schools with the governors and the Department on budgetary matters

The information in the bar chart above depicts that seventy-three percent (73%) of the respondents said that negotiation with the governors regarding budgetary matters was quite effective. Their argument was based on the fact that the school governing body which was comprised of all the recognised stakeholders as per the prescripts of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) drafted the budget and presented it to a general meeting with parents for ratification. The respondents further argued that those educators who did not
form part of the school governing body were given an opportunity to make budget submissions for various subcommittees according to their needs for the current year. Once the meeting had agreed, the budget was sent to the Department for approval.

The argument of the twenty-seven percent (27%) of the respondents who said no, was based on the fact that schools received their annual allocations on the basis of the number of learners who were enrolled with their school in the previous financial year. The unfortunate part of the whole practice was that, once the budget was received, no one at the operational level had a say. Their’s was just to implement as directed, for example, that the larger portion of the budget should be allocated to curriculum delivery and learner support material.

4.2.1.20 Fair and transparent allocation of funds

Bar chart 20: Allocation of funds in a fair and transparent manner by schools

The information in the bar chart above reveals that seventy-one percent (71%) of the respondents indicated that their schools allocated funds in a transparent manner in a consultative meeting with all educators. However, the fairness aspect of the allocation was always questionable in that funds were not allocated for some activities as their respective committees would have wished. The guiding principle was that the current budget was based
on the previous year’s needs and the financial report. The South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996), Section 38(1), indicates that the governing body of a public school must prepare a budget each year, according to the guidelines determined by the member of the executive council, which shows the estimated income and expenditure of the school for the following financial year. Subsection (2) of Section 38 advises that before a budget is approved by the governing body, it must be presented to a general meeting of parents convened with at least 30 days’ notice, for consideration and approval by a majority of parents present for voting.

Twenty-nine percent (29%) of the respondents indicated that their schools did not allocate funds in a fair and transparent manner because principals imposed the budget on the educators. This response undermined the intentions of the Department of Education (2005:55) that clearly stipulates that the compilation of a budget requires that preparation forms be distributed to the members of staff as well as those on the governing body who may be responsible for particular activities.

**4.2.1.21 Integrated quality management system**

![Bar chart 21: Integrated quality management system being a witch-hunt performance management tool](image)
The information in the chart above shows that seventy-five percent (75%) of the respondents did not view the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) as a witch-hunt performance management tool. Their argument was based on the fact that the IQMS was an essential tool for assessing and developing educators to perform better. They also liked the Integrated Quality Management System because of its element of transparency which was always displayed by the administrators during the assessment period and also that the system had the potential to eliminate threats and weaknesses and replace them with knowledge. The respondents acknowledged, however, that there were challenges that came with this system as most educators were not well trained to implement this tool.

Twenty-five percent (25%) of the respondents indicated that the Integrated Quality Management System was a witch-hunt management tool as most principals and their management teams used the system as a punitive measure and were biased in their ratings. Similarly, research conducted in 2005 by the Wits Education Policy, indicated that the system was seen as being more punitive than supportive and developmental, because staff were excluded at the stage when a final judgement on the school’s performance was made.

4.2.1.22 The educators and whole school evaluation

Bar chart 22: Educators having a role to play in whole school evaluation
The information in the bar chart above shows that seventy-six percent (76%) of the respondents agreed that educators had a role to play in whole school evaluation because as educators they ensured that all operational matters were taken care of to ensure that, with the limited resources available, they created a conducive environment for teaching and learning, and ensured that policies were put in place and adhered to.

Twenty-four percent (24%) of the respondents indicated that they did not have a role to play in whole school evaluation because it was the responsibility of the principal and the government officials for whole school evaluation. Most schools surroundings were not attractive. The classrooms were not well cared for because of the fact that there was overcrowding. There were no proper sport facilities, and where there were soccer fields, the pitch was covered with long grass and this was an indication of the low level of whole school evaluation. However, when the educators were asked to complete the IQMS forms, they gave themselves high marks, disregarding the fact that the evaluation process included the whole range of factors such as the building and grounds.

4.2.1.23 Development appraisal

Bar chart 23: Development appraisal being the domain of educators and its significance to the educators and the school
The information in the above bar chart depicts that sixty-six percent (66%) of the respondents indicated that development appraisal was one of their domains. The respondents argued that development appraisal was within their competency as educators and it improved their performance in class, although there were no clear guidelines and support from the government.

According to the literature the main purpose of development appraisal (DA) is to determine the strengths and weaknesses of educators and then customise a suitable programme for their development. The process of DA includes self-evaluation by the educator, the development of an instrument plan for lesson observation, and observation of the lesson by the Development Support Group (DSG). It is apparent from the arguments raised that development appraisal is one of the domains of educators, as the respondents have indicated.

Thirty-four percent (34%) of the respondents indicated that development appraisal was not one of their domains, but the competency of the Department of Education. It could be deduced that the thirty-four percent (34%) who said development appraisal was not one of their domains were not aware of the stipulations of the legislation regarding appraisal, that they were given the opportunity to reflect on their performance and rate themselves.
Bar chart 24: Curriculum preparing the learners for future educational needs and to compete in the global economy

The information in the bar chart above shows that seventy-eight percent (78%) of the respondents indicated that their school curriculum prepared the learners for their future educational needs and to compete in the global economy. Their contention was that their schools’ curriculum provided for a wide range of educational needs which would make it possible for the learners to compete in the global economy. They mentioned a variety of streams that their schools were offering, such as Maths and Science, Commercial Subjects in secondary or high schools, with Life Sciences, Maths Literacy, Agriculture, Geography, Life Orientation and Languages, depending on the choice of stream at individual schools. In primary schools they offered subjects such as Technology, Social Science, Natural Science, Mathematics, Life Orientation, Economics and Management Science, Arts and Culture, Computer Literacy in some, and Languages.

From the aforementioned streams and subjects that were being offered in the schools under study, it could be concluded that the schools’ curriculum prepared the grade sevens to enter the secondary or high school environment with ease, depending on the individuals’ level of
intelligence, while the grade twelves would also enter tertiary institutions with ease, depending on the individuals’ intellectual capacity, and be able to compete in the global economy.

The twenty-two percent (22%) of the respondents who said no, contended that though their schools’ curriculum was in line with future educational needs, learners were only taught theory, since the schools did not have science laboratories, and this denied the learners the opportunity to acquire the practical aspect of the science subject as expected. According to these respondents, such learners were unable to compete fairly with those who had such science facilities during their first experience in tertiary institutions. The interpretation therefore, could be that government had failed to fulfil its mandate to ensure that the education system was able to prepare both learners and educators to compete in an increasingly global economy, thereby adhering to the mission and vision of the major plan of the Department of Education that sought to ensure that all South Africans received flexible education and training of high standard and prepared them for lifelong learning.

4.2.1.25 The teaching responsibilities

Bar chart 25: Equal sharing of teaching responsibilities among educators
The chart above reveals that fifty-two percent (52%) of the respondents indicated that there was an equal distribution of teaching responsibilities among educators at their schools but further indicated that this was with the exception of the so-called scarce skills subjects, referring to the Science and Commerce streams where most learners were enrolled. They also indicated that in their schools they met during the fourth term to plan the following academic years’ activities, including scheduling, and looking at the current status of their human resources.

Forty-eight percent (48%) of the respondents, a tight margin, indicated that there was no equal sharing of teaching responsibilities in their schools because there were streams which were short of educators and the Department of Education did not fill such posts promptly due to the scarcity factor. This left other educators with lighter loads while others were indeed overburdened. One educator indicated that he taught Maths and Science in grades eight (8) to eighty learners and in grade twelve (12) to fifty learners alone, and was still expected to carry out managerial and administrative duties since he was appointed as Head of Department. The other cause for concern was the process of redeployment of educators due to the dwindling number of learners that often necessitated the shuffling of educators and rescheduling of subjects which created an overload on the educators.

4.2.1.26 Educators and curriculum development

Bar chart 26: The role played by educators in curriculum development
The information in the above bar chart reveals that sixty-six percent (66%) of the respondents indicated that they had a role to play in curriculum development in their schools. The respondents pointed out that, together with the school management and the school governing body, they converged with a view to adjusting their curriculum, guided by the curricula needs and the national curriculum. In terms of Section 21(b) of the South African Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996), the governing body may apply to the Head of the Department in writing to determine the extra-curricular activities of the school and the choice of subject options in terms of provincial curriculum policy.

