EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

RHODES UNIVERSITY

MED - LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS: 3 PROJECTS

PROJECT 1

STAFF DEVELOPMENT : A CASE STUDY

PROJECT 2

THE EISELEN COMMISSION REPORT

AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION, 1949 - 1953:

THE INFLUENCE OF THE STATE

PROJECT 3

PARENTS AS PARTNERS IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

This study has been undertaken in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education in Leadership and Management (ELM).

BY

LINDILE MTONGANA

SUPERVISOR

DR. CLIVE SMITH

PROJECT 1

TOPIC

STAFF DEVELOPMENT : A CASE STUDY

BY

LINDILE MTONGANA (697Mb004)

SUPERVISOR

DR. CLIVE SMITH

PREFACE

This project comprises a case study that I conducted at New Horizon High School in Butterworth, a school with a good reputation for its excellent academic standard.

It is about Staff Development, which I have identified as the most vital component of effective teaching. Although there is a need to ensure that there is an adequate supply of teachers in schools, the greatest challenge lies in the development of the quality of those who are already in service. This enormous challenge seems to have been forgotten by many school leaders. I hope this study will be beneficial to school principals and teachers who want to be successful in their teaching careers in the 21st century.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Many thanks to the principal and staff of New Horizon High School for the courtesy of allowing me to collect data for this study. The valuable input into this study of my interviewees – Mr Knock (the principal), Mrs Sonn (HOD), Mr Moodly and Mrs Wall (assistant teachers) – is gratefully acknowledged. Special thanks to Mr Joseph (the deputy principal) for making all the necessary preparations.

CONTENTS - PROJECT 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Staff development is one of those all-time favourite subjects that generate lively discussion among educators generally, principals and teachers specifically. It refers to all planned activities aimed at improving, expanding and renewing the skills, knowledge and abilities of teachers. Staff development has been defined in a number of ways. Liphan and Stoeh describe staff development as "... in-service education that includes all activities which one engages in after initial certification and employment and does not conclude until there is a termination of service ..." (cited in Van der Westhuizen 1991:293). Kelly and Dillion (1978) define it as development that consists of all experiences that are provided by the school or organised by the school as being important for, and contributing to, the personal and professional growth of employees of the school (cited in Cawood and Gibbon 1985:17). According to Matheson 1981, staff development is "the activity of staff training that is a conscious institutional approach intended to improve the capability for staff to fill specified roles, particularly in relation to teaching." Although all the above definitions are supplementary and complementary to one another, they are not conclusive: several other aspects of staff development can be identified. For example, Jane Stallings (1987) suggests that the goal of staff development should be to aid teachers in developing towards the next stage (of maturity). This implies that for teachers to gain the most from a programme, it should be carefully planned according to their professional stage of maturity. This means that the beginner teacher and the experienced teacher should not be expected to take part in the same way in the same programme because their needs are not the same.

Traditionally, educators have considered staff development solely in terms of in-service programmes for teachers: the "Let's have a workshop model" (Rebore 1987:165). This is based on the notion of mastery learning, which stresses the importance of carefully selecting training activities that will be used during staff development programmes. Staff development in this context has been thought of as a process that includes goals and content which must be clearly spelt out in planning, mostly by experts. French and Bell (1995) argue that "most individuals have drives towards personal growth and development if provided with an environment that is both supportive and challenging." This suggests another dimension, which implies that teachers are or can be stimulated to improve not only by formal guidance and the ideas of experts but by the recognition that growth is a normal, necessary aspect of teachers' professional work.

2. ABOUT THE STUDY

2.1 Where the study was conducted

In Goodman's terms, "... schools have considerable power in establishing and maintaining the social expectations and human talents needed in society (1997:126-127). Perhaps this was the view of the founders of New Horizon High School in Butterworth. This school was born out of the concern a small group of parents felt in 1982 about the education available to their children in Transkei. It became obvious to them that other than schools run by the ex-Transkei Department of Education, private schools in South Africa seemed to be the only alternative form of schooling for their children.

The first principal, Mrs L. Smit, started in a house in 1983, teaching all 25 pupils ranging from Sub A to Standard 2. Phenomenal growth followed, such that there were 110 pupils enrolled in 1985 and five teachers in the saddle. With every room filled to capacity, the Sub A class had to be taught in a double garage, the principal moved into the kitchen (which also served as the staff room), and the secretary "had to organise herself as best as she could in the pantry" (**Daily Dispatch**, Fri. 21 April 1989).

A school with such a humble beginning started and still continues to produce a 100% pass rate in Senior Certificate Examinations under the Independent Examinations Board (IEB). This achievement can seemingly be explained in French and Bell's terms: "... most people desire to make and are capable of making a higher level of contribution to the attainment of organisational goals than most organisational environments permit" (1995:74-75). Presently the school has parkhomes for junior primary classes, and, since 1995, good school buildings for upper classes. Writing to **The Window**, (a New Horizon school magazine) in 1996, the deputy principal, who was the acting principal then, said:

> The greatest asset of New Horizon is not the buildings or sport facilities or ultramodern equipment. Our real assets are a team of honest, hardworking, dedicated teachers. The sterling work done by them in and out of the classroom from pre-primary to Standard 10, is what makes New Horizon what is it today.

(Kuriakose, 1996:5)

The school indeed has excellent academic standards.

2.2 The aim of the study

I decided to embark on this stuudy because I wanted to find out what kinds of staff development programmes are currently in place at New Horizon and how they affect teacher change and improvement.

2.3 How the study was conducted

This piece of work falls within the naturalistic research paradigm (Guba, 1990). Four in-depth interviews that I conducted with four teachers – Mr Knock (the principal); Mrs Sonn (HOD); Mr Moodly and Mrs. Wall (both assistant teachers) – constitute the core of the study. This was a sample I considered representative of all the teachers at the school and most important, of a size appropriate to the purpose of the study. (Cohen & Manion: 1994). Open-ended questions were used to ensure that the respondents were given the opportunity to answer in their own terms and in their own frame of reference. The qualitative approach seemed more appropriate because of the complex nature of the topic, which I wanted to treat in an open-ended way. Such an approach helps to bring out the "... affective and value-laden aspects of respondents' responses and to determine the personal significance of their attitudes" (Seilitz: 1976:318). This research needed to be conducted in a relaxed atmosphere, so as to elicit the personal views of the interviewees in the context of the values, beliefs and feelings which they shared at school. As Goodman (1995) has argued, "to explore the complex interplay of human experience ... focus ... on those aspects of school that reflect its basic foundational values and knowledge base."

Interviews are an ideal method of getting full and detailed expression of people's ideas. Silverman has said that "interviews offer a rich source of data which provide access to how people account for both their troubles and good fortune" (1993:114).

3. STAFF DEVELOPMENT METHODS USED IN NEW HORIZON

Teachers that I interviewed at New Horizon had many ideas to share. They often reflected on a range of factors that made them effective in their teaching. Most interesting were their revelations not only about what is going on with regard to staff development, but also about the prevailing climate and the types of interaction which are characteristic in their school.

3.1 School Ethos

There is no simple combination of variables that produces a healthy atmosphere for staff development. Human feelings, attitudes and perceptions all influence interaction. Without exception, my interviewees stressed the importance of 'commitment and dedication', and together with that, a collaborative attitude among the staff and an atmosphere conducive to learning and teaching.

According to Mr Moodly:

> Teachers in New Horizon put in 120% effort, they are committed, we put the child first, we are not easily affected by teachers' or children's strikes which often affect our colleagues in many government schools, and that is the kind of advantage we have here ... I'm here for the child.

Another teacher, Mrs Sonn proudly said:

> I have been teaching here for eight years now. I can only count on my one hand the number of days I have been absent from school... for us here teaching is not only a job - we love children, that is why we are never absent, we enjoy being here.

Teachers have a high concern for the child. Mrs Sonn also told me that:

> We have informal assemblies on Wednesday, where we talk about current issues, give them confidence, not just academic ... we encourage them not just to pass but do better, to meet the standards set by an independent Examination Board.

According to Mrs Wall:

> We have a good liaison from the staff members, we have friendly staff who would advise you, you don't feel embarrassed to ask anything if you have a problem in your class and our principal Mr Knock is a very kind person.

Trying out something new implies risk-taking. Risking new behaviour is less threatening to teachers at New Horizon because co-operation and experimentation are the norm. Teachers enjoy candid discussions about their successes and failures as they learn together and support one another. The principal of New Horizon sometimes meets the staff informally during break times. "This is good for us, we learn to speak to him freely during recess, share ideas and get important information which he sometimes brings to us," said Mrs Wall. Sharing that information in such a relaxed atmosphere is an enormous advantage to the principal as well.

3.2 The Principal and his leadership style

The way the principal perceives his staff offers a key to his leadership style. Mr Knock, I would argue, sees his staff in terms of MacGregor's Theory "Y": that expenditure of effort on their part is natural, that people accept and seek responsibility, exercise self direction and self control and are able to display a reasonably high degree of imagination and creativity (Everard & Morris 1990:28-29). This combination o f high expectations and confidence in his staff reflected in Mrs Sonn's remark: "we don't need a watchdog over us, our principal Mr Knock trusts us", and Mr Knock's own assertion that "we have a team of dedicated and committed teachers."

Leading by example is another way in which Mr Knock encourages and inspires his staff. When I asked him about commitment, he responded:

> Teachers need to see from you ... this commitment comes from seeing what others are doing, it then rubs off to others ... The principal comes to school at ten to seven (6h50), then I (a teacher) should not come just before the bell rings at 7h45; the principal stays until 4pm. I must not be seen running home when the bell rings at 13h30.

The principal believes in the "open door policy", which he himself talked about and Mr Moodly too. Linked to this is his human relations approach, which is characterized by both concern for work and concern for his staff (Hoy & Miskell: 1982): "I often tell my teachers, no matter how small your problem is, share it, a problem shared is a problem halved."

