COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS IN THE PIETERMARITZBURG AREA

by

MARTIN ANTHONY NKOSINATHI DUMA

submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

in the subject of

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR G M STEYN

MARCH 1995

DECLARATION

I declare that COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS IN THE PIETERMARITZBURG AREA is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

M A N DUMA

1995-03-07

DATE



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Success in the completion of this project was made possible by various individuals, to all of whom I am indebted and grateful.

My Supervisor, Dr G M Steyn who patiently led me through this study, especially when the going was tough and the road ahead seemed too long. For her fortitude may God grant her more strength and wisdom.

Professor G D Kamper of the Institute for Educational Research who initiated me into empirical investigation. His encouragement when language and data analysis difficulties seemed to loom large, I shall always treasure.

Mrs Leona Labuschagne, for editing this script. Mrs L Dall of the University of Natal for her meticulous typing. Ms N Thirion and other members of the University of South Africa Library staff for making available the literature consulted, even through the inter-library loan facilities.

The former Department of Education and Training (DET) for granting me permission to conduct research in its schools.

The Bulwer Circuit Inspector, Mr J Petzer and the Pietermaritzburg Area Manager, Mr L Bhengu, for allowing me to use their schools as the sample populations.

Farm school principals and parents for the circulation of the questionnaires and supportive responses.

My friends and colleagues at Isizinda Public School for their keen interest in this project.

My wife, Linda and our children, Pumla, Ayanda, Nolwandle and Nhlakanipho as well as my sisters, Beatrice, Margaret and Rose and my brother, Stanslaus, and their sons and daughters, for their love and appreciation of all my educational endeavours.

Lastly, my sincerest gratitude is extended to God, the Almighty, for His unfailing love, support and safekeeping.

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my late parents, Boniface Maqebelengwana and Michaelina MaShozi Duma

SUMMARY.

This study is based on a need for community involvement in farm schools to enhance effective teaching and efficient learning. The rationale behind it was to determine the current state of community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area, with a view to determining the extent to which the current community involvement, namely, the active participation of parents, teachers, the farmer, the church, the state and the private sector could be extended on a large scale.

The study revealed that the community involvement dimension of schooling is central to the teaching profession. If neglected, no effective teaching and efficient learning can materialise. The role of the farm school principal in the realisation of this goal is indispensable. The empirical survey and literature revealed that farm school principals can address the serious shortcoming concerning the participation of community members in the affairs of farm schools.

KEY TERMS

Community involvement in schools; Parental involvement in schools; Managing parent involvement; Church involvement in schools; State involvement in schools; Farmers' involvement in schools; Farm schools; Community education in Kenya; Education in Botswana; Farm school principals.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

1 OR	RIENTATIO	N TO THE P	ROBLEM .			-		•		٠	-	-	• .	• •	•			1
1.1	INTRODU	CTION				•		•		•	•	•			•		•	1
1.2	STATEME	NT OF THE	PROBLEM					•		-		-	. ,			•	•	3
1.3	DELIMIT	ATION OF T	HE FIELD	OF ST	YQU	•							• •					4
1.4	THE PURI	POSE OF TH	IS STUDY					-				-					•	6
1.5	MÉTHOD (OF INVESTI	GATION .					•										7
	1.5.1	Literatur	e study												-	-		7
	1.5.2	Research	by means	of qu	esti	onn	air	es	• •	•	•	•	-	• •	•	•	•	7
1.6	EXPLANA ⁻	TION OF CO	NCEPTS .									•						8
	1.6.1	Community			٠			-				• ,					-	8
	1.6.2	Community	involve	ment .				-			-				-			8
,	1.6.3	Departmen	t of Edu	cation	and	Tr	ain	ing	(D	ET)					-	-	-	8
	1.6.4	Farm scho	ols .							-	-		•			-		9
	1.6.5	The Piete	rmaritzb	urg ar	ea.			•		-	•	•	•		•	•	•	9
1.7	CHAPTER	DIVISION	• • •						• •			•	-	- , -	•	•	•	10
CHAPT	ER 2																	
2 TF	HE HISTOR	ICO-THEORE	TICAL SU	RVEY O	F CO	MMU	NIT'	ΥI	NVO	LVE	ME	NT	II	N				
so	CHOOLS .					•		•		•	•		•		•	-	-	,11
2 1	INTRODU	CTION																11

2.2	THE ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF EACH SOCIAL STRUCTURE WITH AN INTEREST
	IN EDUCATION
	2.2.1 The state
	2.2.1.1 The state as a social structure
	2.2.1.2 The origin of the state's involvement in education . 1
	2.2.1.3 The role of the state
	(a) The state as child-rearer
	(b) The juridical role of the state
	(i) Determining the legal relationship in education 10
	(ii) Introducing legislation governing education 10
	(iii) Furnishing education with an administration 1
	(iv) Financing education 1
	(c) Non-juridical role of the state
	(i) Providing financial aid to parents 1
	(ii) Instituting compulsory education
	(iii) Providing equal educational opportunities
	(iv) Promotion of cultural interests
	2.2.1.4 Conclusion
	2.2.2 The parents
	2.2.2.1 The parents as a social structure with an interest in
	education
	2.2.2.2 The origin of parental involvement in education 20
	2.2.2.3 Types of parental involvement in education 2
	(a) Parental involvement in the classroom
	(b) Parental involvement in homework 23
	(c) Parental involvement in curriculum development 23
	2.2.2.4 Structures through which parents are involved 2
	(a) Introduction
	(b) Parental involvement in statutory and non-statutory
	bodies
	(c) Levels of parental involvement 2
	(i) Local level
	(ii) Regional level
	(iii) National level

