

ASPECTS OF THE LEARNING CULTURE WITH
REFERENCE TO SOME HIGH SCHOOLS IN MITCHELL'S
PLAIN: A PHILOSOPHICAL REFLECTION

by

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university for a degree.



Date: 08/11/10

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I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis was edited by me.

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Dedicated to my wife, Sharon and children Garth and Chloé and all who may benefit from this research.

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ABSTRACT

Education in South Africa is at the crossroads. The culture of learning and teaching with reference to black and specifically coloured schools has collapsed. Since 1985 there has been a steady drop in the matric pass rate.

In any nation at any given time the wellbeing of its people is measured against the intent and content of the education system. These intents should address the basic needs of the community it serves and at the same time satisfy the highest aspirations of its participants, setting standards as well as immediate and long-term goals in line with the ideals of an ever-developing nation.

To maintain the integrity of its intent, the promoters of the system (all the role players) should be dedicated and committed to the spirit of this intent. Should any one of the above be found wanting, this could be expressed by indifference, frustration and possibly unrest.

One manifestation of this will be a pupil corps with high expectations unfulfilled. Teachers themselves will be frustrated by the very legislators, promoters and planners and will have to implement this lack of vision.

The purpose of this study is to analyse and describe the nature of the learning culture in coloured schools, in particular high schools in Mitchell's Plain. This purpose was realised by undertaking a theoretical investigation in the first place and secondly an empirical investigation into various aspects of the culture of learning. In order to obtain a clear overall picture of the learning culture in these schools, qualitative as well as

quantitative methods of research were used. Interviews were also conducted with teachers, pupils and principals.

Many of the problems found among the school-going population are deeply embedded in the historical past of South Africa. The result is a painstaking slow healing process to restore a learning culture to satisfy the ideals of an ever-developing nation.

This research paper consists of five chapters. The introductory chapter holds as content the introductory orientation to the study. This is followed by the historical evolution of education in South Africa. Chapter 3 focuses on the erosion of the learning culture. This chapter reports on a survey which was conducted of various high schools. The aim of this exercise was to undertake an investigation into the learning culture that prevailed at these schools. Cultural-learning factors and its impact on academic achievement is discussed in chapter four.

Chapter five delves into restoring of the learning culture and the roles of the pupil, family, community, teacher and principal are discussed.

ABSTRAK

Opvoeding in Suid Afrika is op 'n kruispad. Die leerkultuur met spesiale verwysing na swart en kleurlingonderwys het verval. Sedert 1985, het daar 'n geleidelike afname in die matriek slaagsyfer van genoemde ingetree.

By enige volk of nasie, ter enige tyd, word die welvaart van sy mense gemeet teenoor die doelstellings van sy opvoedingstelsel. Daar word aanvaar dat die opvoedingstelsel die basiese benodighede van die breër gemeenskap aanspreek en ook terselfdertyd die hoogste aspirasies van sy deelnemers bevredig. Standaarde om die onmiddellike en lang-termyn doelwitte te bevredig, strook ooreen met die ideale van so 'n gedurig ontwikkelende volk.

Om die integriteit van sy voorneme te behou, moet die promotors van so 'n stelsel (al die rolspelers) toegewyd wees teenoor die gees van daardie voorneme. As 'n volle toegewydheid ontbreek, sal frustrasie en onrus aan die orde van die dag wees.

Een van hierdie manifestasies sal 'n leerlingkorps wees met hoë verwagtinge wat nie vervul kan word nie. So ook 'n onderwyserliggaam gefrustreerd deur die promotors en implimenterders van so 'n kortsigtige onderwysstelsel van wie verwag sal word om hierdie kortsigtige visie te toe te pas.

Die doel van hierdie studie is om die aard van 'n leerkultuur by hoërskole in Mitchell's Plain te analiseer en te beskryf. Hierdie doel is gerealiseer nadat 'n teoretiese ondersoek en daarna 'n empiriese studie in hierdie leergebied gedoen is. Ten einde 'n geheelbeeld van 'n leerkultuur in hierdie skole te verkry, is gebruik gemaak van kwalitatiewe sowel as kwantitatiewe

navorsingsmetodes. Daar is ook onderhoude met onderwysers, leerlinge en skoolhoofde gevoer.

Baie van die probleme wat onder die skoolgaande bevolking gevind word, is diep in die historiese verlede van Suid Afrika gewortel. Die gevolg is dat enige veranderings in die daarstelling van 'n leerkultuur 'n stadige, pynlike proses sal wees ten einde die ideale van 'n ontwikkelende volk daar te stel.

Hierdie navorsing beslaan vyf hoofstukke. Die inleidende hoofstuk hou as inhoud die inleidende orientasie tot hierdie studie. 'n Blik op die historiese evolusie van opvoeding in Suid Afrika volg daarna. In Hoofstuk 3 word die erosie van 'n leerkultuur bestudeer. In hierdie hoofstuk is 'n opname van die leerkultuur in hoërskole in Mitchell's Plain gedoen. In Hoofstuk 4 word kulturele-leerfaktore bestudeer en hul impak op akademiese prestasie word bespreek. In Hoofstuk 5 word die rol van die leerling, gesin, gemeenskap, die onderwyser en skoolhoof nagevors en bespreek in die herstel van 'n leerkultuur.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTORY PERSPECTIVES

1.1 Introduction

Black and Coloured education in South Africa is in disarray. Discipline and order in schools have broken down to a large extent. The intermittent disruption of schools seems to have gained public toleration if not complete acceptance. This crisis is reflected in the declining matric pass rate of the former Department of Education and Training from 73,6% in 1978 to 48% in 1993 to an even lower 38,3% in 1997 (Carstens, *et al.*, 1986: 16; Du Pisani, *et al.* 1990:14). And to a lesser extent, the Department of Education and Culture matric results from 92% in 1978 to 87% in 1993 to 74% in 1997.

1.2 Motivation and relevance of this study

Since 1980, politically inspired strikes, riots, disruption and demonstrations of a magnitude unknown in South Africa have ravaged black and coloured education. To a large extent, black and coloured schools became known as the "batter rams of the struggle and sites of struggle - the struggles of the community must be taken to the classrooms" (Cape Youth Congress pamphlet, August 1985), and classrooms had to be turned into zones of liberation (Cape Times, 27 January 1986: 7).

In the struggle against apartheid, many of the schools became centres for political indoctrination, and in the process, education in the true sense, could hardly take place. The

intermittent disruption of schools seemed to have gained public toleration if not complete acceptance. Parents, principals and teachers were afraid to, or refrained from, disciplining pupils who transgressed and this attitude has allowed the prevailing state of disorder in schools to reach alarming proportions.

Ken Hartshorne (1992: 81) writes: "South Africa will pay dearly for the collapse of black (that includes coloured) secondary schooling and the waste of human potential involved, both in its economic development and in its social health and stability". This concern is echoed by Clem Sunter (1990: 40-49) who argues that a high level of education is the most important characteristic of a winning country.

The above-mentioned realities facing our country forces one to ask the following questions:

- What are the causes of this dilemma?
- How can this be rectified?
- Has the learning culture broken down?
- What is meant by learning culture?
- Was there ever a learning culture?

As a result of the above questions, the *Beeld* (17 June, 1994: 1) reported that one of the first challenges facing the South African government is to restore a learning culture in its schools. Samuel (in Idasa, 1990:4) writes:

"...a climate of learning needs to be encouraged and developed to develop a new society".

1.3 The aim of this study

The overall aim of this study is to analyse and describe the nature of the learning culture in certain high schools in Mitchell's Plain. There are 14 high schools in Mitchell's Plain. The researcher aims to do research at 6 of these schools. The aim is to present an overview of the learning culture in these schools.

The objective of the research is, (in Pacheco, 1996: 4):

- To investigate and describe specific reasons for the collapse of a learning culture.
- To investigate and describe possible ways to restore the learning culture.
- To investigate and describe theoretically the impact of learning-cultural factors.
- To investigate and describe the nature of a learning culture in these schools.

1.4 Identification of the problem and an explanation of key terms and concepts

The main purpose of this research is to investigate the existence or non-existence of a learning culture in high schools in Mitchell's Plain. Learning-cultural factors such as the self-concept of the pupils, motivation, domestic and school environment, the perception of pupils of the teacher and principal will be researched and its impact on academic performance

recorded. The researcher chose six high schools in Mitchell's Plain as representative of high schooling in general in the area.

1.4.1 Aspect(s)

The *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (7th ed, 1981: 50) describes the word "aspect(s)" as a noun. Aspect refers to a way of looking or fronting in a given direction. Aspect also refers to a particular component of a matter; the way things appear. The way phenomena express themselves.

The word "aspect(s)" therefore indicate that the learning culture consists of more than one variable or component and that each component has a direct bearing on the learning culture.

1.4.2 A learning culture

Nielsen (1992: 3) defines learning culture as a positive school climate where the atmosphere is conducive to teaching and learning, where everyone who has an interest in the school expresses pride in it, where pupils are given maximum opportunities to learn and there are high expectations for pupils to achieve.

Pacheco (1996: 37) refers to learning culture as the learning inner disposition and spirit of hardworking and committedness in a school which exists as result of a cumulative effect of the interaction between personal characteristics of pupils, family, school and societal factors.

A learning culture sets the tone for everything else that is connected with pupils' learning. Variables such as the home environment, parents, the community, health of pupils, self-image, value system, etc. influence a learning culture.

The above makes it quite clear that learning does not take place at school only, but at home and in the community as well. Therefore, the school's climate for learning is the product of the collective efforts of all the role players in making effective learning possible for pupils (Wirsing (1991: 11). In this regard, the principal as manager of the school is the chief role-player in ensuring that a positive school climate is prevalent in his school (Bennett, 1987: 8).

1.4.3 Pupils

The context in which the term "pupil" will be used in this research refers to a secondary school child in relation to a teacher. A pupil is one who attends school so that he can learn under the guidance of an adult, the teacher. Grugeon and Woods (1990: 8) in Matsitsa (1995: 37) say that becoming a pupil means that transition from home to school or entering a school as a learner. According to Dow (1979: 16) a pupil differs from a student in that the former attends a primary or secondary school whereas the latter attends a tertiary institution such as a university or a technikon. The teacher acts *in loco parentis* in their relation with the pupil. It is incumbent on the teacher to guide the pupil to responsible adulthood.

1.4.4 Academic achievement

Genck (1990:8) defines academic achievement as academic progress and general development. To Hauser (1971: 144) academic achievement is the demonstrated capacity to perform a given task successfully. Masitsa (1988: 12) sees it as the child's ability to successfully complete a given task or programme of his particular level or standard. In short, all three educationalists agree that it refers to the pupil's ability to obtain success in his schoolwork.

1.4.5 Mitchell's Plain

Mitchell's Plain, situated approximately 30 kilometres from Cape Town, was established in 1976. Mitchell's Plain is situated in the Cape Flats along the False Bay Coast and comprises an area of approximately 10 square kilometres. It was initially planned to house 250 000 people. Today there are close to 1,5 million people living in the area.

Mitchell's Plain is predominantly inhabited by "coloured" people, of whom more than 90% are of the lower income group and has a residential density of more than 150 000 per square kilometre.

1.5 Method of research

The term "method" is derived from the Latin word "methodus" which, when analysed, means 'meta' (along which) and 'hodos' (a road). According to Smith, (1989a: 1) "method" refers to the way or manner in which a problem of research is solved.

In this study, the researcher made use of the following methods:

- literature studies

- concept analysis

- questionnaires and interviews

Smith (1989b: 27) in Pacheco (1996: 12) describes literature study as a sharp, critical systematic study and description of existing literature regarding a problem area. Literature were gathered, and studied with regard to the following aspects:

- reason for the erosion of a learning culture in South African schools with special references to high schools in Mitchell's Plain
- affective personal characteristics of learners including: self-concept, motivation, attitude, values and discipline
- characteristic of the effective school in relation to a positive learning culture which includes responsible leadership, a positive teaching culture, discipline and order

Concept analysis refers to a thorough, precise and detailed description of a concept in order to make it fully understandable.

Concept analysis was done for the following reasons:

- to determine exactly what must be researched in this study
- to give a clear and concise definition of the concept learning culture within the context of this thesis
- for it is only when one arrives at a clear definition of the concept learning culture, that one can determine strategies to restore the lost learning culture

Empirical methods were used to establish the true experiences of pupils in these schools where research was conducted. The word '*empirical*' means 'experience' in the surrounding world.

During the empirical studies, the researcher made use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The quantitative method of research implies that great emphasis is placed on the

extent and range of data collection since a wide range of factors are addressed in questionnaires. In the quantitative method of research, questionnaires for teachers, pupils and principals were drawn up. The qualitative method of research supports the quantitative research methods and places emphasis on the depth of data collection. During the qualitative surveys, semi-structured interviews were conducted with pupils, teachers and principals. See Annexures A to E.

1.6 Outline of the research programme

This research paper consists of five chapters. The introductory chapter holds as content the introductory orientation to the study. This comprises the preamble to the study, the statement of the problem, the aims of the investigation, the research method, definition and elucidation of concepts and the programme of research. This is followed by the historical evolution of education in South Africa. In chapter 2, reference is made to the crisis in education in which a causal study of the collapse of the economy, political and ultimately the education system is made.

Chapter 3 focuses on the erosion of the learning culture. This chapter reports on a survey conducted of various high schools is conducted. The aim of this exercise was to undertake an investigation into the learning culture that prevailed at these schools. In this chapter the research and its findings, conclusions, recommendations and their implications, as well as suggestions for future research are discussed.

Chapter four looks at cultural-learning factors and its impact on academic achievement. Chapter five delves into restoration of the learning culture and the roles of the pupil, family, community, teacher and principal are discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA BETWEEN 1950-1985

2.1 Introduction

The education system of any country ought to be seen as part of the wider society. And just as the wider society changed with time, so did the education system. In discussing the collapse of the culture of learning with special reference to "coloured" education it is only meaningful to do so in the context of black education. By this is meant that the crisis in the former is a direct extension of the 1976 riots. Another important point to reflect on is that it is almost impossible to discuss the collapse of education in South Africa without referring to the political and economic systems because the collapse of the former is a direct consequence of the latter systems.

Education in South Africa was designed along racial lines. The National Education Policy Act (1967), the Coloured Person's Education Act (1963), and the Indian Education Act (1965) made provision for the education of Whites, Coloureds and Indians respectively. Schools have thus been provided for the different groups of people (Ashley, 1989,12). The Bantu Education Act of 1953 is completely different to the other education Acts in that its intentions were clear, according to the words of J.N Le Roux, a National Party spokesman on education, 1945, (Christie, 1986: 12) who remarked that: "...we should not give natives any academic education. If we do, who is going to do the manual labour in the community?". And whose sentiments are supported by Hendrik Verwoerd (Christie, 1986: 12): "...when I have control over native education, I will reform it so that natives will be taught from childhood that equality with Europeans is not for them".

Historically black education, especially Bantu education, was always marginalized in terms of funding, social investment, a high pupil/teacher ratio. Its goals were, according to Molteno (in Buckland, 1981: 135), "...to bring great numbers of black youths into the ambit of direct control... it represented a more calculated attempt to subvert the political and economic aspirations of the oppressed". White education was based on the underlying philosophical assumptions of Christian Nationalism. Christian Nationalism historically held the viewpoint that whites, as the possessors of the Christian faith, came to South Africa with a civilisation mission: The white South African's duty to the native is to Christianise him and help him on culturally. Native Education should be based on the principles of trusteeship, non-equality and segregation: its aim should be to inculcate the white man's view of life, especially that of the Boer nation, which is the senior trustee. (Ashley, 1989: 19).

The South African education system is interrelated to the economic and political systems. The collapse of the education system has its roots in the collapse of economic and political systems.

2.1.1 Historical evolution of education in South Africa

In this chapter, an attempt will be made to describe how the education system changed in South Africa. Special focus is on non-white education (in particular coloured education), not because of the belief that white education is any less besieged by problems, or that those problems are separate from those encountered in black education, but, simply because the crisis is most acute in non-white education - and that means, coloured education as well.

Historically there are strong links between the formulation of the policy of Bantu Education and the general evolution of educational ideas associated with Christian National Education and to ignore

those links, leaves us with a considerably impoverished view of evolution of educational policy since the 1930's. (Ashley, 1989: 9 - 11). Landman and Gouws (1969: 4 - 5) take the view that schooling should involve the inculcation of a genuine appreciation of common values, norms, authority community and cultural inheritance. Vos and Brits (1987:44) emphasised this notion. According to them, the African society in particular is in a state of transition, in the process of creating a ground motive "yet to be fully defined".

Since an education system develops under the guidance of a particular ground motive, the same concepts of that particular ground motive must be in harmony with that particular education system, serving that particular community:

"...An education system can only survive where harmony exists between itself and the ground motive of the community it serves. Accordingly, each population group in South Africa has its own separate education systems" (Ashley, 1989: 14).

According to Christie (1986: 51-52) South Africa experienced a period of important economic growth during the early 1940's. Manufacturing industries became more and more important. Urbanisation increased since more and more blacks came to the cities in search of work. Soon towns were overcrowded. Racial division in the working class gave rise to black/white competition for employment. Whites fought to retain their privileged positions in the job places.

Since the assumption of power by Afrikaner nationalists in 1948, the state introduced a Christian National Policy. The entire structure of so-called apartheid education, with its separate systems for the four groups of the population as classified in terms of the Population Registration Act, had been put in place.

There was now, for example, a "need" for schooling to produce a sufficiently docile "colonised" population to prevent the emergence of an outright political challenge to the status quo. Yet, at the same time, there was a demand for "appropriate" manpower for ever-increasing mechanisation and technological sophistication, with demands for versatile and competent black employees capable of holding their own in the "open" racial labour market. This resulted in a system of separated and unequal education in South Africa. White education was free and compulsory whilst black education was neglected.

Between 1949 and 1969 various laws were passed by which the Nationalist government entrenched the separate and unequal system of education. Laws such as the Bantu Education Act (1953) and the Coloured Persons Education Act (1963) heralded the advent of apartheid education.

Under the apartheid system, and in particular after the introduction of the Bantu Education Act, black school attendance increased dramatically, but the drop-out rate was also alarming. The majority of African school-goers did not go beyond std 2. In fact until the 1970's, about 70% of Africans in school were in "their first four years" (Christie 1986: 56). Less than 1% were in matric. Hendrik Verwoerd, the then Minister of Native Affairs, explained why the measures which characterised the nature of the Bantu Education System were needed:

"...My Department's policy is that Bantu education should stand with both feet in the reserves and have its roots in the spirit and being of Bantu society. There is no place (for the Bantu) in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour. What is the use of teaching the Bantu child mathematics when it cannot use it in practice?". That is quite absurd. "Education must

train people in accordance with their opportunities in life, according to the sphere in which they live" (Lapping, 1987: 155).

Moltero (1980: 31) analysed Verwoerd's statement in the following way. The goal of Bantu Education was to bring a greater number of black youth into the ambit of direct control. It represented a more calculated attempt to subvert the political and economic aspirations of the oppressed. Levin (1980: 34-40) supports Molteno's argument in that Bantu Education does not merely provide an ideological mode of manipulation in the wider attempts at controlling the circulation of labour power, but in itself it becomes a political strategy aimed at the subjugation of the black proletariat.

Thus it was true: Bantu Education wrested control of black education from the Church and Mission stations and placed it under the direct control of the Ministry of Bantu Affairs. Bantu Education had the declared aim of maintaining black South Africans in a permanent state of political and economic subordination. The statement of Verwoerd in the early 1950's is cited as proof of the evil intent of the policy (Kallaway, 1984: 29). Under the Apartheid system patterns of educational inequality were entrenched.

But by the early 1970s it became apparent that Bantu Education failed to inculcate "official" viewpoints regarding the inferior or different identity of black South Africans, i.e. it failed to establish the hegemony of Afrikaner nationalist ideas on race, obedience to the state, Christian nationalism, or even the virtues of ethnic diversities.

2.1.2 The riots of 1976

Events in 1976 brought home to leading Afrikaners a simple message: to continue to follow the pattern laid down by Verwoerd was impossible. Learning was a wider concept, which was not associated with the then current education system (Ashley, 1989: 86). The black and coloured communities had reached a stage where they said "away with the present system". For the first time the awareness was visibly revealed that no line could be drawn between education and politics. According to Sonn (09 May 1987) there was no thing such as neutral education. "...Education was either for liberation, or domestication. Education had to lead to transformation. In such education, the individual would emerge cleansed, purged of the internalisation of oppression and dehumanisation". Sonn (09 May, 1987) continued that the riots of 1976 was not a problem of education *per se*, but rather response of those in the education system to the problems of society.