Mr Knock is an inspirational leader and he communicates the school policy and procedure to his teachers very well.

> Teachers know that children are not just failed ... if a child is not making the desired progress - notify the principal so that I can inform the parents ... I often tell parents to get children constructively engaged in the afternoon, they must check what is done, ask for homework. No child is left to his or her own devices.

This suggests that the principal emphasizes the monitoring of students' progress by teachers. It is good for the principal to be visible to staff, to be a model of collegiality, and above all, to be aware of teachers' classroom practices and problems.

3.3 Coaching

Joyce and Showers (1981:380) define coaching as "hands on, in classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom".

Coaching is the planned development of people on and around their job either by a superior or another colleague. It follows and builds upon staff development in which teachers learn about the theoretical foundation of the skill, observe the skill being demonstrated and then practise it. Mrs Sonn firmly believes that:

> ... although we do it to all staff members, it is good for beginner teachers who still struggle to get their feet down in the classroom ... it helps them to grow faster and many have reported to feel more confident after coaching.

In sharing her ideas about coaching, Mrs Wall believes that it is good even for old teachers like her. Looking at some of the benefits of coaching, she said:

> ... no teacher can afford not to grow because ideas, life changes everyday, therefore teaching must grow with the times ... if teachers do not change and grow, education will go backwards.

One of the benefits of coaching is that teachers do not feel isolated. Talking about one beginner teacher in her school, Mrs Sonn remarked: "... she has been with us for six months now, but you cannot believe ... she was not afraid to ask how it is done ... no teacher is left alone."

In this instance coaching provided companionship in addition to inculcation, practice and reinforcement of skills.

3.4 Reading

A teacher's own professional reading can be a major source of professional growth. Teachers at New Horizon are extremely fortunate in having access to rich literature like professional journals in their small staff library. The availability of such literature implies commitment on the part of the principal to staff development. More importantly there is a staff guide handbook. This contains helpful information, including statements of policy and procedures, and job descriptions for various positions like Head of Department, sports manager, etc. From a staff development point of view Mr Moodly told me that: "the value of this staff handbook lies in the process of drawing up the handbook and revising it at regular intervals." This was complemented by Mrs Sonn, who said: "The reason why we often revise this book is that we constantly evaluate the effectiveness of procedures and redefine some of the staff roles."

3.5 Staff Meetings

At New Horizon there are regular staff meetings which address various aspects of school work. According to Mrs Sonn:

> We have meetings with teachers, tell them what we expect, how we do it ... arrange meetings to remind them about procedures, give them handouts to keep in their files. We also have informal meetings twice a week, if you have anything to say this is the time to say it.

As a result, "in less than two months you just become part of the family".

Decisions about things to be done, like school activities, are often made in these meetings. Because teachers are encouraged to display initiative, "If there is something to be done, even teachers who are new to the school feel free to participate ... (they say) don't worry ... put my name down there, I will do it ... they all volunteer, they run for help".

Mr Knock said teachers also serve on in small ad-hoc committees, and any teacher serving on any of these committees is likely to be stimulated and grow professionally. "Committee work of this kind provides outstanding opportunities for in-service training and promotes collegial collaboration" (van der Westhuizen 1991:291).

3.6 Using audio and video tapes

The advent of relatively cheap methods of producing video tapes and taping live educational radio and television (TV) broadcasts for later use has provided a valuable new tool for staff development in New Horizon as well. According to Mrs Sonn:

> If you have learnt something new you can tape it as you do it in your class and present it to another teacher, we then come together as teachers of that subject, play it all over again and discuss it.

Mrs Wall added: "Also you can tape from the TV and bring the cassette to school. We will look at it and practise whatever we feel might help us improve our teaching."

They both agreed that the use of tapes also helps in breaking down the isolation of teachers, especially those teaching the same subject at the same school and at the same level. This could be helpful to other schools, too, if teachers could share their ideas about instruction and try out new techniques in their classrooms.

3.7 Workshops

These are usually arranged in East London (about 123km away from Butterworth) for the whole staff, or for a section of staff, for example, a subject department. They usually join with other schools under the aegis of Independent Examinations Board. Typically the programmes involve "lead" speakers and group discussions.

Mrs Sonn believes that these workshops "are usually helpful. They help us to gauge ourselves as we strive to meet the IEB standards."

Mrs Wall agreed but also raised another concern:

> they are helpful, but I wish they could be held here in New Horizon so that they can be focused on our specific needs, promote frequency and another reason is that they are often held in the evenings and driving at night is too much risk as most of us on the staff are females.

This suggests the need for what Schmuck and Runkel would call "site based in-service or school based professional development" (1994:48). Obviously there is a need to reconsider the mode of delivery of these workshops. The general view they expressed about workshops and conferences is that, sharing instructional problems and solutions made them more confident about their ability to make changes in their classrooms.

3.8 Contact with Other Schools

There is much cooperation and collaboration between the staff of New Horizon and teachers in other schools that are under the IEB.

> we don't like to keep our teachers closed in our school, only, keep contact with our colleagues even outside, regularly. (Mr Knock)

This happens between individual teachers on a casual basis or at teacher centre meetings. Sometimes mathematics teachers or geography teachers of two or more schools meet together to share ideas and teaching materials and to discuss mutual problems. The advantage of this system is that all the teachers are involved, not just the few who attend workshops. "The reason why I like this approach is that the focus of discussion is immediately relevant to us as teachers concerned", *said Mr Moodly.*

3.9 Action Research

Teachers at New Horizon are constantly engaged in Action Research. This approach is similar to what Schmuck and Runkel call the Organisation Development (OD) technique of Survey-Data-Feedback (1994:5). Action research in this context means enquiry and experiment conducted by a teacher in hisor her own classroom. According to Morgan, it "... seeks to combine action and learning to create a situation whereby everyone involved in the research learns while doing it" (1993:296). This certainly is one of the reasons why teachers at New Horizon are among the most proficient and fastest growing teachers in our region. They participate fully in innovation, enquiry and change in their own work. Fortunately for them, the ethos and the climate of the school support this.

4. REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY

French and Bell have stated that:

> it is possible to create organisations that on the one hand are humane, developmental and empowering and on the other hand are high performing in terms of productivity, quality of output and profitability. (1995:76)

Although it might not be particularly useful to assume that what has been successful for some will necessarily be successful for others, I strongly feel that there are some lessons to be learned from this study. These could include:

- The value of good interpersonal relationships

  Van der Westhuizen argued that "if interpersonal relationships are positive and harmonious every staff member will instinctively want to give his best – not because he is forced to do this but because he is working under a leader who expresses the qualities of outstanding service, empathy and humanity towards others in a practical way in his life" (1991:294).

  Staff development depends largely on the prevailing climate and quality of interaction in the school context. It becomes successful where collegiality and experimentation are the norm.

- The importance of true collegiality

  Heads do not lead by simply stating the direction in which they hope the school will go, they exemplify what they believe in through what they say and do (Ribbins and Burridge 1994:56).

  Although the principal does not necessarily exert total control over the staff, he is certainly involved in school work. He influences content and provides direction in many issues without taking complete control. Mr Knock, for example, has much confidence in his staff. He gives them major responsibilities and allows them to implement their ideas. He has confidence that they can do it. He seems to bear out Chapman's belief that "Education leaders help to create the structures and conditions in which others can learn, grow and develop a sense of their own importance" (1990:339).

Mr Knock influences teachers' strategies only when this is judged necessary. Furthermore, the principal and senior staff show strong and consistent interest in pupils' learning progress, and this helps to focus the staff's attention on these matters too.

- Decision making

  Involving teachers in decision making about curriculum development and other teaching matters is very important. According to Chapman (1990:236), teacher involvement is a way of enhancing curriculum development insofar as teachers are more committed to the curriculum decisions that are made. Consultation with teachers about decisions on resources is very fruitful. Consulting teachers about school policy as well as decisions affecting them directly can go a long way towards creating and sustaining a climate in which staff development can thrive.

- Opportunities for creating and consolidating an atmosphere conducive to staff development at school arise not only out of in-service programmes, but also in everyday activities within the staffroom, in corridors, playgrounds and other informal groupings. "Where staff have the capacity to collaborate professionally they increase their opportunities to learn from one another both formally and informally" (Ribbins and Burridge 1994:55).

- A school which devises and implements its own development plans stands a greater chance of succeeding in these. Cawood and Gibbon state that "A staff development programme must be appropriate to the educational philosophy and policy of the relevant school community" (1985:19). It is important that teachers should be willing to adapt their practices and try out new approaches in a quest for improvement.

- Developing your staff to work as a team

  It is essential for school staff to work together as a team because work goals are shared, and to a large extent these goals can only be achieved by means of cooperative effort. As this research study shows, team development at New Horizon involves planned efforts directed towards helping staff members to interact more effectively in pursuit of the organisation's goals. It is important to have the opportunity of experiencing events in which the effectiveness of teamwork is not only demonstrated but also felt.

When I say that one of New Horizon's strengths is that the staff works as a team, I should perhaps specify what characteristics I am talking about. Gordon Lippit sees a successful team as one which has:

1. An understanding of, and commitment to common goals.

2. The integration of the resources of as wide as possible a range of team members, so as to use their contributions and to increase their sense of ownership and commitment.

3. The ability and willingness to analyse and review team processes.

4. Trust and openness in communication and relationships.

5. A strong sense of belonging of its members (1971:64).

I am not of course suggesting that the above points and arguments will provide all the remedy we seek. What I am advocating here will require the diligent and practical commitment of all those involved in staff development, teachers and principals alike, if it is to have real effect.