	2.2.2.5 Factors which militate against parental involvement	
	in education	2
	(a) Introduction	27
	(b) Social barriers	28
	(c) Attitude of parents	28
	(d) Attitude of teachers	29
	(e) Poor parent-child relationships	29
	(f) Poor communication between school and home	30
	(g) Conclusion	30
	2.2.2.6 Conclusion	30
2.2.3	The church	30
	2.2.3.1 Introduction	30
	2.2.3.2 The church as a social structure with an interest	
	in education	31
	2.2.3.3 The origin of church involvement in education	31
	(a) Catechumenal schools	32
	(b) Monastery schools	32
	(c) Charlemagne (742-814 AD)	32
	(d) The Middle Ages	33
	(e) Reformation and Counter-Reformation	33
	(f) From the renaissance to the twentieth century	34
	2.2.3.4 The role of the church in education	35
	(a) Church involvement in the structures that are	
	interrelated with the school	35
	(b) Financing education	35
	(c) Administration and control	36
	(d) The influence of the church on moral education	36
	2.2.3.5 Conclusion	37
2.2.4	The teachers	37
	2.2.4.1 Introduction	37
	2.2.4.2 The origin of the teachers' involvement in	
	education	38
	(a) Ancient world	38
	(b) Medieval period	39

(viii)

	(c) From the renarssance to the twentreth tentury 33
	2.2.4.3 Teachers as a social structure with an interest in
	education
	(a) The teacher and the Department of Education 39
	(i) The Department of Education as an employer 39
	(ii) The legal status of the teacher 40
	(b) The teacher and the pupil 41
	(i) Pupil-teacher relationship
	(ii) Teachers and the students'representative
	council
	(iii) Teachers as classroom managers
	(iv) Teachers as a after-care providers 43
	2.2.4.4 Structures through which teachers are involved 43
	(a) Organised professional teachers' bodies 43
	(i) Teachers Federal Council
	(ii) Other Teachers' Associations
	2.2.4.5 Conclusion
	2.2.5 The private sector
	2.2.5.1 Introduction
	2.2.5.2 The origin of private sector involvement in formal
	education
	2.2.5.3 The private sector as a social structure with an
	interest in education 47
	(a) The private sector and the financing of education \dots 47
	(b) The private sector and the curriculum 48
	(c) The private sector and its manpower involvement in
	education
	2.2.5.4 Conclusion
2.3	COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION IN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES 50
	2.3.1 Introduction
	2.3.2 Kenya
	2.3.2.1 Introduction
	2.3.2.2 State involvement in education in Kenya 5

(a) Kenya before independence	51
(b) State control and management of education	52
(c) Financing education	54
2.3.2.3 Parental involvement in education in Kenya	55
(a) Management and administration of harambee schools	56
(b) Financing education	56
2.3.2.4 Church involvement in education	57
2.3.2.5 Teachers' involvement in education	58
(a) Pedagogical problems encountered by teachers in Kenya	58
(b) The relationship between teachers and pupils	59
(c) Teachers' financial assistance in education	59
2.3.2.6 <i>Conclusion</i>	60
2.3.3 Community involvement in schools in Botswana	60
2.3.3.1 <i>Introduction</i>	60
2.3.3.2 The origin of formal education in Botswana	61
(a) State-controlled education	61
(b) Parent-controlled education	61
(c) Church-controlled education	62
(d) Cattle Post Schools	62
2.3.3.3 Social structures with an interest in education in	•
Botswana	63
(a) The State	63
(i) School administration and management	63
(ii) Educational reforms by the state	64
(b) Private sector and parents	65
(i) Local control of education	65
(ii) Community schools	65
(iii) The Serowe Brigade schools	65
2.3.3.4 Conclusion	66
2.3.3.4 CONCIUSION	00
2.4 CONCLUSION	67

CHAPTER 3

3 TH	EXPLORATION OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS	68
3.1	INTRODUCTION	68
3.2	AN HISTORICAL REVIEW AND EXPLORATORY ASPECTS OF FARM SCHOOLS	68
	3.2.1 An historical review of farm schools ,	68
	3.2.2 What is farm schooling?	71
	3.2.3 Determining factors of community involvement in farm	
	schools	72
	3.2.3.1 Ground motives as determining factors	73
	3.2.3.2 The nature and origin of ground motives	73
•	3.2.3.3 Cultural factors	74
	(a) Cultural-historical factors	74
	(b) Economic factors	74
	(c) Social factors	75
	(d) Juridical factors	75
,	(e) Language factors	76
	3.2.3.4 Natural factors	78
	Demographic factors	78
	3.2.3.5 National character of a community	79
3.3	SOCIAL STRUCTURES WITH AN INTEREST IN EDUCATION AS DETERMINING FACTOR	RS
		80
	3.3.1 State involvement in farm schools	80
		82
	3.3.3 Farmers' involvement in farm schools	83
		85
	3.3.5 The involvement of private business enterprise in farm	
	schools	86
		87
		87
	3.3.6.2 Farm school teachers - farmer interactions	88

3.4	FACTORS INHIBITING EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND EFFICIENT LEARNING IN FA	\RM
	SCHOOLS	89
	3.4.1 Lack of the proper educational environment	89
	3.4.1.1 Physical facilities	89
	3.4.1.2 Lack of a school transport system	90
	3.4.1.3 The problem of insufficient schooling time	90
	3.4.1.4 The negative attitudes of certain farmers	91
	3.4.2. High drop-out rate	91
	3.4.2.1 School fees	92
	3.4.2.2 Low household economy	92
	3.4.2.3 Lack of harmony between the school and the family -	
	both cultural resources	92
	3.4.2.4 Unavailability of secondary education	92
3.5	CONCLUSION	93
CHAPT	ER 4	
4 EM	PIRICAL INVESTIGATION INTO COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS IN	
ТН	E PIETERMARITZBURG AREA	94
4.1	INTRODUCTION	94
4.2	AIM OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION	94
4.3	DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION	94
4.4	HOW THE RESEARCH WAS CONDUCTED	96
	4.4.1 Development of the questionnaires	96
	4.4.2 Administration of the questionnaires	97
	4.4.2.1 <i>Pilot study</i>	97
	4.4.2.2 Final administration of the questionnaires	97
4.5	ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA	99