Literature confirms the assertions as made by the respondents in the preceding paragraph, that teacher unions participated in the curriculum development process from the outset, beginning with the purging of the curriculum of all racist and sexist content in 1994, though the real contestation and struggle for ownership of the curriculum process started with the launching of curriculum 2005 (C2005), which was based on the philosophy of outcomes-based education (OBE), in April 1994. Research categorically states that in the curriculum deliberations there have to be five sorts of people who should be involved as representatives of the four commonplaces of education, namely the learners, the teachers, the subject matter and the milieu as well as the curriculum specialist. It can then be concluded that curriculum development takes place at two levels, being at the national level and at school level where implementation is taking place.

Thirty-four per cent (34%) of the respondents indicated that they did not have any role to play in curriculum development in their schools since they were given a ready-made curriculum by the National Department of Education to implement. According to the literature on curriculum development, the denial of the teachers’ right to participation and involvement may lead to his/her being regarded as a technician who merely needs to read the instructions to carry out tasks, while professional decisions are taken elsewhere by other persons.

Research conducted in Tennessee and New York Illinois, revealed that there were conflicting ideas on curriculum development by the teachers where teachers unanimously foresaw a great role for themselves in developing the curriculum. However, only three principals
showed confidence in teachers developing the curriculum, and warned that extensive training and a great deal of time would be required in order to be successful in the endeavour, while one principal who opposed this move, added that he/she did not find his/her staff knowledgeable at all about curriculum innovation. This could mean that teachers in these states had not been participating in curriculum development before they were approached or requested to do so, like the thirty-four percent (34%) who participated in this study were not taking part in curriculum development in their respective schools.

4.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies and the representatives of the learners understood the concept “governance” as a structure or a body that ensured the professional management of the education system through the enacted Acts, the educational policies and regulations. Furthermore, the responses indicated that to the chosen population, governance was a structure called the school governing body that came into existence through an election process as per the dictates of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996). The responses, further, defined governance in terms of the functions, for example, the effective and efficient utilisation of school finances thereby promoting the ethos of accountability. The responses pointed to Section 16(1) of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) that stipulates that the governance of every public school is vested in its governing body. What emerged was that the aforementioned participants viewed governance as being limited to the school governing bodies as well as being a comprehensive phenomenon that cut across all levels of government.

On the issue of school-based management being the custodian of the school finances, the circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, and chairpersons of the school governing bodies concurred that the school governing bodies were the custodians of the school finances. However, they still needed to be taught how school finances were managed. In rural schools there were still serious challenges due to the literacy level and this hindered service delivery and in some
instances promoted corruption as the principals and educators often took advantage of the situation. The situation in urban or semi-urban schools was totally different in the sense that the members of the SGBs were literate. Some were school principals, some were educators, some were government officials and to some extent they understood most of the legislation governing school finances.

The school principals, deputy principals, deputy managers for governance, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, circuit managers and heads of department in schools concurred that the tension that was being experienced among the stakeholders was caused by the misunderstanding of each stakeholder component’s roles and responsibilities, especially when there was money involved. It became abundantly clear that there were still principals who were controlling the school funds and when they were questioned by their SGBs they felt offended because they were used to the situation where they could do as they wished with the school funds. In one instance one principal cited an example where the SGB chairperson wanted to appoint a service provider on the basis that the service provider was local and known to him. The deputy managers for governance indicated that principals connived with the SGB chairpersons against the school management teams and the educators, while on the other hand the educators uses the members of the SGBs against the principals and these caused inevitable clashes among the stakeholders.

The school principals, deputy principals and the heads of department listed planning, organising, leading, and controlling (POLC) as the major responsibilities of a school principal. In some responses it emerged that the principal’s responsibility was to oversee and direct curriculum delivery as he or she was the primary representative of the Head of the Department of Education at school level. These responses relate to section 16(3) of the South African School’s Act (Act No. 84 of 1996), that clearly stipulates that the professional management of a public school must be undertaken by the principal under the authority of the Head of the Department. According to the documentary review, the major responsibilities of a school principal are to promote goal attainment being the cognitive, emotional and physical development of the students, to participate in the maintenance of cultural patterns since schools are social institutions created to model and teach others commonly shared values, beliefs, history, and social norms, and also to maintain the practices and resources that
support coordination of organisational structures and processes in order to accomplish the desired goals through establishing a curriculum sequence, basic safety and order within the school environment. Other stakeholders also concurred that their responsibilities were to ensure that the curriculum was properly delivered according to the mandate of the Department of Education, and that the necessary resources are made available to achieve the intended purpose.

In all fairness, school principals are the resource personnel who should provide professional leadership, direct schools through the school policies and Acts as the school principals themselves, deputy principals and the heads of department assert. However, it emerged from the responses that some principals influenced decisions in their schools with a view to steering them in the right direction, but their efforts were being derailed by the negative attitudes displayed by the Unions. Contrary to the aforementioned statement, some responses showed that there were still principals who did not consult with their stakeholders but still survived. How? The answer was known only to themselves, while others were just caught up within the system and thereby promoting laissez-faire in schools.

The school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, and chairpersons of the school governing bodies concurred that the pieces of legislation, school policies and regulations were difficult to understand and implement. This thesis was based on the fact that some policies are ambiguous, difficult to understand, let alone to implement. They gave an example of the Integrated Quality Management Systems, Continuous Assessment, and discipline policies which made it difficult for them to do their work as expected. Government policies came in volumes and were forever changing, even before they were fully implemented. Educators already had enough on their plates, having to teach and with a lot of paperwork to deal with on a daily basis, and as a result, they were unable to give their all in reading the legislation. While some said that they appreciated the offering of workshops by the Department, these were not enough to address the problems at hand. Adding to the question of the inadequacy of workshops, some respondents argued that the facilitators themselves did not understand the policies; neither could they provide satisfactory interpretations which basically worsened the situation. Some argued that pieces of legislation and school policies were easy to read and implement. However, the problem lay with those readers who read
pieces of legislation as if they were reading a newspaper, who were ignorant, lazy, and only read such voluminous documents once, and never used them.

According to the responses provided, there was concurrence that in some schools the internal communication was satisfactory in the sense that they had a standing scheduled briefing meeting of about ten minutes or so twice a week or even three to four times a week, depending on what needed to be discussed before the teaching activities commenced. This standard practice in some schools had almost become the norm and it was backed up by the use of the information book that was circulated to make the educators aware of any new matters that concerned them. An example of circulars was given to support the statement. It emerged that on average some schools still held general meetings, while this culture of holding general meetings in some schools was gradually eroding away. During the observation sessions, it was noticed that indeed some schools circulated information as expected, as evidenced by their information and minute books.

External communication, according to the school principals, deputy principals, and heads of department was not near satisfactory, as most of the circulars were received late by the schools. Some were even received after the date of the event had passed. There was a standing arrangement that school principals or representatives from schools should pass via the circuit office every day with a view to collecting any mail from the pigeonhole boxes provided. This practice was not effective because some circulars were found to be containing stale news. One principal cited an example of a circular which contained information inviting the educators to a workshop that had already passed and this impacted negatively on service delivery.

It emerged from the responses that some schools did not have telephone lines, and those that had this means of communication could not maintain the Telkom bills. As a result, they resorted to using the short message services (SMSs) as a means of communication like the circuit office did. One principal of a rural school indicated that where he was working they had a modem which the school was unable to maintain due to financial constraints. They were therefore unable to use electronic means of communication like e-mails, and neither
could they access internet. During the observation session, the researcher noticed that in urban and township schools, means of communication were easy and effective in that they had the necessary aids ranging from Telkom lines from where they were able to access internet and also use e-mail as means of communication. Over and above all these, they had intercoms to transmit urgent messages from the office to the entire school. This was an equity problem as propagated by government in the name of service delivery. It was further noticed with dismay that the circuits were not being taken care of in terms of infrastructure, to the extent that communication was somehow deterred. One circuit manager confessed that some of the facilities they were using were being borrowed from the well-to-do schools, while some respondents added that the circuits asked for photocopying facilities or even for photocopying paper from their schools. The Department had supplied laptops with 3G modems and cellular phones to enable the government officials to execute their duties, but the offer was limited to circuit managers and their deputies.