5. CONCLUSION

Although the term "staff development" sounds simple enough, it in fact denotes a number of processes and issues. As this study shows, staff development involves teamwork, professional dialogue and a school culture that sustains collaboration, and these might not be easy to create and maintain in some schools. In other words, staff development depends upon establishing a set of processes and conditions that are neither simple nor straightforward to put in place. For example, the norms of collegiality, commitment and dedication do not occur on their own. They need to be actively promoted by influential persons at the schools. As the study shows, the principal of New Horizon plays a very significant and pervasive role in staff development by:

- making himself visible and accessible to staff through his 'open door policy;
- being a model of collegiality and hardwork to the staff;
- fostering high morale and enthusiasm in the school;
- being involved in formal and informal social interaction with members of staff;
- assisting and encouraging staff members to experiment with new teaching methods in their classrooms;
- being informed about what is going on in classes, i.e. children's progress.

Staff development must be school-focused. This means that the school, its staff and their needs are the focus for staff development activities, while outside agencies can be used for additional stimulus, resources and support. The school is left largely to its own devices and resources. This poses a serious challenge to schools where the majority of teachers have not yet reached a stage of professional development that will enable them to manage school-focused staff development programs, as well as to schools that lack adequate infrastructure. There are of course other significant contextual constraints. This implies that the strategies used at New Horizon, as described in this study, will require political will if they are to be implemented in government schools. Some of the measures have considerable financial implications, but others are less costly. However, as the study shows, all require determination, vision, good planning and management. Staff development is the only vehicle through which teachers can enhance their skills and remedy deficiencies (Rebore (1987).

It is worth noting that significant school improvement efforts are closely linked to quality staff development programs. Principals must have the appropriate knowledge and skills if they are to help move their schools forward to meet the complex educational challenges of the 21st Century.

6. REFERENCES

Bennet, N., Glatter, R. & Keveac, R. (Eds). (1994). *Improving educational management through research and consultancy*. London: The Open University.

Cawood, J. & Gibbon, A.J. (1981). *Educational leadership: Staff development*. Cape Town : Nasou.

Chapman, J. (Ed). (1990). *School-based decision-making and management*. London: Palmer.

Cohen, L. & Manion, L. (1989). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge.

Everard, K.B. & Morris, G. (1990). *Effective school management* (2nd Ed). London: Harper & Row.

French, W.L. & Bell, C.H. (1995). *Organisation development: Behavioural science interventions for organisation Improvement* (5th Ed). Prentice Hall.

Fullan, M. & Hagreaves, A. (Eds). (1992). *Teacher development and educational change*. London: Palmer.

Goodman, J. (1995). Change without difference: School restructuring in historical perspective. *Harvard Educational Review, 65, 1-29.*

Gordon, R.A. (1976). *School administration and supervision: Leadership challenges and opportunities* (2nd Ed). Dubuque: Brown.

Guba, E.G. (1990). *The paradigm dialogue*. London: Sage.

Hoy, W.K. & Miskell, C.G. (1982). *Educational administration: Theory, research and practice* (2nd Ed). New York: Random.

Hughes, M.; Rubbins, P. & Thomas, H. (Eds). (1985). *Managing education: The system and the institution*. London: Holt, Rinehart & Winstom.

Kuriakose J.J. (Ed). **The window**: New Horizon school magazine (1996) Butterworth: New Edition International Bookhouse.

Leedy, P.D. (1993). *Practical research: Planning and design.* New York: Macmillan.

Liphan, J.M. (1981). *Effective school, effective principal.* Reson, V.A.: NASSP.

Lippit, G. (1971). *Optimising human resources.* Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley.

Morgan, G. (1986). *Images of organisation.* Newbury Park: Sage.

New Horizons at Butterworth. (1989, 21 April). *Daily Dispatch.*

Paisey, A. (1984). *School management : A case approach.* London: Harper.

Rebore, R.W. (1987). *Personnel administration in education: A management approach* (3rd ed). New Jersey : Prentice-Hall.

Ribbins, P. & Burridge, E. (Eds). (1994). I*mproving education: Promoting quality in schools.* London: Cassel.

Silverman, David. (1993). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods of analysing talk, text and interaction.* London: Sage.

Sergiovanni, T.J. & Starrat, R.J. (1988). *Supervision: A redefinition* (5th Ed). New York : McGraw-Hill.

Schmuck, R.A. & Runkel, P.J. (1994). *The handbook of organisation development in schools and colleges* (4th ed). Illinois: Waveland Press.

Showers, B. (1983). *Transfer of Training.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Research Association, Montreal.

Van der Westhuizen, P.C. (Ed). (1991). *Effective educational management.* Pretoria: HAUM.

PROJECT 2

TOPIC

THE EISELEN COMMISSION REPORT AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION, 1949 - 1953: THE INFLUENCE OF THE STATE

BY

LINDILE MTONGANA

SUPERVISOR

DR. CLIVE SMITH

CONTENTS - PROJECT 2

INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about the racial nature of the South African curriculum. Perhaps beginning with Loram in the 1920's (rpt. 1969), the debate and analysis has subsequently been developed by, amongst others, Tabata (1960), Horrel (1968), Luthuli (1981), Marcum (1982), Kallaway (1984), Nkomo (1990) and Unterhalter et al. (1991). This review joins this discourse, but with the specific purpose of examining the process of the Eiselen Commission, its report, and its final product, the Bantu Education Act. Essentially, I want to illustrate the influence of the state on education policy, through close scrutiny of the operation and consequences of the commission of enquiry.

The Eiselen Commission was formally instituted by the National Party government in 1949, barely a year after it had come to power. The trajectory for the Eiselen commission is clearly prefigured in its terms of reference:

1. The formulation of the principles and aims of education for natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude and needs under the ever-changing special conditions are taken into consideration.

2. The extent to which the existing primary, secondary and vocational education system for Natives and training of Native teachers should be modified in respect of syllabuses, in order to conform to the proposed principles and aims, and to prepare Natives more effectively for their future occupations.

3. The organisation and administration of various branches of Native Education.

4. The basis on which education should be financed.

5. Such other aspects of Native education as may be related to the proceeding. (South Africa, 1951).

Also noteworthy is that the appointees to the Commission were largely drawn from the ranks of the National Party. Its chairman, Dr. W.W.M. Eiselen, a Professor of Social Anthropology

at the University of Pretoria, had previously been an inspector of schools under Native Education, and later became Secretary for Native Education in the Verwoerd Government. Another member, M.D.C. de Wet Nel, was to become Minister of Bantu Administration. The only English-speaking member was Professor Murray, a faculty member at the liberal University of Cape Town. None of the members, as Davis (1972 : 9) has pointed out, was African. The questionnaire which the Commission circulated prior to its hearing was crassly suggestive of the kind of information it sought: "Is it true that Natives must be regarded as a separate and independent race?"; and "What do you understand by the racial characteristics of the Native?", it asked.

These features did nothing to enhance the standing of the Commission. As was recorded, in the eyes of some, it was a cause for outright suspicion. The central committee of the Communist Party of South Africa, hardly to be taken seriously by the Commission, remarked that "both the terms of reference and the questionnaire suggest that the commission is committed in advance to a particular theory of race and the relationship between it and culture."

A member of the Native Representative Board, Dr. J.S. Moroka giving evidence to the Commission, said: "If it were possible to be honest in this matter ... but I am just wondering whether it is possible ... I very much doubt it" (Evidence at Thaba Nchu).

Nevertheless, people did speak their minds, verbally in hearings and in written submissions to the Commission. Of the latter there were more than two hundred, with approximately twenty coming from people and organisations one would describe as African, and one from a largely coloured organisation. In virtually every case, the people concerned could be said to represent the middle class, including the tiny but very influential middle class of people of colour. Among those classified African, most were teachers, traditional leaders, middle-level administrators in government, ministers of religion and the occasional academic. A wide variety of perspectives came to light in the evidence submitted in both oral and written forms.

THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE EISELEN COMMISSION

The Commission prepared the ground for the Bantu Education Act of 1953. The manner in which it went about its work, however, did not exhibit the trappings of absolute power. Subtler forms of ideological manipulation and imposition were responsible for the policy which did ideological violence to the subject people of South Africa. To understand this subtlety, it is necessary to recognise the veiled agenda of the Eiselen Commission. This lies in the skilful conflation of culture and race (used in an ideological and political context) in which the first, I would argue, is explicit and used as the public text, while the second is submerged within the structure of the first. Together they constitute a discourse of white supremacy. Notable is the omission of salient issues, such as the culturalisation of racial attributes, which served to place the Commission's deliberations seemingly beyond critique. To arrive at a point where one can see the ascendancy of the supremeacist ideology in education it is necessary to examine the various discourses of race which confronted or dominated the proceedings of the Eiselen Commission. Of particular concern for this essay is how these discourses came to inform the findings of the Commission.

The work of the Commission was predictably informed by the policy of apartheid which the government strongly preached. It meant the preparation of an education system for a 'Bantu Community' whose dimensions can only be explained in the context of race. But the dominant view amongst African and other participants of colour within the process was that race was not the issue, or even that it did not exist. The position of Mr. Ntantile, a school teacher, exemplified this position. In response to the question about the "racial characteristics of African people," he remarked that there was only one human race (Memorandum 52). The Teachers' League of South Africa, a largely coloured organisation, similarly rejected the racial overtones of the Commission: "It represents an attitude which cannot find any scientific support at all" (Memorandum 68). Within the community of liberals, a very diverse group, many were appalled by the commission's attempt to demarcate racial boundaries within the spectrum of human race. Such people invariably found themselves involved with the opposition movements, both black and white.

This viewpoint also found support in other places. The Salvation Army of South Africa, for example, told the commission that "as a point of Christian principle ... we believe that the racial characteristics of the native are characteristics of all human beings" (Evidence on July 23, 1949) . The Association of European Teachers in African education sent a resolution it had passed at a meeting which challenged the meaning of race: "The term 'independent race' is in a double sense meaningless" (Memorandum 115).