The most powerful challenge to the state education systems have come from the black and coloured communities that were no longer prepared to accept, without protest, inferior, segregated, discriminating education systems (Millar, Raynham, Schafter, 1991: 42). Peter Buckland (address delivered at Kenton Conference, 1981) re-affirmed this notion; "...the collapse of the South African Schooling system that was manifested in the riots and boycotts of 1976-1980, and the ongoing manpower crisis in the industrial sector are deeply rooted in the political economy of the apartheid society". This culminated in the schools unrest starting in Soweto on June 16, 1976, which in the next four years was to spread across the country, gaining increasing support from teachers, parents and the black and coloured communities in general, until these education systems came perilously to a breakdown.

The crisis of the 1976 Soweto Riots and the school boycotts of the 1980s focussed attention on the youth and demonstrated the extent to which educational institutions had become sites of struggle in South Africa. The very institution designed to propagate "education for domestication" on the Verwoerdian model, turned out to be "Trojan" horses. The upsurge of student power, linked to heightened community consciousness and worker organisations marked the beginning of a new era of resistance to apartheid.

The riots were sparked by the attempt to enforce Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in the school in Soweto, which proved to be the last straw in the ongoing crisis in the previous years (Kallaway, 1984: 24). The inability of the Bantu Education Department to enforce its regulations on this issue, the intense resistance that resulted from that situation, the demands for educational reform being linked to wider political issues, the rise of student protest activities, the mass resignation of highly qualified teachers and the high failure rate, all added to a situation where black and coloured schools were simply not functioning. The schools were failing at the level of ideological control and were not producing manpower for industry. The schooling crisis was the manpower crisis, and it was the fundamental dimension of the political crisis (Kallaway 1984: 24). By the early 1980's there was a wide acceptance by the state and the business community of a degree of urgency in finding solutions to these problems.

One may argue that many ways, the events of 1976 gave expression to Black Consciousness - a set of ideas which, seeks to channel the pent-up forces of the angry black masses to meaningful and directional opposition (Lapping 1987: 210). This event brought about a new re-awakening that sought to foster in the black man a better, healthy self-image; to exorcize the age-old feeling of inferiority which ruined him. Black Consciousness encouraged unity

and expressed the desire to serve the interest of all those South Africans who were by law, or tradition, politically, socially, economically, and, educationally discriminated against purely on the basis of skin colour (Mashbela, 1987: 10).

2.1.3 The collapse of the economic and political systems in South Africa

Since the mid-1970's the South African economy has been sliding into recession. A brief boom in 1980/81 did not alter this trend. It has faced mounting balance of payment difficulties, growing inflation, the limits of White consumer market and high structural unemployment of blacks. In 1977 inflation ran at 14% and showed little signs of abating by 1983. The real growth rate, which averaged 5-7% annually during the 1960's, was zero in 1977. Falling output in manufacturing and declining private sector investments have been marked, while unemployment rose from 11,8% in 1970 to 21,1% in 1981 to about 24% in 1982 (SAIRR, 1982: 73-74). The annual growth rate of the GDP has been falling steadily since the 1960's from an average increase of 5,8% to 2,9% in the 1970's and 1,4% in the 1980's; it is possible that zero or negative growth will characterise the economy in the 1990's unless a different growth path from that advocated by the state and capital is adopted (Chisholm, 1983: 149).

2.1.3.1 Internal pressure to change

Prior to 1960, there was little concern either about the adequacy of the provision of African education or about its quality. The Sharpville event was to mark the beginning of a change in the perception of the private sector. For the first time, a joint delegation of the Afrikaanse Handelsinstituut (AHI), FCI, SEIFSA, ASSOCOM and the Chamber of Mines, representing the employers of two-thirds of the then black labour force, presented a joint

statement to the Prime Minister. Their memorandum recognised, for the first time, grievances about the apartheid laws (SAIRR, 1961: 90-94).

In 1963, the Witwatersrand Council of Education representing mainly mining and secondary sector interests published the report, *Education for South Africa*. The essence of the Report was that "...the time had come for the country's education system to be subjected to critical review. South Africa is passing through a phase of rapid economic development and it is everywhere being found that the scientific, technological, economic and social changes which have taken place in recent years are so far-reaching as to require fundamental adjustments in many aspects of existing education systems" (1961 Education Panel Report, 1963: xiii). The view of this body was further supported by the "Education and the South African Economy Report" of 1966 which stressed the significance of the changes involved in the conversion of the country's economy from one primarily agricultural into one which is primarily industrial. Hartshorne (in Millar et al. 1991: 119) argues that what surfaced clearly from the Report, was that the limiting factor in the growth of the economy was not lack of capital investment but the supply of trained manpower, and the conclusion was reached that "white education" had reached its limits in the quantitative production of economic skills. Bantu education, on the other hand, is not delivering trained personnel, fit for the new industrial dispensation. Education in South Africa would have to change.

In response to the outbreaks of 1976, the South African Government came to the realisation that there was no military solution to the country's long-term security problems. The events of 1976 brought home to leading Afrikaners a simple message: to continue to follow the pattern laid down by Verwoerd was impossible (Lapping, 1987: 215). The response by the government was known as "Total

Strategy". "Total Strategy" was an attempt to gain control over the affairs of non-whites on both educational and economic fronts. In response to the educational and economic crisis, the government appointed the De Lange Commission and Rieckert Commission to investigate a new educational vision and economic policies for South Africa respectively in order to make it more acceptable to all sectors of the communities in South Africa. In *the Journal of Educational policy*, Volume 2. No 2, 1987 (in Millar 1991: 180) Johan Muller described the attempts by the government as "...institutional frameworks through which the state could co-opt and control non-whites by these commissions. The idea was to build a stable black middle class group by giving certain rights to employment inside the country to some blacks in order to gain their support. The underlying rationale was both political and economical. Blacks who enjoyed the privilege of having the right to live and work in the industrial centres of the country had every reason to support policies which entrenched their positions". A comprehensive discussion on the De Lange Report may be found in 2.3 of this chapter.

What the government probably did not foresee was the economic implications of these changes. On the one hand, there were dramatic developments in the field of labour organisations during the 1970s with black workers demonstrating their power to wring concessions from management despite massive intimidation by the state. On the other hand, industrialists gradually conceded that the rising wave of industrial unrest had to be met by means other than outright oppressive brutality because endless disputes that led to strike action were too disruptive to production. What made matters worse for the government of the day was that multi-national organisations operating in South Africa found themselves under increasing pressure to accept codes of "fair labour practices" - embodied in the Sullivan Code, which includes the granting of union rights to workers and the launching of a variety

of welfare and social schemes such as housing, medical services, pension services and educational-aid services (Millar, 1991: 123-124).

This development should not be seen as having been done on humanitarian grounds - but rather within the context of changes in the industrial labour process during the 1970's. These developments heralded a changing nature of industrial production and labour processes, accompanied by new wage and salary structures, in South Africa. This new development and increase in black wage and salary structures reflected the beginning of a change-over from a labour intensive, low wage, low productivity economic system, to the capital intensive, high wage, high productivity system which characterised the advanced industrial countries (Kallaway, 1984: 22).

2.1.3.2 External pressure to change

By early 1984, political instability and pressure to change had more to do with American, and European politics than with events inside South Africa (Millar, 1991: 123). On the American front Ronald Reagan had just won the Presidential-elections for the second term in 1984. This was a blow to the Democratic Party who viewed Reagan's policy of "Constructive Engagement" as unacceptable to the American people. The Democrats saw the "Constructive Engagement Policy" as "...occasionally wrapping Pretoria over the knuckles while turning a blind eye to the country's apartheid policies and its destabilisation of neighbouring states" (Leach, 1989: 76).

Supported by anti-apartheid groups in America as well as in Great Britain, pressure was placed on Ronald Reagan to review his policy regarding South Africa. South Africa's Race policy became a key ingredient of American domestic policies. A greater call was made

to the president to recognise that the African National Congress was the major force on the South African scene with which the Reagan government should do business (Lapping, 1987: 234).

Between 1984-1988 the Reagan Administration suffered many setbacks. Support for the Democratic Party, and especially the Rev Jesse Jackson gained momentum. In 1986 the American Senate overturned a veto of Ronald Reagan who was reluctant to introduce punitive measures against South Africa. Sensing a damaging political defeat, Reagan approved the Comprehensive Anti-Apartheid Act. This Act placed a ban on all new American investments in South Africa, and new bank loans to South Africa, denied all landing rights of South African Airways in America, and banned imports of South African uranium, coal, textiles, iron, steel and agricultural products. This Act intensified the already existing ban on all computer exports to South African government agencies, placed restrictions on all nuclear goods or technology to Pretoria, and banned all new loans to the South African government except those related to social and educational projects open to all races. From 1985 onwards all major American and British companies started withdrawing or downscaling their business in South Africa. Among the first to leave were Coca-Cola, General Motors, IBM Computers, Ford, Kodak, British Steel Corporation, Metal Box and various other companies (Leach, 1989: 281-289).

On the home front since the late-seventies, the economic crisis, compounded by the crisis in the educational institutions, had sapped the living standards of the coloured working class - especially as a result of the high unemployment level among the young school leavers. In the greater Cape Town since 1985, unemployment had risen substantially for all groups, but its brunt had been placed on what is a relatively poorly educated 16-25 year-old age bracket. Two-thirds of unemployed coloureds in greater Cape Town were in this group. Moreover youth unemployment

showed a particular sharp rise in 1985. Awareness of an acute unemployment problem for school leavers was widespread in the Department of Education and Culture schools. Various pamphlets distributed read the message: "...What good is matric to get a job? Much better to have a driver's licence". Millions of matrics were unemployed as reported in various newspapers "...For an estimated 6,3 million of the economically active workforce of 14 million, there is no work" (*Cape Argus* 23 March 1992: 5). Dr Edwin Basson, Chief Economist, Small Business Development Corporation (SBDC) stated that "...the formal sector had jobs for less than 10% of new job seekers". The number of vacancies would cover only 7% of new matriculants (Dr Ben van Rensburg, SACOB: *Cape Argus* 23 March 1992: 5).

An analysis of the bar chart released by the Bureau of Economic Research: University of Stellenbosch (*Cape Argus*, 23 March 1992: 5) exacerbated the already explosive situation. What was clearly reflected was that the ability of the formal sector to absorb new labour has declined from 97% in 1960 to 72% in 1970. The crisis however can be further seen in the years 1970-1980 in that there was a further decline from 72% in 1970 to 22% and to 7% in 1985-1990. This is the reality of a country that is in crisis.

Other calls for further punitive actions and measures against South Africa were also the focus of attention at a Conference for Commonwealth Heads in Nassau in the Bahamas in October 1985. The Commonwealth drew up a declaration calling upon the Pretoria Government to dismantle apartheid, free Nelson Mandela, unban the ANC and begin the process of negotiations with the black nationalists (Leach, 1989: 285).

In response to external and internal pressures, and after long discussions and negotiations with various leaders representing various groups in South Africa, it finally dawned upon the South

African Government that some other political policy and form of government had to be found. On 13 July 1981, the sole remaining whites - only parliament in Africa dissolved for the last time. Whatever the future, the opening of the new parliament, and the admission of "Coloured" and "Indian" Members of Parliament marked a distinct shift in government thinking. After a referendum held on 2 November 1983, 65,95% of white voters voted in favour of this new political shift, the new three chamber Tri-Cameral government was established representing Whites, Coloureds and Indians. This new dispensation was doomed to fail because it excluded blacks and entrenched racial exclusivity. No person could vote or stand for election for another race group while the parliamentary houses were based on colour or race. The rejection of this new political dispensation was mirrored in the poor turnout at the polls. The overall turnout in the coloured community was not even 30%, while the white right wing rejected this new government (Millar, 1987: 125).

2.2 The crisis in education

In the late 1980s there was a shift in the form of struggles taking place in schools. As in the past, conflict was deeply connected to wider struggles taking place in society. But the struggles of this period involved both changed content and form. Wider struggles in Natal and the PWV areas, for example, no longer took the form of mass anti-apartheid struggle, becoming instead a violent and intensive conflict between Inkatha and African National Congress ANC - oriented township communities. Schools were drawn into these battles, and the more active students on both sides took up arms (Chisholm, 1992: 284).

The overall effect on schools was that the battlefields of the 1980s became wastelands of the 1990s. Whereas the early 1980s were characterised by struggles over control of schooling, and the

mid-1980's by struggles over content, the late 1980s and early 1990s were paradoxically characterised by both the lying waste of the schools and struggles over access. In 1990 the crisis of accommodation in secondary schools, where the focus of conflict remained, was acute. The desperate desire for the tools of access to jobs, wealth and security - certificates - found expression in the slogan "pass one, pass all" (Chisholm, 1992: 285). In conditions where townships appeared to be controlled by lawless bands of men, schools began to epitomise the wider lawlessness.

Inspired by the Congress of South African Students (COSAS), the pupils' slogan was "liberation now, education later". According to Bundy (in James & Simons 1989: 213) there was this great belief amongst students that once majority rule was secured, the liberated mass of young people could return to their studies to serve their new nation. Hardly any thought was given to the youth that lost out on education at the time, may become the lost generation of the future.

No authority beyond that of brute force spoke in many schools, which were repeatedly vandalised and not repaired. Rubbish piled up outside classrooms and school gates. Teachers dared not reprimand students. In many townships e.g. Langa, Mamelodi and Kathlehong, students and teachers expelled principals who had dismissed teachers or who had appeared to side with the authorities. There was that idealistic, but misguided assumption based on the false belief among many young blacks that the Pretoria government was crumbling and one final revolutionary push would bring it to its knees. This belief was supported by parents of many youngsters (Lapping, 1987: 212-213).

The experience of Elisabeth De Villiers (1989: 32-39) reflected the following:

- The hopelessness and despair.
- Culture of violence.
- Decay and neglect.
- Disciplinary problems.
- Disorganisation.
- A hopelessly unmotivated staff who are often absent from school.
- Unmotivated pupils.
- A myriad of negative problems that prevailed in Black schools in Soweto.

She reports on a host of events that are unacceptable in any civilised society: "They use real sjamboks at school. I have never seen one before". Mr Phila, administering corporal punishment at 07:45 said, "Late-comers ...with them, one time and its all over ...That is the only language that these children understand" (De Villiers, 1989: 109).

"...Conrad is not a bad man, but he is so young to have learnt such cruelty already. I can only presume that he learnt it at the same kind of school as the one at which he is now teaching. And the girl he has desecrated will teach it to someone else. The violence perpetuates itself" (De Villiers, 1989: 109).

The above show that the ideals of Apartheid education were not realised. Research showed that 66% of the total black population was considered functionally illiterate, with the highest number

occurring in those between the ages of 16 and 34 - the generation schooled by apartheid (Integrated Marketing Research (IMR), 1990: 159-161). Less than one percent of illiterates were reached by literacy programmes (Cloete, 1990: 11).

2.2.1 The Western Cape since 1985

2.2.1.1 Some explanations of youth radicalism

Bundy (1987: 207) argues that one of the most influential theoretical explanations of youth politics is the notion of social generation. The child becomes part of the social generation when they participate in the common destiny of that social or historical unit. By grappling with a distinct set of social and historical problems, they develop an awareness and common identity.

Moller (1967: 254-256) stresses population growth and pattern of age distribution as the demographic bases of youth radicalism. He describes the period since the beginning of the nineteenth century as the "age of population explosion" and argues that within the phenomenon of rapid population growth the demographic variable of age distribution carries particular implications. An increase in the ratio of total population directly increases the likelihood of cultural and political change. In light of this, he concludes that young people provide the driving force and often, to a greater extent, the intellectual and organisational leadership.

The 1980 census revealed that half the population of South Africa was under the age of 21. Further statistics reflected the following: 43% of blacks, 39,7% coloured, and 28% whites were under the age of 15. Of the 39,7% of coloured youths under the age of 15, 36% lived in the greater Cape Town area. Sixty percent of all coloured people were under the age of 25 (Bundy, 1985: 207).

Hobsbawm (1973: 254-264), concluded that the characteristic revolutionary person today is a student or young intellectual who has come to the realisation that their society holds no future for them and is incapable of satisfying the demands of most of its people.

The radicalism of the early 1970's sprang from a period of generalised capitalist crisis, which bore acutely upon intellectuals and students. An unprecedented expansion of higher education had three consequences namely an acute strain on educational institutions, a multiplication on first-generation students and a potential overproduction of intellectuals. In these circumstances, student unrest was almost inevitable. A large body of students facing either unemployment or a much less desirable employment than they had been led to expect, were likely to form a permanently discontented mass and feed into radical movements (Hobsbawm, 1990: 254-263).

The impact of unemployment, and indeed unemployability for many, has undoubtedly been a spur to radicalism among black and coloured students and school leavers. Take politically rightless, socially subordinate, economically vulnerable youths; educate them in numbers, but in grotesquely inadequate institutions; ensure that their awareness is shaped by punitive social practices in the world beyond the school yard - and then dump them in large numbers on the economic scrap heap (Bundy, 1985: 209). This was the position in South Africa, and particularly, the Western Cape.

2.2.1.2 The crisis in coloured education especially in the Western Cape

Apart from the massification of high school enrolment in the black schools, the coloured section of the South African society reflected a similar situation. The number of coloured students in

secondary and tertiary institutions increased from 25 000 in 1960 to 57 420 in 1970, to 158 000 in 1984 (Bundy, 1985: 209). Ashley (1993: 14) argues that by the year 2000, coloured pupils would have grown to just under 1,5 million. Coloured matric pupils will constitute 18% of the entire matric pupil population in the country. This increase in pupil numbers and the possibility of post matric unemployment contributed to the crisis.

2.2.1.3 The development of a 'special awareness' among young people in the western Cape

For the first time, unlike the early 1976-1980 period, educational issues were linked more concretely to broader political objectives. School grievances were linked to the broader political struggle. The struggles in the classroom must be taken to the community and the struggles of the community must be taken to the classroom (Bundy, 1985: 213).

In this discussion, frequent use will be made of the composite term "Student-Youth" politics and for the sake of clarity, here follows a definition of each component term:

- "Student politics" referred to those at schools, colleges and universities who responded partly to conditions in the educational system itself.
- "Youth politics", in the South African context, referred more particularly to recent school-leavers - also referred to as drop-outs who had the youthful urban unemployed as their key constituency.

The latter were the ones who had infused a deeper, sometimes more desperate, militancy into student and community politics (Bundy, 1985: 210, Chisholm, 1986: 17).

The major factor in ratcheting up student-youth militancy in 1985 was the state's heavy-handed coercive measures. The rapid transition within a school, from a peaceful rally through impromptu preparedness to confrontation with police and soldiers from behind fiery barricades was repeated over and over again.

Various incidents provided the student movements with new grievances, with first-hand experience of the state's repressive capacities, and with heightened militancy. Some of the more notable incidents were:

- Invasion of schools by police.
- The massive show of force on the day of the early closure of the Department of Education and Culture schools.
- The "Trojan Horse" shootings.
- The march to Pollsmoor prison and the banning of the Congress of South African Students (COSAS).

Between July and August 1985, DEC schools pupils engaged in boycott actions against the state of emergency, opposition to the Tri-cameral Government, general educational demands such as democratic student representative councils (SRC's) and the reinstatement of various teachers dismissed by the state. Student-youth demands meshed with those of community organisations in the call for popular control over the schools. Newly formed Parent-Teacher-Student Associations (PTSA's) formed in DEC schools called for democratic local control as the first step towards a unitary education system (Chisholm, 1992: 286). Franklin Sonn, a leading educationist in the Coloured community remarked in the Cape Times Editorial column that teachers favoured revolutionary changes, but

they were no longer prepared to wait upon events in a humiliating position of expectation that their rights would be granted to them. The morale amongst teachers was low.

The formation of PTSA's not only made concrete the terms of youth-community based unity, but also posed a radically alternative conception of how schools should be administered. The mass action by pupils, teachers and parents on 17 September 1985 in a symbolic re-occupation of the closed schools, was the high water mark of this development. In Athlone, parents kept their doors open during police raids with Casspirs and Buffel trucks to provide youth with escape routes. Parents also co-operated in the politics of direct action in that they supported their children overtly in marches and face-to-face confrontation with police. Political consciousness amongst students, youth and their parents was evident in Cape Town as elsewhere in South Africa. As one student put it "...It is the students who dominated the struggle and it is the students who forced apartheid to introduce so-called reforms" (Bundy, 1985: 212).

It was during this time that the realisation was verbalised that the backbone of the struggle was the joint efforts of the students as well as that of the workers and concluded that victory would come when the students together with the workers with all the progressive people of South Africa work together (Bundy, 1985: 212).

Political awareness amongst students had matured and deepened in several respects: students realised that their struggle against the educational and political system would not be won if students stood on their own, but through a long hard struggle, led by the working class. The boycotts have also shown that there was a wider dimension to education. Students wanted to see political change (Sonn, 1985: 153).

The call for a new education system was echoed all over the country. "Alternative education" and "political awareness" were the main topics of discussion during the boycotts of formal classes. Education was now at a crossroads because there was an ever-increasing demand from the clients of education to be treated as South Africans and not as Blacks, Coloureds or Indians. The insistence was thus for non-racialism, for genuine recognition of people as people.