The responses clearly indicated that schools had well-outlined objectives and plans for the next three to four years which were based on their mission and vision statement. Added to these, there were also some initiatives or plans contained in the school improvement plans which planned for a period of three years. However, such plans were being interfered with by departmental activities along the way. It was observed that some schools indeed had enticing objectives and lucrative school improvement plans, but they were never implemented.

In the responses from circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals and heads of department, it emerged that lack of parental interest and the necessary resources to drive the plans derailed the provisioning of proper infrastructure that would create a conducive environment for quality education to take place. Although section 21(1.a-e) of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) provides that a governing body of a school may apply to the Head of the Department in writing to be allocated funds to maintain and improve the school’s property, buildings and grounds occupied by the school, including the hostels if applicable, c) to purchase textbooks, educational materials or equipment for the school, and d) to pay for the services, e) or any other functions consistent with the act, and any applicable provincial law, there were still schools with broken doors, windows, and buildings and grounds that were not taken care of. The school principals and
the deputy managers for governance concurred that schools applied for such funding, but it was never forthcoming. If it was, it would be after some years and the anomaly hindered development. Another example that was cited was a school that waited for the supply of mobile classes that came after a long time when they were no longer needed as the enrolment had gone down.

On the issue of the SGB’s performance, the question sought the respondents to rate the performance of their school governing bodies on a scale of 1-5 with a view to describing whether the performance was poor, very poor, fair, good, or excellent. In some responses it emerged that out of the hundred and fifty-seven respondents, five rated the performance of their school governing body as poor, ten of the respondents rated their school governing body as very poor, sixty of the respondents rated the performance of their school governing body as fair, seventy-three rated the performance of their school governing body as good, while nine respondents rated the performance of their school governing body as excellent. Looking at the number of respondents who rated their governing bodies as fair, good and excellent added together, they far exceeded the number of those who rated their school governing bodies as poor and very poor. It could well be concluded that the government was somehow making a breakthrough in terms of capacitating the school governing bodies despite the dissatisfaction related to service delivery in schools, for example, the broken windows and doors, the supply of classes and other related services. The observation made was that in the rural schools the school governing bodies were not that literate and this affected their performance. This was evidenced by the fact that during the interview sessions the chairpersons of the school governing bodies preferred to be interviewed in their mother tongue, except one who tried to converse in English, and another one who just refused to be interviewed. The language issue could be a barrier to their performance. The principals of the rural schools concurred that it was not always easy to work with a school governing body that was not literate as the policies and school regulations were written in English. One principal gave an example of their secretary who could not write, read or speak English and the school had decided to give her a teacher to assist her and that, according to the principal, hampered service delivery.
On accountability, the school principals, deputy principals, chairpersons of the school governing bodies, and the heads of department concurred that it rested with every individual player in the education system. They contended that the learners were accountable for their own work. Educators were accountable to their heads of department, the heads of department were accountable to their deputy principals, the deputies were accountable to their principals who represented the Head of the Department of Education at school level, while the SGBs were accountable to the member of the executive council for education (MEC). There were conflicting ideas that the principals were the accounting officers by virtue of their appointments and, therefore, accountability should rest with them. It was observed that the learners were sometimes left unattended and this was evidenced by the noise coming from the classrooms during the researcher’s visits to the schools. The principals also indicated that when they heard a noise from the classes they normally checked the timetable and reminded the educators concerned that they were supposed to be in class. The learners also confirmed that sometimes the educators stayed away from classes for no apparent reason. This proved that accountability indeed rested with the school principal.

The circuit managers, deputy managers, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, and chairpersons of the school governing bodies concurred that all stakeholders were fairly represented in the school governing bodies (SGBs). However, it was observed that the representation of learners in some schools was not taken seriously as there were some years where the schools operated without a representative council of learners. The other important component which, according to the South African Schools Act, was not included in the SGBs was the business component which could assist the schools in terms of funding and other related matters. The co-option process that was recognised by the South African Schools Act, may not give them courage to give their all as they did not have voting rights.

On the question of the Department of Education and schools maintaining a good balance among other major missions and visions, the circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and the chairpersons of the SGBs concurred that they were maintaining a good balance because they were able to produce results at the end of the academic year. Furthermore, they argued that the fact that they had their own visions and missions displayed on the walls and at the gates for everyone
to read, indicated that they were trying to strike a balance. It was observed that in some schools the vision and mission statements were only on paper in the office of the principal and not displayed anywhere else. The responses were viewed as short-sighted because they were not talking to the other major several missions and visions of the government.

The circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and chairpersons of the school governing bodies concurred that there was an influence on the relationship between governance and the pass rates in schools. Their point of argument was that the governors were there to provide schools with the necessary resources to enable curriculum delivery to take place. Furthermore, this could be enhanced by the established parent-educator partnership between the parents and educators where the educator would diligently assume his or her share of responsibility by teaching the learners to be able to read, write and enumerate while on the other hand, the parents offered their undivided support in the form of human and material resources. They further provided that schools that had knowledgeable governing bodies produced good results and attracted more learners, with the result that there was often overcrowding in such schools. Contrary to the aforementioned statements, it was seen from the mark sheets that the learner performance was not satisfactory, especially in mathematics and physical science and this was also supported by the current results of the annual national assessment reports. The other factors contributing to the poor results, namely, reading, enumerating and writing were exacerbated by the literacy level of the parents, especially in the rural areas, the rate of child-headed families and the families that were headed by grandfathers and grandmothers who had no say in their grandchildren’s lives and education as alleged by the school principals.

The responses indicated that lack of accountability on the part of the role players in a school setting constituted a misuse of both human and capital resources. They argued that school principals should take the lead in accountably directing and managing curriculum delivery in their schools by ensuring that competent educators were appointed and that they were always in class and teaching as per the dictates of the school timetable. It was only in this way that both the human and capital resources would be fully utilised. The second argument that was raised by the respondents was that in rural schools parents who were enlightened did not make themselves available for elections to become members of the school governing bodies.
In most instances, only those who were not knowledgeable were eventually elected and were prone to abuse by school principals and educators alike. In the year 2009, research was conducted in the Ximhungwe circuit of Limpopo Province (Journal of Educational Studies) and the findings indicated that the parent component of most school governing body members, especially in the primary schools, had a formal education of up to primary level only, while their leadership responsibilities and experience were gained from community development forums, churches, et cetera. Their educational levels therefore impacted negatively on their leadership roles in school governance matters and this often led to the school management teams in such schools taking advantage of them and allocating them irrelevant tasks, thereby making it difficult for them to make decisions on school governance matters. Surprisingly, it is currently still the case even though the governance section of the Department, the circuit and the schools are confident that they are achieving a breakthrough.

The circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies with the exception of one circuit manager and one chairperson of the school governing bodies, concurred that the existing governance was not vulnerable to fraud and corruption, particularly in urban schools because the members of the SGBs were enlightened and were workers. However, there were some incidences of fraud reported, where the finance officer made the parents deposit money in his private account and when he realised that he was going to be arrested, he just left. In rural schools there was great vulnerability because the SGBs were not enlightened and they relied on the information provided by the principals. The incidences which were cited among others included the use of one service provider for purchasing chalk or small items, without requesting three quotations. The other fraud case that was reported was of a principal who fraudulently issued a cheque from the middle of the cheque book and connived with the SGB chairperson. That cheque was cashed at a local shop. All these cases confirm that no one is immune to fraud and corruption, as one chairperson of a school governing body put it. The other fraudulent activity was not fairly answered as the school principals were somehow protecting the image of their school, and that was the allocation of marks by the educators without having marked the scripts. In some schools the principals indicated that it was realised at one stage that it was taking place, and had since been stopped, while some principals indicated that in their schools the practice was not taking place, but that in some
schools there were still educators who did not mark the learners’ scripts but allocated marks fraudulently and still survived.