Similar positions were taken by the American Mission Board in South Africa, the Anglican Diocese of Johannesburg, the Johannesburg Joint Council of European and Natives, Leo Marquard (a distinguished liberal), the spokesperson for the East London Municipality, the Soutpansburg joint council of Europeans and Natives and, most significantly, the South African Institute of Race Relations. Their arguments constantly provoked the Commission to severe frustration. When the Commission spoke with the Executive Committee of the Cape African Teachers' Association (CATA), a commissioner, Dr. Cook, complained: "Your recommendations are all or nothing ... leave out the term race. You have been utterly suspicious of the commission, but can't you put forward a plan?" To this a member of the CATA delegation replied: "Our fundamental stand point is one of equality. You can speak of different ethnic groups" (Evidence - Eastern Cape 2-11, 1949). The president of the Orange Free State Teachers Association, W.M. Kgware, for example, in the extract below is seen to be trying the patience of the Commission in its attempts to extract a response commensurable with its question.

> Chair: The Native could be developed to full integration, or by separation. The last would mean that you should be able to go the whole way.
>
> President: ... we cannot distinguish between the destinies of different people .... Individuality is a gift of God ... (Evidence Bloemfontein: August 16, 1949).

There is evidence throughout the Commission's proceedings of witnesses subverting the process of giving evidence. The response of some Africans to the Commission illustrates that they took words which they were offered and rearranged them to suit their own political purposes. One wonders, for example, what exactly the chief Johannes Mhlongo meant

when he said: "I thank you very much. We find out today that the government has love for us" (Evidence: Durban September 28, 1949). Not all the chiefs were so subtle. Pushed aggressively by one Mr Hofmeyer, a commissioner, to acknowledge that there was "backwardness in (the African) character", Chief Moshesh from the Eastern Cape told one of his questioners: "No. Not in their character, but in the character of education (they) receive" (Evidence: Eastern Cape November 2, 1949). Mr S.M. Mabude went further -when he wrote to the Commission that he found the entire exercise of investigating the racial basis for a separate culture and education for Africans repugnant: "the African has been made a museum specimen, a fossil, a preserved animal for scientific experimentation. In short, the person in him has been killed" (Memorandum 51).

In eliciting public opinion the Commission had clearly taken an ideological gamble which had not quite succeeded. There were rarely responses which they found entirely satisfactory. Even those who chose to credit the possibility that race was an issue, were quick to dismiss the equation of difference with notions of inferiority and superiority. This was particularly so among African witnesses. The Orange Free State African Teachers Association, for example, stated that "by racial characteristics we understand such characteristics as stature, colour, type of hair, fortitude, humour, etc. which while universal in the human race, are especially pronounced in the Native" (Memorandum 84). These, however (they were quick to add), counted for nothing in determining the abilities and capacities of human beings. The Transvaal Ministers Association (Western Transvaal) argued that it was incorrect to see Africans as a separate race and that "characteristics were merely physical" (Memorandum 71). Rev. Kuzwayo of Durban stated bluntly to the Commission that "it was a fallacy that all Africans have the same Characteristics" (September 28, 1949).

On the other hand, white supremacist arguments laid before the Commission were generally faithful to the idea that African people constituted "God's forgotten children". To the question of the distinct racial nature of African people many Afrikaners were almost peremptorily responsive. A Dr. Engelbrecht of the University of Pretoria, for instance, presented the matter in uncompromising language:

> The native is clearly a distinct and separate race. His physical racial characteristics are easily measured and well known.... While not amenable to direct measurement, it does seem clear however, that he is possessed of intellectual attributes of a racial nature which set him apart from other races. (Memorandum 55)

Below I quote some striking comments, verbal and written, which grossly discredit Africans, that were made in the course of the Commission's investigations:

> ...the Native is a dead slow, imitative, superstitious and primitive .... He has a tendency to sing ... make beer. He is short-sighted, careless and stupid. His music is monotonous .... He has mainly bad characteristics. ... It will take education at its best 2000 years to bring him to the level of whites today. (I.S. Steyn, Memorandum 73)

> ... despite everything, they still remain Kaffirs ... their particular characteristic is laziness ... their social heritage is ... to have as many children as possible. It is that which stamps him as a noteworthy individual." (J.M. Potgieter - Memorandum 78).

> ... I spend more time as a school inspector with disciplinary issues ... The majority of the cases are of a sexual nature and these I put down to the natural uncontrolled animal instincts of the native.... (G.C. Clark - Evidence at Lydenberg)

> The Native is not disposed to be a leader. He is in temperament slow and unmotivated. (W.H. Theron - Memorandum 98)

The weight of this information implied that Africans were condemned to a perpetual life of subordination. "It is obvious," said Dr. H.D. Trumpelman of the Botshabelo High School in Middelburg, Transvaal, "that there are radical differences between white people and Natives and that there can be no thought given to the idea of a single and united race in South Africa" (Memorandum 49). Present in many of these perspectives were traces of the Christian Nationalist thought promoted amongst Afrikaners at that time. Central to Christian Nationalism was the idea that Afrikaners were destined to be the master race of Africa

whose task was to bring proverbial light to the continent's dark savages.

Such were the sources from which Eiselen and his fellow commissioners drew their information. While they were unwavering in their insistence that African people were sufficiently different from Europeans, they were extremely careful not to reveal themselves as proponents of white supremacy.

THE STRUCTURE AND CONTENT OF THE COMMISSION'S REPORT

The process by which the Eiselen Commission arrived at its conclusions was by no means without its curiosities. Its report is a classic illustration of how the state can use its power to enforce its ideology. The Commission's report begins with an empirical overview of the condition of the "Bantu" and their schools. It then moves to critiqueing the shortcomings of educational provision for African people, particularly the administration of schools; and in a final section it makes four recommendations for the improvement of education for the "Bantu". The first related to the Aim of Education; the second to the Administration of Education; the third to the Re-organisation of Bantu schools; and the last to a Tentative Scheme of Educational Development.

In the first recommendation, concerning the aim of Bantu Education, there is a strong emphasis on the necessity for the restoration of the integrity of Bantu Culture through the promotion of "orderly family life" and "harmony between the schools and the way of life of the people" (1953 : 130-31). Notwithstanding some of the Commission's more disparaging remarks about "primitive cultures", it acknowledges that "the Bantu child comes to school with a basic physical and psychological endowment which differs ... so slightly, if at all, from that of the European child that no special provision has to be made in educational theory or basic aims" Commission Report, (1953: 130-131). The Commission clearly signals its intentions in the same paragraph of the report by commenting that " ... educational practice must recognise that it has to deal with a Bantu child, that is, a child trained and conditioned in Bantu culture, endowed with a knowledge of a Bantu language and imbued with values, interest and behaviour patterns learned at the knee of a Bantu mother. These facts must

dictate to a very large extent the content and methods of this early education" Commission Report (1953: 130-131). While the Commission's report is constructed around culture as the central signifier of difference between African people and white people, culture is used here as a synonym for race. Thus although nowhere in the language of the report is the white supremacy of the commissioners actually articulated, it consistently insinuates itself in the way in which culture - in this case cultural inferiority - is used as a resource, a common denominator for constructing the rationale for a separate educational infrastructure for African people. The import of these recommendations can be interpreted as an attempt to maintain and perpetuate the subordinate status of African people.

In spite of all the contradictions to be found in the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission, the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953 was passed - a naked display of state power. While the process permits Professor Murray, one of the commissioners, to submit a dissenting report which takes issue with much of the substance and form of the main report, his contribution is simply ignored. The result is essentially one of silencing Murray's dissent. It is this strategy of silencing, of Murray (which the commission could however defend on procedural grounds), but more critically of Africans and others in opposition, which pervades the work of the Eiselen Commission.

The Eiselen Commission laid out the philosophic and organisational foundations for the much hated 1953 Bantu Education Act. Widely perceived as providing the blueprint for apartheid education, it recommended, for example, that African pupils and students be separated from other communities, arguing that western culture had given African people a false sense of their destiny. This was clearly illustrated by the notorious Minister of Native Affairs, Dr. Verwoerd: "... until now he has been subjected to a school system which drew him away from his own community and misled him by showing him the green pastures of European society in which he will not be allowed to graze" (In Kallaway, 1984 : 173).

In terms of the Bantu Education Act, the education of black people had to change from its missionary and European forms to prepare them for participation in this separate society, a Bantu Community. Tabata (1960) describes this Bantu Community as a completely rightless, voteless and defenceless community under the jurisdiction of Bantu Administrative

Authorities. Notable, were the unrestricted powers given to the Minister: "The power of appointment, promotion, transfer or discharge of teachers in Government Bantu schools shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, vest in the Minister" (Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953.10.(2)(a)). The Act's keynote of crude racism and inequality was sounded by Dr. Verwoerd, then Minister of Native Affairs: "... if the Native in South Africa today in any kind of school is being taught to expect that he will live his adult life under the policy of equal rights, he is making a big mistake" (in Bunting 1986: 95).

Taking over the missionary schools was by no means a generous act on the part of the government, but a deliberate plan to foster Afrikaner guardianship with the desire subsequently to impose tighter control, prescribing courses of instruction to be given in school, medium of instruction, conditions of service for teachers, conditions of admission and expulsion for pupils, and the establishment of school boards (Kallaway, 1984). In pursuit of this policy, Blacks had to be trained to control their education. "Bantu personnel should be used to the maximum to make the school as Bantu in spirit as possible" (Ashley, 1989:13). The Act further allowed for the screening and classification of people who would fit well into the system. Members of school boards, for example, were to be people who were 'comfortable' with the ideology of the government, often known to the Native Commissioner. In the appointment and promotion of teachers, principals in particular, political background was an important determining factor; popularity with the Native Commissioner and the ability to speak Afrikaans tacitly served as additional recommendations. This is clearly evident in the fact that many teachers and principals (some of whom had made submissions to the Eiselen Commission 1949-1951) who were active in the Cape African Teachers Association were pushed out of the system, often through the agency of school boards. Furthermore this " measure allowed the government to close any educational programmes which did not support its aims" (Kallaway 1984 : 171).