2.3 Alternative education system - A response to the De Lange proposals

To many, the De Lange Report represented a group of authors who were not quite in touch with the real problems and crisis in the South African education system. Did their own ideologies so colour their deliberations that they failed to see the structural constraints within which they operated? The fact that their approach was a-political, was a calculated attempt that enabled them to avoid confronting the structural constraints on change imposed by the apartheid system (Buckland, 1981: 139).

The De Lange Report provides the focus for discussion about educational reforms in South Africa. It conforms in many ways to the conventional approach of educational policy experienced in our country. While the De Lange Report recognises an educational crisis and sets out to find ways and means of overcoming that crisis, the nature of the fundamental issues to be confronted remains remarkably vague. The reason why there is an education crisis never becomes clear; why reform should take a particular form recommended is left mostly unexplained, and the historical origins of the crisis are neglected. Nowhere in the report is mention made of the link between the 1976 school revolts and the Bantu Education System - the fundamental aspect in the genesis of the crisis (Kallaway, 1984: 33).

De Lange's main concern was to offer a solution to the problem of linking the educational crisis to its political and economic context - to address the economic "demand" and "supply" of manpower - the need to restore the harmony between the schooling system and the labour market (Sonn, 1981: 191). Looking at the report on the surface, it is easy to see that there was a sincere, idealistic desire to improve the quality of education for both child and adult. The principle of achieving education of equal quality for all, became from the earliest stage of the investigation, the superior motive (Taylor, 1987: 154). There was an acceptance of the "dual repertoire" of reform, which sought to promote equality of opportunity in education for all people regardless of race. It also sought to tap the larger pool of ability in order to more efficiently recruit the ablest of all races and classes for industry, thereby ensuring continued economic growth and political stability (Leach, 1989: 143).

Liberals and capitalists welcomed the report and hailed it as a "revolutionary breakthrough in education" (Chisholm and Christy, 1983: 256). Radicals strongly criticised the De Lange Report for they saw it as a simple modification of apartheid. Under the De Lange system of education, class, race and gender differences would remain. Working class children would most likely be channelled into technical and vocational education. Middle class children would be more likely to have an academic education. Radicals argued that the De Lange system would not bring fundamental change to the educational and social inequalities in South Africa (Christie, 1985: 270).

David Taylor (14 April 1998) argues that the De Lange Report stands as a benchmark in the documentation of the country's educational history. It had its strengths. According to him, this report was historical for the following reasons:

- For the first time in the history of South Africa, a government - appointed body established education as a national priority as a basic right of all citizens.
- For the first time in South Africa's educational history an attempt was made to conduct a national investigation into aspects of education for the entire population.
- De Lange brought to prominence in the South African Context a radical break from past pre-occupations such as group identity, cultural preservation and certain limited idealistic paradigms devoid of a dynamic social context.
- De Lange pioneered development towards an indigenous model for education in contrast to the long-standing tradition of eclecticism and importation of models from contexts dissimilar to South Africa. What De Lange offered was not an educational ideology, but a non-prescriptive conceptual framework for the emergence of a new educational vision (Taylor 1992: 9-10).

Radicals such as Kallaway and Buckland believe that De Lange has failed to address the true problem. The former argue that the report was fundamentally biased in that it failed to take into account fundamental and political issue. According to Kallaway, (1984: 34) the De Lange researchers worked and investigated the educational crisis as a phenomenon with no relation to political and economic realities. The neutrality or, as some say, the scientific nature of the Report is a reflection of certain types of liberal influence. Just as liberals traditionally view schooling as an ideologically neutral process of acquiring knowledge and skills so the Report wishes to represent itself as an objective, scientific exercise above the interest of specific parties. The recommendations of the Commission are framed in the name of "National Interest", but can be shown to present sectional

interest. Kallaway (1984: 35) continues that the Commissioners did not address themselves to the problematic implications of recommendations that stress utilitarian considerations regarding the link between education and industry. The manpower needs of industry are seen to be quite unproblematically congruent with the education needs or demands of students, parents or communities. Since the Commissioners failed to take note of arguments about the role of schooling as a mechanism of class domination, they failed to notice that arguments in favour of more "relevant" or "vocational" forms of education are not new in South Africa. In short, the Report is concerned with the midwifery of a reformist educational strategy aimed at preserving the status quo in South Africa during the 1980's (Kallaway, 1984: 35).

In conclusion, De Lange, as an agent of change, contributed irreversibly to the shape and direction of the unfolding discourse on policy for a future educational dispensation. Van Zyl (1991), (in Taylor, 1992: 7) argues in support of De Lange that while the education Act of 1984 incorporated many of the "De Lange" recommendations, it remained unapplied in practice because of the inability or unwillingness of the various departments responsible.

Within the official structures in the early eighties, the Education Renewal Strategy (ERS) document and the Department of National Education document "A curriculum model for South Africa" (CUMSA), represented two recent developments in the process of change triggered by the "De Lange" proposals. From a different perspective, documents emerged from the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) which reflected a strong similarity in outline to the conceptual structure offered by "De Lange". This new thinking was carried through to the nineties.

2.4 Conclusion

The culture of learning had collapsed. The price that was paid for the collapse of the old education system was a dear one. However, while change for a better dispensation had its costs, it heralded a complete new thinking among the leaders and young people in south Africa.

Wilmot, et al. (1989: 216) summarizes as follows:

"...The most important gains was the attainment of organisational unity; students, parents and pupils from different parts of South Africa, but especially the greater Cape Town area were linked in joint action; new structures were created to achieve this".

Attempts to ensure the restoration of a learning culture and the contribution of each role player will be discussed in chapter five. The next chapter will investigate factors which constitute a learning culture. Focus will be on the effect of emotional and other factors on the establishment or destruction of a learning culture.

CHAPTER THREE

THE EROSION OF A CULTURE OF LEARNING

3.1. Introduction

The culture of learning has been destroyed (*Weekend Argus* 14/15 January 1995: 16) in a large section of the population through slogans such as "liberation before education" and urgently needs to be restored. The poor matric results of 1997 is summarised by P Barter (18 February 1998: 6) as:

"...the once excellent education alas provided for the few has been abandoned because the department would rather engage in social engineering than in producing liberated students who can create their own future so it is not surprising that educational standards are crashing".

SACHED (The South African Committee for Higher Education) describes the anti-academic culture of non-white pupils as:

"...the gradual but definite erosion of the need to learn, a feeling that education has no value and that the situation is without hope" (1992: 50-51).

South Africans were growing increasingly frustrated, impatient and tired of endless commissions and appointed committees to investigate educational matters (*Cape Argus* 12 March 1995: 2).

In "Black Youth in Crisis", Dr Mamphela Ramphele (1992:12) writes that the erosions of the culture of learning have reached worrying proportions and that the whole foundation of schooling is under threat. Franklin Sonn (1991: 49) at the 14th Annual Conference of

the CTPA sums up the feeling of coloured teachers: "...I have a sense that we have reached the point in our history where we will no longer countenance being pushed away. We can stand it no more that our basic rights and civil liberties are dished out to newcomers from, and in some cases, the back streets of Europe while we are relegated to the role of bystanders and helpless onlookers".

In 1992 the National Education Conference in Broederstroom accepted the motion that although the prime responsibility for the destruction of the culture of learning must be laid at the door of the state, the liberation movement must also accept that it has a responsibility to ensure the renewal of the culture of learning (SACHED, 1992: 9, Chisholm, 1992: 290). Bengu (1998: 34) accuses teachers of not being committed enough, Thembela (1993: 5) accuses teachers as having failed their pupils in their fight for a better education whilst they, the teachers, were more concerned with bettering their own conditions at their expenses. Solly MocGomma in response to the disastrous matric results of 1997 (*Cape Argus* 18 February 1998: 2) argues that the culture of learning will only work if certain groups of people i.e. learners, teachers, policy makers and parents take education seriously.

After 1994 apartheid was abolished, yet conditions in education did not change much. Whatever changes the government may have introduced, are viewed with much suspicion by the people in general. Instead of introducing conditions conducive for educational excellence, the government introduced a policy which, amongst others, would reduce teachers and increase the teacher-pupil ratio of 1:40 in primary schools and 1:35 in high schools (*Cape Argus* 30 August 1995: 29).

In the 1980's students across South Africa were out in the streets boycotting in protest against educational inequalities. Today the

riots are over and children are back in the classroom, but this does not mean that the education crisis has been solved.

Ravell Steyn (*Cape Argus* 11 August 1995: 12) commented: "...There is little doubt that education is one of the greatest challenges facing our new democracy and that the future developments of this country is dependant upon our ability to overcome the legacy of apartheid. For many children, overcrowded classrooms, insufficient textbooks, high pupil-teacher ratios and a shortage of qualified teachers are realities which still pose barriers to learning".

Themabela (1993: 5) believes that some of the blame should also be placed on the shoulders of teachers; "...the tragedy and real crisis in our education is that we have not even begun to guide and assist our pupils".

3.2 The phenomenon of a learning culture

3.2.1 The concept learning

It is rather difficult to come up with an appropriate definition of learning. Howe (1980: 115), states it is not easy, and perhaps impossible to define learning clearly and unambiguously in a way that makes it possible to distinguish between learning in its varied forms and some other causes of change. Bugelski (Duminy, Dreyer and Steyn 1990: 136) says "Learning is a mental activity by means of which knowledge and skills, habits, attitudes and ideas are acquired, retained and utilized resulting in the progressive adaptation and modification of conduct and behaviour". Kalunger and Kalunger (1984: 41) are of the opinion that learning is a process by which knowledge, skills and value characteristics are acquired. Learning provides the know-how and know-why of doing things.

Learning is thus defined in this study as the acquisition of knowledge, skills, norms and values from instruction or the process of teaching, observation, education and by study and leads to a change in behaviour (Masitsa 1995: 383). However, although learning leads to a change in behaviour, not all performances are the results of learning. Some performances are the results of human growth and maturation and are learnt unconsciously. Jordaan (1975: 643) and Hilgard (1966: 100) argue that during the act of learning, the individual receives information and this information is allowed to pass from the sensory store to the short-term store, during which the individual actively organises it through rehearsal. At this stage, imprinting occurs in order to promote the storing or retention of the information in the long-term store. One can only speak of success in learning when the learner is able to recall what has been learnt.

3.2.2 The concept culture

Maxwell and Thomas (1991: 76) defines culture as the peculiar and distinctive way of life of the group or class, the meanings, values and ideas embodied in the institution, in social relations, in systems or beliefs, in mores and customs. Culture is the distinctive shape in which this material and social organization of life expresses itself. In short, one would say that culture dictates the way of life of a particular group or class - it dictates how and why things should be done or be what they should be. Culture is a set of beliefs, assumptions and attitudes held by a given set of people during a given period of time. Therefore, the culture of an organization is shaped by all the actors and units within and surrounding it (Lambert, 1988: 54).

3.2.3 The concept learning culture

One possible way of analyzing the term "learning culture" is to try to explain it in the context in which it is used. Rensburg (SACHED, 1992: 48) refers to learning culture as "an observable lack of interest and commitment to learning and teaching". This definition of a learning culture is based on his interpretation of the gradual collapse of black and coloured schooling in South Africa since 1976. In terms of her experience in a black school in Soweto, De Villiers (1989: 69) speaks of the slow pace and lack of enthusiasm which teachers employ in going to their classrooms. Some remain in their staff room and finish their tea long after the bell has gone. Some do not even report to their classrooms. There is little support from the parents and community regarding the running of the school. Pupils are undisciplined and have little regard for authority. This can be regarded as a negative learning culture. According to Drennan (1992: 13) learning culture refers to "... attitudes, perceptions, customs, own particular ways of thinking by pupils, the school and community - in other words 'the way things are done here'". Blendinger et al. (1989: 23) supports Drennan and argues that a learning culture is characterized "by a stated and shared sense of purpose and mission about all pupils" commitment to learn and the staff's ability and responsibility to teach having the full support of the parent body and school community. The sole purpose being, to make schooling successful for both learners and teachers. When this is evident, a positive learning culture exists. In terms of the context in which it is used, learning culture, according to Smith and Pacheco (1994: 6), include psychological phenomenon such as:

- How interested pupils are in learning.
- How positive or negative the attitude of pupils are towards learning.

- How motivated and confident are pupils to learn?
- How committed or uncommitted are pupils to learn?
- How disciplined are pupils and how prepared are they to be disciplined?
- Value-orientation and group norms by pupils with regard to the purpose of a particular education system and education corps regarding their teaching methods and style.

Jones and Charlton (1992: 26) define the above factors as "affective and social components of learning" since it has to do with inner disposition and creation of a climate for learning, while little attention is given to these factors when academic performances and scholastic success are considered. Smith and Pacheco (1994: 7) argue that learning culture may also be analysed systems-theoretically. According to them, a systems-theoretical analysis of the learning culture aims to analyze this phenomenon by investigating the various factors or role players that constitute the learning culture. In this regard, school or learning culture consists of what people believe about what works and what does not, what should be acceptable physical conditions for effective learning and teaching to occur, and how teachers, pupils, parents and the community should treat one another.

Smith and Pacheco (1994: 7) argue that a learning culture consists of a positive interaction between the constituents of the learning process. These constituents are:

- The personal system: which include the physical, psychological, moral and social make-up of the learner.

- The home system: which include the home environment, family and parents.
- The school system: which include the principal and teachers, ethos and aura of the school.

3.3 Constituents of the learning culture: a systems-theoretical approach

3.3.1 The Personal System

The personal system may be described as the psychological, social, moral and physical characteristics, which is formed by constituent and environmental factors. Constituent factors are genetic. Environmental factors refer to parents who may also play a role as a genetic factor, family, residential area, peer group, school and various other external factors. Interplay between these two factors forms the personality of the person. Smith and Pacheco (1994: 8) argue that when making a study of the influence of a learning culture on scholastic achievement, consideration must be given to the fact that learners have unique characteristics. These characteristics also include the following:

- A certain aptitude and intellectual ability
- A defined paradigm of reference - as a result of the learner's exposure to his environment since birth. This exposure is characterized by a limited code of language especially in the case of most economically marginalized children - hence their exposure or lack of intellectual stimuli during their early childhood days, a school conciliatory or estrangement value reference framework.

With these personality characteristics, the pupil enters school. The school thus receives a person with a specific cultural-anthropological characteristic, with a specific self-image, a specific mode of discipline and value-orientation (Smith and Pacheco 1994: 9).

3.3.2 The Home System

Coleman (in Ballantine 1989: 87) emphasizes the great impact that the home environment has on school achievement and writes that:

"...The effects of the home environment far outweigh the effects of the school programme on achievement. Education and social class background is the most important factor in determining differences between students". Raath (1985: 159) says that the emotional climate in the house has a far greater bearing than economic circumstances on the becoming of the child. Briggs (1970: 25) stresses the positive effect of the house where a child feels emotionally secured as "...his inner security radiates outwardly in his actions. Their solid core frees them to be innovators rather than destroyers".

Thirion (1989: 387) contends that black and coloured pupils find themselves in socio-economic conditions, which are characterised by poverty, disharmonious family life, lack of finances, poor housing and a myriad of other problems. These conditions cause the pupil to develop a backlog, which has a negative effect on academic performance.

The impact of the home and parental support on academic performance will be discussed more comprehensively in chapter five.

3.3.3 The School System

Each school, while having general characteristics, can also have certain unique characteristics. These unique characteristics distinguish one school from the other and is known as the school climate. The healthy school climate is determined by a positive interplay between the principal as manager of the school, a sound code of conduct with well formulated disciplinary policy and procedures, dedicated teachers, parents and pupils. If this interplay between the various role players is healthy and sound, a positive aura emanates from this relationship. This positive aura has a direct influence on the learning culture of that particular school (Brookover *et al.*, 1982: 102-105).

Teachers and especially the principal exercise a great influence on pupils. This influence can be positive, it could unfortunately also be negative. This is why precautions should be taken when teachers are appointed to positions of influence. One of the reasons cited by the OVSA -conference for the possible poor learning culture could be ascribed to a lack of role models (Smith 1994: 13). Thembela (1993: 8) puts it this way: "...we need to assume positive and constructive roles as: in addition to our restrictive role as teachers, tutors and instructors, we need to understand and practice, to a large degree, our role as mentor and guides of our children". A positive atmosphere is characterized by teachers who care about their pupils (Berliner, 1989: 15 & Townsend-Butterworth, 1992: 42).

A positive school climate influences the communicative behaviour of role players *i.e.* pupils and staff as well as parents in the community. The school climate influences the willingness of subordinates to communicate with, and be communicated by school management.

Considering the above, Jones and Charlton (1992: 26) conclude that learning culture can be defined as an interaction between intra- and extra-personal factors. Intra-personal factors include cognition, learning style, and affective characteristics, while extra-personal factors refer to personal and domestic background, classroom and school atmosphere.

3.4 Definition of learning culture

Masitsa (1995: 384) defines learning culture as "...a culture which creates a positive atmosphere for the school's educational programme". According to Smith and Pacheco (1994: 11), this positive atmosphere is derived from "...the learning inner disposition of pupils as determined by the interaction of the personal characteristics of the learner with primary external environmental factors". Inner learning disposition includes attitude, interest and commitment with which a pupil tackles his schoolwork. Personal characteristics include factors such as self-discipline, self-confidence, sense of responsibility, attitude, motivation, social adaptation, physical disposition, value-orientation and morality. Environmental factors include primary-external factors such as factors outside the learners, which have a direct influence upon him. These include factors such as influence of teacher, school climate, parental involvement, classroom climate, school climate, peer group norms, and residential environment. Environmental factors also include secondary-external environmental factors such as those factors outside the learner, which have a direct influence upon him. These factors include the political situation, state of the economy and employment opportunities and possibilities" (Smith and Pacheco 1994: 11).

3.5 An investigation into the learning culture: a Survey of some high schools in Mitchell's Plain

3.5.1 Introduction

In this part, the researcher will give a detailed description of certain aspects of the learning culture as was observed during the empirical research phase. This empirical research phase was preceded by an in-depth discussion of the method of investigation used in this study and will be followed by a description and discussion of the procedures followed in the collection of data during the empirical investigation.

3.5.2 A description of the research method and research sample

Kerlinger (1986: 359) and Ary et al., (1979: 292) argues that in the human sciences such as psychology and education certain attributes such as intelligence, personality, achievement, creativity, motivation and socio-economic status cannot be manipulated or controlled by the researcher and are thus not amenable to experimental investigation, but to non-experimental investigation.

The method of research in this investigation was *ex post facto* non-experimental research. Gay, (1981: 197) argues that *ex post facto* non-experimental study begins with description of the present situation, which is assumed to be the effect of some previously active factors and attempts a retrospective search to determine and assume antecedent factors, which began operating at an earlier time. Stated differently, in *ex post facto* research both the effect and the alleged cause have already occurred and are studied by the researcher in retrospect. The researcher acts

retrospectively to probe the effect of the independent variable, which he could not control, on the dependent variable.

During the empirical investigation, research was done at 6 high schools in Mitchell's Plain during the last week in May and the first week in June 1998. The investigation lasted 2 days at each school. The pupil population at each school averaged about 1200. Cumulatively, the pupil population at these schools totalled about 7200. Since it was almost impossible to include the whole population concerned in this investigation, the researcher took a sample population from each school. A sample is a group which is selected from a population and is thus less than the population, while remaining as representative of the population as possible. The sample is selected to give the researcher a manageable group for the purpose of research (Tuckman, 1978: 226; Mulder, 1982: 55).

The research sample comprised of 360 pupils - i.e 30 matric and 30 standard eight pupils from each school. Altogether 180 matric pupils and 180 standard eight pupils constituted the research sample. The sample schools included one school from each of the following sub-districts: Rocklands, Tafelsig, Westridge, Portlands, Beacon Valley and Lentegeur. The matric pupils, who were selected randomly, are currently doing their final year at school. According to Tuckman (1978: 226), random selection is one way to ensure that the sample will be representative of the larger population. During the selection process, the researcher, who is not known to pupils and teachers at the sample schools, selected pupils from blank class lists given to him by the principal of each school. In that way, the validity of the pupil sample selection can be regarded as fair.

The research sample also included survey-questionnaires to 60 teachers and six principals from the sample schools. In-depth

interviews were also conducted with 40 other teachers and 120 pupils from the sample schools. Those teachers and pupils, with whom interviews were conducted, did not fill in questionnaires and were not part of the 360 pupils and 60 teachers who comprise the research sample.

3.5.3 *Modus operandi* of data collection

Batcher (1991: 368) regards data as facts or information from which information may be deduced. The collection of data is the critical step of research because without it research cannot be conducted conclusively.

In addition to the literature studied, survey-questionnaires were compiled for teachers and pupils respectively. Interview schedules were also compiled for principals, teachers and pupils.

During the first week of May 1998, the researcher sent a letter to each of the six sample schools wherein permission was requested to do the research (refer to letter of permission as part of Annexures). These letters were received favourably by the principals who gave consent for the research to be conducted. The survey for pupils was conducted by the researcher during the last week of May and the first week of June 1998. During the last week of May 1998, the researcher went to these sample schools and randomly selected five teachers at each school. Each teacher was issued with, and requested to complete a questionnaire. (refer to Annexure B of the questionnaire for teachers). These questionnaires were collected during the second week of June 1998.