4.5.1	Introduc	ction
4.5.2	Data cor	ncerning parents
	4.5.2.1	Attitudes of the parents towards the school 100
	4.5.2.2	Parent-teacher interaction 101
	4.5.2.3	Informal involvement of parents in schools 103
	4.5.2.4	Formal involvement of parents in the school 105
	4.5.2.5	Recommendations on improving teaching and
		<i>learning</i>
4.5.3	Data cor	ncerning principals
	4.5.3.1	Types of schools in the former DET Bulwer circuit that
		responded to the questionnaires 109
	4.5.3.2	Parental involvement in the farm schools 110
	4.5.3.3	Attitude of parents towards the school 112
	4.5.3.4	Parents' financial contribution towards the
		school
	4.5.3.5	Parent-teacher liaison
	4.5.3.6	Level of the current parental involvement in
		schools
	4.5.3.7	Suggestions on enhancing parental involvement in
		schools
	4.5.3.8	The farm school managers' involvement in schools . 119
	4.5.3.9	Suggestions on improving the farm school managers'
		involvement in schools
	4.5.3.10	Private sector involvement in farm schools 122
CONCL	ISTON	
OONOL	301011	
ER 5		
MMARY,	CONCLUSIO	ONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
INTRO	DUCTION .	
SUMMAI	RY OF THE	STUDY
CONCL	USIONS	
	4.5.2 4.5.3 CONCLUER 5 MMARY, INTROD	4.5.2 Data cor 4.5.2.1 4.5.2.2 4.5.2.3 4.5.2.4 4.5.2.5 4.5.3.1 4.5.3.2 4.5.3.3 4.5.3.4 4.5.3.5 4.5.3.6 4.5.3.7 4.5.3.8 4.5.3.9 4.5.3.9 4.5.3.10 CONCLUSION

(xiii)

	5.3.1	State involvement in farm schools
	5.3.2	The parents' involvement in farm schools
	5.3.3	The farmers' involvement in farm schools
	5.3.4	The involvement of the church in farm schools 13
	5.3.5	The involvement of the private sector in farm schools 13
	5.3.6	The teachers' involvement in farm schools
5.4	RECOM	MENDATIONS
	5.4.1	The state
		5.4.1.1 What ought to be done by the state?
		5.4.1.2 Aspects to be considered by the state with regard
		to farm schools
		(a) Quality education
		(b) Manpower requirements
		(c) The agricultural aspect
		(d) Technical education
	5.4.2	Parents
		5.4.2.1 Parental involvement in farm schools
		5.4.2.2 Parent-teacher liaison
		(a) Parent-teacher partnership
		(b) Liaison on the individual level
		(c) Liaison on the class level
		(d) Liaison on the school level
		(e) Liaison at representative level 144
		(f) Conclusion
		5.4.2.3 Promoting effective teaching and efficient
		learning
		(a) Physical facilities
		(b) Curriculum
		(c) Parent-teacher interaction
		(d) Improving the didactic situation
		(e) Private sector involvement
	5.4.3	The farmer
	5.4.4	Teachers

	,		
	(xiv)		
5.4.5			149
5.4.6	- 1		150
			150
5.4.1	The role of principals in parental involvement 5.4.7.1 <i>Introduction</i>		150
		:	150
		-	151
	involvement in their schools?		151
	5.4.7.3 Approaches to parental involvement that	_	450
	undertaken by farm school principals.		152
	(a) Parents as policy makers		152
	(b) Parents as volunteers		153
	(c) Parents as facilitators of children's devel	•	153
	5.4.7.4 To what extent may farm school principa	· •	_
	parental involvement?		154
	(a) Farm school principals should manage parent		
	community involvement		154
	(b) Farm school principals should remove barrie	rs to	
	parental involvement		156
	(i) Distance between teachers and parents		156
	(ii) Lack of teacher-training		
	(iii) Class barriers		156
	(iv) Limited view of parental involvement		157
	(v) The perception of the school		157
	(c) Farm school principals should facilitate pare	ent-teacher	
	interaction		158
	(d) Farm school principals should solicit the s	upport of	
	the employers of the parents to facilitate	parental	
	involvement		158
	(e) Farm school principals should facilitate com	munication	
	structures		159
	(f) Farm school principals should establish the	system of	
	a Panel of Identification, Diagnosis and As	sistance	
	(PIDA) in their schools		160
	5.4.7.5 Conclusion		160
CONCL	USION		161

5.5

5.6	RECOMME	ND	AT:	101	IS	FOF	₹	FUR	THE	R	ST	TUD	Υ	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	162
BIBLI	OGRAPHY	•					•													•	•			•	•					163

(xvi) LIST OF TABLES

Table	s Description	Pages
4.1	Willingness to become a member of the school committee	103
4.2	Relationship between parents and teachers	104
4.3	Relationship between class teachers and parents	105
4.4	Attitude of parents towards their informal involvement in schools	106
4.5	Promotion of extra-curricular activities	107
4.6	Formal involvement of parents in the school work	108
4.7	Parents' recommendations on improving teaching and learning in	
	schools, analysed according to the frequency rate	110
4.8	Types of schools	113
4.9	Parental contribution to the school	114
4.10	Management and control of schools	114
4.11	Parental involvement in the management and control of the school	114
4.12	Parents' attitude toward parental involvement in schools	116
4.13	Payment of teachers' salaries	117
4.14	Parents' commitment with regard to school expenses	117
4.15	Parents' meetings	118
4.16	Parent-teacher interaction	119
4.17	Present involvement of parents in schools	120
4.18	Suggestions on how parental involvement can be implemented in	
	schools, categorised according to grade of importance	122
4.19	The farm school managers' concern regarding Black education on	
	their farms	123
4.20	Suggestions on how farm school managers can enhance effective	
	teaching and efficient learning, categorised according to grade	
	of importance	126
4.21	Assistance from private sources	127

(xvii)

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	e Description	Pa	ages
2.1	Parental involvement in the education system		25
2.2	Control of education in Kenya		53
3.1	Primary farm school drop-out rates for 1984/1988		91
4.1	Organogram representing the target population in the		
	Pietermaritzburg area		95
5.1	Organisation of participants on different levels on the farm		
	school		140