CONCLUSION

There are a number of difficulties in seeking to define the significance of the Eiselen Commission. One is tempted to view it as merely an amplification of ruling class ideology, a codified product of ruling class thought. The proceedings of the Commission illustrate how particular forms of knowledge come to prevail over others. The ideological violence which it perpetrated, forcefully leading to the hierarchalization of people into superior and inferior types is illustrative of the system of the time. The Commission seems to have been so deeply implicated in a discourse of 'racial characteristics' as to have been blind to alternative issues that might have been useful in examining the viability of an education system. It is a fallacy that 'racial characteristics' could be enough to serve as a justification for a separate education system. Africans were distinct from Europeans but those distinctions were not significant in terms of their capabilities. As was agreed by English-speaking whites and Africans, and a smaller number of Afrikaners, all human beings were equal in their basic abilities.

For some, placing Africans in the same category with Europeans was grossly unfair to Africans, because it implied judging Africans by European standards. To blindly perceive Western practices of education as progress, implies a failure to problematize the meaning of Western education. Where many of the African witnesses celebrated African peoples` communality, song and tradition, evident among their counterparts was a deep disdain for the heritage of African culture. The failings of African people, said the Bishop of Umtata, were "due to a strong tendency to imitativeness and memorizing". But these characteristics were by no means permanent and did not imply that the Native needs separate education (Memorandum 74).

The manner in which the Commission dealt with such perspectives was not quite in accord with its avowed purpose. The process of rationalisation clearly demonstrated the truth of white supremacy without ever declaring its presence. In presenting its report, the Commission paints a picture of a 'true Bantu' which came to justify the necessity for white trusteeship over African people, which inturn served as the philosophical basis for a separate education for Africans.

It is not finally clear whether the Eiselen Report was the genuine product of a process of investigation, or whether it was a prejudged act with a view to skilfully forcing the state's ideology upon its subjects. But the weight of evidence suggests that the Commission's recommendations for such an inferior education system are not attributable to the weakness of the Commission, but the result of a deliberate plan to give the state opportunity to exercise its ideological influence.

The example of the Eiselen Commission makes it difficult to believe that a commission of enquiry can be truly neutral or accountable to the people. The state, its ideology and aims, inevitably plays a major part especially when the commission is appointed by the government.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ashforth, A. (1990) • **The Politics of official discourse in the twentieth century South Africa.** Oxford : Clarendon Press.

Ashley, M. (1989) • **Ideologies and schooling in South Africa.** Rondebosch : S.A.T.A.

Behr, A.L. (1978) • **New perspectives in education in South Africa** (2nd ed.). Durban : Butterworth.

Bunting, B. (1986) • **The rise of the South African reich.** South Africa : I.D.A.F.

Cross, M. (1982) • **Resistance and transformation : Education, culture and reconstruction.** Braamfontein : Skotaville.

South Africa (1951) • **Commission on native education, 1949-1951.** Report of the Commission on native education. Pretoria : Government Printer.

Davis, R.H. (1972) • **Bantu education and the education of Africans in South Africa.** Athens, Ohio : Ohio University Center for International Studies.

Hartshorne, K.B. (1952) • Comments on the Report of the Native Education Commission, 1949-1951. **Transvaal educational news**, June-July 1952, 5-15.

Hartshorne, K.B. (1992) • **Crisis and challenge : Black education 1910 -1990.** Cape Town : OUP.

Horner, M. (1968) • **Bantu education in 1968.** Johannesburg : South African Institute of Race Relations.

Kallaway, P. (1984) • **Apartheid and education : The education of Black South Africans.** Johannesburg : Ravan Press.

Loram, C.T. (1969) • **The education of the South African native** New York : Negro Universities.

Luthuli, P.C. (1981) • **The philosophical foundations of black education in South Africa.** Durban : Butterworth.

Macquarrie, J.W. (Papers) • Evidence given to the Eiselen Commission. Mr J.W. Macquarrie was an inspector of schools for the Cape Education Department in 1948 and 1949 (manuscript)

Nkomo, M.O. (Education.) (1990) • **Pedagogy of domination : Toward a democratic education in South Africa.** Trenton, New Jersey : Africa World Press.

South Africa. (1953) • **Bantu education act.** Pretoria : Government Printer

Roux, E. (1964) • **Time longer than rope.** Madison, Wisconsin : Madison Press.

South African Institute of Race Relations. (1952) • Record of proceedings of National Conference convened by the Institute in July, 1952 to study the report of the Native Education Commission. Johannesburg : South African Institute of Race Relations

Tabata I.B. (1960) **Education for barbarism in South Africa : Bantu education.** London : Pall Mall Press.

Unterhalter, E. (Ed) (1991) **Apartheid education and popular struggles.** London : Zed Press.

PROJECT 3

TOPIC

PARENTS AS PARTNERS IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

BY

LINDILE MTONGANA

SUPERVISOR

DR. CLIVE SMITH

TABLE OF CONTENTS – PROJECT 3

1. INTRODUCTION

Although the topic of parents and education has been addressed from a variety of perspectives, there seems to be broad consesus that parental involvement is, or should be, more than merely providing maintenance or support for school programmes (Epstein 1982:103-111). Experts in the field have asserted, unequivocally, that parent involvement must be the "warp and woof" of any parent programme fabric to improve student achievement and to enhance education.

Jowett and Baginsky (1981) view parental involvement as an approach to learning that recognises and draws on the contributions of the home, and sees contact with parents on a variety of matters as fundamental. On one level, it means routinely considering parental views and seeking parental response to what is provided. On another level parental involvement means seeing parents as active collaborators in their children's learning and development, and ensuring that they are well informed about their children's school lives and clear about ways in which they can work with the school.

Dixon (1992:16) distinguishes two broad types of parental involvement : limited partnership and full partnership.

Limited partnership assumes that the school is responsible for student learning and that the parents may assist only in ways teachers and administrators consider appropriate.

In full partnership, the underlying assumptions are that the school and family are responsible for the child's learning and that parents share in the decision making. Full partnership often requires the abondonment of old patterns and the development of new ones. Educators must shed the idea that they are the only ones with the knowledge and expertise to solve problems in education. This in turn requires building support, learning new roles, developing behaviour and strategies congruent with one's aims, developing a climate of acceptance, changing original plans and depending on provisions for continuous feedback.

In short, the concept of parental involvement encompasses a broad spectrum of activities united by the aim of bringing together in some way the separate domains of home and school. The rationale for developing this contact may range from a desire to involve parents in decision making in the school to that of passing on to them strategies for dealing more effectively with their own children (Jowett and Baginsky 1988:37-45).

Whilst the subject of relations between parents and schools has been explored by many experts, their ideas and opinions have understandably been largely influenced by the time and context in which they were working. This literature review will

therefore focus on studies where parental involvement has been shown to be beneficial to the school, indicating in the process how the success or failure of such involvement can be attributed to the effects of circumstances prevalent at the time. Although the focus is on South Africa, some research studies done elsewhere will be cited to illustrate a particular point. With a view to making this study more concrete, a possible programme of action for implemenatation in South Africa will be formulated.

2. RESEARCH STUDIES

2.1 Perspectives on Parental Involvement

A number of different arguments have been expounded in the study of parental involvement in education. Some researchers subscribe to the culture of poverty thesis, which states that a lower-class culture has distinct values and forms of social organisation and that lower-class and working-class families do not value education as highly as middle-class families (Deutsch 1967:39-58). Other analysts trace unequal levels of parental involvement in schooling back to the educational institutions themselves. They accuse schools of institutional discrimination, claiming that they make middle-class families more welcome than working-class and lower-class families (Lightfoot 1978). For instance, an Australian study of home-school relationships (Connell et al., 1982) argues that working class parents are "frozen out" of schools.

A more sophisticated version of this position is articulated by Pierre Boudieu, who argues that schools draw unevenly on the social and cultural resources of members of the society. For instance schools utilize particular linguistic structures, authority patterns and types of curricula: children from higher social locations enter school already familiar with these social arrangements. Bourdieu maintains that the cultural experiences in the home facilitate children's adjustment to school and academic achievement, thereby transforming cultural resources into what he calls 'cultural capital' (Bourdieu 1977:487-511).

2.2 Historical Variations in Family School Relations

Families and schools are dynamic institutions: both have changed markedly over time, even within the past few decades. Not surprisingly, family-school interactions have shifted as well. In recent years, there has been a steady increase in the level of parental involvement in schooling (Lareau, 1987:74-75). Three stages of family-school interaction can be identified.

In the first period, parents in rural areas provided food and shelter for teachers. Children's education and family life were intertwined, although parents evidently were not involved in the formal aspects of their children's cognitive development

(Overstreet and Overstreet, 1949).

In the second period, marked by the rise of mass schooling, parents provided political and economic support for the selection and maintenance of school sites. Parents were involved in school activities and classroom activities, but again they were not fundamentally involved in the children's cognitive development (Butterworth, 1928).

In the third and current period, parents have increased their efforts to reinforce the curriculum and promote cognitive development at home. In addition, parents have played a growing role in monitoring the children's educational development, and have moved into the classrooms as volunteers (Berger, 1983).

These changes in family-school interaction do not represent a linear progression. Nor is there only one form of relationship at any given time. Many factors, for instance, parental educational attainment or the amount of non-work time parents can invest in their children's schooling, affect the kind and degree of parental involvement (Lareau, 1974).