Regarding the management of funds, the school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and the chairpersons of the school governing bodies concurred that the management of funds in their respective schools was satisfactory in the sense that their books were being audited by qualified auditors. The observation on this matter was that some schools used qualified auditors while other schools’ books were audited by bookkeepers and this was viewed as an inconsistency on the part of the Department of Education. Their argument was based on the fact that their schools did not often receive negative financial reports, while all payments were made upon the approval of the chairperson of the school governing body and only cheque payments were made. On the other hand, there were complaints that the schools’ management of funds was not satisfactory because, in each financial year, the educators made budget requests, but their needs were never met. The larger percentage of the budget was consumed by too many transport claims for the principal, his or her management team, some educators and stationery. The exorbitant transport claims were evidenced by the financial reports and were noticed by the researcher during the documentary survey sessions. It was further alleged that parents were not given financial reports by the educators. This act was seen as a direct contravention of Section 42(6) of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996) which spells out that at the request of any interested person “in which case parents are interested persons”, the governing body must make the records, and the audited or examined financial statements available for inspection. It was noticed that some schools purchased assets, but such were not included in the audit reports as per the Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act No. 29 of 1999).

The school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and the educators maintained and concurred that the school principal had a role to play in the Integrated Quality Management System, as he or she had to ensure that proper evaluation of educators was done with a view to enhancing curriculum delivery. Some argued that the principal as the accounting officer had to ensure that the school development teams (SDT) and the developmental support groups (DSG) were well constituted to take charge of the implementation of this allegedly important assessment tool. Over and above all of these, the
respondents indicated that the role of the principal was to plan, direct and implement all activities related to the IQMS in the school setting in conjunction with the circuit or the area office.

It was observed that some principals and the majority of the teaching staff did not understand the integrated quality management system as a tool, with the result that its implementation was a total mess. This was evidenced by the return of the completed forms to certain schools by the district via the circuit. In some schools educators were never given incentives (the one notches) as they were promised and this was confirmed by a school principal who alleged that they had been making submissions as requested, but had never been rewarded as their neighbouring schools were. Unlike the other school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and the educators, one principal confessed that he was not that knowledgeable about the integrated quality management system, and one circuit manager confirmed that whole school evaluation which was part of the system had never got off the ground ever since it was introduced. Generally the school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and the educators concurred that the integrated quality management system was not a witch-hunt management tool but a development tool that aimed to assist them to identify their weaknesses and strengths. During the documentary survey it was observed from the IQMS forms that almost every educator had been allocated three’s, which proved that the proper procedure had not been followed, but marks were randomly allocated for the sake of receiving the promised one notch at the expense of the developmental aspect.

According to the circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies and the representative council of learners, discipline in schools had become a problem especially in secondary or high schools. Alcohol and drug abuse, bullying, absenteeism and bunking of classes by the learners were common nowadays. The responses indicated that these problems were exacerbated by the issue of the child-headed families and the families that were headed by elderly people who could no longer enforce discipline. There were also the learners who stayed with their parents but still misbehaved because of peer pressure, and some enjoyed protection from their parents. This was evidenced by a situation that was reported to the researcher where a parent employed an advocate to represent his child at school on a case of
drugs. The principals felt that the educators were disciplined but cited absenteeism which included family responsibilities and sick leave as one problem that was rife, and one principal cited an example of a teacher who came to school on the fourteenth day of the month for a long time as he was enjoying protection from the trade union. Reading from the time books and the leave records surveyed, it was noticed from the pattern of absenteeism that the excuses of family responsibility and sick leave were being abused by the educators, and the leave could not be contested because the educators submitted sick notes from a doctor. The other form of absenteeism that was realised in schools and confirmed by the respondents was the bunking of classes by educators who just did not attend their scheduled periods. This was confirmed by one principal who pointed out that he normally moved around with a timetable in his hands reminding the educators that they were supposed to be in class. The other respondents were casual in handling this issue, but it became abundantly clear that there was enormous bunking of classes by the educators. This was attested to by the noise from the classes as observed during the visits. In the main it could be concluded that even though there were rules and regulations governing the educators, the authorities were unable to maintain discipline in schools.

The circuit managers, school principals, deputy principals and their heads of department concurred that the level of self-developmental efforts of the teaching staff was quite impressive, although there were still educators who held matric and a teacher’s certificate or diploma despite the government’s initiative to upgrade their qualifications at different universities. These impressive efforts in terms of development are illustrated in Table 3. However, this does not support the notion of the educators being lifelong learners as the figures indicate that only eight educators had a master’s degree and one had a doctoral degree at the time of the survey.

On the issue of politics overshadowing the education administration and management in South Africa, the circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department, chairpersons of the school governing bodies and the educators affirmed the statement and contended that the education system was at a crossroads as the politicians had taken the lead in the administration and management of education. This had led to a situation where it was difficult to separate politics from education. In support of
their statements, the aforementioned respondents argued that the concept of deployment had become the order of the day in that so-called comrades, friends, and relatives were appointed in key positions of management and administration without the relevant skills and experience and this anomaly had resulted in a number of schools being dysfunctional and producing poor results in grade twelve, as well as poor literacy and numeracy skills in lower grades. The other problem that was cited by the said respondents was the learners who were being given more rights than their mentors, rendering schools unmanageable, as discipline became weaker and weaker by the day. All these were taking place on account of the democracy that had been attained.

Commenting on the issues of governance in schools and the Department of Education, the responses indicated that it was now time that government strengthened its capacity in relation to adult basic education and training. In that way the level of literacy would be improved and members of the communities would be better equipped to participate and make a meaningful contribution toward whatever situations confront schools. The gap between the communities, learners and educators would be closed. It was further indicated that there was a dire need to increase monitoring and regular checks by the government, thereby supporting schools. The circuit managers, deputy managers for governance, school principals, deputy principals, heads of department and educators believed that this endeavour would enhance service delivery in education. They also called upon government to desist from appointing comrades in positions of responsibility without the required skills, experience and qualifications which was currently the norm. The aforementioned respondents also indicated that sustained service delivery depended largely on proper planning which was currently not visible. They argued that at times schools received conflicting information from the province, the circuit and the district which amounted to lack of proper planning, coordination and communication among these spheres of government. Furthermore, it was recommended that the Department should, after having conducted workshops and implementing the decisions, follow up to check on the progress as this would reduce the backlogs that were currently occurring. There was also a need for the government to instill in the minds of the communities a sense of school ownership as this would enhance accountability as well as the security of school property in general.
4.4 CONCLUSION

It became apparent from the responses that communication within government circles, and in the Department of Education in particular, was really defunct and affecting service delivery. The system of collecting circulars from pigeon holes that had been introduced was ineffective and unreliable as it depended entirely on the visits of the school principals or their representatives to the circuits. Furthermore, it was viewed as costly and undermining the ethos of accountability as most respondents alleged that people were enriching themselves through undue claims for travelling expenses. It was made clear that some claimants, instead of going to their schools via the circuit, would go to their respective schools first and go back to the circuit to collect whatever had to be collected with a view to claiming from the norms and standards fund. This was evidenced by the financial reports where the transport claims were always high. It was further indicated that the use of short message services (SMSs) had become the norm which in a way confirmed the fact that the conveyer belts for the circulars and other means of communication were indeed dysfunctional.

Regarding the issue of discipline being the concern of the schools and the department, the respondents argued that they were concerned. They had at their disposal a code of conduct for both learners and educators. However, it was established through probing that there were still issues of late-coming, bunking of classes, drug and alcohol abuse, absenteeism, and over and above all of these, there was a high rate of teenage pregnancy experienced in schools. Discipline on the part of the educators was not eloquently articulated by the respondents, but as the interactions progressed, it became clear that there were still educators who bunked classes, who did not mark the learners’ scripts, as the respondents would say, “in our school it is not happening, but we hear that in some schools such cases are being reported”. The respondents did, however, complain about the due processes of discipline on the part of the educators which took long before a verdict could be passed. There was serious foul play by the culprits as perpetrated by the Unions who often defended the educators for their wrongdoing. The case of an educator who was coming to school on the fourteenth day after being absent for the past thirteen days was put forward as a test case. Apparently this educator was charged, but the case dragged on for three years and the educator resigned before the case was concluded. This was an indication of poor service delivery on the part of
the labour section of the Department of Education. It could also be deduced that some of the cases were being swept under the carpet.