(xvii) ABBREVIATIONS

ANC : African National Congress

BC : Before Christ

cf : refer to

DET : Department of Education and Training

DNE : Department of National Education

ERS : Education Renewal Strategy

ESKOM : Electricity Supply Commission

NECC : National Education Coordinating Committee

No : Number

NPA : Natal Provincial Administration

PIDA : Panel for Identification, Diagnosis and Assistance

PTA : Parent-Teacher Association

SEP : Science Education Project

SRC : Student Representative Council

CHAPTER 1

1 ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Experience in a private high school whose main feeder schools were farm schools of the former Department of Education and Training (DET), showed remarkable differences in social coordination (with regard to school situation, academic self-reliance and socio-pedagogic willingness) between standard 6 pupils coming from the nearby former DET farm schools and those from semi-urban areas or from former KwaZulu schools. Pupils who attended farm schools lacked school operating factors such as willingness to learn and academic self-reliance, which lead to effective education; most of them left school before completing standard 6. This was borne out at the 1991 Conference on the Rural Child's Access to Education in South Africa by researcher Adele Gordon, who pointed out that up until 1980 the Department of Education and Training had subsidised only two classrooms and two teachers per farm schools, and schools had not been encouraged to go beyond standard 2 (Gaganakis & Crewe 1987:69).

in Constant absenteeism, regular late-coming, limited participation and extra-curricular school activities and poor academic performance prevailed among pupils from farm schools, indicating a lack of collective interaction in education among parents, teachers, the private The non-participation of most farm schools in sector and the church. regionally organised cultural events was the result of inter alia, a lack of finance for transport, the random cancellation of trips organised for pupils, and the sudden closure of farm schools by managers, for some of whom educating the workers' children was often a nuisance which interfered with showing a profit (Nasson 1988:14).

Even now, it is only because of liberal farmers that farm schools survive. The author has realised that educating farm school children involves problems in which few people are interested. When the farmers close down schools, community members hardly show concern, for the fate of closed schools or for the fact that their children's education is suddenly interrupted. Parents become disillusioned, and the children's future is jeopardised by the fact that they go to work on the farms instead of attending school.

The actuality of this study is to determine the extent to which the community is currently involved in farm schools and how this involvement can be expanded for the sake of effective teaching and efficient learning, with particular reference to farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area. "Community involvement" refers to the role played by the state, the church, parents, teachers and the private sector in formal education, to bring about effective teaching and efficient learning, since these are the social structures with an interest in education; they are interwoven in the sense that each social structure has a role to play in education. Their interest arises from the fact that they all have a common goal: educating children towards responsible adulthood (Van Schalkwyk 1988:167). This study examines how these structures function in cohesion as a combination of social units to make teaching and efficient learning in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area effective. This study will therefore concentrate, among other things, on parental and state involvement in schools, the role played by the private sector to promote effective teaching and efficient learning, the contribution of the church in solidifying education in farm schools and lastly, the task of teachers in promoting effective teaching and efficient learning.

For effective teaching and efficient learning to take place, there should be proper community involvement and greater parental participation in the educational process. The importance of community involvement in schools is highlighted by Van Schalkwyk (1988:83) when he states that besides the parents and teachers, there are many other sectors of the community which bear responsibility for education. According to Cohen and Manion (1981:114) community involvement in education is extremely important, as education is embedded in the community, which is a social reality. Thus, education takes place among the people and its aim is to assist the child in growing to adulthood within an interrelated human community; the collective involvement of parents, teachers, the church, and the private sector in the school situation is therefore indispensable.

The emphasis of this study is on the farm school system, so as to assess whether this education system, like all other education systems in the country, places the emphasis on the representativeness of a cohesion or on the

interwovenness of different social structures, with parents featuring greatly in that interconnectedness.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A cross-section of the field of comparative education reveals that very little research has been conducted on farm schools, especially with regard to the participation of the community structures with an interest in education. The relative unavailability of literature on community involvement in farm schools is itself an indication that research has to be done, in order to provide more insight and improved approaches to this issue.

Christie and Gaganakis (1989:84) state that the farmer and the state are the only partners in the provision of education in farm schools. This partnership enshrines the position of the farmer as benefactor and illustrates the quasifeudal form of the relationship between the farmer and the labourers in the area where the education is provided (Nasson 1988:13). The parents and other community structures are excluded from any control over the running or management of the school. Graaff (1988:23) actually states that a farm school is the concern of the state and the farmer, not of the parents.

Teachers, parents and many educationalists have expressed their awareness of, and concern about, the chronic problems with regard to the education of children in farm schools. It goes without saying that from the passing of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 onwards, to all intents and purposes, farm school education remains under the control of the farmer. Gaganakis and Crewe (1987:1) are of the opinion that the state feels that its interests, and those of the farmers, coincide sufficiently for it to support farm school education. This method ensures that the farmers have the sole, effective power to decide on the educational future of the African children on their farms.

It has frequently been observed that other social structures with an interest in education, such as parents and teachers, have no say in the management of the school. The *Weekly Mail* quoted teachers as saying: "We always have to go to the farmer as beggars. When he comes to visit the school, you must become a small boy and say 'baas'" (Baker 1991:19).

Because of the farmer's sole arbitration on education, effective teaching and efficient learning are hindered, the pupils' desire to learn decreases, the teaching attitude seems to deteriorate and limited physical facilities and equipment as well as a shortage of suitable manpower seems to be unavoidable. Educators, parents and other social structures with an interest in education are impatient and are calling for a collective engagement in farm schools and for all the structures with an interest in education to assume responsibility for the education in farm schools.

Given the situation above, the following questions arise:

- (i) What is the current state of community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area?
- (ii) How can effective teaching and efficient learning in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area be brought about by expanding community involvement (namely the recruitment of parents, the state, the teaching corps, the church and the private sector) within the farm school system?

1.3 DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

In the Republic of South Africa, before April 27, 1994, there were seventeen education departments, namely four provincial education departments for White students, under the authority of the Department of Education and Culture – House of Assembly; one for Coloured education, under the authority of the Department of Education and Culture – House of Representatives; one for Indian education, under the authority of the Department of Education and Culture – House of Delegates; ten Departments of Education and Culture for the various Black ethnic communities and the Department of Education and Training.