Home-school partnerships, in which parents are involved in the cognitive development of their children, currently seems to be the dominant model, but there are many possible types of family-school relationships (Baker, 1986:156-166). Acceptance of a particular type of family-school relationship emerges as the result of social processes (Lareau, 1974).

2.3 Home-School Links

Four kinds of home-school link have been identified: the basic link between home and school, parental participation, parent involvement and parent professional collaboration (Sloper and Cunningham, 1991:42-53).

The basic link between home and school entails the transmission of information and the way in which such information is transmitted. For instance such information may be conveyed in the form of notes, reports or telephone calls; it may involve indirect parent-teacher contact, when parents visit the school for sports events, meetings and talks, or direct parent-teacher contact, as in interviews.

Parent participation assumes a more active role on the part of the parent and is characterised by his/her participation in certain activities relating to the school, as in parent-teacher associations, fund raising or other interventions of the school's governing body. The participation of parents at this level pertains to matters which do not necessarily involve direct personal involvement in the day-to-day events of the classroom or the learning of their own children.

Parental involvement is characterised by active involvement on the part of the

parent, either in the classroom or elsewhere in the education of the child: for instance, parents helping with classroom activities such as arts and crafts, listening to children's reading on a regular basis, etc. The crucial characteristic of this involvement is that it is primarily defined by the professionals. The parent is assigned certain tasks in the classroom or certain activities to carry out with the children, but the planning of the curriculum, which underlies these activities, is the prerogative of the teacher.

Parent-professional partnership entails active involvement by parents in the education of their children, both in the day-to-day activities of the child at school, and in the planning of the curricula, either for their own child or for the school as a whole. The partnership is one of equality between parents and teachers. The essential elements include mutual respect, the sharing of information and skills, the sharing of feelings, doubts, worries, satisfaction and achievement, the sharing of the processes of decision-making and, lastly, the recognition of the individuality of families.

An increasing number of students come to school from a place many of us do not understand. Long standing assumptions about concepts such as "home", "family", and "parents" are being challenged by terms like "household", "remarried family", and "custodian parents". These changes are not simply changes in terminology. They carry with them new styles of living that influence students, parents, and school personnel and practice. Providing as many opportunities for understanding emerging family structures is an important contribution schools can make to revitalizing the parent school partnership, and a key element in the design of the partnership (Duncan 1992:10).

2.4 Getting another view

To understand the potential of school-community relations in South Africa, it may be useful to examine this concept from an international perspective. From a broad range of research, it is evident that when the school serves as an extension of the community, there is a greater emphasis on local control (LaBelle & Verhine, 1982) and an increase of community support for local schools. The research also indicates the influence and power of local citizen participation in supporting community education.

The Harambee (self-help) schools that emerged in Kenya after its independence served to fill the gap between education that the government provided and education that the communities needed. The cultural traditions of many East African peoples emphasize the qualities of self-help, communal government, and concern for community education (Anderson, 1969). The driving force for establishing these schools emerged from the collaboration of community leaders, school headmas-

ters, religious figures, parents, and community residents. These influential individuals freely expressed their opinions on what was needed and pledged their support to achieve common goals.

The National Campaign of Community Schools (CNEC) has functioned in Brazil for more than forty years, and like the Harambee schools' movement in Kenya, is focused on expanding access to education at the local level. Community-based CNEC Councils are made up of local residents who are responsible for making decisions concerning the schoolbuildings, equipment, personnel, and salary levels. Matters of curriculum and instruction are left to the director of the school. The success of the CNEC effort was highly dependent on the dedication and willingness of local residents to support education in their respective communities. What they helped to create, they supported (Anderson 1969).

One of the oldest and most common forms of school-community interaction may be seen in England, where schools are used as community centres. As a public institution, the school in most societies is typically centrally located but is unused during the evening. In England, it serves as a gathering place for local residents for community, social and recreational activities. The schools help to meet local community needs and contribute to improving the social life of the community. As a result, local residents have a sense of ownership of the local schools and provide strong support for them (Havighurst 1979).

Recent events in South Africa suggest the importance of building community support for local schools through participation. During 1990-91, a number of South African schools actively engaged in increasing community support for education through encouraging the participation of parents in committees and community activities to organise financial support for building construction or resource provision. During periods of unrest, when many schools were either damaged or destroyed and principals were threatened, forced to leave, or injured, schools that had strong community support were often untouched.

These efforts share at least two important similarities with other movements in the Philippines, Argentina, Israel, and Cuba. First, each focuses on the importance of the local school to the community and the need to act collaboratively to ensure the education of children. These joint efforts provide for greater access to education, emphasize relevant instruction, and underscore community concern for educating children. The school, as an integral part of the community, helps to reduce the artificial barriers separating it from the surrounding community, increases involvement, and fosters social change.

Secondly, school-community relations programmes help to build a more holistic view of the role of schools in the broader society. In this regard, schools may serve as

catalysts for community action, help secure employment, and help meet local social needs. As South Africa moves towards democratic governance processes, local schools will be expected to reflect the changes in society at large by increasing the level of community participation in school affairs.

Johnson (1980:171-181) conducted research at four comprehensive schools in a working-class area of outer London. The study investigated teachers' expectations of the parents of students in those schools. The teachers were disappointed by the level of response of parents. They had the impression that parents were apathetic towards education, which made the designed parent-teacher relationship difficult to establish and maintain.Subsequent research was conducted to elicit the parents' point of view.

The results indicated that once the child gets resigned to the notion of going to school as an inevitable daily experience, the mother stepped progressively into the background.

Furthermore, the role of a parent of a secondary school student is very different from that appropriate in earlier years. Many of the shared responsibilities seem to fade away, or have to be handled in a low-key manner. For instance, the young person's health, in most cases, was no longer an appropriate focus of parent-teacher interaction. Students entering puberty guard their physical privacy and discourage parents from participating in health checking procedures.

In addition, for these schools the teacher's close liaison with the parents was by no means the first concern. The initial task was to press ahead with the educative task. Parents were to remain in the background as a secondary resource.

The home-school relationship observed and regretted by the teacher's happened to be what parents wanted. They wanted their adolescents to 'learn to stand on their own feet'. Drawing back from school seemed one way in which this might come about.

Johnson (1981) concludes that in the early years the basis for home-school cooperation is the perceived dependency of the child. The teacher's expectations tend to be based on this primary school model which cannot and should not be applied to the secondary school stage. Furthermore, in the adolescent years parents encourage responsibility. School policies for parent-teacher contact which seem to bypass the student may be working against the grain of family policies for encouraging independence. Lastly, teachers evaluate the success of home-school cooperation on the basis of parents coming to school. Parents who do not come to school are not necessarily apathetic about their children's education. Many home-based forms of parental support and interest are not visible to teachers.

Another interesting piece of research was conducted by Hulsebosch (1991). She conducted thorough interviews with 9 teachers: 5 who reported an unusually high amount of parental involvement, and 4 who reported low involvement. High involvement teachers were found to emphasize the affective, child-centred aspect of education. "Low involvers" described goals that were derived from outside the school from the needs of the society at large. They stressed responsibility, self-reliance and independence. High involvers perceived parents as an asset and a basic element in a child's education; low involvers portrayed parents as appendages to schooling. Lastly, high involvers have more regular and consistent contact with parents of their pupils than do low involvement teachers.

Hulsebosch (1991) concluded that much of what the teachers said about the relationships revolved around the way they defined themselves as professionals. High involvers not only valued the role of the teacher but also acknowledged the significance of what happens in the child's life beyond the school day. High involvers emphasised the relationship between teacher and parent, rather than the rules and parameters that govern parent involvement, which were the concern of low involvers.

Low involvers not only maintained a position that is distant, but also envisaged themselves in an authoritarian position. To low involvers, there was a superior status that rightfully belonged to teaching, a sense of entitlement: entitlement to respect, trust and irreproachability.

Annette Loreau (1987) conducted research on two classrooms located in two different communities: Colton, a white working-class community, and Prescott, a middle-class community. The purpose of the study was to assess parental school involvement in the two communities.

The results revealed that parents who agreed with the teacher's definition of partnership appeared to offer an educational advantage to their children; parents who turned over the responsibility of education to the professional could negatively affect their children's schooling.

In Colton, an area of low educational capabilities, parents indicated that they depended on the teacher to educate their children. Prescott parents had a different perception. They believed that education was a shared responsibility. Most parents from the working class obtained their information about the school from their children, which as a result was general and lacked essential details. Prescott parents' information was more detailed, as parents took the matter up with the school if anything went amiss.

Parents in both communities valued educational success but differed in the educational level of achievement they hoped their children would attain. Colton parents were satisfied with their children obtaining a high school diploma. Prescott parents

spoke not only of diplomas but also of the importance of an advanced degree.

Participation may also have a profound and lasting effect on the community as a whole. An examination of effective school practices undertaken by Howey (1980) identified one of the most important aspects of effective schools as the quality of the relationship. He found that parents of children in effective schools initiated a greater number of contacts with the school. Henderson (1982) found that parent participation was associated with improved student achievement. Specifically, parent participation was identified as being central to the learning process in terms of parents having better information, understanding the schools' expectations for student performance, and being aware of the importance of their encouraging and supporting the learning process. In addition, students whose parents participated in school affairs had fewer discipline problems.

3. TOWARDS THE PRESENT POSITION OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

During the 1980's, participatory structures in the Department of Education and Training (DET) schools (Parent-Teacher Associations and Management Councils) came to be seen as inadequate in a number of ways, and the DET did indicate that they were aware of certain problems concerning the devolution of power and parental involvement (Bot 1992:58).

In order to address this situation the DET established parent-elected management councils for schools and, regional and national committees for Education and Training. Regional committees consisted of chairmen of management councils,while the national council drew membership from business, the churches, cultural organisations and organised labour. Such structures were to "enable black educational and community leaders to meaningfully influence decision-making on policy and its implementation" (Bot 1992:58-59).