On the suspicion that the current governance could be vulnerable to fraud and corruption, it was understood that there were some members of the governing bodies who were actually vulnerable to fraud and corruption due to their level of education which made them fall into the trap of the school principals and educators who sometimes made them sign cheques without understanding the purpose, and one respondent confessed that in their school they were signing blank cheques until they were cautioned to refrain from doing so. The fact that there are exorbitant claims from the school funds gave the impression that people in schools were vulnerable to fraud and corruption. In 2010 the Senior District Manager in Capricorn suffered an immense humiliation when some of the meetings arranged by his office were disrupted by educators who were calling for his resignation. This kind of behaviour being displayed by professionals who were viewed by the society as role models was really disturbing and constituted extreme ill-discipline, to say the least. Unfortunately this is the kind of society that we have become, and we still expect the learners and the general public to respect us. Having said this, people still wonder why the education system is in total disarray.

Lastly, the respondents alluded to the fact that the problem of cadre deployment at all senior positions in the Department of Education was rife. Some of the schools were not performing as expected especially in grade twelve. The other problem that surfaced was the politics overshadowing the education administration and management in South Africa such that the Unions, especially the South African Teachers Union (SATDU) which was in alliance with the ruling party, was calling the shots, to such an extent that the school principals’ powers and authority were being limited. It had been observed that even the members of the school management teams were affiliates of the Unions which was a direct conflict of interest, as that anomaly often created problems for them when they were supposed to take harsh decisions against their comrades. The situation as it presented itself allowed for the school management teams to serve two masters, being the Department of Education as their employer and the Union as their master.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

Education has been identified as a priority area in South Africa by the government of the African National Congress (ANC) as the ruling party. The government has since repositioned itself with a view to meeting the demands of society regarding the provisioning and sustaining of quality education. In order for the government and the Department of Education in particular to ensure that quality education as a service is provided to the South African child without compromise, the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996), among others, was enacted and its contents were implemented forthwith, to ensure that relevant stakeholders and all the role players assumed their duties as directed.

Like many of the South African provincial governments, the Limpopo Department of Education has adopted the concept “governance” as their machinery that will enable them to turn the situation around and thereby render an effective and efficient service to all the recipients of education, irrespective of colour, creed and race as was the case in the apartheid era. This study sought to assess the impact of governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education with specific reference to Polokwane and Mankweng Circuits and based on the arguments raised, and the findings thereof, the researcher was able to draw certain conclusions and make certain recommendations.

Chapter One of this study presented the introduction and background of the concept under study including the statement of the problem and the research questions. Also presented in this chapter were the research objectives that generally sought to assess the impact of school governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education and also to check whether there were a strong accountability and harmonious relationship between the district, circuits, schools and the communities, while the specific objectives were to investigate the nature and extent of governance and its impact on service delivery in the Department of
Education under study and also to provide possible mechanisms and ways to resolve governance issues which had a negative impact on service delivery. All these objectives referred to were achieved as attested to by the findings of the study that discipline in schools had become a problem, especially in secondary or high schools where bullying, alcohol and drug abuse, absenteeism and bunking of classes were rife.

Added to this, the study revealed that the issue of capacity building in relation to adult basic education and training as a service that would improve the literacy level of the members of the communities who would contribute meaningfully towards whatever situations confronted schools, had stalled. The lack of regular check-ups and monitoring in schools was also identified and presented as an appeal to the government to improve on with a view to enhancing service delivery in schools. In this sense it could be deduced that a strong sense of accountability in the Department of Education and in schools in particular needed to be re-emphasised at all levels of operation. Since the study had revealed that some parents did not attend the scheduled school meetings, it was a clear indication of a somewhat sour relationship which had a hampering effect on service delivery.

Coming to the hypothesis that “good governance is informed by strong accountability and future-oriented organisation continuously steering towards its mission and vision, and thereby ensuring that the day-to-day management and administration are always linked with the organisation’s values and goals and thus eventually bringing about effectual and accelerated service delivery”, it was proved as attested by the following findings of the study:

Bar chart no. 15 indicated that sixty-eight percent (68%) of the respondents argued that there was a relationship or influence between governance and the pass rates in schools because the governors played their role as experts. In support of their statement, they maintained that this relationship was played out through regular checks of the learners’ work, proper budgeting and effective utilisation of school resources and fostering accountability, as well as inviting learning area specialists to share ideas with the educators, including motivational speakers to talk to the learners. All these affirmed the hypothesis of the study, except the facts stated in bar charts 16 and 17, which brought mixed reactions.
Chapter Two illustrated the literature reviewed. This was done with the sole intention of defining and showcasing how the concept “governance” evolved over time. The literature reviewed discussed a number of governance theories that analysed both the pre- and post-educational policies and how their implementation impacted on service delivery. An overview of education governance of the previously colonised countries like Bangladesh, Uganda, Nigeria, and Zimbabwe, including an historical overview of South Africa provided a base to trace the issues at hand in context. Overall, the chapter underscored that social justice, equity, access, Ubuntu, transparency, accountability and rule of law, among others, permeated the governance of schools in the country.

Chapter Three described the research design that was employed during the interaction with the subjects. It also demonstrated in detail the research methods that were employed which included a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods. The chapter further described the population and how this was sampled and how access was gained. It also described the data collection techniques that were employed in this study and lastly it demonstrated how data were analysed and interpreted. The data collected were validated through a triangulation process.

Chapter Four of the study provided an in-depth analysis of the data that were collected through scientific research methods and were triangulated to validate the findings.

There were a number of critical issues that arose in the study. Firstly, there was the issue of the level of qualification of educators and the number of years served as opposed to the alleged meagre salaries offered to them. Parallel to this, there were attempts by the government to improve the educators’ salaries through the process of development appraisal and other means which, according to the educators and the study, were not helping the education system at all.

The political tensions emanating from the variance in the conduct of the South African Democratic Teachers’ Union and the Professional Educators’ Union leading to class
disruptions and instability in the main, eroded the ethos of accountability on the part of the educators and therefore impacted negatively on service delivery, resulting in the poor matric results. The politics of the day in the teaching profession and the education system in general also affected the human resources proceedings whereby the governing bodies were being given the latitude to recommend appointments to the Head of the Department to sanction and implement and this endeavour had caused undue confusion as the governing bodies thought that they were making appointments, while on the other hand the Professional Educators’ Union felt that they were not being recognised or considered for promotional positions. At the same time deployment of cadres and relatives was rife. Based on the aforementioned statements, educators were bound to leave the teaching profession for better opportunities as opined by the fifty-three per cent of the subjects in 4.2.1.17, that was a tight margin.

Although there was sufficient evidence expressed by the subjects that the current school governing bodies knew their roles and responsibilities, there was still much to be desired in that elements of corrupt activities often surfaced, especially in rural schools where the review emphasised that some of the governors were not taking their jobs seriously. The administration of the schools in terms of governance was often left to incompetent or sometimes corrupt head teachers and educators in some instances.

Discipline on the part of both the learners and the educators that impacted negatively on the management of schools had taken its toll as the educators felt that the learners had been given more rights than their mentors, while the very same mentors were enjoying the protection of their Unions and this destabilised service delivery. On the other hand, there were conflicting arguments regarding discipline being the concern of the principal alone or of all the stakeholders. Although the study revealed that discipline was not the concern of the principal alone (see bar chart no. 18.), there was much contestation that the school principal was the accounting officer in the school setting, and therefore discipline was his or her concern and this had led to many educators leaving even little instances of misconduct in the hands of the principal.
The method of allocating funds or the norms and standards by the provincial government had dismally failed most schools, especially the schools in the rural areas where the enrolments were too low and thus enriched those schools that had high enrolments. Although there was sufficient evidence to suggest that there was effective bargaining of schools with the governors and the department in budgetary matters (see bar chart 19), where there were low enrolments and illiterate school governing bodies, there would always be low allocations of funds, low development and high staff redeployment as the numbers of the learners would be dwindling every year and the teaching responsibilities would also be negatively affected as the teaching methods would eventually change from subject teaching to class teaching.