Various interviews were conducted with principals, teachers and pupils according to the research schedule. In all, the researcher spent about two days at each school. The overall duration of the empirical research was around three weeks.

3.5.4 Discussion and analysis of the findings of the empirical research

3.5.4.1 Introduction

There are 14 high schools in Mitchell's Plain with a total pupil population of 15 400. In Mitchell's Plain, the school day starts at 08:10 from Mondays to Thursdays and ends at 14:00. On Fridays it starts at 08:00 and ends at 12:30. The matric pass rates since 1992 averaged around 80%. At the end of 1997 it dropped to 69%.

The purpose of this discussion is to investigate and describe the state of a learning culture in Mitchell's Plain schools. The discussion will be in response to the following:

A) Results of the pupil questionnaires:

- School related factors.
- Personal/biographical characteristics of the pupils.
- Problems regarding the home.

B) Results of teacher questionnaires:

- Personal/ biographical information regarding the teachers.
- Teachers' perception of the principal.
- Teachers' perception of the pupils.
- Teachers' perception of the community.

- Teachers' perception of their professional work environment.

C) Results of interviews with pupils, teachers and principals.

3.5.4.2 Description of the sample schools - TABLE 1

School	Pupil total	Matric total	Teacher total	Pupil/teacher ratio
A	1400	186	40	1:35,00
B	1256	154	36	1:34,88
C	1190	117	34	1:34,00
D	1320	167	38	1:34,73
E	1286	131	37	1:34,75
F	1119	108	32	1:34,96

3.5.4.3 Matric Pass Rate - TABLE 2

SCHOOL

YEAR	A	B	C	D	E	F
1993	81%	86%	87%	91%	80%	82%
1994	92%	88%	85%	87%	83%	85%
1995	89%	84%	88%	85%	87%	81%
1996	98%	89%	87%	88%	84%	81%
1997	85%	74%	77%	67%	75%	48%

Ave pass rate for schools A-E: 71%

3.5.4.4 Biographical and academic information about the pupils

For the sake of this study, six schools, one from each of the sub-district of Rocklands, Portlands, Tafelsig, Westridge, Eastridge

and Beacon Valley were selected as sample schools. Of the total number of 180 matrics pupils representing 750 matriculants in the six sample schools, 98 were females and 82 were males. A total of 7 pupils were 17 years of age, while 148 of the sample pupils were 18 years of age. The remaining 25 pupils were all over 18.

Of the total number of standard eight pupils, 102 were females and 78 males. A total of 39 were 15 years of age, while 112 were 16 years old. Of the remaining 29 pupils, 19 were 17 years of age. The remaining 6 pupils were 18 years of age while 4 was over 18.

Answers were given on a four-point scale. Values 1 and 2 represented never, seldom or not much. Values 3 and 4 represented reasonably often, quite often, much or very much.

3.6 Analysis of pupil-questionnaire responses

Pupils responded negatively to the following affective variables:

Variable	Question number
- About the school	5, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, 15, 19, 23, 25
- Personal characteristics	33, 34, 38, 42, 48, 49
- About teachers	52, 53, 54, 55, 58, 59, 60, 61, 63, 64
- About parents, home community	68, 72, 73

3.6.1 The attitude of pupils towards their school (Questions 2-25)

In chapter three the school was discussed as a constituent of the learning process which contribute to the effectiveness of a leaning culture. During the empirical research, the greater number of pupils felt negatively disposed towards their school. Pupils felt that schools in general lack the necessary discipline and that the school environment is not very supportive of teaching and learning. Some schools have no definite programmes which involve the inputs of parents, and have teachers who do not care much about them. Pupils also feel that the majority of schools are very disorganised in that many of them start with actual teaching only two to three weeks after the start of a new school quarter or new school year. Some schools who were visited during May 1998 do not have a functional timetable. This uncertainty is, as was put across by the principal, caused by the government's process of teacher rationalisation. In many schools there is a shortage of textbooks and teachers rely heavily on photocopy machines to copy learning materials. In many schools there is only one copy machine, and this breaks down at regular intervals.

3.6.2 Personal characteristics of pupils (Questions 26-50)

The empirical research highlighted how pupils felt about themselves. Overall, pupils felt good about themselves. The majority, however, expressed that they found it hard to concentrate in class, and felt that the school curriculum was outdated and irrelevant. Pupils felt that teachers in general did not care much for them in that teachers did not give regular homework and their books were seldom marked. The greater majority of pupils responded that it did not bother them if they arrived

late at school in the morning since the majority of teachers did not bother to check on them anyway.

3.6.3 Pupils' responses towards teachers (Questions 51-66)

Sixteen questions on teacher - pupil relationship were asked. Ten of the sixteen questions asked received negative responses. Pupils felt that teachers overall did not care much for them in that the majority of teachers did not give homework and that their books were seldom marked. Teachers were absent from school far too much. It was also learnt that teachers leave the school during school hours to see to trade-union matters to attend strike marches and leave their pupils unattended for long periods. Pupils were afraid to ask questions in class and felt that teachers were not always adequately prepared when presenting their lessons. Pupils felt that teachers did not always treat them with respect and were not very patient with them. Teachers were also accused of unprofessional behaviour. One interviewee reported (and this was corroborated by others) that a small number of teachers mixed freely with pupils, have parties with them over weekends, abused alcohol and used vulgar language.

3.6.4 Pupils' responses towards parents, home and community (questions 67-77)

Pupils felt that a fairly good relationship existed between them, their parents and the community. They felt, however, that their parents could attend school meetings more regularly. The school where the researcher has worked for the past 12 years has an average attendance of parents at school meetings of less than 15% and the greater Mitchell's Plain schools are not much better off in this regard. Pupils also felt that their parents could be more supportive of the school in that they should sign the books of their children more regularly. But Mitchell's Plain has its own

problems. It is not always easy for schools to schedule meetings during the week because most parents arrive home from work after 18:00 or even later at night. They cannot walk to school at night for fear of being attacked by gangsters. Saturdays are even less suitable for school meetings since parents use their free times to spend with their children or see to domestic affairs. School meetings therefore remain a problem.

3.6.5 Personal values of pupils (Questions 83-89)

During the empirical research, pupils responded that they placed great value on the importance of working hard at school, obeying their teachers, passing their exams and obeying their parents. The researcher found the responses of many pupils rather contradictory in that while pupils regarded success at school, hard work and obedience to teachers and parents as important, yet they found it so easy to arrive late at school, not study hard for exams, absent themselves from school without the consent of their parents and make themselves guilty of various acts of disciplinary indiscretions.

3.6.6 Other responses to questions 78-82:

Of the 360 respondents, 98 has supervision at home in the afternoons, 203 at night while 59 has no supervision at all. The greater majority of pupils see their father at weekends only. Of the 360 respondents, 302 live with their own father and mother, 42 have stepfathers while 16 have no father in the house at all. All the respondents live in houses with more than three rooms (all live in Mitchell's Plain). A total of 339 respondents live in households of more than four people. Only 41 of the respondents have their own rooms. The rest share the room with siblings.

Some responses of pupils to question 89: Name TWO things that you like about your school.

The greater majority of pupils responded that they liked:

1. Certain teachers and pupils.
2. School outings.
3. Early closure on Fridays.

Some responses of pupils to question 90: Name TWO things that you dislike about your school.

Some pupils responded that:

1. The school day is far too long.
2. They are punished for arriving late at school.
3. Attitudes of certain teachers are very negative towards them.
4. The general condition of the school buildings does not contribute to a positive school climate.

3.7 Report on interview with pupils

During the research at the high schools, a total of 120 pupils were interviewed. These pupils who were interviewed were not given questionnaires to complete. The interview responses of these pupils reflect on the appalling conditions of their schools and the attitudes of their teachers.

Pupils had problems with:

Teachers' attitudes in that they (some teachers) were not always well prepared for their classes. Teachers looked upon pupils with condescension and stayed absent from school far too often. Some teachers gave far too much homework while others gave no homework at all.

3.8 Biographical and academic information about the teachers

There are 448 teachers in the 14 high schools in Mitchell's Plain. The teacher population at the six sample schools is 186. Questionnaires were given to 48 teachers (8 in each school). Of the 48 teachers who completed the questionnaires, 33 are women and 15 men. All these teachers taught matric classes. These teachers have an average teaching experience of 10 years.

3.8.1 Analysis of Teacher questionnaires

Teachers responded negatively to the following affective variables.

Variable	Question numbers
- About the school	5
- About their profession	7
- About the principal	11, 15, 19, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 29
- About the pupils	31, 32, 34, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42 43, 44
- About parents, teachers and the community	48

- About their professional work environment 53,5

3.8.1.1. Teachers' attitude towards the principal (questions 8-30)

The majority of the teachers responded that they do not have a good professional relationship with their principal. Teachers perceived principals to be autocratic and bossy. Principals were perceived to be ill equipped to run schools effectively, unappreciative and uncaring towards the greater body of his staff, and more frequently absent than present at school.

3.8.1.2. Teachers' attitudes towards pupils (questions 31-45)

The majority of the teachers responded that pupils were lazy, uncaring, had little respect for them, were undisciplined and just did not care about schoolwork.

3.8.1.3. Teachers' attitudes towards parents and community (Questions 46-50)

The majority of the teachers responded that they had few problems with the parents and the community. Parents were always willing and co-operative when dealing with pupil-discipline.

3.8.1.4. Working conditions and environment of teachers (Questions 51-59)

The teacher-questionnaire responses showed that teachers are dissatisfied and disappointed with both their working conditions and working environment. Many argued that it was simply not possible to produce quality education with classes averaging between 45 and 60 pupils at a time. One Biology teacher taught about 120 matric pupils at one time, in both mediums of

instruction. In many instances, pupils had to sit on the floor because there were not enough desks in the classroom. Classrooms in Mitchell's Plain schools are designed to accommodate a maximum of 35 desks per classroom. In many classrooms the researcher found that classes had no more than 26 desks. Teachers teach in fear. Teachers are often targets of gangsterism. Gangsters gain free access to the school grounds and loiter around in the school and between school blocks. Teachers dare not enquire about the reasons of these people being on the school premises. Some of the pupils are members of these gangs.

3.9 Report on interview with teachers

During the interviews with teachers, it was found that good incentives for learning are lacking in Mitchell's Plain schools. Teachers also showed exasperation at the severe overcrowding in the schools. They blamed the government and rationalisation for the poor facilities and the subsequent poor learning culture which exists in these schools. Another problem that teachers had to contend with was a lack of funds to optimise the learning and teaching process. As a result of rationalisation, subjects such as guidance, physical training and music had to be dropped from the school curriculum. Teachers also feel that many school problems stem from the fact that parents neglect their parental responsibilities and expect the school to do everything. Many teachers also cited poverty and unemployment as factors contributing to the erosion of learning in Mitchell's Plain schools. The majority of the pupils live in Tafelsig, Rocklands and Beacon Valley which house the lowest income groups. Average schools fees of R120 per annum are, in most cases, not paid by parents.

The morale of most teachers interviewed was very low. A number of teachers developed this negative attitude over the years because

of the severe material deprivation, new government education policy, harassment by and of students and pupils' destructive attitudes and behaviour. Teachers were dissatisfied with their low salaries. Job insecurity and other problems in and around teaching made matters worse.

It was found that many of the older and more experienced principals had left the profession since 1993. These principals were succeeded by younger, inexperienced men, many who had lost control long before they had been appointed, not only over the pupils, but over the teachers as well. In fact, all the schools visited in this research were headed by principals who were appointed between 1995 and 1997. Many of the newly appointed principals came from the ranks of the teachers who, because they knew the weaknesses of the new leaders, were not always keen to give their full support.

3.10 Report on interview with principals

During the interviews with principals, various points were highlighted which were regarded as major problems in their schools. These problems include:

- The lack of parental support.
- The lack of finances.
- The influence of politics on the pupils.
- Pupils seemed to have lost the zeal and meaning for school and are consequently not motivated.
- A decline in morality and professionalism amongst teachers.

- A lack of teacher-parent interaction. More than 90% of teachers in Mitchell's Plain live outside the area. This makes it difficult for them to do home visits.

3.11 Other findings by the researcher

After a close study of matric results over the past five years, the researcher found that academic achievement differed from school to school although the schools surveyed were all in Mitchell's Plain and all their pupils lived in the same area. Jencks *et al.*, (1975: 253-256) ascribes differences in academic performances between schools of similar socio-economic background to "forces outside the school". According to him, if school 'A' performs better academically than schools 'B', 'C' and 'D' of the same geographic area and socio-economic background, then that academic excellence can be ascribed to a closer working relationship between school 'A', its parents and the school community. These academic conditions do not readily exist at the sample high schools in Mitchell's Plain.

McCurdy (1983: 7) and Wilson & Corcoran (1988: 2) reject Jencks's findings as inconclusive and argue that the school does make a difference to the academic performance of pupils. The difference may be ascribed to the way the school is managed, the input of its teachers and the degree of parental and community support. During the research survey, the researcher observed certain differences at the sample high schools. Differences observed were that schools with good matric results had principals with good leadership and communication skills. These principals were committed to academic goals and objectives and they fostered a climate of high academic expectations. These principals also functioned as instructional leaders who fostered an atmosphere of co-operation and support under a climate of order and discipline. The teachers were committed, supportive and proud of their school, and the

relationship between the principal, parents and the community was also very healthy.

On the contrary, the researcher also found that chaos and a lack of discipline exist at most sample schools. On one school visit, it was observed that many pupils as well as teachers loitered outside while classes were in progress. It was also observed that there were many people, other than pupils and teachers, walking around on the school premises. It was also found that at schools where these conditions existed, academic requirement for admission was not a priority. This phenomenon was explained by the principal of one of the sample schools who argued that, unlike most other schools who have entry requirements, they would never turn a child away. It is an unwritten policy at Glendale High School in Rocklands, Mitchell's Plain, not to refuse needy pupils admission, to school. Many of the pupils at Glendale High School are from the Eastern Cape and live in squatter dwellings in the Townships of Khayelitsha, Guguletu and Crossroads. The language barrier is something the school is working on. According to Mr Chotia, the principal of the school, (*Plainsman*, 18 February 1998: 6) Glendale is the only school which offers Xhosa First language as a subject and last year it had a 100% pass rate for Xhosa First Language in the matric final examinations. Another high school reported that more than 25% of their pupils reside outside of their feeder area and that the greater majority of their pupils are the "rejects" of other schools. Some of the sample schools have a black pupil population of between 20%-33%. One school has a black pupil population of 40%.

3.12 Conclusion

Although the declining matric pass rate may not be regarded in many circles as critical, the general conditions at schools and attitudes of pupils reflect this crisis. There is a pessimistic

feeling amongst teachers and pupils that very little can be done to restore a culture of learning. There is serious social disintegration in the whole of Mitchell's Plain. The whole community is rife with crime, substance abuse, poverty, corruption and fear. Gangsterism is on the increase and people are afraid to challenge it. There appears to be a general communication breakdown between parents and pupils. Consequently, parents hardly know what their children are doing at school. Physical conditions at many schools in Mitchell's Plain do not contribute to a healthy learning climate. Toilets in most schools are not in working order and some of the school buildings are in a state of disrepair.

Therefore, whatever can be done to save schooling in Mitchell's Plain, must be done. The once good communication which existed between pupils, parents, the school and community, must be restored. All parties involved in the creation of a sound learning culture must make use of the few resources that are available as a means of self-help instead of bowing down to their deprivation. Mitchell's Plain Circuit Manager Zunade Dharsay (*Metro Burger*, 9 April 1998: 3) urges parents to become involved; "...otherwise we will lose our children all the way".

CHAPTER FOUR

SOME CULTURAL-LEARNING FACTORS AND THEIR IMPACT ON SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT

4.1 Introduction

Every school-going child, no matter how hardworking or lazy he may be, has a desire for success. He wants to achieve academically and to be promoted to the next standard. Therefore every pupil's latent concern is to avoid failure and fulfill his needs for academic achievement (Mwamwenda, 1990: 184).

There is a relationship between cultural learning factors and academic achievement. Bloom (1976: 73) describes this relationship as follows:

"...Individuals vary in what they are prepared to learn as expressed in their interest, attitudes and self-views. Where students enter a learning task with enthusiasm and evident interest, the learning should be much easier than those who enter the learning task with lack of enthusiasm and evident disinterest".

Various opinions exist regarding factors that contribute towards the collapse of a culture of learning. The perception exists that pupils do not achieve academically because they are negatively disposed towards the school system, while others feel that the opposite is the case - pupils are negatively disposed towards the school system because of weak academic achievement (Smith and Pacheco 1994: 14 - 15).

Raath (1992: 9) believes that underachievement has a great influence on the forming process of the child. The child who

underachievers feels unsure of himself and cannot fulfill the demands which the school, his parents and society place upon him. Such a pupil finds himself in trouble more than often, since he is frustrated and cannot understand why he does not enjoy the approval and goodwill of his parents and teachers. He does not underachieve willfully, he strives to do well at school, but fails to do well sometimes in spite of having good cognitive qualities. Intellectual ability is not the only factor that determines a child's success at school. Academic achievement may be ascribed to numerous factors such as intelligence, interest, motivation, effective school management, opportunities to learn, self-concept and maturation (Matsitsa, 1995: 32). There are various other factors which contribute towards a pupil's success or failure at school. These include:

- *The degree to which a child feels his parents accept him:* The child who feels rejected by his parents will not be motivated, might neglect his schoolwork and thus underachieve.
- *The degree of emotional security that the child experiences at home:* Emotional security is closely associated with acceptance. The child who experiences acceptance and security at home sees school life as a challenge and will strive wholeheartedly to make a success thereof. Briggs (1970: 14) supports this view and says in this regard that to build pictures of themselves as truly adequate, to feel thoroughly all right inside, children need living experiences that prove their lovability and worth. Telling a child that he is special is not enough. Experience is what counts. It speaks louder than words.
- *The degree to which the child accepts or rejects himself (self-image):* If a child feels rejected by his parents, he may not be satisfied with himself as a human being and this will influence his schoolwork negatively.

- *The way or manner in which the child experiences school life and the degree to which he feels his teachers accept or reject him:* The child who struggles with his schoolwork is unhappy and often engage in activities which lands him in trouble. He usually does this to seek attention. Since his action is in conflict with accepted normative behaviour codes, he often feels rejected by the school.
- *The manner in which the pupil identifies with his peers:* The child may feel rejected by his teachers as a result of unacceptable behaviour, which may lead to his rejection by his class-mates too. He becomes more and more withdrawn and is overcome by an inferiority complex, which becomes apparent in his behaviour and schoolwork.

Experience of success at school is vital to pupils because it serves as motivation for further involvement and contributes towards psychological development. Failure, on the other hand, may lead to withdrawal because of fear of further failure (Matsitsa, 1988: 12; Jones and Charlton, 1992: 27; Hayward, 1993: 17).

Jones and Charlton (1992: 27) comment on the above mentioned causes and symptoms as affective factors and argue that there is a definite relationship between the above-mentioned factors and underachievement. A discussion of several of such factors follows below to point out the relationship between cultural-learning factors and scholastic success.

4.2 Self-concept and scholastic success

Man is born with a specific genetic make-up. He carries within himself the possibilities of growth and development and has the ability to form an idea about himself, called self-concept. This specific self-concept or image that he holds of himself, is not

hereditary, but is the end-creation of past experiences. Kelley (in Combs (ed) 1962: 83) says in this regard: "...The self has to be achieved, it is not given". Briggs (1970: 11) contends that right at the beginning of his life, even before he can utter a word, every experience that the child has, makes an impression upon him which could influence him positively or negatively. The touch, body movements, muscle tension, tones and facial expressions of those around him, send him an ongoing stream of messages, and his radar is extremely accurate. Some infants are more sensitive than others, but to varying degrees they are all tuned in.

The self-concept is probably the most meaningful attribute in man in that it provides him with the inner disposition about what and how he experiences himself, his work and the whole process of socialisation (Germinaro, Cervalli and Ogden, 1992: 29-30). A pupil performs well at school if he feels good about himself (Ferreira, 1992: 73; Van Zyl and Van der Walt, 1975: 61). Purkey (1970: 19) supports this view and says that:

"...The successful pupil has a relatively high opinion about himself (positive self-image) and is optimistic about his future performances. He has confidence in his general ability and in his ability as a student. He needs fewer favorable evaluations from others, and feels that he works hard, is liked by other students and is generally polite and honest".

The opposite is also true. A pupil with a low self-image, tends to be unmotivated and consequently does not do so well at school (Pretorius, 1982: 66).

4.2.1 Definition of the self-concept

Childs (1981: 53) defines the self-concept as "...the image we create of ourselves and the self-value or esteem generated from

this image... These conceptions which we hold of ourselves as a result of interaction with significant others and which influence our behaviour, are collectively known as the self-concept".