The then minister of the DET, Mr Gerrit Viljoen, conceded, however, that part of the problem was the absence of African political rights and the consequent inability of Africans to determine educational policy. He recommended that "until such time as reform leads to black power sharing in central legislative and executive institutions, these councils may serve as an alternative channel" (Bot 1992:58).

After the establishment of this structure the chairmen of school management councils refused to be elected to serve on the National Council for Education and Training. They argued that the DET nominated a higher number of representatives than those who were elected (Bot 1992:59).In 1989 the chairmen of 17 school management councils in Soweto decided to abandon the management council system

because the DET and councils were talking past each other. This was demonstrated by the DET continuing to determine who should be admitted to schools, and its failure to establish any meaningful lines of communication with pupils and the teaching fraternity (The Star 1989).

During the 1990 strike by DET teachers in Soweto and Alexandra, a demand was made for the replacement of school management councils by parent-teacher-student associations (PTSAs) and for black involvement in planning. The then Minister of Education, Dr Stoffel van der Merwe, responded that he was willing to review existing regulations and introduce a new structure if consensus could be reached. He invited bodies to submit their ideas for a structure for community cooperation in education, but reserved his stand on pupil involvement (he saw SRCs as advisory bodies only which could not participate in decision-making)(Bot 1992:60).

While the problems could, in principle have been addressed, and DET had indicated its willingness to reconsider participatory structures, the possible success of any changes was constrained by many blacks' rejection of the whole system of segregation, as a consequence of which participation in government structures was seen as co-option (Bot 1992:623). According to Mr L. Sebidi, a Soweto educationist, the problem was that parents who became interested and joined school committees immediately had their images tarnished "by having allowed themselves to be part of the system ... (while) those who prefer to use a few foot pole to prod at the school 'from the outside' soon found themselves behind bars" (Sebidi, 1988/89:6).

The National Education Crisis Committee's changing its name to the National Education Co-ordinating Committee (N.E.C.C.), and the organisation's "unbanning" in 1990, did not shift the emphasis in education struggles from the fact of crisis. Although stress was placed on the level of education governance, many activist teachers realised that democratic rhetoric emanating from political platforms would not automatically result in the transformation of authoritarian schools. Some politically conscious teachers, for example, were often autocratic in their own schools. However, as a mass-based organisation consisting of teacher, student (on secondary and tertiary level) and university teacher organisations, the National Education Co-Ordinating Committee could not make a clear distinction between the roles to be played by these different parties. In the process of democratisation, it was thought that all should have an equal "say" in educational matters. The NECC played a major role in terms of planning, leading, doing and evaluating. The major problem was mainly that of ignoring the difference between the roles of teachers, parents and students in the education situation.

4. TOWARDS AN "IDEAL" PROGRAMME FOR PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

In this session I outline a set of desiderata for the planning and implementation of a parental involvement programme, in terms of what is feasible at a public school in South Africa today. I present it as a blue print-cum-declaration of intent.

The majority of South Africans had long been expecting to become involved in all sectors of society and participate in decisions about public matters that affected them. This expectation has presented both crisis and opportunity. Creating an education system that is responsible to the entire spectrum of society demanded that principals should increase parental and or community participation in school affairs. It is evident that the education system of South Africa is in the beginning stages of a transformation process of unprecedented scale and importance. As a consequence it has become increasingly important for school principals to seek new ways of understanding and thinking about schools and communities appropriate to a new democratic society. Such new perspectives will inevitably change the character of schools and, it is hoped increase the effectiveness of the education process. In order to respond effectively to these new demands, principals will need to understand the nature of school-community relations as well as the functions and forms of community participation.

Questions about the link between schools and the interests of the community are of critical concern with regard to those many communities where formal schooling has broken down. It is ironic that while students and teachers, individually and organisationally, almost ritually claim to be acting in the interests of the community, such questions are seldom asked seriously, and almost never answered. There is little evidence of any coherent attempt to articulate, in operational terms, what the community is, what its interests are and how the school might advance those interests. For instance, is it in the interest of the community that formal and informal authority relations, which are essential for the functioning of any school, should be rejected by students? Is it in the interest of the community that schools should be dismissed at any time during the day, depending on one or other majority or leadership decision? Is it in the interests of the community that principals be held hostage in their offices by students if they cannot agree over a certain issue? These are some of the questions that need to be answered in pursuance of our organic link between the school and the community. Schools and their communities must be places of intense debate about the purposes of schooling and its significance for the individual and the community.

There can be little justification for the massive community and even national investment in schooling if the purpose of schooling in the interest of the community is not clearly articulated and diligently pursued. While the framework for this must be established by the Education Department through policy, it is at the level of the community that the debate about the role of a school in the development of that community must logically occur. It is imperative that our schools become places that do not

operate in the interests of one or another sector, but are organically tied to the life of the community. This is one of the significant challenges of transformation.

4.1 Structure

The present Schools Act makes provision for the establishment of School Governing Bodies (SGB) but has failed wholly to provide adequate training and guidance for their implementation. There is no shortage of people who see the need for parent-teacher interaction, but the question remains, how is this to be done effectively? The initial step is surely to identify the needs of parents, teachers, pupils, and the department. This exercise could be run by three teachers, three parents and three students who will work with the community and the department to establish such needs. The launch of the new P.T.S.A. could be a grand occasion, well publicised with a strong social element. The purpose would be to draw in as many parents as possible. This might provide an ideal opportunity for brainstorming on the needs of all, which would offer a starting point for the established committee.

Once the exercise has been accomplished, the needs inventory will be presented to the P.T.S.A. for analysis and acceptance. This is an opportunity where pledges by teachers, students and parents can be made. I have seen how ministers of religion have been successful in this regard and it might be a good idea to enlist the help of a minister to ensure the success of this venture.

The parent-teacher-student association committee, or School Governing Body might consist of the principal, a school counsellor, three teachers, ten parents and five students.

I need to mention the fact that the inclusion of students in professional collaborative involvement in schools is something new in South African Black education. It has in the past been rejected not only by the Department but also by some principals and certain parents. But since the implementation of the new Education Act of 1996, student participation in school governance has become both legal and recommended.

The inclusion of students in S.G.B.s is vital if parent-teacher contact is to be successful. Our students have played a very important role on the political scene in South Africa since 1976, especially through their participation in community organisations. They have not only chaired meetings but have been involved in the taking of sensitive decisions. Any parent-teacher programme will therefore have to include students. Issues in which students may or may not participate are debatable, for instance, a disciplinary case involving a teacher. In fact provision is made in the Act for the exclusion of student S.G.B. representatives from certain sensitive proceedings.

4.2 Training

Parents and teachers often have negative attitudes towards each other. Clearly, such negative attitudes will have to be eliminated in order to achieve positive and effective parent-teacher contact. Several educationists, for instance Gorton (1977), Kritzinger (1985),Kruger (1985), have attributed negative attitudes on the part of parents to the school's taking most of the initiative in educational matters, to parents' ignorance of educational matters, parents' memories of failure at school, and parents being hesitant to make critical comment lest they be regarded as troublesome, with unpleasant consequences for their children. Potsma (1987) cites the following factors as causing negative attitudes in teachers: the fear that parents as primary educators may take full control of education at school level, the perception of parents as intruders in the educational terrain, an engrained superiority complex, etc. In short, as Dekker (1986) and Van Schalkwyk (1983) see it, the most important reasons for negative attitudes between parents and teachers are ignorance and being uninformed about purposeful parent-teacher contact. This problem could be eliminated by well planned enrichment programmes for both parents and teachers. I need to add that students will also have to undergo an intensive orientation programme.

The initial thrust would aim at explaining to parents the expectations of the school, perhaps beginning with a focus on problems encountered in the past five years. These will include student latecoming, truancy, students demanding to hold meetings during school hours, the importance of school fees and the general neatness of students. The second aspect of training will involve general school procedure, how the school is run, as well as how it is controlled by the Department. The third phase of training will entail broadening common problems teachers and parents share about students as adolescents.

These will include such topics as the importance of the peer group, child rearing, how to communicate with teenagers, resolving conflict, handling stress and developing positive familial relationships, to mention a few. Experts, preferably from the community, will be asked to deliver papers on some of these topics and even conduct workshops with parents and students.

Most, if not all, of our teachers have not been trained in handling parent-teacher situations, and this has been exacerbated by the negative attitudes teachers have towards parents. Aspects that need to be stressed with teachers include: the need to accept students and their parents no matter what their social-economic back round, the need to involve parents where appropriate in dealing with problems at school, the desirability of visiting parents at home to discuss their children's progress.

The initial direction in the training of students will target those aspects that usually result in tension between teachers and students during student boycotts. These include: conducting meetings, reporting correct information to the student body,

communicating freely with fellow students and teachers and the importance of school fees. Students will also have to be trained in general school procedures and have explained to them how the school is controlled by the Department. A teacher could be appointed to co-ordinate all student-relaited affairs.

4.3 Communication

4.3.1 Basic Communication

The modes of communication will have to be decided at the first Parents meeting. It is of great importance that the school communicates with parents at all levels of parent-teacher contact. An open-phone, open-door policy will be followed, and parents will be informed in writing on all developments that involve their children, in the form of school reports, and other communications. A programme of forthcoming school activities will be sent with the pupil's reports quarterly, indicating sporting activities and other important functions scheduled for the quarter. Furthermore, parents will be encouraged to visit the school if they have a problem or wish to make a positive contribution, without having to wait for a parent's meeting. Parents' meetings will be scheduled at the beginning of each quarter. An annual financial report will be sent to parents at the end of each year. The principal has a vital role to play in this regard.