The issues raised in chapter four showcased weak governance in schools which accounted for a poor education system failing not only the province but also the state in general.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the critical issues raised in this study, the following recommendations are made:

a) Much as the government has rule of law in the form of pieces of legislation, policies and strategies to turn the education system around, there is still a dire need to search for and place competent men and women in positions of leadership, starting from the district down to the schools. All the efforts to build capacity should be channelled to creating strong governance structures that are not in any way influenced or polluted by politics. In this manner, cadre deployment, the appointment of family members and friends will eventually fade away. It is therefore recommended that the Unions’ power to influence decisions be reduced by making the office of the school principal and the entire management team to be non-affiliates of any Union and giving them full support in their endeavour to manage schools. In the situation as it presents itself in schools, vulnerable head teachers fall prey to the shop stewards and the Union in general, hence this recommendation. This will effectively allow the recruitment procedures to bring
competent school principals, deputy principals and heads of department into the system whose appointment will not be at the mercy of any Union or the school governing body.

b) Since the study has revealed that there is an element of laissez-faire in schools and the issue of the principals, deputies and their HODs who feel that they have overstayed their teaching career and are caught up in the system, it is imperative for the government to introduce a system of appointing such managers on a five-year renewable performance-based contract.

c) Section 23(2) of the South African Schools Act (Act No. 84 of 1996), stipulates that in the main the people who are eligible to be elected as members of the school governing body are the parents of the learners who are in that school, excluding the parents employed at that school. Since the study has revealed that this system paralyses governance particularly in the rural schools where the literacy level is low, it is therefore recommended that the system be revisited and left open with a view to accommodating even business people who are potential funders, and many other professionals who are currently brought on board through the elective or co-option process.

d) The study has revealed that nowadays discipline in schools is a problem. The documentary review (Doctoral Thesis) puts it that discipline and education are inseparable concepts that are viewed as human activities in which the educator (parent and teacher) leads the educand (child, pupil) through giving instructions. Discipline is a practice or exercise which pertains to pupils in the sense that pupils lend themselves to education while parents and teachers are members of the communities in which learners live. An assertion that if parents are models of undisciplined behaviour (stealing, disloyalty, drunkenness) which the learners are accused of, and the teachers’ attitudes, leadership and authority and instructional behaviour are suspect, the children or the learners’ behaviour may be negatively influenced. Based on the aforementioned arguments, it is imperative for the government to rethink and reposition itself towards discipline in schools, thereby devolving the disciplinary powers to the circuits and schools, allowing the principals to administer discipline since it would seem the system of logging the perpetrators is not having an impact. The labour division of the Department of Education will remain as an overseer and an appeals board. In this sense the ethos of accountability and governance in general will not be compromised and left to chance.
e) The study has revealed that there are elements of fraud and corruption in schools where the educators are just allocating marks, and where principals and educators are involved in cases of fraud and corruption. In order for these anomalies to be brought to an end, the South African Schools Act should be amended to accord the governing bodies the powers to deal directly with such cases at the operational level. An Internal Anti-corruption unit together with Risk Management should be put together as a buffering mechanism against the issues of fraud and corruption in all its manifestations.

To this end, there are two areas for further study:

The priority area that needs to be researched further is the area of curriculum development. The study has revealed that educators are not sure whether they have a role to play in curriculum development or not, as they argue that they are being given a ready-made curriculum to implement, forgetting that they are being represented by their Union representatives at forums where curriculums are being developed. It is imperative for the government to come down to the people on the ground and present their teaching on curriculum development with a view to averting the unnecessary disarray that is being experienced.

The other area of concern that needs to be reviewed as a matter of urgency is the funding model as the current model promotes imbalances between rural schools and semi-urban and urban schools. It is for this reason that further research should be carried out on the disparities between rural and urban schools.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Collective agreement No. 8 of 2003. (Integrated quality management systems).


Education in Bangladesh: Education Systems.
http://sanisoft.tripod.com/bdesedu/systems.html


http://mste.illinois.edu/hill/papers/equity.html. 3/23/2010

http://peoplelearn.homestead.com/42D87C33-B.

http://sdi.sagepub.com: Global Governance as the friendly face of unaccountable power.
Security dialogue 2002; 33; 45


http://www.the teacher.co.za/article/challenges-rather-than-obstacles. 10/6/2008

Africa World Press, Inc.

ILO. 1996. Impact of structural adjustment on employment and training of teachers. Geneva:
ILO, Sectoral Activities Programme.


www.wozazimbabwe.org.


Mahomole, M.J. 2008. A historical investigation into school governing structures in Limpopo Province of South Africa. UNISA.


Schwella, E. Burger, J. Fox, W. Muller, J.J. Public resources management. Kenwyn: Juta & Company Ltd.


ANNEXURE A: PERMISSION LETTER

TO : TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

FROM : PROF M H KANYANE

DATE : 03 FEBRUARY 2009

SUBJECT : REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

1. This is to confirm that Mr Mothapo S.J Student No. 200903484 is one of the PhD students of the University of the Fort Hare in the Department of Public Administration.

2. Mr Mothapo is aiming to undertake a research entitled “Assessing the impact of School Governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education” For him to undertake and complete this research, we request your permission to assist him with regards to questionnaire, interview and documentary survey most in particular.

3. Here for, we wish Mr Mothapo a success in undertaking this high level doctoral research at your institution and believe that it will be rewarding to you in many ways should he be permitted to do so.

Regards

Prof Kanyane M H
Supervisor
ANNEXURE B: APPROVAL LETTER

TO : TO WHO IT MAY CONCERN

ENG : MABITSI T.M (079 511 7545)

DATE : 10 JULY 2009

SUBJECT : PERMISSION FOR THE RESEARCHER TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH: S.J MOTAPO

1. The above matter bears reference:
2. The researcher Mr S.J Motaipo (2009034840) has requested permission form the Department of Education to conduct a research in some selected schools and officials in targeted Offices.
3. His topic is “ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF SCHOOL GOVERNANCE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE LIMPOPO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION”
4. Permission is herein granted to ensure that he should be allowed to conduct this study.
5. Principals are requested to ensure that the rights of and education of the learners are not negatively impacted upon.
6. We hope that the value of the study will benefit the entire nation.

Thank you in anticipation.

........................................

Head of Department

Cnr.113 Biccard & 24 Excelsior streets. POLOKWANE, 0700, Private Bag X9489, POLKWANE, 0700. (Tel) 015 290 7600. (Fax) 015 297 6920/4220/4494
ANNEXURE C: COVERING LETTER

TO : THE PARTICIPANTS

DATE : 13 JULY 2010

SUBJECT : INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

You are hereby requested to participate in a Doctoral study that seeks to assess the impact of School governance on service delivery in the Limpopo Department of Education.

Further, you are requested to read and answer the posed questions with a clear understanding that the information presented fully reflects your views on the topic under investigation and significantly your situation as accurately as possible.

Please follow the instructions as provided on the first page of the questionnaire.

I am attaching a consent form for you to complete and sign to indicate that you were not in any way coerced to take part in this study, but you have willingly and voluntarily chosen to participate. It should be also be noted that in terms of ethical imperatives of research, you may withdraw your candidature if you so wish.

Yours sincerely

S J Mothapo (082 200 5440)

P O Box 1546

SOVENGA

0727
ANNEXURE D: CONSENT FORM

TO : THE PARTICIPANTS

DATE : 13 JULY 2010

SUBJECT : A CONSENT FORM

I…………………………………………………….fully understand the context in which my participation in this research study is required, and therefore willingly agree to share my knowledge with the current researcher in respect of the topic under investigation.

Singed: ……………………………………………

Date : ……………………………………………
ANNEXURE E: QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE FOR EDUCATORS

Overview

The Limpopo Department of Education like the other Government Department has been mandated to provide quality Education as a service to the people without compromise. The South African Schools Act no. 84. of 1996 and other related legislations have enacted to ensure that the intended objectives of Government regarding education are been realised. However, the Limpopo Department Education is also faced with enormous challenges in its endeavour to provide effective and efficient service delivery.

Respondents

The intended respondents in this regard were the educators in the Limpopo Department of Education with specific reference to Mankweng and Polokwane circuits. This group was chosen solely because they are the relevant participants for this study as they are situated in schools where they are expected to fulfil the mandate of the Department of Education.