The previous Department of Education and Training was responsible for the provision of education to Black pupils outside the former self-governing national states, namely Qwaqwa, Lebowa, Gazankulu, KwaZulu, KwaNgwane and KwaNdebele and the former independent states, namely Transkei, Bophuthatswana,

Venda and Ciskei. That same former DET was responsible for the education of African children living in White-designated rural areas.

The Department of Education and Training consisted of a Head Office in Pretoria and eight regional offices. Each region was subdivided into district areas. For example, KwaZulu-Natal had the following areas: Durban, Ermelo, Glencoe, Vryheid, and Pietermaritzburg. Each area consisted of district circuits.

In this study the author chose the former DET Pietermaritzburg area as his field of study because, unlike other former DET areas, the Pietermaritzburg area had different types of schools under its jurisdiction, which were very distinct for their diversity. The Pietermaritzburg area consisted of six district circuits, namely Pietermaritzburg, Bulwer, Mount Currie, Lions River, Umvoti and Edendale. Not all of these had farm schools. Some of them, like Edendale and Pietermaritzburg, had state schools only, which were township schools.

The former DET Bulwer circuit included various wards, such as Highflats, Ixopo, Impendle, Underberg and Himmeville. It was not uncommon to find state-controlled schools, state-aided schools, church-controlled schools, farm schools and public schools. These schools were managed differently, yet they were under one Circuit Inspector. The Bulwer circuit was therefore a microcosm of the Pietermaritzburg area, representative of other circuits, reflecting the farm school system as functioning in the whole of the Pietermaritzburg area. Technically there have recently been many political and educational changes in the Republic of South Africa. At present the education departments function as if there is one department, the running of farm schools has not changed much yet. It is for this reason that this study will concentrate on farm schools in the former DET Bulwer Circuit.

The author has noted that the majority of the schools in the former DET Bulwer circuit are farm schools, in which community involvement should be expanded so that these schools can be on par with others in the area under the same department. Thus, a study in the Pietermaritzburg area, with particular

reference to Bulwer circuit, will eventually cast more light on the problems surrounding the farm schools in the whole country.

1.4 THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The purpose of the study is to:

- pursue theories of community involvement in farm schools and assess their influence on the community involvement throughout the ages. This will be done by surveying the history and the theory of community involvement in the past and present. Reference is made to the past because the discipline of education is intimately concerned with the past, as any educational problem is studied in its manifestation through the ages. This will be done so as to determine what happened during a given time, to identify the role of the social structures with an interest in education, to ascertain if community involvement in schools as a given programme was working then and is still working now
- explore community involvement in farm schools with a view to determining the extent to which the community, namely the parents, teachers, the church, the state and the private sector, achieve their objectives and fulfil their obligations of providing the child with effective teaching
- explore community involvement in schools in the Third World countries so as to find out the common problems encountered and how those problems were solved. The author will relate those solutions to our problems as far as community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area is concerned
- provide guidelines for community involvement in farm schools in Pietermaritzburg area.

1.5 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

1.5.1 Literature study

Since the research in this study also involved description, the literature study was used to gather facts about community involvement in schools in general and in farm schools in particular. This trend was based upon the longitudinal consideration of recorded data indicating what has been happening in the past and what the present situation reveals.

Literature material relevant to this work, for example, literature on educational research and on community involvement in schools, was selected. The process involved the use of journals, bulletins, periodicals, theses, newspaper cuttings and every possible secondary source of information related to this work. This made the process of community involvement in schools more effective and included the recommendation for the same course of action in the farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area.

1.5.2 Research by means of questionnaires

To supplement the information not available from documents, two sets of mail questionnaires were used as data collecting tools. One set had to be completed by parents of farm school pupils (cf Appendix A) and the other by farm school principals (cf Appendix B).

Mail questionnaires were considered suitable for this study, because they were economical and convenient ways in which the researcher could communicate with respondents without much difficulty, since the target population was widely and thinly spread (cf Diagram 4.1). Mouly (1978:189) maintains that the questionnaire is the most widely used technique in normative research, as it permits wide coverage with minimum effort, thus prompting greater validity in results and eliciting more candid and objective replies because of its impersonality. This was also the case in this study (cf Chapter 4).

1.6 EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

1.6.1 Community

Gottschalk (1975:8) defines a community as a human group or a body of humans and goes on to say that a community is a local grouping within which people carry out a full round of life activities. Therefore, a community includes a group of people within a geographic area, who have a division of labour into specialised and interdependent functions, a common culture and a social system which organises their activities; they can also act collectively in an organised manner. Warren in Cox (1980:232) describes the community as the combination of social units and systems which perform major social functions with local relevance. In other words, community means access to those broad areas of activities which are necessary in day to day living. dissertation, "community" refers to societal structures with an interest in education, namely the state, parents, teachers, church and private sector (Nieman 1991:406), and how they function in cohesion as a combination of social units, to make teaching and learning in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area effective and efficient.

1.6.2 Community involvement

In this dissertation, "involvement" means "concern" or "interest" or "undertaking", hence "community involvement" in this study refers to the community's business and undertaking in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area, particularly the extent to which the state, church, parents, teachers and private sector as interlinked social structures cooperate in bringing about effective teaching and efficient learning in these farm schools.

1.6.3 Department of Education and Training (DET)

The Republic of South Africa formerly had various education departments, managerial and administrative tasks, for different cultural and ethnic groups. The Department of Education and Training, was responsible for the provision of education to Black children outside the former homelands. That department was the offspring of the well-known Department of Bantu Education. In the former Natal province all Black schools on White-owned farms were under the managerial and administrative auspices of the former Department of Education and Training: Since 1 January 1995, all education departments in KwaZulu-Natal have been

under one department; yet, as has already been stated, the running of farm schools has not changed much. The former DET structures, circuits and officials are still in place.

1.6.4 Farm schools

As a result of the 1913 and 1936 Land Acts, Blacks occupied land in White rural areas as paid labourers. No land was set aside for facilities such as housing and education and Black schools in those areas known as farm land. Gaganakis and Crewe (1987:3) describe farm schools as schools that cater for Black children residing on White farms. Since these schools are on privately owned land, the initiative for establishing them rests entirely on the owner of the farm. On the other hand, Nasson (1984:1) defines a farm school as a structure for formal school education in White agricultural areas located in the context of the farm and more precisely of the disciplinary social order which farm life produces.