4.3.2 Parent Participation

The school will enlist the help of parents with functions the school finds difficult to perform. These might include parental expertise in coaching such sports as squash and boxing. Furthermore, parents can help with building and maintenance expertise, fund raising and presentations on career opportunities. The school will be involved in at least one community project next year - environmental education. Our aim would be to stop the littering that is so prevalent in the community as well as to develop an environmental ethic among our students and community. I propose to engage the school in a recycling programme which will involve students, parents and teachers. We shall start off with the recycling of bottles and plastics. Both the school and the community should benefit from the money collected.

4.3.3 Parent Involvement

Parents, as educative partners, should help reinforce the curriculum outside of the school in order to enhance and promote the cognitive development of the child. This may not be easy, given the educational background of most of the parents of students we teach. But even parents without much formal schooling can play a useful role.

They can enrich the curriculum of their children by providing old newspapers,

magazines, and most important, a special place to study during the day and at night. The important principle here is not just for the student to do his or her homework, but also to instill a culture of learning. With the help of the parent this could be developed over time.

Parents will be encouraged to be aware of their children's lives at school by discussing school events, helping them meet deadlines, and talking with them about school problems and successes. At least all parents, no matter how uneducated, are able to distinguish a ✓tick from a × (cross). The conversation can start from there. The mere fact that the parent shows interest, ought to provide sufficient motivation to make the child learn harder than would otherwise be the case.

Co-operative efforts by parents and teachers to modify alterable educative conditions in the home have strong beneficial effects on learning (Wallace, 1991: 131-145). In a review and synthesis of 29 controlled studies between 1963 and 1980, 91% of the comparisons favoured children in the home-supported experimental group in terms of maths, reading and language achievement (Wallace, 1991).

4.3.4 Parent collaboration

Legally parental involvement is instituted through the Schools Act, (S.A. 1996). Parents have to be involved in all decisions that the school takes through the executive of its School Governing Body. Decisions arrived at will be forwarded to parents in writing and queries can be raised at the next P.T.S.A. meeting. Decisions might involve finance, the conduct of students and teachers, the curriculum, buildings, sports policies, etc.

4.4 Outreach Programmes

This interesting curricular community service programme has been operating for some time in a few schools in the Eastern Cape. Underlying the programme is a commitment to integrate school-based learning with realities in the wider community, to enable pupils to undertake practical service in their community and to provide for personal growth and the development of human relations, organisational and leadership skills in young people. Such community service efforts allow students to experience themselves as part of the larger network of people who are helping to create a better world.

The outreach programme planning team should include representatives of the pupils, parents and staff. They should formulate objectives and invite participants to commit themselves to goals such as:

- integrate their learning in school with what goes on in the community;
- develop perseverance, commitment, co-operation and self-confidence;
- enjoy themselves and find a sense of fulfilment through this encounter and experience, etc.

However, most important is the management of these programmes. Each programme could be supervised by a small steering committee, under the chairmanship of a co-ordinator. Initiating each year's programme might involve (for example):

- a series of briefing sessions;
- preparation of a proposal concerning the intended service project, done in consultation with the service organisation;
- arrangements with teachers regarding tasks to be completed.

Possible difficulties should be expected and anticipated at the planning stage. These might include:

- pupils' fears in dealing with people previously unknown to them;
- failure to grasp the educational nature of the exercise;
- ability to persevere and maintain motivation in the face of difficult circumstances.

In schools where outreach programmes have been successfully implemented, pupils have experienced significant fulfilment, a heightened awareness of community needs and personal growth. In some cases the voluntary service has continued after completion of the programme.

4.5 Parents' Day

This is an important day where parents are invited not only to be told about the progress of their children, but to have the opportunity to see for themselves by looking through their children's books. The parent is free to take along his child so that whatever comments are made, good or bad, are made in front of the child. The class teacher gives parents time to go through each and every book before making comments. Comments like 'try harder'; 'you are not serious', etc. are often found in children's books, but they may need clarification to make sense to parents.
The New Horizon School in Butterworth organises Parents' Day 3 or 4 times in a year. I asked a colleague whose children are at school there, how she feels about this day, and she replied:

> "it is a wonderful experience to notice that the class teacher knows your child the way you know him ... it's because of these visits that parent-teacher rela-

tionships grow. Educating a child is not a one man's business. The parent and the teacher must join hands to mould a perfect man. Any parent who sits back and gives the duty of educating the child to the teacher is heading for a disaster".

I think all parents, even in public schools who have never been exposed to such contact, would love to have this experience.

5. CONCLUSION

Parental involvement is a very complex issue, given the different perspectives held by experts on this subject and the sheer range of activities it comprises. But what is indisputable is that it is a valuable way of opening up schools to the wider community.

Community involvement should be viewed as a democratic process that attempts to integrate the school into the society it serves, thus providing an opportunity for parents, teachers and students to gain experience and motivation for further involvement in community and political affairs. It provides a forum in which diverse claims upon the school may be made, deliberated and acted upon. Research findings indicate that when individuals are denied access to government processes that affect their lives, they tend to become more inwardly focused and alienated. Furthermore, participation contributes to social cohesion in that it promotes democratic values, recognition of the legitimacy of other interests, and the need for reconciling those interests in a public forum (Rose, 1962). Thus, participation encourages individuals to become less polarised and more open to compromise.

Parents are a key support group of the school. Principals should consider them as partners, strive to ensure that there is a flow of information to and from them, and provide opportunities for them to be substantially involved in school affairs. Parents need to feel recognised and accepted as members of the school community. They need to be fully consulted and their opinions listened to in matters affecting the school and the lives of their children. The principal is the key to initiating closer contacts with parents and must examine ways in which his or her school can accomplish this. Shared information and the views of all members of the school-community can be an effective instrument acting like an electric fuse in being able to diffuse potential eruptions that might be due to misunderstanding. Often school-community relations are spoilt through misunderstanding which is allowed to explode because of inadequacy of channels of communication to difuse it.

The fundamental changes in the structure and governance of the South African education system allow parents far more substantive participation in decisions through

the School Governing Bodies. However, if this is not clearly understood and responsibly used it might lead to erosion of public support and thus impair the ability of schools to serve the needs of South African children. Channelling parent and community participation in productive directions has proved successful in challenging the status quo, and it was an essential democratic process.

Principals who embrace the concept of increased parental and community participation must take into account the political culture and traditions of the community as well as the characteristics of the school. They must be sensitive to local needs, constraints and opportunities, and recognise that citizen participation may take different forms in different communities. But whatever form participation takes, it should be directed towards building common interests and support for education. Principals, teachers and parents need collectively to discover their special responsibilities. These range from constructing and defending a climate of safety and tolerance in schools, as a basic condition for the maintenance of the orderliness which is needed for systematic learning to be possible, to more tenuous matters, such as discovering how best to enable access to knowledge in the situations in which learning takes place. In essence the School Governing Bodies have been established to interpret the needs and wishes of the parents and the local community in the field of education, and to mediate between them and the needs and wishes of the school. In order to succeed, they will need support and encouragement from communities; without these, the education crisis will be with us for much longer than it needs to be.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, J. (1969). The Harambee school : The impact of self-help. In R. Jolly (Ed). **Education in Africa : Research and action**. Nairobi: East African Publishing House.

Advise, B. (1981). **Communities and their schools.** New York : McGraw Hill.

Atkin, J., Bastiani, J. and Goode, J. (1988). **Listening to parents : An approach to the improvement of home-school relations.** London : Croom Helm.

Badenhorst, J. Scheepers, L. (1995). **School management training.** Pretoria : Kagiso.

Behr, A.L. (1988). **Education in South Africa. Origins, issues and trends : 1652 - 1988.** Cape Town : Academica.

Berger, B. and Berger, P. (1984). **The war over the family: Capturing the middle ground.** Harmondsworth : Penguin.

Bot, M. (1992). **The blackboard debate**: hundles, options and opportunities in school intergration. Johannesburg. Johannesburg: South Africa Institute of Race Relations

Bot, M. (1990). **The classroom crises**: black demands and white responses. Durban: Centre for applied social sciences - University of Natal.

Bourdieu, P. (1977). **Reproduction in education, society and culture**. London: Sage.

Campbell, R, F. Corbally, J.E. and Ramseyer. (1966). **Introduction to educational administration**. Boston : Allyn & Bacon.

Mirian, D.E. (1993). **Parents, gender & education reform**. Cambridge : Blackwell.

Everard, K.B.and Morris, G. (1990). **Effective school management** (2nd ed). London: Harper & Row.

Epstein, J. (1990). School and family connections : theory, research and implications for integrating sociologies of education and family. **Marriage and family review**. 15, 99-126.

Grant, C. (1979). **Community participation in education**. Boston : Allyn and Bacon.

Gorton, A. (1976). **School administration and supervision : Leadership challenges and opportunities** (2nd ed). Dubuque : Brown.

Henderson, A. (1988). Parents are a schools' best friend. **Phi Delta Kappan.** 5(1)131 - 153

Henderson, A. (1982). Parent involvement : Does it improve student achievement? **Citizen Action in Education.** 2(4) 51-97

Johnson, D. and Ransom, E. (1983). **Family and school.** London: Croom Helm.

Jowett, S. and Baginsky, M. (1988). Parents and education: A survey of their involvement and a discussion of some issues. **Education Research**, 30(1) , 36-45.

Lareau, A. (1987). **Social class differences in family - school relationships : The importance of cultural capital.** Sociology of education. London : The Falmer Press.

Levin, M. (1987). Parent - teacher collaboration. In D.W. Livingstone (Ed), **Critical pedagogy and cultural power.** Basingstoke : Macmillan.

Lightfoot, S.L. (1978). **Worlds apart : Relationships between families and schools**. New York: Basic Books.

Malherbe, E. (1977). **Education in South Africa**. (Vol. 2). Cape Town : Juta & Co.

Pallis, J. (1979). **School governors : Partnership in practice**. London : Advisory Centre for Education.

South Africa (1996). **Schools act**. Pretoria: Government Printer