Burns (1979: 35) concludes "...a person's self-concept is himself from his own point of view".

According to Yawkee (1980: 112) self-concept is "...a conceptualization or image of the self. It encompasses all that a child brings to the statement. "This is me", including an understanding of his qualities, capabilities and the feelings that accompany these perceptions".

Purkey (1970: 7) sees self-concept as "...a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value".

Two important anthropological features which become apparent in this definition is 'the image of the self' and 'esteem for the self'.

4.2.2 Structure of the self-concept

Shavelson & Bolus (in Raath 1992: 29-30) argue that the self-concept can also be regarded as a multi-dimensional hierarchical construct, consisting of various images of the self. According to them, the self-concept may be divided into academic and non-academic self-concept. Academic self-concept is a subset of general self-concept and refers to the beliefs people have about themselves as students in academic or school settings (Lynch, Norem-Hebeisen and Gergen 1974: 209). Non-academic self-concept includes the physical self, the social self, the value self and the family self.

Le Roux (1979: 180) describes the various images of the self as follow:

- *Physical self:* How does the child experience his body? Does he accept his body and does he feel good about it? If he has a physical disability how does he relate to it? How does his friends see him? Does he feel marginalised and excluded? The child with a positive self-concept is willing to care for his body and will not allow his physical disabled condition to deter him from his aims and goals in life. He accepts his condition and perseveres. Such a pupil will develop his full potential despite his physical disabilities.
- *Academic self:* The child with a positive self-image is satisfied with his academic achievement. He is happy at school and enjoys the challenges of school life. In contrast, the pupil with a negative self-image is not very motivated to do well at school. Such a pupil dreads school life and blames others for his failure, for example: teachers, no books, parents, peers etc.
- *Social self:* The child with a positive self-concept is friendly towards others and makes friends easily. Such a pupil is interested in the wellbeing of others and strives to be honest in his deeds and actions. The pupil with the negative self-concept experiences difficulties with his friends. He feels excluded and is easily influenced and accepted by those who do not promote the welfare of others. They are those who do not have a healthy social viewpoint and who are generally regarded as the social misfits.
- *Value-self:* Values such as honesty, friendliness and tolerance are characteristic of the pupil with a positive self-concept. The pupil has a strong appreciation of what is right and wrong and strives wholeheartedly to satisfy and obey community norms

and values. He acts in accordance with the normative and religious ethical values of his particular community and lives a life which is respected by other members of his community. The child with the negative self-image tends to find himself in conflict with community norms and values. Although he is able to distinguish between right and wrong, he tends to do that which is wrong with the full knowledge that his actions are unacceptable to his particular community.

- *Family-self*: A child who feels accepted by his parents and family members will have a positive self-image, since a healthy child-parent relationship promotes conditions for the forming of a positive self-image by the child. Such a child will tackle daily tasks with vigour because he knows that his family whole heartedly supports him, even if he makes a mistake. They will not hold it against him. The child with a negative self-image, in contrast, is not a happy person. He knows that his behaviour may be unacceptable to his parents. Although he may feel guilty as a result of his actions, he might not be in a position to change himself into that person which they would want him to be. Such a child is usually unsure of himself and afraid to do things.

4.2.3 The relationship between self-concept and academic achievement

Various researches have shown that there is a definite relation between a pupil's self-concept and academic achievement. Brookover et al (1964: 287) found that a positive correlation, exist between self-concept and examination performance. Thomas (1980: 67) found that a positive self-concept, more than intellect, could be accepted as a prerequisite for academic achievement. Wellington and Wellington (1965: 23) also concluded that low motivation and a negative self-image are typical characteristics of underachievers.

Marcus (1980: 42) explains that the failure of the dropout and chronic failure may be due, at least in part, to negative perceptions of the self. The child with the negative self-image is prone to reading problems. Reading is probably the most basic skill that a pupil must master in order to understand and then to transfer his understanding by writing and spelling. The ability to do simple calculations is another basic skill that a child must master. Raath (1985: 395) found that there is a relation between self-concept and mathematics. The pupil with a positive self-image scores better marks in mathematics than the pupil with a negative self-image.

The school is generally not a suitable place for a child with a negative self-image. Examinations become a nightmare, since that particular pupil does not achieve academically as is expected of him. Consequently, he is afraid to tackle problems because he sees himself as a failure. This impacts on his self-esteem, which makes him more sensitive to criticism. It is therefore important for teachers to heed the words of Purkey (1970: v-vi) "...the self-concept can no longer be ignored by parents and teachers".

4.3 Attitude, motivation and scholastic success

Various researchers (Bruwer, 1973: 189; Kolesnik, 1978: 2) concluded that attitude and motivation have a much greater influence on academic achievement than study-methods or intellectual ability. The degree of motivation and attitude of the learner impacts on the learning process. Behr (1986: 99) argues that pupils with a positive attitude achieve better academically than those with a negative attitude. Pupils with a positive attitude are usually more motivated than those with a negative attitude. Motivation is a prerequisite for successful study. Only when a pupil's attitude towards his studies is positive, will he be able to draw up a goal-directed work-programme and obtain a

satisfactory experience with his studies (Kruger, Oosthuisen, Maarschalk, 1981: 9).

4.3.1 Definition of motivation

The word 'motivation' comes from the Latin word 'movere' which means 'to work': motivation is that force which causes people to move.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines motivation as:

"...Supply a motive to, be the motive of; cause a person to act in a particular way (study etc.); hence a'tion".

Augustine (quoted in Kruger, Oosthuisen, Maarschalk, 1981: 8) sees motivation as "some invisible force inside":

"...no one does something good against his will, even if what he does is good. Good motivation has to do with 'I want to' instead of 'I must'".

According to Loubser (1990:25), motivation includes:

"Psychological factors which influence certain aspects of goal directed activities. These factors determine whether an activity is pursued or not, how much energy is used to pursue that activity, how long one is prepared to persevere, to what lengths and direction one would be prepared to go".

Bruwer (1973: 50) argues that a well-motivated student is one who loves to learn. He shows interest in his schoolwork and is always eager to learn more, even more than what is sometimes required. In light of his argument, motivation is "...the driving power behind the action of studying".

All these psychological factors in combination with the pupil's ability and aptitude will then determine the quality of the pupil's achievement.

4.3.2 Structure of motivation

According to Maslow (1970: 35-36), man has different levels of needs which have to be satisfied. These include the need to be physically cared for, the need for safety and security, the need to be loved, striving for self-esteem and self-actualisation.

The hierarchical ranking of needs, according to Maslow, recorded in Felker (1974: 20) may be graphically presented as:

TABLE 1

Self-actualization
Self-esteem
Love
Safety
Physiological needs

According to Lamprecht (1990: 25-37) the need to be satisfied physiologically is the most basic need. It is only when the need to stay alive (to eat, to be clothed, to have basic shelter) is satisfied, does man strive to satisfy the next-level need, which is safety and security. It is clear that man strives firstly to survive, to secure himself, and then to seek the love which he needs to journey through this world. Maslow (1970: 162) distinguishes between *deficiency motivated* and *growth motivated* people. The deficiency motivated child's strongest motivation is to satisfy his need to be loved, accepted and secured. The growth motivated child's need for love, security and acceptance has

already been gratified. Therefore, his strongest motivation is to develop and work with determination and zeal in order to be most successful in whatever he undertakes. Such a pupil can accept challenges and strives wholeheartedly to use all his talents to fully actualize himself. (Raath, 1992: 12-14).

4.3.3 Motivational Factors

There are various factors that may influence a pupil's motivation. There are also factors that may promote high motivation amongst pupils. For the sake of this study, factors that may cause low motivation levels will be discussed because they link directly with the erosion of a culture of learning. It includes socio-economic factors, future expectations, parental involvement, language and reading problems.

4.3.4 Socio-economic factors

The socio-economic status of the pupils' families impacts greatly upon the motivation of pupils. Research has shown that a correlation exists between academic achievement and socio-economic level. Loubser (1990: 39-40) found in his research that it appears that socio-economically deprived children experience motivational problems. Parental and domestic support systems play a great role in intellectual and personality development of children. Unsuitable and congested housing may cause the absence of privacy and this may impact negatively on the development of a suitable study programme. The level of economic development of the breadwinner is another factor that may impede the development of a strongly motivated child. Because the parent did not receive adequate schooling, he struggles to make a living and finances are scarce. As soon as the child is old enough to land a job, he must seek employment. This is because the parents themselves do not have high aspirations for their children and find it difficult to

motivate their children. The social-pedagogical background of the pupil i.e. limited experience background, limited vocabulary system of parents, contribute towards low motivation.

Teaching at school is aimed mainly at higher and middle socio-economic groupings. The pupil with limited educational experience background struggles because often they are unfamiliar with the school jargon.

4.3.5 Future expectations

South Africa finds itself saddled with a high unemployment rate. According to Project Starfish 2000, (*Weekend Argus*, 25-26 July 1998: 16) "...for an estimated 6,1 million of the economically active workforce of 14 million, there is no work. Of the 6,1 million unemployed, 3,5 millions are women and 334 000 live in the Western Cape". This is compounded with reports that thousands upon thousands of matriculants cannot find employment. This scenario provides grounds for questions such as "What good is matric if there is no work for me?" "If I finish matric, what will I do?". In schools teachers usually focus only on the textbooks, but pupils must learn basic organizational and management skills so that they might be equipped to try and find work with other organizations or community projects afterwards (*Edupol*, 1994: 10). Because of this, it appears that hundreds of matriculants enter colleges and tertiary institutions as temporary measures in the hope that a job will surface in the near future. Thousands of past matriculants have given up hope of ever landing a job. Many are used to "Your application was not successful, please try again".

This is the dilemma facing white, coloured and, to a lesser degree, blacks pupils. Affirmative action is being applied all over the country, which makes it very difficult for these pupils to dream of a better future. Black pupils, on the other hand, are

very optimistic about the changing conditions in the country. This optimism and expectations are very often far too unrealistic because of political promises made in the past, which are just not possible to fulfil. One would expect these pupils to work hard to ensure a better future for themselves, but unfortunately it is not always so. Unrest at various educational institutions during the past two years showed that somewhere something had gone wrong. Educators will be in for a rough time. Attention has to be given to the unrealistic promises made to learners. People will have to start realizing that rewards must be linked to productivity and that without productivity none of us will survive. The school curriculum and system will have to change to address the needs of future demands.

4.3.6 Parental involvement in the school programme

During a study conducted by Loubser (1980), he found that parents of socio-economically deprived children do not show enough interest in the academic progress of their children. Parental involvement and interest, on the other hand, showed a positive effect on study-orientation. It could be argued that the findings of Loubser are not quite true. Working parents arrive home late at night and are extremely tired. They do not check the books of their children, not because it is not important to them. They are simply too tired to do so.

In coloured and black schools, both parents more than often, are working. Both parents are away from home for up to twelve hours per day. The children are left to fend for themselves in the afternoon. Often young girls have to clean the house when they get home from school, pick up their siblings at day-care centres, prepare supper for the family and be responsible for their younger brothers and sisters until their parents arrive home. The young

boys are often found lazing their time away on street corners (Thirion, 1989: 389).

Epstein (in Germinario, et al. 1992: 35) found that closer ties between parents and teachers contribute towards the positive motivation and self-image of the child. This is not as automatic and straightforward as put across by Epstein. At a workshop held by Edupol in Cape Town, the general response to the question of the role of parents was summarized as follows: "...the meeting felt ... parents were expected to take part in their children's schools, yet many parents were unable to do so, because they were unclear about their roles, mainly due to shifting relationships between children and parents both in the home environment and in the broader community".

Parents are often unable to participate effectively in their children's school lives as a result of work pressure. Other delegates argued that the Government's general abdication of responsibility for effective schooling placed a further burden on parents. Communities were forced to take up the initiative themselves and prepare their own members to deal with the tasks that were being identified for urgent attention. This often placed an additional burden on parents who had to play a role in the academic life of the school as well as helping to manage the day-to-day administration of the school. In response to the questions as to where the parents are and why they are reluctant to be involved, the general response was that perhaps parents are scared to become involved or to intervene because of their own ignorance and lack of empowerment about what it means to be involved in their children's schools. Parents do not seem to know what is expected of them, or else they are too weighed down with their own work and household responsibilities, to make time to attend school meetings. If effective schooling is to take place with meaningful involvement by parents, these problems must be

addressed (*Edupol*, 17 March 1994: 8-9). According to Jaynes (in Germinario, et al. 1992: 35) parents remain the primary motivational force behind their children so that the latter may derive the maximum benefit from their schooling experience.

4.3.7 Language and reading ability

One of the basic problems today is that people do not have the time to read. Many complain that there is not enough time to complete their daily activities and that they barely have the time to scan the news headlines or to browse through a magazine.

According to Kruger (1981: 37) a limited vocabulary places great strain on effective reading and retards the tempo of reading. Pupils who receive instruction in a language other than their mother tongue commonly experience this. It is just that more difficult for these pupils to comprehend and understand what the teacher wants to impart to them. Pupils who have a reading problem will find it extremely difficult to stay on par with the rest of the class. All this leads to a low self-image, low self-confidence and low motivation (Smith and Pacheco, 1994: 8). Experience has shown that black and coloured pupils, especially those from deprived and marginalised backgrounds often do not ask questions in class. They shy away from debates in class. This phenomenon is explained by Pretorius (1986: 215) who found that the limited language code of pupils is the result of a limited vocabulary of parents. Bernstein (in Ehlers, 1981: 143) describes the language of the low socio-economical status families as a 'linguistically limited language code' and that the child internalises this limited language code long before he enters the school. The school is characterised by an extended language code. This results in a discontinuity between the school and the home, which manifests itself in a pupil who withdraws because of frustration, failure, apathy and fear (Getzels, 1981: 139-140).

It is shocking to see how many high-school pupils cannot read properly. Their reading speed is not only slow, but some of them do not understand what they read. Pupils with reading problems experience concentration problems. There is a positive correlation between weak and slow reading and ability to concentrate for long periods (Raath, 1992: 24). Such pupils must concentrate hard to read correctly and in doing so, is not always capable of absorbing the content. They might read the words correctly, but do not grasp the meaning of these words because these words remain disconnected.

Motivated children who have reading problems, but want to improve their academic performance, can, with the necessary help, improve their reading skills. A group of words are often used to describe an idea and as such has to be read as a fixation. A child who has reading problems may be able to read words as single entities, but will lose the meaning of the complete message because of its inability to read fixations. This causes frustration. A child who reads well, comprehends well and can learn well.

4.3.8 Value-orientation and scholastic success

Behr *et al.* (1986: 29) defines values as "...those things or ideas which matter most to the individual and represent broad directives for action". Van Der Zande (1979: 60) agrees with Behr and says that values can also be seen as criteria individuals use in evaluating things as to their relative desirability or merit. In summation, values refer to "that which determines a person's behaviour".

Every child enters school with a specific pre-determined value code. In this regard, Brynner *et al.* (1982: 11) write that the attitude a child adopts towards, say, the school or his teacher, is the product of experience at home, at school, or outside. The

influences to which he has been subjected from birth onwards determine the attitude he adopts. This value code acts as sifting mechanism for the assimilation of experiences. This determines which experiences are acceptable and which are not. Getzels (1981: 139) argues that the value code of the school is often contrary to that of pupils. The norm of the school is characterized by achievement ethic, where emphasis is placed on delayed reward, which is symbolically linked to success. Smith and Pacheco (1994: 16) support this view and shows the importance of a subject like mathematics, if one wants to become an engineer one day. Getzels (1981: 140) found that deprived and marginalised pupils have no appreciation for delayed gratification. They want rewards now. "Freedom now, education later" was a common slogan among black and coloured pupils during the 1980's. To them, it does not make sense to study for long years.

To many black and coloured pupils, schooling has lost its relevance. Smith and Pacheco (1994: 17) argue that children with a value code based on survival experience discontinuity or conflict in value-orientation when they enter school since the school promotes values such as delayed gratification and children with such a value code seek immediate gratification. "You may have to study for 12 years at school and another 5 years at a university to qualify as an engineer". To many pupils with such a value code, 17 years of hard study is completely out of the question. According to Getzels (1981: 139), this discontinuity influences children's attitude towards the school and the school's attitude towards the child. Failure by such pupils is ascribed to intellectual irresponsibility or apathy and physical aggression.

4.4 The role of the teacher as creator of classroom climate

The creation of a positive classroom atmosphere means that a climate is created in the class that will maximise teaching and learning. This means that teachers must use their teaching time to the full. It means further that the classroom will be a happy place for pupils to learn. A positive classroom climate is characterised by teachers who care about their pupils. Teachers who demonstrate explicitly that they care about their pupils are in a better position to win their co-operation in academic endeavours. Pupils love caring teachers because they want to be acknowledged as worthwhile individuals. They love teachers who are concerned about their academic progress, have high expectations of them, treat them as if they are competent and are responsive to their needs (Berliner, 1989: 15; Townsend-Butterworth, 1992: 42).

According to Doveton, et al. (1991: 16) the atmosphere in which pupils find themselves plays a role in the formation of attitudes. An atmosphere in which care and acceptance are experienced fosters healthy attitudes. On the other hand, pupils who perceive their teachers as uncaring are often dissatisfied with their work, remain distant from their teachers and disengage from the process of learning (Phelan et al. 1992: 699). Therefore the teacher's dedication and commitment to effective teaching plays a decisive role in the creation and maintenance of a positive classroom climate. Pupils would not like to miss a lesson presented by a dedicated and effective teacher. They would also not like to miss school because of him / her. It gives pupils great joy to be taught by such a teacher. In fact, pupils and parents will choose a school where effective teaching takes place as far as possible. Ineffective teaching on the other hand, may lead to boredom in the classroom. For some pupils boredom creates disciplinary problems, encourages absenteeism and disruptions and promotes taking time

off tasks (Berliner, 1989: 15). Thus the pupils attitude towards learning is greatly influenced by a positive school atmosphere.

Germinario, et al. (1992: 11) supports the view that the teacher is the main creator of a specific classroom climate. The climate in the classroom has a direct influence on scholastic success or failure. The quality of teaching is a great determining factor for the attitude, interest and degree of commitment with which the pupil tackles his schoolwork. Brookover, et al. (1982: 92-93) are of the opinion that, what is not taught is never learnt. Pupils achievement are considered to be the acid test for teacher effectiveness. If the pupil has not learnt, the teacher has not taught. Accordingly, more effective teaching will result in more effective learning. This makes teachers indispensable when it comes to teaching and learning. Clearly evident here is that teachers can make a tremendous contribution, towards the establishment of a learning culture (Doveton, et al. 1991: 9). Teachers perform two important functions:

- They are the creators of an emotional and physical classroom atmosphere suitable for effective learning to take place.
- Their main function is to teach the pupils.

The creation of a classroom climate impacts greatly upon how pupils feel about themselves, their teachers and their abilities to be successful. A success orientation (pupils believe and feel good about themselves) allows pupils to achieve higher marks and fosters the confidence within them that, because their teacher cares about them, they want to respond to that particular teacher by doing well in their schoolwork (Smith and Pacheco, 1994: 18). For effective teaching to take place, the teacher should be well organized, well prepared and have a well-managed classroom as these would make pupils feel the need for learning. Pupils in

well-organized classrooms know what is expected of them. Teachers can prevent problems from occurring through good preparation (Troisi, 1970: 8). Mwamwenda (1990:225) argues that a teacher who is well prepared, exudes a sense of self-confidence and his pupils will perceive him as well organized.

It is virtually impossible for teachers to be effective and for pupils to learn if the environment in which they find themselves is not conducive to teaching and learning. Consequently, the teacher should strive to create an environment in his classroom which promotes serious and orderly learning and in which pupils can develop socially, emotionally as well as academically (Sullivan, et al. 1986: 27).

The role of the teacher as creator and maintainer of classroom discipline and academic standards will be discussed in chapter five.

4.5 The role of the principal as creator of school climate

Research (Brighthouse, 1990: 9) and Houlinan, (1988: 45-48) has shown that the principal is the key person in effective schools and that he, as principal, must be a dreamer who will settle for nothing less but the highest expectations for students and staff. Wilson and Corcoran (1988: 80) argue that "...it is the principal's task to develop a clear vision of the school's purpose, a vision that gives primacy to instruction, and then to employ it consistently".

Although the school principal is in a better position to initiate the creation of a positive school atmosphere, his efforts would come to nothing if he does not receive unqualified support from his staff. The principal and his staff should exemplify an

attitude of commitment in order to be successful. They should ensure that the school has clear and consistent rules and policies, which reinforce teacher authority and promote academic success and collective involvement of staff (Napier and Riley, 1985: 381). Vrey (1979: 294) holds the view that extra-mural and academic excellence can be ascribed to the important role that the principal plays in the creation of a positive climate at his school, to the quality and loyalty of his staff and the didactic methods which are followed at school, in the pursuit of quality teaching. The role of the principal as restorer of the learning culture, will be discussed in detail in chapter five.