Ngwenya (1988:1) describes farm schools as schools for Black children on Whiteowned farms, jointly controlled by the farmer and the Department of Education. He adds that these schools are meant for the children of farm workers and that the Department of Education pays subsidies for the erection of farm school buildings.

1.6.5 The Pietermaritzburg area

The Pietermaritzburg area was one of the former DET's areas of control in the KwaZulu-Natal region. It came into existence in 1989 when two subregions, namely Pietermaritzburg South and Pietermaritzburg West, merged to form one region under an Area Manager. The Area Manager had various Circuit Managers, known as Circuit Inspectors, under him. This study examines the problem of community involvement in farm schools in this area, with particular reference to the former DET Bulwer circuit, which forms part of the Pietermaritzburg area.

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1 is an orientation to the problem and deals with the general background of farm schools, the statement of the problem, its delimitation and purpose, and the method of study. Key terms are defined.

Chapter 2 surveys the history and theory of community involvement in schools and discusses assumptions about and influences on such involvement. The role and function of each community structure, namely parents, teachers, the state, the private sector and the church, are discussed with reference to the past, so as to reveal current generally valid theories. A descriptive survey of community involvement in schools in Third World countries, particularly Kenya and Botswana, is also included.

Chapter 3 gives an outline of the exploration of community involvement in farm schools.

Chapter 4 outlines the empirical investigation into community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area.

Chapter 5 discusses the summary of the whole study project, conclusions according to the literature study on farm schools as well as empirical research and recommendations as to possible guidelines for community involvement in farm schools.

CHAPTER 2

2 THE HISTORICO-THEORETICAL SURVEY OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOLS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the problem under investigation was introduced and highlighted in terms of its nature and scope. This chapter will provide a broader historico-theoretical framework of community involvement, namely the involvement of the state, parents, teachers, church and private sector in formal education so as to realise educational objectives more effectively, with all the sections of community fully participating.

The education system exists primarily to organise and implement the educative teaching of the child and secondarily to raise and educate the child for specific purposes (Mbongwe 1986:11). Van Schalkwyk (1988:167) defines the education system as an interwoven social structure, interwoven in the sense that private sector, church, parents and teachers all have a role to play in education. Their interest arises from the fact that they all have a common goal: educating children towards responsible adulthood so that they, in turn, become accepted and worthy members of the community (Mbongwe 1986:12).

In this chapter historical theories and current aspects about community involvement in schools will be discussed and their influence on the community involvement practice throughout the ages will be determined. Reference is made to the past, because the discipline of education is intimately concerned with the past; any educational problem is studied in its manifestation through the ages.

The importance of digging into the past for any educational problem is emphasised by Herman Rohrs, as quoted by Venter (1979:44):

... only through the historical can essential structures of reality become visible. After all, all history is a medium only for the enlightenment of man as an *animal educans* and as an animal educandum ... man and his education suitable for his

ever-changing life. Situations are the Leitmotif of all thought about a science of education and he has also, in the last respect, to be served by historical reflection.

In investigating this educational problem of community involvement in education, a monumental approach will be used, so as to extract only the memorable parts from the ideas of great historical educational personalities.

The involvement of community in education is a valid, essential, educational concern. Great thinkers of the past, such as Desiderius Erasmus (1466 - 1536), declared that a public obligation was in no way inferior to that of ordering an army for the common defence. He called upon both the public and private agencies ranging from statesmen and churchmen to wealthy citizens, to meet the obligation of educating children (Brubacher 1966:510). During the eras of the Medes and Persians, Hebrews, Greeks and Romans, educating the child was a community concern. This community concern spread through the periods of Neo-Athenian education (480 B.C.), Graeco-Roman education (\pm 530 A.D.) and up to scholars of great standing such as Thomas Aquinas (1227 - 1274), John Calvin (1509-1564) and Johann Sturn (1507 - 1589) (Van Vuuren 1988:132 - 242).

For this study to be relevant, it will briefly discuss each social structure and its role and task in aiming at effective education, both in the past and in the present. Examples from past educational eras, as the author has mentioned, are now and then referred to, so as to highlight the fact that the educational problems of the past do, in a way, still persist in the present educational era. In addition, a descriptive survey of community involvement in schools in two Third World countries, particularly Kenya and Botswana, is also presented.

Describing the duty and commitment of each social structure in the education system, will help set standardised criteria for evaluating community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area.

2.2 THE ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF EACH SOCIAL STRUCTURE WITH AN INTEREST IN EDUCATION

2.2.1 The State

2.2.1.1 The state as a social structure with an interest in education The state as defined by Van Schalkwyk (1988:144) is an institutional community of the government and subjects and organises in terms of public law over a people in a circumscribed cultural area. In the education system the state integrates the interweaving of structures; hence the state harmonises "each social structure's right and responsibility in the interwoveness" (Mbongwe 1986:13).

Since the state has the monopoly of power, it is its obligation to protect the rights of everyone within its territory; this includes the right to effective teaching and the right to efficient learning.

2.2.1.2 The origin of the state's involvement in education

The involvement of the state in education dates back to the Ancient Greeks. Spartan education (\pm 800 B.C.), according to Van Vuuren (1988:134), was based on two principles, namely, the child was the property of the state and the aim of education was to train soldiers and make state citizens. The principal aim of the Athenian education (\pm 600 B.C.) was the training of state citizens and the state acted in a supervisory capacity (Van Vuuren 1988:135).

Plato (427 - 347 B.C.) believed that education should be provided by the state for the state (Rusk 1981:13). According to Brubacher (1966:508) Plato and Aristotle (384 - 322 B.C.) favoured state involvement in education; especially Aristotle stated in no ambiguous terms that since the state as a whole was a single end, it was plain that education should be supervised by the state (Brubacher 1966:508); education was public training, of public interest, which should belong to the state. Aristotle therefore advocated a system of state education, in which state and home each had a role to play (Brubacher 1966:508).