Guidelines

Kindly be informed that the information gathered during this research will be handled as highly confidential as possible, within the confines of research ethics and as such the anonymity and dignity of the respondents will be protected. Please answer all the questions as requested and for each question, please indicate your answer with an X where applicable, and lastly note that the value of this questionnaire depends entirely on your honesty.

Process

The researcher will self collect the questionnaire form the school principals or their representatives, and from the individual participants who prefer so.

Communication

The questionnaire is written in English since the respondents are literate enough to can read the questions and respond accordingly.
Disclaimer

The questionnaire has been drawn for a research project undertaken to fulfil the requirements of a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare, and therefore, your participation will be greatly appreciated.

Section A

Personal Information

In which age group would you place yourself?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Just below 40 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 year and above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In which gender group would you place yourself?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate your level academic attainment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors Degree</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours/Bachelor of Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral Degree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other, please specify:</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Please indicate the level of your professional training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PTC/Primary Teachers Certificate</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSTC/Junior Secondary Teachers Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JPTD/Junior Primary Teachers Diploma</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STD/Senior Teachers Diploma</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPDE/National Diploma Education</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ace/Advance Certificate in Education: Specify</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate the number of years in the field as an educator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Section B

Governance

1. What is governance and how do you understand it in the context of the Department of Education? .................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................

2. In your view, what would you say are the major responsibilities of a school principal? .................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................................................

3. Do you as an educator have sufficient influence in determining school policies?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

204
4. To what extend does the school principal influence direction or decisions in your school?

5. Would you say there is a good working relationship between the educators and the School Management team in your school?

   Yes  |  No

6. Would you say there is good working relationship among educators in your school?

   Yes  |  No

7. The pieces of legislation, school policies and regulations are more often difficult to understand and implement for school principals, deputies, HOD’s, educators and the governors alike, what is your view?

8. Would you say accountability lies with the school principal alone?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. How satisfactory is your school's internal and external communication network?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Would you say your school has a good relationship with the circuit, parents, local public and private agencies?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Is your school maintaining good balance among other major several missions and visions?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. How clear are your school's objectives and plans for the next few years?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. Are all the stakeholders fairly represented in the school governing body?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

14. Would you say the school governors are the law enforcement agencies for both the educators and the learners?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Is there any influence or the relationship between governance and the pass rates in schools, if so how?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. In a scale of point 1-5 where would you rate the performance of your school governing body?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Fair</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Lack of accountability on the part of both the SGB’s and the educators leads to a misuse of both human and capital resources, your opinion please?

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
18. Is the existing governance vulnerable to fraud and corruption and why would you say so?

| Yes | No |

……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………

19. Given a chance, would you still want to remain in the teaching profession?

| Yes | No |

……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………

Section C.

Discipline

1. Is the disciplinary reputation of your school the concern of the principal alone?

| Yes | No |

……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………

208
Section D

Financial Management

1. Would you say your school is effective in bargaining with the governors about budgetary matters?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. In your opinion, would you explicitly say your school allocates funds in a fair and transparent manner?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. How satisfactory is your school’s management of funds?

Section E

Performance management/Integrated quality management systems

1. Would you say integrated quality management system is a witch-hunt performance management tool?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
2. In your view what would you say is the role of the principal in integrated quality management system?

3. Do you have a role to play in whole school evaluation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

4. Do you think development appraisal is one of domains and what significance does it have to you and your school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Section F

Curriculum and Instructions

1. Would you say your school curriculum reflects the future educational needs of the learners and the general economy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
2. Would you say there is an even balance of teaching responsibilities among educators in your school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. Do you have a role to play in curriculum development?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Section G

General Overview

1. Politics seem to overshadow the education management and administration in South Africa, what is your view?

2. Generally comment about issues of governance in the school and the Department of Education as a whole
ANNEXURE F: Interview guide targeting school principals/deputies and head of departments.

Overview

The Limpopo Department of Education like other government Departments has been mandated to provide quality education as a service to the people without compromise. The South African Schools Act, 84. Of 1996 and other related legislations have been enacted to ensure that the intended objectives of government regarding education are been realised. However, the Limpopo Department of Education is also faced with enormous challenges in its endeavour to provide effective and efficient service delivery.

Respondents

This interview guide has been drawn for the school principals, deputies and HOD’s who are appointed to among other, implement school policies, regulations and also interpret such legislations as they are situated in schools where all operations are taking place.

Guidelines

Kindly be informed that the information gathered during the research will be handled as highly confidential as possible, within the confines of research ethics, and as such the anonymity and dignity of the respondents will be protected.

Process

Since this is a face to face encounter, the researcher will administer the interviews as per the preferences of the individual participants, whether the interview will take place at a neutral place or any other place that is suitable for an interview to take place.

Communication

The researcher will communicate with the respondents in English as the respondents are literate enough to can converse in English.

Disclaimer

The interview guide was drawn for a research project undertaken to fulfil the requirements of a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare.
QUESTIONS

Section A: Governance

1. What is governance and how do you understand it in the context of the Department of Education?
2. Did you in any point experience problems in executing your duties as a school principal/Deputy or HOD?
3. Have you ever experienced any tension between your office and the governing body?
4. Would you agree that more often the existing school governance causes inevitable clashes between the principals, deputies, HOD’s and the education authorities?
5. How would you define your day-to-day responsibilities as the school principal, deputy principal or HOD?
6. The pieces of legislations, school policies and regulations are from time to time difficult to understand and implement for the principals, deputies, educators and the governors alike, what is your view?
7. How satisfactory is your school’s internal and external network?
8. In your, does accountability rest with the school principal alone?
9. Would you say your school maintains good balance among other several major missions and visions?
10. Would you say the school governors are the law enforcement agencies for both the educators and the learners?
11. How clear are the schools’ objectives and plans for the next few years?
12. Are all the stakeholders fairly represented in the school governing body?
13. Is there any influence or the relationship between the governance and the pass rates in schools, if so how?
14. Lack of accountability on the part of both the SGB’s and the educators leads to a misuse of both human and capital resources, your opinion please?
15. Is the existing governance vulnerable to fraud and corruption and why would you say so?

Section B: Performance Management/Integrated quality management systems

1. Would you say integrated quality management system is a witch-hunt performance management tool?
2. In your view, what is the role of the district in integrated quality management system as a whole?
3. Do you have a role to play in the whole school evaluation?
4. Would you say development appraisal is one of your domains?
5. What is the level of your teaching staff’s self developmental efforts?
6. What is the significance of development appraisal to you and your school?

Section C: Financial management

1. Is the school based management the custodian of the school finances?
2. Would you say your school is effective in bargaining with the governors and the Department on budgetary matters?
3. In your opinion, would you explicitly say your school allocates funds in a fair and transparent manner?
4. How satisfactory is your schools’ management of funds?

Section D: Discipline

1. How concerned is your school with the disciplinary reputation?

Section E: Curriculum and Instruction

1. What is your role curriculum development?
2. Would you say your school curriculum reflects the future educational needs of the learners and the general economy?
3. Would you say there is an even balance of teaching responsibilities among educators in your school?
4. To what extent is your school satisfied with the development of curriculum and evaluation?

Section F: General Overview

1. Politics seem to be overshadowing the education administration and management in South Africa, your opinion please?
2. Generally comment on issues of governance in the schools and the Department of Education as whole?

The questions were partially extracted and influenced by the work of Mehdiratta, P.R. 1984. University Administration in India and the United State of America: Issues and Implications. Pp. 321-361
ANNEXURE G: Interview guide targeting Circuit mangers and Deputy Managers for governance.

Overview
The Limpopo Department of Education like other government Departments has been mandated to provide quality education as a service to the people without compromise. The South African Schools At, 84 of 1996 and other related legislations have been enacted to ensure that the intended objectives of government regarding education are been realised. However, the Limpopo Department of Education is also facing enormous challenges in its endeavour to provide effective and efficient service delivery.

Respondents
This interview guide has been drawn for the circuit managers and the deputy managers for governance who appointed to monitor the schools in terms of curriculum delivery and school governance as a whole.

Guidelines
Kindly be informed that the information gathered during the interview will handled as confidentially as possible, within the confines of research ethics, and such as such the anonymity and dignity of the respondents will be protected.

Process
Since this is a face to face interview, the researcher will administer interviews as per the preferences of the individual participants, whether the interview will take place at a neutral place or at any other place suitable for an interview to take place.