4.6 The school as factor in the learning culture

Research in the USA and Great Britain in the late 1970's by Weber and Edmunds (in Silver, 1994: 80-81 and Chrispeels, 1992: 7) and Mortimore (in Levin & Lockheed, 1993: 7) on the characteristics of effective schools, showed that pupils can achieve acceptable academic standards, irrespective of their socio-economic circumstances. They found that factors such as strong leadership, a dedicated teacher corps, high expectation, a positive class and school atmosphere, control of pupil progress, strong discipline and clear mission of the school, parental and community involvement, contributed to that healthy situation.

In the light of the above findings, schools ought to encourage pupils and teachers to behave productively. There should be clearly defined values, norms, goals and a mission that would channel the staff and pupils in the direction of successful teaching and learning. There should be clearly stated guidelines as to what the school stands for, and the direction it wishes the pupils and staff to follow. Lambert (1988: 55) supports this view and shows that the success story of a school is made possible through a healthy organizational culture. Purkey and Smith (in

Wilson et al. 1988: 4) found that organizational culture in a school is the key to effectiveness. The norms, rules, rituals, values, technology, curriculum and teaching strategies combine to form an achievement culture. A school's organization has its origin in the mission to be accomplished and the goals and objectives to be achieved. Pupils who find themselves in such a school, will find it difficult to deviate from acceptable behaviour in the school (Ianncone et al., 1985: 31; Wirsing, 1991: 15; Saphier et al. 1985: 67).

For a social system to function effectively, all members of the organization should know the prescribed rules and regulations that define expectations and appropriate behaviour (Masitsa, 1995: 146). This includes day-to-day rules and behaviour, standards of excellence, goals and philosophy and of course, procedure for sanctioning inappropriate behaviour (Brookover et al. 1982: 102-105). Therefore the school should have rules and standards of behaviour for lunch breaks, assemblies and all other activities that occur inside or outside the classroom. An orderly school environment occurs only when pupils and staff obey the current code of conduct (Gaddy, 1988: 514). It is noteworthy that school behaviour and achievement are related. Pupils who misbehave at school are likely to do poorly in their schoolwork. As a result expectations for behaviour must be related to the learning process. Decisions on which behaviour is regarded as acceptable or unacceptable must, in most cases, be based on how it affects the learning climate. One must also not lose sight of the fact that behaviour in the wider milieu of the school can affect behaviour displayed in the classroom (Brookover et al. 1982: 181).

The total school contributes to a positive learning atmosphere when a disciplined and orderly environment is maintained, since teachers then spend more time promoting pupil achievement. Pupils also learn better in a well-organized, orderly and disciplined

environment. The principal and staff should share the responsibility for creating an orderly, safe and disciplined environment in which academic pursuits are not disrupted. In order to achieve this the following disciplinary problems should be curbed: truancy, absenteeism, tardiness, dodging, insubordination, vandalism and disruptions. Lewis (1989: 173) is of the opinion that if the school is to become a learning community, concerns over discipline have to be minimal and the approach has to be one of positive reinforcement rather than punishment. Pupils have the right to education free from fear, disruption, worry about their safety or their psychological and physical wellbeing. They dislike disruptive actions caused by other pupils, which negatively affect the quality of their schooling and feel frustrated when their ability to engage in academic activities is disrupted. They enjoy a humane atmosphere because it enhances their morale (Cruickshank, 1986:118; Berliner, 1989: 15).

Brookover et al. (1982: 150-152) and Cruickshank (1986: 115) found that in schools where pupils attend classes regularly, their academic expectations and morale are high and pupils can easily talk to their teachers about their personal problems. In contrast pupils who are often absent from school receive less instruction and devote less time to learning the desired skills and knowledge, and as such are always afraid to face their teachers. Regular attendance improves school achievement because if pupils are at school they are engaged in academic activities. Thompson (1991: 20) states that a school uniform also contributes to a positive school atmosphere because it helps to erase rivalry over clothes. A uniform makes pupils identify with their school and fosters a spirit of oneness among them.

One way of ensuring a positive school climate is by making sure that pupils are actively involved in school activities and extra-curricular activities. Pupils who obtain high scores are also

pupils who participate in school activities such as debates, drama and sport. Pupils who take part in extra-curricular activities are often so involved that they are less likely to become delinquents. The converse is also true. Uninvolved pupils are much more susceptible to negative influences. Involved pupils are sometimes given leadership positions, which are necessary for their development. Giving pupils a leadership responsibility produces several benefits including improvement in discipline, self-esteem and learning. The involvement of pupils in sport, drama and debates is also pedagogically justifiable because it aims at educating the child in totality (Horton and Hunt, 1984: 304; Schultz et al. 1987: 434).

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter it became clear that there is a definite relationship between affective psychological factors and school performance. What the pupil "sees and brings with him", according to Jencks (in Goodblad, 1984: 5) when he starts school, determines to a large extent how he will perform at school.

What has clearly also emerged from this discussion is the important role that parents, teachers and the principal play in the successful or unsuccessful development of the child. Success at school is greatly influenced by the kind of conditions that exist inside the home and the school.

In chapter five the researcher will investigate the contribution of various role players in restoring or establishing a positive learning culture.

CHAPTER FIVE

TOWARDS RESTORING THE CULTURE OF LEARNING

5.1 Introduction

The crisis in education cannot be solved by international and national conferences; it will also not be solved by national politics, although politics can play a definite role. According to Bengu, (1994: 7), "...the crisis in education, and restoring the learning culture will only be realized to its fullness if all the stakeholders i.e. teachers, pupils, parents, the community, the state and the school make meaningful contributions towards achieving that goal". Thembela (1993:5) argues that the teacher is the one who can make the most meaningful contribution in restoring the culture of learning. According to him, "...teachers need to assume a positive and constructive role in addition to their constrictive roles as instructors, tutors and subject teachers. Teachers need to understand and practise, to a large extent, their role as mentors and guiders of our children...". Coetzee (1994: 1-3) writes that we need a culture of learning and that no other group is so crucial to achieving this as teachers.

The time has come for the political leaders of South Africa to realize the value of education and create the necessary climate wherein the education system may develop, free of political motives and agendas. South Africa possesses tremendous human potential to ensure economic development, if the education system can produce a labour force that is highly trained and highly motivated. Teaching must not be regarded as a burden by the state. It should rather be regarded as an investment in the future of our beautiful country. Bengu (1994: 5) supports this sentiment when he says that "...we need to transform South Africa as a whole into a

Learning Nation: a nation which prioritises the development of its most valuable asset, the human resources of this country”.

According to Nxumalo, (1993: 55), pupils must start to realize that now is the time for all South Africans to stand together and restore the learning culture. Pupils need to realize that they need to change their attitude towards their fellow pupils, teachers, parents and the school system. Taylor, quoted in Dekker and Van Schalkwyk (1989: 258), argues that the single most important ingredient in Japan's success is the Japanese attitude towards work. He continues by saying that work ethic includes factors such as group loyalty and a feeling of national similarity and pride. Holmes, quoted in Dekker and Van Schalkwyk (1989: 258), reinforces the value of quality education when he argues that the high level of education, of the population as a whole, helped Japan to challenge the economic dominance of Western industrialized nations.

Finally, all the role players in the education process must understand that the education of pupils is not going to be smooth and unproblematic. Certain social, economic and political factors will impact negatively with the educational process. Through guidance as a supportive service, which every teacher must provide, the educator and parents should strive to assist the child in a responsible manner, to rid himself of those negative factors and adopt positive ones. This will leave the children free from confusion to pursue their main task of learning and developing. It is in the interest of these children, the future citizens of this country, that they not to be disturbed in their education (Thembela, 1993: 11).

5.2 Establishing a Learning Culture

5.2.1 The role of the pupil in establishing a learning culture

The President of Columbia University, Kirk (Sonn 1981: 51) remarked that: "...our young people, in disturbing numbers, appear to reject all forms of authority, from whatever source derived".

Francis Horn (1971: 217) expounds on the above, with the following words: "I see in the attitudes and actions of the activist pupil one of the most serious problems our nation and the world is facing. If there is a further escalation of the breakdown of law and order, the flaunting of authority, the abandonment of the rule of reason, and the resort to violence, the very existence of our society is at stake".

Pupils must make a serious study of the above-mentioned and mirror themselves therein. That kind of attitude and behaviour is not acceptable today. Pupils should learn to respect and accept the authority of the school and teachers and must realize that they are the future of the country. They need to develop a positive attitude towards authority, themselves, their future, their country, school and studies. Pupils should identify with society and its symbols. They have to learn to accept the symbols, which signify the ethos and the deepest values of a nation or society. Young people should qualify themselves, not only to participate in the improvement of their country, but to live for and defend it.

In conclusion, pupils must accept that the past is gone, education is about the future, and they are the future.

5.2.2 The role of the family in restoring a learning culture

Gregory (1969: 86) stresses that the family is, of all the social institutions in which a child can find himself, likely to have the most profound influence on his development. Colman and Jencks (1972: 253-256) support the above with their publication 'Equality and Educational Opportunity' when they reported that: "...not good instructional materials, equipment, curricula, and pedagogy in school, but whether or not there are well educated, reasonably affluent parents at home accounts most for the margins of difference in students achievement". The family is the primary educational milieu, which serves as the basis upon which the learning culture must be restored. It is at home where the pupil is prepared and equipped for his task as student. Pistorius (1976: 51) reinforces the importance of parents when he says that parents are the key figures in the educational-and-maturation process of children. They are those who are nearest to their children, who are in the best position to know, care and provide for their children. In a healthy family situation, a child finds almost everything which is needed for his striving to maturity.

Families with low income experience much more difficulties as a result of socio-economic problems such as poverty, unemployment, instability and overcrowding. In this regard, Ramphele (1992: 19) writes: "...the family as a concept... came under severe strain. Weakened by poverty, overcrowding, the general sense of worthlessness experienced by some adults, the family is not adequately poised to cope with politicised and rebellious youths. This resulted in the intensification of tension between the generations, violence within families, and attacks on authority structures at home and at school. A void was thus left in the lives of these young people".

Due to socio-economic problems, families with a low income do not always serve as adequate basis for the creation of a sound learning culture. Socio-economic realities cause the majority of black and coloured pupils to develop a specific academic backlog, which makes it difficult for them to perform well academically. Nevertheless, parents may still make meaningful contributions in order to assist with the creation of a learning culture.

Research by Amundson (1994: 14), revealed that the family is critical to success at school. This holds true regardless of family income or the parents' level of education. Bloom in Amundson (1990: 14) studied people who had reached, what is called "world class level of accomplishment", for example winning mathematics, olympic medallists etc. The research showed that home environment was critical in helping these individuals achieve excellence. Their families shared a number of characteristics: they were hardworking, believed in doing their best, believed that everyone should use time productively and should set goals and they emphasized self-discipline. Bloom (1976: 103) also found that these individuals reached high levels of accomplishment not because of their individual talents but because of their hard work and the encouragement they received from their parents. In this regard, Jovial Rantao (*Cape Argus*, 5 June 1998: 12) writes: "...We're not going to have quality education in the country if we are unproductive. If the teachers, learners and parents are not really playing their part, then we are not going to succeed". The social and psychological stimulation of the child's academic development by parents and other significant persons in the home environment appears to have an important influence on academic ability and achievement motivation (Walberg, 1984: 398). Therefore, the greatest potential for increasing pupil achievement through parents' efforts resides in the home (Brookover et al. 1982: 266). Parents should perceive their roles as "educators" of their children. They should specifically teach their children the

importance of positive attitude, responsibility, obedience and honesty. The home is the primary effective place where children can learn these traits. (Watson, Brown and Swick (1983: 178-179). One can conclude that for pupils to succeed at school, parents must play an active role.

Parents must accept their children, show interest in their children's learning and hold high, but realistic expectations of them. In this regard, Armundson (1991a: 12) says that by showing interest in the child's learning and by holding high expectations of him, the parents can develop attitudes that lead to school success. Seginer (1983: 4) supports this view by saying that parents' expectations affect the child's performance at school. When the pupil feels that he is accepted unconditionally by his parents, it creates within him a natural ability to join in with his peers. Jacobs (1980: 60) supports this view and says that the child does not need to prove himself to his peer group. It is therefore not necessary for him to be aggressive, suspicious, shy or withdrawn in order to develop friendships. Acceptance by parents negates a negative view of education. The pupil who feels accepted by his parents does not develop a guilty conscience. Briggs (1970: 4) supports this view and says that it is the child's feeling about being loved or unloved that affects how he will develop.

Parents ought to listen when their children want to speak to them. Rachel Pinney (1988: 3) feels strongly about the fact that some parents and other adults do not really listen to their children. They have to interrupt to be heard at all and are then only received in part or with condescension. Yet to be heard and appreciated is essential to a child's growth. The whole family must develop a strong family unit, a safe haven for everyone where children should feel free to discuss their problems with the full confidence that they will be heard and helped. Parents who are

extremely busy, who work long hours, must somehow find the time to listen and spend quality time with their children.

Parents should support their children and maintain positive relations with the school. The relations between the school and parents have a great effect on the school climate. A positive relationship with mutual support and understanding increases the effectiveness of the school, while a negative relationship may inhibit the learning culture (Chrispeels, 1992: 173-174). Houlihan, 1988: 89) holds the opinion that for the school to operate effectively, the support of parents are of utmost importance. Whenever such a relationship deteriorated, so did the children's attainment (Lopez *et al.* 1986: 118). Parents must encourage pupils to do their best at school, make them aware of the value of education, and be aware of what they are learning at school and assure them of their wholehearted support. Parents should ensure that their children have a good breakfast, are warmly dressed and have the necessary books and equipment for their task at school. They should ensure that their children attend school regularly. They ought to accept their responsibility as parents and not transfer that role to the teachers. They should discipline their children and support and enforce the school's code of conduct. Children, whose parents have established rules for acceptable behaviour at home, have little difficulty in adjusting in the classroom. They must remember that as parents, they share the responsibility for the outcome of their children's development (Marx, 1990: 3).

Parents must ensure that children do their homework regularly. Engelbrecht, Yssel and Griesel (1989: 190) describe homework as supplementary work for the inculcation and application of work that has already been dealt with, which must be completed by the pupil after school hours. Homework is, in another sense, a link between the home and school - a special means of communication

between parents and teachers. Cruickshank (1986: 115) found that schools that had frequent homework assignments tended to have higher achievements. In this way teachers and parents jointly contribute to the pupil's learning when homework and study are consistently emphasised. For homework and the general success and academic development of the pupil, parents should create a home learning environment that supports their children and encourages them to meet the academic challenges of the school. In South Africa, heavy parental involvement in and concern about homework is, according to Michael Cork (*Cape Argus*, 2 June 1998: 13; *Cape Argus*, 15 June 1998: 11) still very much a "middle class" response. This must change. All parents must become involved in their children's education.

Parents ought to play more active roles on school governing structures. Helen Maree (*Cape Argus* 21 April 1998: 10) stresses the importance of parental involvement in the governing bodies of schools. She says that the government does not have the administrative capacity to resolve the crisis in many schools. This is why the role of parents and governing bodies is critical: the parents, not the government, is in the best position to insist on professionalism in the classroom and make use of their legal powers to promote this. When parents are actively involved in school governance, it sends the message through to pupils that their parents regard the school and education as important. The new South African Schools Act of 1996 empowers parents and the community to a great extent. This Act handed parents the unprecedented responsibility over their children's education. They became primarily responsible for the education of their children through democratically elected structures (*Cape Times*, 21 April 1998: 13; *Plainsman*, 27 May 1998: 8; *Cape Argus*, 1 April 1998: 15). Repairs, guarding strategies against vandalism, the general running of the schools, appointment of suitably qualified teachers

and the general creation of the school ethos is, more than before, now in the hands of the parents. This makes it more possible for the principal and teachers to concentrate on their primary task, which is to teach the pupils (Marx, 1990: 2; Amundson, 1991a: 14; Amundson, 1990: 16; Wirsing, 1991: 18).

5.2.3 The role of the school community in the establishment of a learning culture

No school can function successfully without the support of that particular community i.e pupils, parents, churches and local business in the area. Community involvement is central to effective schools (Levin and Lockheed, 1993: 10). Horton and Hunt (1984: 446) defines the community as a local grouping within which people carry out a full round of life activities. These activities include, *inter alia*, a shared sense of belonging together and common territorial base. Since the school may be regarded as an extension of a particular community, values of the school must reflect that of the community. Because a school exists within a particular community, children of that community are most likely to attend that school. What is taught and learned is greatly influenced by the community's standards, values and beliefs (Garcia, 1991: 45). Chrispeels (1992: 155) argues that the community in which the school is located, is one of the external factors affecting the behaviour of its pupils. Pupils are motivated by what they see around them. The local community provides the role models through its leading citizens, and reflects expectations of a certain level of knowledge and intellectual activities.

It should be the duty of the community to protect and regard the school and staff as important and protect them against any form of vandalism. The community must bear its share of responsibility for the behaviour of children at school and particularly in the

community. Gage and Berliner (in Mwamwenda (1990: 223) argue that the kind of behaviour exhibited in school is a reflection of what happens in the community. The community should contribute to a climate conducive to learning, by making its resources readily available to the school. Services such as clinics, libraries, health care centres and other support services ought to be available for children to use after school.

The school, on the other hand, must carry out their daily tasks of educating the children. They also need to inform parents about the academic performance of their children if they are going to be active participants in their children's learning. Communication should be carried out by means of quarterly reports, newsletters, bulletin boards and telephone calls, if necessary (Stedman, 1987: 219; Nielsen, 1992: 5). Schools should also request parents to sign work done by pupils on a daily basis. Schools should also arrange parent-teacher one-on-one meetings where the academic progress of their children is discussed. During these meetings, parents are encouraged to inspect the books and practical work done by their children. This kind of meeting should be arranged at least twice a year. At these meetings, the school must stress the importance of education to the parents who in turn should carry it over to their children (Levine, 1988: 43; Stronge et al., 1991: 43; Macchiarola, 1983: 30). To stay close to its clients, the school, like any other organisation, must make serving its clients a top priority (Sweeny, 1992: 72). Chrispeels (1992: 156) points out that schools which provide the opportunity for parents to help their children at home, and to participate in teachers' instructional programmes, become better informed about their children's progress which in turn will increase teacher effectiveness. In this regard, effective schools recognise the fact that parents are partners in the education process and not adversaries (Townsend-Butterworth, 1992: 42).

Therefore good teamwork between parents, principal and teachers, the school and the community, contribute strongly towards the establishment of a healthy learning culture which will become evident in good academic achievement by pupils.

5.2.4 The role of the teacher in establishing a learning culture

Houlihan (1988: 57) writes that the teacher, is the individual who works with youngsters, has the power to influence and shape students like a potter moulding a piece of clay. There is no question that the role of the teacher must always be kept in perspective as a major determinant of school effectiveness. No other group is so crucial to achieving this as teachers. Helen Maree (Cape Argus 21 April 1998: 10) stresses the importance of good teachers and says that it is a truism to state that an educational system is only as good as the teachers it employs. Without a teaching culture, it is impossible to establish a learning culture. It is therefore essential to establish an effective working partnership between parents, teachers and the education authorities.

Laws and regulations, no matter how harsh or good they may be, cannot guarantee effective education, but committed teachers can. For effective teaching and learning to take place, teachers should be the ideal role model for pupils to follow, also be well organised and well prepared, make his environment supportive to teaching and learning and apply effective classroom practice and strategies. The above aspects of the teacher in his effort in the creation of a learning culture will be discussed in greater detail.

5.2.4.1 The teacher must be a role model

Coetsee (1994: 1) is of the opinion that teachers must model learning facilitation behaviour. Accordingly, teachers will never create a culture of learning unless they model behaviour conducive to learning. Teachers must be enthusiastic, loving towards their pupils and loyal towards their profession. The teacher should show his pupils that he cares for them. He should show interest in the pupil's learning and success, and accept responsibility for their social and intellectual development (Clift and Waxman, 1985: 5). Teachers should strive to know the names of all pupils in their class because knowing pupils by their names create a sense of pride within the pupils. He feels that the teacher cares and reciprocates his teacher's care by striving to do his best to produce work of a good standard. Teachers must also praise and encourage pupils when they produce good work. Palonsky in Troisi (1970: 6) says that pupils must have a positive caring perception of a teacher if the teacher is to receive co-operation. Teachers must also show respect for their pupils. Respect begets respect. Pupils who feel respected by their teacher will co-operate with him, respect him too and try never to let him down. It is also important to know that pupils learn better from someone they respect.

Only when teachers show pupils the importance of living a life in accordance with what they believe, respecting and caring for others, being loyal to one's subjects, can the teacher expect pupils to act likewise.