During the Graeco-Roman period there was a revival of the notion of state involvement in education. Scholars like Quintilian favoured public education (Van Vuuren 1988:159). He maintained that the government of the day was supposed to control and administer education that was away from home (Brubacher 1966:509). His argument spread as far as Italy, where, at the court of the Prince of Mantua, the fees of the pupils were paid for by the royal court (Brubacher 1966:510).

Van Vuuren (1988:208) states that Desiderius Erasmus (1467 - 1536) held the state responsible for the provision of education, including the provision of adequate teachers. He declared that education was a public obligation, in no way "inferior to that of ordering an army for defence" (Brubacher 1966:510). He then challenged the state to meet that obligation.

Most scholars during the Protestant Reformation solicited state support for education. Graves (1913:328) states that Martin Luther (1483 - 1546), the prime mover of the Protestant Reformation, saw that the Protestant church lacked the wealth and trained personnel to carry out educational programmes. He then appealed to civil authorities to establish and maintain schools. Luther's ideas were implemented later on by his great disciple, Philip Malenchthan (1497-1560) who drew up a report on the schools of Saxony, *The Report on Visitation Book*, in 1527. According to its Schulordrung (school order) provision was made in every village for a Latin school under municipal control (Van Vuuren 1988:225).

This doctrine of state involvement in education was also emphasised by 17th and 18th century scholars such as Francois de La Motre-Fenelon (1651 - 1715) who claimed that "children belong less to their parents than to the Republic and ought to be educated by the state..." (Brubacher 1966:514). The idea of the state supporting education was also pronounced by Louis Rene de La Chalatais (1701 - 1785) who in his book *Essay on National Education*, recommended a state system of schools and outlined a scheme of educational institutions to be set up and maintained by the state (Brubacher 1966:515). In this he was supported by the founders of the French Revolution such as Maximilien de Robespierre (1758 - 1994) who wanted the state to have complete control over education. Robespierre proposed that children be educated at public expense (Brubacher

1966:515). The state would be held responsible for food and clothing in boarding schools, as well as for instruction. However, these proposals were not incorporated into the law. It was only in the 19th century that they were translated into concrete legislation by, among others, Napoleon Bonaparte in France and Bismarck in Prussia (Brubacher 1966:515).

The above discussion indicates that state involvement in education has been a problem in the past and highlights past attempts to rectify that situation. This study will focus on the current involvement of the state as a social structure with an interest in education and will attempt to identify what the role of the state in education ought to be.

2.2.1.3 The role of the state

Generally, there is central and local interest in education, since education is a top priority for any government. The schools are territorially entwined with the state's sphere of legal competence. This intertwinedness between school and state applies, according to Stone (1981:124), to all education systems, as the state and school are mutually interdependent. The government which does not give education its due, is itself the loser; the state "reflects the education and schooling enjoyed by its people in the standard of its general dispensation, but also in its cultural level, the nature of its jurisdiction, the maintenance of law and the exercise of power" (Stone 1981:124 - 125).

(a) The state as child-rearer

The state plays a great role in regulating family activities. With respect to children, this extends to schooling. The state intervenes in the parent-child relationship and takes over child-rearing activities as it creates duties for the parents. David (1980:26) emphasises that the state sees to it that there is education for the masses. The state should not rely on parental wealth, but on extensive parental involvement. It is the state, together with parents, that should care for and rear children.

(b) The juridical role of the state

According to Van Schalkwyk (1988:145) the state is entrusted and endowed with the political power to make the rules and laws of society. Through

legislative bodies such as Parliaments and Military Councils, the state creates the laws governing the country. That includes laws and acts concerning education.

(i) Determining the legal relationship in education

The state is a policy-maker. Through educational policies, it regulates parental relations with school-going children as well as familial relations with the school. The state juridically establishes the will of the people with regard to education. It is the task of the state to integrate and coordinate a large variety of activities in education by means of suitable regulations, rules and ordinances which determine the right and the responsibility of each group with an interest in education.

(ii) Introducing legislation governing education

The state commissions scientific research in the education system to investigate all aspects of education. A council, such as the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) in the Republic of South Africa, conducts such scientific research and reports its findings to the state. The state, after intensive deliberations on the Commission's recommendations, passes an education act. In this way the state provides education with a juridical base, which, among other functions:

- demarcates of spheres of authority and coordinates such authority
- sets out the conditions of service of teachers
- allocates functions, tasks, duties and responsibilities
- pays teachers' salaries
- establishes nodal structures with an interest in education such as the school boards, management councils and school committees.

(Van Wyk 1987:66).

(iii) Furnishing education with an administration

The state is the administrator of education. It ensures that the necessary executive bodies are created and that they operate effectively in order to ensure that the prescriptions of the law are carried out. The range of the state's responsibilities to the department of education, school boards, education councils, school committees, circuit offices and regional offices covers pre-school, primary and tertiary education.

(iv) Financing education

The judicial power of the state includes the power to levy taxes and to decide how money should be spent; on that strength the state finances education. The government ensures that money spent on education is spent effectively. For instance, the United States of America gives federal financial aid to education; each individual school is provided with funds and members of staff decide how money should be spent. In addition, the state pays teachers'salaries out of the taxpayers' contributions (Bereday & Lauwerys 1966:248).

(c) Non-juridical role of the state

While the state acts in a juridical sense through a number of administrative bodies such as education departments, inspectors and management councils, it can also perform a non-juridical role in education, for instance when non-state sectors of a community are aided in executing certain tasks, drawing the state into enterprises which are not strictly within its jurisdiction (Van Schalkwyk 1988:146).

Providing financial aid to parents

Parents receive financial aid towards the education of their children. For instance, if a parent cannot afford to finance the transportation of his child to school, the state provides free transport and free meals. Thus the parents indirectly receive financial aid from the state. The state also supplies welfare services for children in schools, as well as more extensive and

efficient health services such as immunisation, vaccination and screening for medical and emotional problems.

(ii) Instituting compulsory education

Since education is of the utmost importance to the state, the state, makes sure that all citizens get an education which promotes their well-being as members of the community. Stone (1984:124) emphasises that a state deserves the education it receives; as he state that the government should prescribe a minimum age or educational level up to which education should be compulsory.