Communication
The researcher will communicate with the respondents in English as they are literate enough to can converse in English.

Disclaimer
The interview guide was drawn for a research project undertaken to fulfil the requirements of a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare.
QUESTIONS

Section A: Governance
1. What is governance and how do you understand it in the context of the Department of Education?
2. Is the school based management the custodian of school finances?
3. Have you ever experienced any tension between your Office, schools, and the governors?
4. Would you agree that more often the existing governance causes inevitable clashes between the principals, deputies, HOD’s and the education authorities?
5. How would you define your day-to-day responsibilities as the circuit manager/deputy manager for governance?
6. The pieces of legislation, school policies and regulations are from time to time difficult understand and implement for the principals, deputies, HOD’s, educators and the governors alike, what is your view?
7. How satisfactory is the Department’s internal and external communication network?
8. How clear are the Department’s objectives and plans for the next few years?
9. In your view, does accountability rest with the schools and the governors alone?
10. In your view, are all stakeholders fairly represented in the school governing bodies?
11. Would you say the Department maintains a good balance among other major several missions and visions?
12. Is there any influence or relationship between governance and the pass rates in schools, if so how?
13. Lack of accountability on the part of both the SGB’s and the educators leads to a misuse of both human and capital resources, your opinion please?
14. Is the existing governance vulnerable to fraud and corruption and why do you say so?

Section B: Performance Management/Integrated Quality management systems
1. Would you say an integrated quality management system is a witch-hunt management tool?
2. In your view, what is the role of the district/circuit in integrated quality management system as a whole?
3. Do you have a role to play in whole school evaluation?
4. Would you say development appraisal is one of your domains?
5. What is the level of your teaching staff’s self-developmental efforts?
6. What is the significance of development appraisal to the Department of Education?

**Section C: Financial Management**

1. Would you say schools are effective in bargaining with governors and the Department in budgetary matters?
2. In your opinion, would you explicitly say schools allocate funds in a fair and transparent manner?
3. How satisfactory is the schools’ management of funds?

**Section D: Curriculum and Instruction**

1. What is your role in curriculum development?
2. To what extent is the Department satisfied with the schools’ implementation of curriculum and evaluation process?
3. Would you say the current curriculum reflects the future educational needs of the learners and the general economy?
4. Would you say there is an even balance of teaching responsibilities among educators in schools?

**Section E: Discipline**

1. How concerned is the Department with the Disciplinary reputation in schools?

**Section F: General Overview**

1. Politics seem to be overshadowing the education administration and management in South Africa, your opinion please?
2. Generally comment about issues of governance in the schools and the Department of Education as a whole.

The questions were partially extracted and influenced by the work of Mehendiratta, P.R. 1984. University Administration in India and the United State of America: Issues and Implications. Pp. 329-361
ANNEXURE H: Interview guide targeting the governors/parents.

Overview
The Limpopo Department of Education like other government Departments has been mandated to provide quality education as a service to the people without compromise. The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 and other legislations have been enacted to ensure that the intended objectives of government regarding education are been realised. However, the Limpopo Department of Education is also faced with enormous challenges in its endeavour to provide effective and efficient service delivery.

Respondents
This interview guide has been drawn for the governors/parents who elected to serve as the Chairpersons of the School governing bodies in the respective schools. These are the custodians of the school finances and are also responsible for the drafting of the school policies like the code of conduct for the learners.

Guidelines
Kindly be informed that the information gathered during the research will be handled as highly confidential as possible, within the confines of research ethics, and as such the anonymity and dignity of the respondents will be protected.

Process
Since this is a face to face encounter, the researcher will administer the interviews as per the preference of the individual participants, whether the interview will take pace at a neutral place or any other place suitable for an interview to take place.

Communication
The researcher will communicate with the participants in both English and Northern Sotho to accommodate those participants who cannot converse well in English. However, all the responses will be captured in English.

Disclaimer
The interview guide was drawn for a research project undertaken to fulfil the requirement of a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare.
QUESTIONS

Section A. Governance
1. What is governance and how do you understand it in the context of the Department of Education?
2. How often does the school involve members of the governing body on matters of importance?
3. In your opinion, what would you explicitly say are your roles as a governor?
4. Did you in any point experience problems in executing your duties as a governor?
5. How satisfactory are regarding the effective utilisation of the governors in planning and development by the schools?
6. How satisfactory is the schools’ internal and external communication network?
7. Is the school receptive to advice and criticism from the governing body?
8. Are you satisfied in the frequency of the governors meetings?
9. Have ever experienced any tension between your Office and the school management team, educators, and the education authorities?

10. The pieces of legislation, school policies and regulations are from time to time difficult to understand and implement for the principals, deputies, educators and governors alike, what is your view?
11. Are all stakeholders fairly represented in the governing body?
12. Is there any influence or relationship between the governance and the pass rates in schools, if so how?
13. Lack of accountability on the part of both the SGB’s and the educators leads to a misuse of both human and capital resources, your opinion please?
14. Is the existing governance vulnerable to fraud and corruption and why do you say so?

Section B: Financial management
1. Would you say the school is effective in bargaining with the governors and the Department about budgetary matters?
2. In your opinion, would you explicitly say your school allocates the funds in a fair and transparent manner?
3. How satisfactory is the school’s management of funds?

Section C: Discipline

1. Would you agree that in most instances the principals and educators are not concerned about the disciplinary reputation of their schools?

Section D: General overview

1. Politics seem to be overshadowing the education administration and management in South Africa, your opinion please.
2. Generally comment about issues of governance in the schools and the Department of Education as a whole.

ANNEXURE I: Interview guide targeting the Learner representatives

Overview

The Limpopo Department of Education like other government Departments has been mandated to provide quality education as a service to the people without compromise. The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 and other related legislations have been enacted to ensure that intended objectives of government regarding education are been realised. However, the Department of Education is also faced with enormous challenges in its endeavour to provide effective and efficient service delivery.

Respondents

This interview guide has been drawn for the leaner representatives who are in their capacity ensuring that the leaners’ rights are respected and teaching and learning are taking place as per the stipulations of the South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996.

Guidelines

Kindly be informed that the information gathered during the research will be handled as highly confidential as possible, within the confines of research ethics, and as such the anonymity and dignity of the respondents will be protected.

Process

Since the interview will involve more than one interviewee, the modus operandi will take shape of the focus groups interview, and each participant will be given a fair chance of contribution.

Communication

The researcher will communicate with the respondents in both Northern Sotho and English to accommodate those participants who would prefer to converse in Northern Sotho, taking into account the environment within which schools are situated, namely, rural and urban areas.
Disclaimer

The interview guide was drawn for a research project undertaken to fulfil the requirements of a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare.

Questions

1. What is governance and how do you understand it in the context of the Department of Education?
2. What is your role in school governance?
3. How are the SGB meetings conducted?
4. How do you report to your constituency?
5. Are you satisfied with the frequency of the SGB meetings?
6. Do you get any formal training on SGB matters?
7. Do you sometimes feel threatened by the presence of the principal, educators or parents during SGB meetings?
8. What do you think should be done to motivate the parents to participate in SGB matters?
9. Politics seem to be overshadowing the education administration and management in South Africa, your opinion please.
10. Generally comment about issues of governance in the schools and the Department of Education as a whole.
ANNEXURE J: LETTER CONFIRMING EDITING

LANGUAGE PRACTITIONER

TEL: 27-15-3072088          PO BOX 4166
CELL: 27-83 2289 801        0850 TZANEEN
FAX: 015-3072088           REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
E-MAIL: laraine@lantic.net     24 January 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I, DR LARAINE C O’CONNELL, hereby declare that I am an editor/translator and a registered member of SATI (South African Translators’ Institute), Registration number 1001497.

I further declare that I have edited the following thesis:

ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF SCHOOL GOVERNANCE IN THE LIMPOPO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO MANKWENG AND POLOKWANE CIRCUITS

Submitted by

SENTSHUHLENG JACOB MOTAPO

in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Public Administration in the Faculty of Management and Commerce, School of Public Management and Development, Department of Public Administration, University of Fort Hare.

SUPERVISOR: PROF M H KANYANE

DR LC O’CONNELL

24 January 2012