5.2.4.2 The teacher must be well organised

Mwamwenda (1990: 225) argues that a teacher who is well prepared is well organised. Such a teacher exudes a message of self-confidence and his pupils will perceive him as a person who knows

exactly what to do, how to do his work and is goal-directed. They know what is expected of them and will follow him because he leads them with authority. This authority is vested in his mastery of his subject knowledge. A well-organised teacher will always have his work well-planned and would come to school fully prepared for the lessons he must teach. Well-prepared and well-presented lessons improve the quality of instruction and reduce boredom and restlessness. A well-organised teacher is also a good manager of classroom discipline. Troisi (1970: 8) believes that many disciplinary problems can be averted if teachers prepare their lessons properly. Gibbons (Saturday Star, 15 January 1994: 9) supports Troisi and says that discipline is the key, which unlocks the door to a stable environment. Only with stability can effective learning take place and with the desired classroom atmosphere, can the teacher devote maximum time to teaching his pupils (Jones, 1987: 8; Purkey & Novak, 1984: 50). Teachers who are well organised are enthusiastic and well equipped for their daily tasks. Such teachers develop reciprocal positive inner dispositions and attitudes among their pupils (Pretorius, 1982: 136; Charlton & David, 1989: 218-219).

5.2.4.3 The teacher must make his / her environment supportive of teaching and learning

Hargreaves (1975: 116) argues that it is the teacher who is the principal creator of the climate that prevails in the classroom and the teacher largely determines the pupil's response. Teachers cannot teach effectively and pupils cannot learn effectively, if the environment in which they find themselves is not supportive of teaching and learning. Consequently, the teacher should create an environment in his classroom which promotes serious and orderly learning and in which pupils can develop socially, emotionally and academically. The teacher should introduce a code of conduct and must ensure that every pupil understands and adheres to that code

of conduct. Sullivan et al (1986: 27) argues that a clean room, well arranged desks, wall charts, proper lighting and ventilation, encourages effective learning. In contrast, a dirty classroom, haphazardly arranged desks, poor lighting and ventilation, absence of teaching-learning aids and wall-charts, may hamper the effective, well-organised teacher in his effort to produce quality work.

Classroom climate has a profound effect on the attitudes of pupils toward the school, on academic achievement and on pupil behaviour (Germinario et al. 1992: 11 & 13; Pretorius, 1982: 97). A positive classroom climate is one where pupils develop intellectually, where pupils exercise positive reciprocal behaviour and influence and where group norms promote learning-teaching objectives. In this kind of atmosphere, a strong teacher-pupil-motivation as well as a feeling of positive self-worth can be expected (Schmuck & Schmuck, 1979: 27). Pretorius (1982: 98) argues that a climate of estrangement, competition and suspicion create feelings of anxiety and fear which inhibit academic achievement. It is therefore incumbent on the teacher to ensure that a climate which promote academic excellence prevails in his class.

A positive classroom climate is characteristic of one where pupils feels safe, respected and cared for by the teacher. Teachers should refrain from nicknaming, insulting and labelling pupils. Nicknaming by teachers could hurt the self-image of pupils, which may hamper the creation of a positive classroom climate. Lopez et al. (1986: 11) refer to labelling and argues that in keeping with self-fulfilling prophecy, they were able to see how a labelled child reinforces the behaviour implied by the label and appeared to internalise a self-image that accorded with that label. Teachers must therefore guard against nicknaming and labelling pupils. They should rather exhibit feelings of appreciation and trust towards pupils.

Teachers should also encourage pupils not to be afraid to make mistakes. Germinario et al. (1992: 15-16) believes that academic achievement is influenced positively in an atmosphere where pupils are not afraid to make mistakes in their striving to do well at school. Pupils should not be afraid to ask questions even if it may be perceived by others to be stupid and sub-standard.

Teachers should also encourage an atmosphere of success. Experiences of success create self-confidence, which in turn encourage greater level of pupil input, which may translate into higher academic excellence. In short, success breeds success. Similarly, low achievement decreases positive effect, which in turn depresses further achievement, and this further decreases positive effect (Bloom, 1976: 103).

Good classroom management and supportive teaching-learning environment are important because these allow the teacher to spend more time teaching and helping pupils to learn.

5.2.4.4 The teachers should use effective classroom methods and practices

Effective classroom practices are fundamental to achievement and a climate of success. Effective teaching practice enhances the pupil's chances to learn. Components of effective classroom practices include good instruction by the teacher to his pupils, varying his didactic approaches to make learning fun, be creative and thoughtful of the uniqueness of each pupil. He should check his pupils' books regularly and give tests on a regular basis. The results of class tests should be communicated to his pupils as soon as possible. Houlihan (1988: 97) and Shipman (1968: 112-113) argue that teachers should give recognition to and reward pupil achievement. Research done by Wilson and Corcoran (1988: 15) revealed that recognition of and rewarding pupil achievement are

important factors in effective schools. Recognition and reward are powerful cultural symbols which, over a period of time, influence the habits, attitudes and behaviour of pupils as well as teachers (Chrispeels, 1992: 176).

Wilson and Corcoran (1988: 105-107) suggest further that teachers may provide recognition of and reward pupil achievement in the following ways:

- Hold regular exhibitions where the work of pupils are displayed,
- Issue certificates and special awards for outstanding achievement,
- Invite parents to these exhibitions.

There is no doubt that if teachers use instructional approaches that promote high levels of achievement, pupils are more likely to view their school experience favourably and see themselves as successful learners (Schultz, Glass & Kamholtz, 1987: 434; Phelan, Davidson & Cao, 1992: 699-700).

5.2.4.5 The teachers should create and maintain classroom discipline and moral standards

Hamm, (1989: 109) writes, "...if one is to obtain an education it is easy to see that one must necessarily become disciplined. Education without discipline is impossible". Every teacher must be a true disciplinarian. In dealing with pupils, teachers should be cautious and be aware that comments touch the inner feelings of pupils. Teachers should be aware never to lessen the self-esteem of pupils, even while disciplining them.

Genott (1972: 149) believes that a teacher can be most destructive or most instructive in dealing with everyday disciplinary problems. His instant response makes the difference between condemnation and consolation, rage and peace. Good discipline is a series of little victories in which a teacher, through small decencies, reaches a child's heart. Discipline, like surgery, requires precision, not random surgery or rambling comments. Teachers should never insult pupils, use foul language, raise their voices or use force to get their point across. A teacher never abdicates his moral authority. His discipline is never bizarre and his correction never sadistic. He lives by the laws of compassion, even when challenged by pupils to defy it. Hargreaves (1975: 206) stresses the importance for teachers to exercise correct discipline with consistency. He says that without discipline children are likely to turn the classroom into a circus without a ringmaster and the teacher will become demoralised and exhausted.

5.3 The role of the principal in establishing a learning culture

The principal is the single individual in a school who has the biggest influence in establishing and maintaining the learning culture at that particular school (Brighouse, 1990: 9; Wilson and Corcoran, 1988: 69). Effective leaders run the schools rather than allowing them to run by force of habit (McCurdy, 1983:22). Without the leadership and initiative of a success orientated, goal-directed principal as the organisational leader of the school, the various elements of an effective school such as discipline and order, positive attitudes, high expectations and a positive climate can never become a reality. In this sense, the principal is that most influential individual in a particular school. Houlihan (1988: 45) supports this view and says that any success in this area must firstly be related to the role of the principal and the kind of job he/she does on a daily basis. Sonn (1986: 124)

believes that service to the community should be the principal's biggest commitment. According to him, a principal's job is not to sit behind a desk or to busy himself only with school matters. His job is to look outwards towards the community. He continues and says that the parents are his employers, not the state. Son (1986: 124) continues with the following words: "...if one of the mothers of my pupils came to see me, I will treat her as my boss. I would rather make the inspector of education wait than to make her wait. Our whole school must be available to the community. Our schools must be used for meetings, sporting activities or even people studying who find it difficult to do so at home. Schools must not become prisons or ivory towers - it must be used by the community". Today's effective principals show strength through their ability to persuade teachers, students, and parents to give their full support in making schooling meaningful and a joyful experience (McCurdy, 1983: 22). Pacheco (1996: 128) describes the principal who promotes a positive learning culture as below:

- One who is true and loyal to his academic aims and goals.
- One who creates and maintains a climate of high expectations.
- One who functions effectively as an instructional leader.
- One who is dynamic and result-orientated.
- One who promotes an atmosphere of co-operation and reciprocal support.
- One who establishes and maintains discipline and order in his school.
- One who manages his time effectively.

- One who fosters a positive relationship between his school and the parents and school community.
- One who ensures that teachers and pupils are fully aware of their job or task description.

5.3.1 The role of the Principal as Manager

5.3.1.1 The concept manager

A manager is someone who is responsible for the administration, organisation and control of an organisation. By virtue of his position, the principal can be regarded as the school manager since he is responsible for its administration, organisation and control. As manager he is also responsible for the efficient management of the school in all its facets and is accountable for everything that happens in it. This includes managing his administrative tasks, teachers, pupils and the whole process of education in the school. Management of the school would also entail long-term, medium-term and short-term planning.

In order to manage the school, as an organisation efficiently, the principal must plan, organise, exercise control and supervise (Badenhorst et al. 1978: 58). In order to make the management of the school effective, the principal selects certain teachers who assist him in this task. These teachers are called department heads.

Since school management is intended to bring about the effective functioning of the school and as such to promote academic achievement, the principal delegates certain functions to his management team which consists of himself and heads of departments (Lipham, 1981: 13; Goldman, 1966: 79). While delegating various tasks to his management team, the principal remains accountable to

parents and the public for the effective running and ultimate success of the school. Implicit here is that good management practices generate and sustain commitment by teachers and pupils to the learning goals and send important signals to the school community (Van Schalkwyk, 1990: 73).

Because school management revolves around instructional mission, it affects instruction in various ways and as such, managerial and instructional activities should be intertwined. In this regard, McCurdy (1989: 39) sees the role of the principal as manager and instructional leader, as quite compatible and complementary.

The principal as manager of the school has various responsibilities. He is responsible for the administration and organisation of the school. Planning is probably the most important function of the principal. Planning goes hand in hand with organisation in school. According to Van Der Westhuizen, (1991: 451) planning and organisation is that management task which arranges the activities and resources so that they are purposely directed towards achieving the goals, tasks, duties, responsibilities and the authority required, identified and allocated to staff. It is the duty of the principal to create the organisational structure of the school. The principal must ensure that the administrative staff performs the administrative tasks and enough subject-rooms are allocated for the various class groups. By doing this, he ensures that the teaching personnel spend enough time on their instructional duties. Other duties include setting school and classroom rules, developing curriculum goals, ensuring that writing and text books are purchased and various other needs of the school are provided for (Van Der Westhuizen, 1991: 178; McCurdy, 1989: 21). Ubben *et al.* (1987:26) assert that the principal as manager of the school has to plan at macro, as well as at micro-level. Macro-level planning entails which courses are to be taught which teachers are appointed for

which group of pupils and how schedules are to be organised. On micro-level, instructional co-ordination focuses more directly on the detailed organisation of the curricular and instructional programme.

An essential part of management is control. According to Allan (in Van Der Westhuizen, 1991: 216), control in a school context is to assess and regulate work in progress or completed, ensure efficacy throughout the school. Efficacy in school includes monitoring factors such as ensuring that teachers are prompt and regular in their classrooms, pupils write class tests regularly and books and tests of pupils are marked regularly by teachers. Other school-related activities include record keeping of teacher attendance and performance, pupil academic profiles, correspondence to and from the education department and healthy and regular communication with the parents and school community (Kimbrough et al. 1990: 31). Calitz et al. (1992: 10) regard control as a process of monitoring activities to determine whether individual units and the organisation itself are obtaining and utilising their resources effectively and efficiently so that organisational objectives are achieved, and where this is not so, to implement corrective action.

For principals to be successful, they must also be good personnel managers. Chernow in Moorthy (1992: 8) argues that the degree of success principals achieve in school, depends on how effectively they can manage people. An effective principal is one who orchestrates his staff in such a way that the school's organisational goals are achieved. The principal, as personnel manager, has to be instrumental in the development of his staff. This include the laying down of procedures and policy for the staff. As manager of the school, the principal should also

initiate and encourage teachers to upgrade their qualifications. He should encourage teachers to attend in-service development training courses and assist new personnel to fit into their new work environment as soon as possible and with the minimum disturbance of the daily school programme (Dean, 1985: 108; McCurdy, 1989: 41).

The principal must also manage the pupils. The principal should ensure that pupils attend school regularly and on time. Disciplinary policy and procedures should be set up to deal with pupils who deviate from school policy, those who absent themselves from school or who arrive late at school. The principal should ensure that pupils adhere to school rules at all times. In this way, he can create an atmosphere of learning and teaching (Newcomer-Coble, 1992: 33). This view is supported by Kimbrough et al. (1990: 274) who argues that most pupils expect the school administration to develop and maintain an orderly, caring and trusting school climate. Given such a milieu, pupils will succeed admirably and the school will be rewarded in many ways for its efforts. Apart from the academic programme, the principal must also ensure that all pupils are given fair opportunities in extra-curricular activities such as sport, music and debates (Goldman, 1966: 72).

No school can function without money. Each school must have a budget. Piek (1992: 142) defines a school budget as a financial plan through which educational objectives are implemented and translated into reality. Funds have to be raised to assist in the daily running of the school. These funds are necessary to finance the necessities supplementary to those provided by the education department. The principal's primary role is to facilitate the education of pupils, and with that role comes the management of school finances. Without proper financial control on the part of the principal, the school's efficiency can be seriously brought

into question (Walter and Marconnit, 1989: 17; Roe *et al.* 1974: 213). The preparation of a budget involves a clear calculation of all projected income and expenditure. It is essential for the principal to plan his financial expenditure for the year carefully in order to attain a fair balance between income and expenditure. It is therefore important for him to be familiar with basic accounting practices and have the understanding of financial statements, budgetary control and basic money management skills (Walter *et al.* 1989: 5).

The school's financial books should be audited at the end of each financial year. The purpose of an audit is to ensure that there is justification between expenses and income. From this the principal and his management team should be in a position to see where the school over or under-spent over the past year and make corrective plans and action for the forthcoming year. The principal should not see audit of schoolbooks intimidating, but rather helpful in assisting the school to spend their money in the way most needed (Rossow, 1990: 269).

The principal as manager of facilities must also ensure that the school building, sports equipment, teaching and learning resources such as textbooks and library books, chalk and classroom automation such as projectors, television and videos are well looked after (Piek, 1992: 137-138).

Communication is a very important aspect of school management. No school can exist without a sound communication system. Ubben *et al.* (1992: 74) argue that no one is in a better position to positively impact on the relationship between the school and the outside community than the principal. Roe *et al.* (1974: 228) suggest that the principal should spell out definite policies and procedures regarding issues of communication with the department, parents, corporate world, educational support services, teacher

organisations and various other bodies. Through positive communication, all role players in the education of pupils will be aware of what is expected of them. This promotes success in co-operation among the parties concerned and determines, to a large extent, an organisational efficiency and cohesiveness (Wood et al., 1985: 106; Dean, 1985: 145).

5.3.2 The role of the Principal as instructional leader

5.3.2.1 Definition and aims of instructional leadership

The fundamental purpose of instructional leadership is to induce educators to instruct effectively and pupils to learn effectively. McCurdy (1989: 19) sees instructional leadership as leadership towards educational achievement by the principal who makes instructional quality the top priority of the school. Donmoyer et al. (1988: 20) supports this view and says that an instructional leader is someone who has a significant impact, for the better or worse, on pupils' opportunities to learn in the classroom. Wright (1991: 114) holds the view that instructional leadership is the principal's role in providing direction, resources and support to teachers and pupils for the improvement of teaching and learning at school. The principal is an instructional leader since he inevitably influences and supports the instructional process at school. The ultimate aim of instructional leadership is to develop and foster effective schooling, to lead the school towards excellence and to ensure that teachers and pupils work with unlimited energy to see that everyone accomplishes stated goals (Bartell, 1990: 126).

5.3.2.2 The principal as instructional leader

McCurdy (1983: 19) describes the principal as instructional leader as one with concrete ideas and skills to make ideas work.

It must be leadership toward educational achievement - by a principal who makes instructional quality the top priority of the school and realises that vision.

The principal as instructional leader of the school must promote a positive climate for teaching and learning to take place at school. This will enhance the pupil's performance in the process. Through instructional leadership, the principal sets the tone for the school, the climate for learning, the level of professionalism and morale of teachers and the degree of concern for what pupils may or may not become (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1980: 44). In order for the principal to become an effective instructional leader, he should not allow himself to become secluded in his office, but should be visible and in constant contact with the various components of the school population and remain accessible to them. As instructional leader, he should develop teachers and see to the provision of the school's resources and facilities, become a curriculum leader, supervise and evaluate instruction, provide instructional support and set the school's instructional policy and goal (Masitsa, 1995: 236).

Staff development is viewed as an essential variable to the improvement of the teacher's abilities. It is the duty of the principal to establish, maintain and supervise a school policy for staff development and to ensure that every teacher has the opportunity and encouragement to develop in ways that would enhance his ability (Marsh, 1992: 395; Hansen et al. 1989: 12). Hord (1988:8) holds the view that staff development focuses on improving personnel performance by improving attitudes and morale and as such raising the quality of teaching. The enhancement of the teacher's capabilities or teacher development leads to teacher effectiveness, which will, most likely, culminate in instructional effectiveness.

As curriculum leader, the principal should exercise curriculum leadership by letting teachers know that he takes his task seriously (McCurdy, 1989: 28; Pajak and McAfee, 1992: 24-27). The principal should ensure that he takes a lead in helping in establishing parameters for designing the curriculum that will include opportunities for each pupil to achieve his maximum learning potential, whilst taking into account that the school's curriculum is consistent with the school's goal. The curriculum should accommodate the needs, interests and aspirations of the pupils and should include preparations for tertiary education and for good citizenship (Goldman, 1966: 43).

As instructional leader of the school, the principal should constantly supervise and evaluate the instructional process. Effective instruction should be the ultimate goal of every teacher. Supervision enables the principal to know what is going on in the classroom, whereas evaluation enables him to know whether standards are maintained. Goldman (1966: 49) maintains that through supervision and evaluation the teacher's strengths and weaknesses may be identified and the necessary remedial action be taken. Houlihan (1988: 47) expounds on the benefits of continuous control and evaluation. During his research, he concluded that when these evaluations were carried out with frequency and feedback, the level of teaching tended to become more professional. The ultimate goal of the principal is to promote professional growth among his teachers. The principal, who is serious in his efforts to promote professional growth among his teachers, must be visible. Weldy (in McCurdy, 1983: 24) writes that in no other area is the principal's influence felt more than in his insistence that every teacher be well prepared every day with interesting and challenging lessons and activities. The principal should be in classrooms observing teachers, offering support and suggestions. This advocacy of good teaching may be the most important single influence the principal can have in

providing students with a school that is a comfortable, exciting, stimulating, learning place". Everyone must see his enthusiasm and concern for his school and staff. Lee (1991:83) points out that principals should do regular class visits to supervise the instructional programme. Andrews et al, (1991: 99) who says that to be an effective supervisor, the principal must "show up" or be visible, supports this view. His presence must be "felt" in every area of the school's activities. According to Peters (1987) as cited in Andrews et al. (1991: 99) a principal cannot be effective if he is in the office for more than a third of the school time. He should be around the school grounds and visible to all pupils and staff.

As the provider of instructional support, the principal should instil a positive attitude towards the school's instructional programme (Gaynes, 1990:41; Haughey et al., 1992: 112; Rossow, 1990: 42). He should create a climate that makes teachers and pupils comfortable in meeting their daily challenges so as to succeed instructionally. Ubben et al. (1987: 27) says that a school with a good instructional climate enables pupils to perceive and reinforce the norms that high achievement is expected from all of them. In order to promote regular school attendance, the principal should devise techniques to minimise absenteeism among pupils and teachers and involve parents in the resolution of school problems. To avoid idleness and uncertainty at school, he should ensure that every teacher and pupil is aware of the school timetable (Heck, 1992: 26). Overall the principal should provide support by doing everything to encourage, recognise and reward good teaching and learning.

As the main player in setting the school's instructional policy and goal, the principal must have a clear vision of what he wants for his school, where he wants to lead them and how he intends achieving it. Du Four and Eaker (1987: 81) argue that he, as the

leader, must believe in and be certain of his visions for the school and that his staff must be totally aware of what his vision and focus entail. As principal, he must develop a clearly stated vision for his school. He should define that vision in partnership with teachers and develop an appropriate plan of action to enable the school to strive towards the stated goal, and empower teachers to make it a reality. He should also ensure that the goal aimed at, is articulated to the pupils and community as this would encourage the staff, pupils and community to arrive at a sense of common and shared purpose and would unite all the school activities. What has been stated so far makes the instructional leader the decision-maker, mission developer and communicator of his school. Since the school's mission, goal and policy are solely and deliberately intended to initiate, direct and facilitate the instructional process at school, the principal as their initiator can surely be regarded as the instructional leader (McCurdy, 1989: 19; Hord, 1988: 9, Cunard, 1990: 31; Bookbinder, 1992: 42).

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter stresses the importance on the role of the various partners in making education meaningful for pupils. This research has shown that learning is not only the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values, but that it also leads to a change in the behaviour of the learner.

The questionnaire and interview responses once again highlighted the leading roles that principals, teachers, parents and the community play in the education of pupils. Responses show that strong principals run good schools and develop dedicated teachers.

The study has made it clear that a learning culture is dependent on the creation of a positive school atmosphere - that is an atmosphere which maximises teaching and learning by making it

feasible for these to occur without any distractions, however small they may be. The maintenance of high academic standards at school has been found to be a positive ingredient of a learning culture because it makes pupils set high goals and continuously strive for their attainment. Since each pupil aspires to become someone in life, constant motivation of pupils is essential because it boosts their morale and keeps them right on track at all times.

In order to maximise teaching and learning, adequate facilities and resources are essential because they eliminate inconveniences, sharing and overcrowding, which hamper effective teaching and learning.

Good communication between all partners in the educational process, parental involvement and support are of paramount importance, because they are to ensure that pupils are afforded the opportunity to go to school and learn properly at home. In fact, pupils learn more if they see that their parents, teachers, principal, and the school community take education seriously. Community support and facilities aid the fostering of a healthy learning culture.

Therefore, this study has made it clear that if the principal, teachers, parents and the community work in concert, they can contribute towards the establishment of a learning culture.

ANNEXURE "A"

QUESTIONNAIRE TO PUPILS

NAME OF SCHOOL

: _____

YOUR NAME: _____

YOUR SEX: _____

YOUR AGE: _____

1. Kindly answer all questions.
2. Please give your candid opinions when answering the questions.
3. There is no right or wrong answer
4. Your response will be treated with strict confidentiality.
5. Make a cross (X) in the appropriate box and complete the questions as per instructions.
6. The following are terms used for answers to the questions. Each term has a number that will appear in one of the four blocks from which you have to choose one. Choose the appropriate block and make your cross in it.

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------------|
| 1 = Never | 1 = Disagree completely |
| 2 = Seldom | 2 = Disagree |
| 3 = Many times | 3 = Agree partially |
| 4 = Always | 4 = Agree completely |

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.
Kindly complete the following question to the best of your ability.

PART ONE

QUESTIONS ABOUT THE SCHOOL

KEY: 1 = Disagree completely 2 = Disagree
 3 = Agree partially 4 = Agree completely

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| 2. The school has rules or policies which encourages pupils to learn. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 3. The school has clearly stated aims or goals to be achieved. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 4. The school has rules and regulations which direct the behaviour of pupils inside and outside of the school. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 5. The school has a disciplined and orderly environment. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 6. The school environment is supportive to teaching and learning. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 7. All the lessons start immediately after the re-opening of the school at the beginning of the year. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 8. The principal supervises pupils closely. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 9. The school has a supervised study time daily. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 10. The principal makes sure that pupils attend school regularly. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 11. The principal makes sure that pupils attend school on time. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 12. The principal conducts impromptu class visits. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 13. You have sufficient textbooks. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 14. The school gives recognition for outstanding academic and extra-mural achievement. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |

15. School managers and subject advisors
are not always welcome at your school. -----
|1|2|3|4|

16. The principal has a good relationship
with the Student Representative Council -----
|1|2|3|4|

17. The principal is always available
during school hours -----
|1|2|3|4|

18. The principal recruits good teachers
for the school. -----
|1|2|3|4|

19. The school has a functional time-table
for extra-curricular activities. -----
|1|2|3|4|

20. The school experiences shortages
of classrooms. -----
|1|2|3|4|

21. Staff meetings are often held during
school time. -----
|1|2|3|4|

22. Parents are always called to discuss
their children's progress with teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

23. Parents meetings are held at regular
intervals. -----
|1|2|3|4|

24. The principal sets an example by
working hard himself. -----
|1|2|3|4|

25. The subject "Guidance" is taught
at school. -----
|1|2|3|4|

PART TWO

QUESTIONS ABOUT PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

1 = never, not at all
 3 = reasonably often

2 = seldom
 4 = quite often

26. Your age

 |15|16|17|18|19|20|

27. Your standard in school

 |std8|std9|std10|

28. Do you like yourself:

 |1|2|3|4|

29. Do you think your teachers like you?

 |1|2|3|4|

30. Do you think your classmates are trying
 their best to perform well at school?

 |1|2|3|4|

31. Do you normally eat before you go
 to school?

 |1|2|3|4|

32. Do you have hope for the future?

 |1|2|3|4|

33. Do you put in extra hours of study after
 having done your normal homework?

 |1|2|3|4|

34. Are you able to concentrate well in class?

 |1|2|3|4|

35. Do you feel good about your academic
 profile?

 |1|2|3|4|

36. Do you think your parents like you?

 |1|2|3|4|

37. Do you feel in control of your life?

 |1|2|3|4|

38. Do young people in your community have respect for older people? -----
|1|2|3|4|

39. Do you normally try to do your homework as neat as possible? -----
|1|2|3|4|

40. Do you like yourself? -----
|1|2|3|4|

41. Is your life meaningful and worthwhile? -----
|1|2|3|4|

42. Do you think that your school subjects will be of use in the future? -----
|1|2|3|4|

43. Does it bother you if you fail a class test ? -----
|1|2|3|4|

44. Does it bother you that you might fail at school? -----
|1|2|3|4|

45. If you do not like a subject, do you still work hard to obtain good marks? -----
|1|2|3|4|

46. Do you make up for missed work, without being forced by teachers when you were absent from school? -----
|1|2|3|4|

47. Are you normally on time for school? -----
|1|2|3|4|

48. If you are late for school, does it bother you? -----
|1|2|3|4|

49. Do you ever stay away from school because you want to? -----
|1|2|3|4|

50. Do you feel proud of your school? -----
|1|2|3|4|

PART THREE

QUESTIONS ABOUT TEACHERS

1 = never

2 = sometimes

3 = much

4 = very much

51. Do you like your teachers in general? -----
|1|2|3|4|

52. Are you afraid to ask questions in class? -----
|1|2|3|4|

53. Do you ask your teachers for help -----
when you do not understand your work? |1|2|3|4|

54. Do you find the lessons that the -----
teachers present interesting? |1|2|3|4|

55. Do the pupils in your class normally -----
show respect for the teachers? |1|2|3|4|

56. Do your teachers in general arrive early -----
for their lessons? |1|2|3|4|

57. Do your teachers in general prepare -----
themselves well when presenting |1|2|3|4|
their lesson? -----
58. Are your teachers in general patient, -----
loving, understanding and supportive? |1|2|3|4|

59. Do your teachers in general mark your work -----
regularly? |1|2|3|4|

60. Do your teachers in general treat you -----
with respect? |1|2|3|4|

61. Do your teachers in general maintain -----
discipline in class well? |1|2|3|4|

62. Is your classroom atmosphere in general -----
pleasant and friendly? |1|2|3|4|

63. Do your teachers in general set clear -----
rules for behaviour in their classrooms? |1|2|3|4|

64. Are your teachers generally punctual when -----
they come to class to present their lesson? |1|2|3|4|

65. Do your teachers in general attend school -----
regularly? |1|2|3|4|

66. Do you think it matters much to your -----
teachers in general whether you pass |1|2|3|4|
or fail, whether you attend lessons -----
or not?

PART FOUR

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR PARENTS, HOME AND COMMUNITY

1 = never

2 = sometimes

3 = much

4 = very much

67. Do you feel your parents really appreciate and support you? -----
|1|2|3|4|
68. Do your parents attend school meetings regularly? -----
|1|2|3|4|
69. Is it important to your parents that you do well at school? -----
|1|2|3|4|
70. Do your parents always encourage and support you to do well at school? -----
|1|2|3|4|
71. Do you have a good relationship with your parents? -----
|1|2|3|4|
72. Do you feel that your parents understand you? -----
|1|2|3|4|
73. Do they sign your schoolwork regularly? -----
|1|2|3|4|
74. Do they keep strict disciplinary control at home? -----
|1|2|3|4|
75. Do you experience pressure from your parents to do well at school? -----
|1|2|3|4|
76. Are there normally books, journals or newspapers in your home. -----
|1|2|3|4|
77. Are the people in your community positive towards education? -----
|1|2|3|4|

PART FIVE

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR HOME

Tick only ONE number in one of the blocks next to the answer of your choice.

78. Do you have supervision at home, for example by your parents or a family member?

* in the afternoons	yes	---

	no	---

* in the evenings	yes	---

	no	---

79. How often is your father at home?

all day	---
evenings	---
weekends only	---
I do not have a father	---

80. Does your father have a job?

yes	---
no	---

81. What is the size of your house?

one room	---
two rooms	---
three rooms	---
more than three rooms	---

82. How many people stay in your house?

two people

three people

four people

more than four people

PART SIX

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR VALUES

1 = not important at all
3 = important

2 = sometimes important
4 = very important

How important is the following in your life?

83. To be able to attend school? -----
|1|2|3|4|

84. To act according to the wishes of
your classmates? -----
|1|2|3|4|

85. To work hard in school? -----
|1|2|3|4|

86. To obey your teachers? -----
|1|2|3|4|

87. To pass your exams? -----
|1|2|3|4|

88. Not to disappoint your parents? -----
|1|2|3|4|

PART SEVEN

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR LIKES AND DISLIKES AT SCHOOL

89. Name TWO things that you like most about your school.

1)

2)

90. Name TWO things you dislike most about your school

1)

2)

ANNEXURE "B"

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

NAME OF SCHOOL _____

1. Kindly answer all questions.
2. Please give your candid opinions when answering the questions.
3. There is no right or wrong answer
4. Your response will be treated with strict confidentiality.
5. Make a cross (X) in the appropriate box and complete the questions as per instructions.
6. The information gathered from this survey is very important because it will be used to improve our schools in particular and education in general.
7. The following are terms used for answers to the questions. Each term has a number, which will appear in one of the four blocks blocks from which you have to choose one. Choose the appropriate block and make your cross in it.

Agree completely = 1

Agree partially = 2

Disagree = 3

Disagree completely = 4

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

PART ONE

1. Your name _____
2. Sex _____
3. Your position at school _____
4. Number of years in teaching _____
5. Does your school have a school policy
Yes -----
No -----
6. Please fill in the matric pass rate for the following years.
1990 _____ 1991 _____
1992 _____ 1993 _____
1994 _____ 1995 _____
1996 _____ 1997 _____
7. Are you happy with your profession?
Yes -----
No -----

PART TWO

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT THE PRINCIPAL

8. The principal has management and leadership skills which enables him/her to run the school properly. -----
|1|2|3|4|

9. The principal receives training in management and leadership. -----
|1|2|3|4|

10. The principal advises and directs his/her teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

11. The principal goes out of his/her way to help teachers with their school problems. -----
|1|2|3|4|

12. The principal motivates his/her teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

13. The principal shows appreciation for good performance of teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

14. The principal ensures that teachers receive academic and professional training to improve their skills. -----
|1|2|3|4|

15. The principal makes sure that he/she is available after school to help teachers who needs his/her assistance. -----
|1|2|3|4|

16. The principal shares the making of decisions with all teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

17. Experienced teachers work closely with beginners to expose them to skills that will make them effective. -----
|1|2|3|4|

18. The school curriculum takes the needs and interest of the community and the world of work into account. -----
|1|2|3|4|

19. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of his/her teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

20. The principal is in control of everything that happens at his/her school. -----
|1|2|3|4|

21. The principal always tries to make teachers teach seriously and pupils learn seriously. -----
|1|2|3|4|

22. Matric pupils will only study seriously before the final examination. -----
|1|2|3|4|

23. The school has rules or policies which promotes effective teaching. -----
|1|2|3|4|

24. The principal supervises teachers closely. -----
|1|2|3|4|

25. The principal has control over all the teachers. -----
|1|2|3|4|

26. The principal sits in his/her office for the whole school day. -----
|1|2|3|4|

27. The principal is always around in the corridors to ensure that pupils are in their classrooms. -----
|1|2|3|4|

28. The principal remains at school for the full school day. -----
|1|2|3|4|

29. The principal has the full support of the community. -----
|1|2|3|4|

30. The principal commands respect from the teachers and pupils. -----
|1|2|3|4|

INSTRUCTIONS

In PARTS TWO, THREE and FOUR you are required to evaluate a number of aspects concerning the pupil, their parents, the community and your professional work environment. In each instance you should ask yourself: "How do I experience the following aspect?"

KEY: 1 = a very big problem 2 = quite a problem
 3 = reasonably positive 4 = no problem whatsoever

PART TWO

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT THE PUPILS

How do you experience the following characteristics of pupils in your classes?

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| 31. Being on time for classes. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 32. Regular school attendance. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 33. Doing their homework. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 34. Their attitude toward their studies. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 35. Their respect for teachers. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 36. Their discipline in class. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 37. Being in control of their lives. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 38. Their level of self-confidence. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 39. Taking part in classroom debates. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |
| 40. Their study methods. | -----
 1 2 3 4
----- |

41. Their ability to concentrate in class. |1|2|3|4|

42. Their attitude toward their school and
property. (books, desks, building, toilet) |1|2|3|4|

43. Their attitude toward school authority. |1|2|3|4|

44. Their need for supervision. |1|2|3|4|

45. Being committed to success at school. |1|2|3|4|

PART THREE

QUESTIONS ABOUT PARENTS AND THE COMMUNITY

How do you experience the following aspects of parents and the community in general?

46. Availability of parents to assist the
school when solving a problem. |1|2|3|4|

47. Interest of parents in their children's
schoolwork? |1|2|3|4|

48. Attendance by parents to school meetings. |1|2|3|4|

49. Attitude of parents towards teachers
in general. |1|2|3|4|

50. Help by parents in checking the books
of their children. |1|2|3|4|

PART FOUR

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR PROFESSIONAL WORK ENVIRONMENT

How do you experience the following aspects of your professional work environment?

51. Your physical work environment.
(clean, safe, etc.) |1|2|3|4|

52. Classroom instruction facilities.
(teaching aids) -----
|1|2|3|4|

53. Respectful treatment by higher authorities. -----
|1|2|3|4|

54. Respectful treatment by parents. -----
|1|2|3|4|

55. Getting job satisfaction. -----
|1|2|3|4|

56. The relevance of the subject you teach
for the future of pupils. -----
|1|2|3|4|

57. Your salary and employment conditions. -----
|1|2|3|4|

58. Job security. -----
|1|2|3|4|

59. Hope for the future of education? -----
|1|2|3|4|

ANNEXURE "C"

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES WITH PUPILS

INTRODUCTIONS

1. Explain purpose of interview.
2. Complete anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained.
3. There are no right or wrong answers. Only your opinion.

PART ONE - QUESTIONS ABOUT YOURSELF

4. What is your name and where do you stay?
5. Are you proud of your school?
6. Tell me about the things that prevent you from performing well in school.
7. Are you and pupils in general always on time for class in the morning and after breaks? If not, why?

PART TWO - QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR SCHOOL TEACHERS

8. What do you dislike most about your school?
9. If you were the principal, what would you change in your school?
10. Do you have a good principal? Why?
11. Does your school have a code of conduct for pupils?
12. Is it enforced?
13. What do you think of your teachers? (Their knowledge about their subjects, being well prepared for classes, their attitude towards you).
14. Do your teachers attend classes regularly? Are they always on time for their classes?
15. Would you rather be at another school? Why?

PART THREE - QUESTIONS ABOUT THE GENERAL PHYSICAL CONDITIONS OF THE SCHOOL AND SURROUNDS

16. Tell me about the state of your school (is it clean, does the doors of classroom lock, is there electricity in your classroom, what is the state of your toilets etc).

PART FOUR - QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR CLASSROOM AND CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

17. Do you get homework regularly? How many hours per day do you spend doing homework?

18. Do your classmates behave well in class?

19. What, in your opinion is the main reason why pupils do bad at school.

20. Do you feel that teachers contribute to the underachievement of pupils? Why?

PART FIVE - QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR HOME AND PARENTS

21. How far do you stay from your school?

22. How do you get to school?

23. How long does it take you to travel to school?

24. What time do you get up in the morning in order to get to school on time.

ANNEXURE "D"

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

INTRODUCTIONS

1. Explain purpose of interview.
2. Complete anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained.
3. There are no right or wrong answers. Only your opinion.
4. There are no right or wrong answers. Only your opinion.

PART ONE - QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR WORK AS A TEACHER AND THE SCHOOL

1. What is the biggest problem and frustration that you as teacher experience in the school?
2. What is the biggest problem that you as teacher experience with the pupils in your classroom?
3. How would you describe the attitude of pupils in your school towards their teachers, principal and their peers.
4. What do you think is the reason why some pupils perform poor or fail at school?
5. What do you think should be done in order for pupils in your school to perform better?

SECTION TWO - QUESTIONS ABOUT OTHER TEACHERS

6. Do the teachers at your school arrive at school on time?
7. Do the teachers at your school attend their classes regularly and on time?
8. Are all classrooms occupied by that particular teacher at all times as per school roster?
9. If not, where do you think are that/those particular teachers? What are they doing, why are they not in their classrooms?
10. What is the relationship between teachers and the principal at your school?
11. Do all teachers maintain strict discipline and order in their classrooms? If not, why?

12. Do you think that the teachers at your school care about the pupils?

SECTION THREE - QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR CLASSROOM AND CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

13. How would you describe the physical condition of your classroom. (Describe the lighting, ventilation, is it clean, can your door lock, how does this condition affect your performance?).

14. Do you have rules for your classroom? What rules do you have?

15. Do you feel that you maintain discipline in your classroom during lessons?

16. If not, why?

17. If you do, what disciplinary measures do you use?

18. Do you punish pupils when they misbehave?

19. What kind of punishment do you use.

PART FOUR - QUESTIONS ABOUT PARENTS AND THE PUPIL BACKGROUND

20. Do you as teacher get support from parents?

21. How would you describe the parents attitude towards the school? Are parents ever involved as volunteers at school activities?

ANNEXURE "E"

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH PRINCIPALS

INTRODUCTIONS

1. Explain purpose of interview.
2. Complete anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained.
3. There are no right or wrong answers. Only your opinion.

PART ONE - QUESTIONS ABOUT THE SCHOOL IN GENERAL

1. When was your school established? _____
 2. Since when are you principal? _____
 3. How many children are in your school? _____
 4. How many teachers do you have? _____
 5. What are the major problems the school has faced over the years? _____

 6. What are the major reasons why some of your pupils do not perform well academically? _____

 7. What should be done to rectify the problem? _____

 8. What would you like to change about your school if you could? _____

 9. Is your school used for any activity during afternoons and over weekends? If so, for what? _____

- PART TWO - QUESTIONS ABOUT THE ORDER AND DISCIPLINE IN THE SCHOOL
10. How would you describe the order and discipline in your school?

11. What methods do you use to try to maintain order and discipline in your school?
12. Which rules in your school do you feel strongly about? Are these rules applied effectively?
13. What is the biggest problem that you experience with pupils in your school?
14. To what extent do you have a problem with the following in your school amongst the pupils and staff?
 - * drinking
 - * drug abuse
 - * vandalism
 - * violence

PART THREE - QUESTIONS ABOUT THE TEACHERS

15. What characterises you best teachers?
16. What characterises you worst teachers?
17. What is the biggest problem with your staff?

PART FOUR - QUESTIONS ABOUT THE PARENTS

18. What is the biggest problems you have with parents? How do you handle these problems?

Paul Arendse
7 Colorado Ave
Colorado
07 May 1998

The Principal

Dear Sir/Madam

SUBJECT: RESEARCH ABOUT CULTURE OF LEARNING IN YOUR SCHOOL

I am a full-time M Ed student at the University of Stellenbosch and aim to complete my studies by the end of July this year. Part of my research includes an empirical study on certain learning-cultural factors and its effect on scholastic achievement.

Given the above, I wish to ask your permission to visit your school during the last week of May and the first week of June 1998 in order to do research about the culture of learning in your school.

Details of my request include the following:

Questionnaires: one for pupils and one for teachers. For me to complete my questionnaire with the pupils, I need a representative group of 30 std 8 pupils, and 30 matric pupils. It takes about one hour to administer the questionnaire for the pupils. Teachers may complete the questionnaire in their own time and return it to me via the office timeously.

Interviews: I would like to conduct interviews with

- * the principal (30 min)
- * 5 teachers (30 min)
- * 5 std 8 pupils (30 min)
- * 5 matric pupils (30 min)

It should take me approximately one to two days to complete my stint at your school depending on how my requests can be accommodated.

I thank you in anticipation.

Paul Arendse

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INTERVIEWS REPORTED AND ACTUAL

Sonn, F.: *Interview conducted by MJ Ashley in Cape Town, 9 May 1987.*

Taylor, D.J.L: *Interview conducted between researcher of this study and Dr Taylor, Stellenbosch University, 14 April 1998.*

Research was done and interviews conducted at the following high schools in Mitchell's Plain. Glendale High School, Spine Road High School, Cedars High School, Mondale High School, Beacon Hill High School, Portland High School.

Interviews were conducted with pupils, teachers and principals of the above high schools.