(iii) Providing equal educational opportunities

Van Schalkwyk (1988:176) maintains that every child should receive equal educational opportunities in accordance with his own capabilities. Van Schalkwyk's assertion is supported by principle 1 of *Principles for the Provision of Education in RSA*.

Equal opportunities for education, including equal standards in education, for every inhabitant, irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, shall be the purposeful endeavour of the State. (Van Schalkwyk 1988:177)

This alone clearly indicates that the state is duty-bound to ensure that education is provided to all pupils.

(iv) Promotion of cultural interests

The state promotes cultural interests by ensuring that:

- all its citizens are literate, thus enhancing the community's level of development
- the standard of civilisation in the community is maintained by setting a particular minimum standard
- the character of education is legalised according to the will
 of the people; that is, the spirit and character of formal
 education must be what is wanted by the community. If, for

instance, the community requires a Christian-oriented education, it is the duty of the state to afford the community such an education.

The interests of all structures involved are protected, by organising the various interrelationships among school, state, church, private sector and parents.

2.2.1.4 Conclusion

From this discussion it has become apparent that the pattern of community involvement in education is, to a great extent, determined by the state. Because national education requires planning, financing, organising and coordination on a tremendous scale, only the state can undertake it effectively and efficiently, and only if it works hand in hand with other social structures with an interest in education such as the parents.

2.2.2 The parents

2.2.2.1 The parents as a social structure with an interest in education In describing the education system, emphasis is placed on its representativeness of a cohesion or interwovenness of different social structures with parents featuring greatly in that intertwinedness. The school and the home are two social structures, interconnected within the education system in a unique way. For effective teaching and efficient learning to take place there should be proper parental involvement and greater parental participation in the education process. Cohen and Manion (1981:114) state that education and teaching are embedded in the community, which is a reality. Education takes place amongst the people and its aim is to assist the child in growing to adulthood within an interrelated human community; hence the collective involvement of parents in the school situation is indispensable.

Professor Z.K. Mathews was quoted by the Mabogoane (1990:8) as expressing dissatisfaction with the education system which isolates and marginalises the parent community, since parents determine what their children will be. No genuine, bona fide education can exist without a lasting bond between the parents and the school; home and school "...must be engaged in a symbiotic

relationship..." (Luthuli 1988:84). If the parents understand what is going on at the school, they can contribute vastly towards the learning process of their children. It is then important in this study to investigate how this problem of parental involvement in the education system has been dealt with in the past.

2.2.2.2 The origin of parental involvement in education

It has been argued in educational circles that parents need to be involved in their children's formal education. The Athenians' view was that education and teaching were matters to be undertaken by home and school; Aristotle (384 - 322 B.C.) even advocated a system of education in which the home and the state each had a role to play (Van Vuuren 1988:146).

Brubacher (1966:346) accords the notion of parental involvement in formal education to the early days of the Roman Republic. He states that family education, with the father and mother jointly engaged in the education of a child, was considered a sacred task by the Romans. Even the Roman poet, Horace, bore witness to the great debt that he owed his father for the close attention paid to his education at home and after he had left home for school (Brubacher 1966:347).

Parental involvement in education was formalised during the later stages of the Middle Ages (\pm 1000 - \pm 1500) as the guild system was introduced; the citizens of one village were united in a guild (consisting of parents, artists and soldiers), which was in charge of education in that particular community (Van Vuuren 1988:194). The establishment of the guild system was intended to protect the rights and interests of the specific community in the schools and especially in the universities. Each guild had a council member, who was responsible for fixing the class fees and for general school organisation (Van Vuuren 1988:194).

Scholars such as Desiderius Erasmus (1467 - 1536) held the view that parents in their task of educating children had a tremendous responsibility to the community, and that the education the child received at home was the foundation of all education (Van Vuuren 1988:206). His view was supported by Juan Luis Vives (1492 - 1540), who recommended that parents decide what type of education their children ought to receive (Van Vuuren 1988:210). However, the great

proponent of parental participation in formal education was Martin Luther (1483 - 1546) (Brubacher 1966:348). To him, parental authority was the basis of all education and that parents should choose occupations for their children (Van Vuuren 1988:221 - 222).

Luther's views were extended by Locke (1632 - 1704) in his book *Conduct of the Understanding* (Rusk 1981:82). He says that Locke in that book dedicated a whole chapter to the duties and rights of parents, which was entitled *Paternal Power*, and which stated that since parents have power over their children, they govern their children. This power should be used to help, instruct and preserve the children, thus educating them. The idea was that parents should have a say in the curriculum of the child (Rusk 1981:83). This was later on emphasised by Rousseau (1712-1778) as he prescribed to the tutor what was to be taught to "Emile," his ideal child of nature (Rusk 1981:104 - 105).

Other great educators such as Pestalozzi, Comenius and Quintilian were also for the idea of home involvement in the formal education of children (Brubacher 1966:350). Pestalozzi considered the home as the chief centre for the education of children, maintaining that the good school should pattern itself on the good home (Brubacher 1966:350). Quintilian went as far as to state that some portion of the expense of a teacher should be borne by the parents (Rusk 1981:38). To sum up this historical investigation: many of the great educational thinkers of the past favoured parental involvement in formal education. Herbart, Froebel, Johann, Gottleke, Fichler and Whitehead were but a few of these.

2.2.2.3 Types of parental involvement in education

(a) Parental involvement in the classroom

Parents who have children in a particular class form a class teacher-parents' association. These parents function as teacher-assistants in the organised events of the classroom. They supervise the reading lessons, needlework, arts and crafts. This leaves the teacher with more time to concentrate on slow learners or those who need individual attention (Gordan 1976:75).

Sometimes the teacher invites the parent to visit his or her child's

classroom, to observe what is happening and how the child is performing. The parent looks at the child's work and exercise books. Parents may also be asked to assist in the extra-curricular events. For example, parents who play such sports professionally, can coach pupils in soccer, tennis, boxing or swimming.

(b) Parental involvement in homework

The home is the extension of the learning situation; homework extends the learning process to the home. It is the parents' duty to involve themselves in the homework of their children. This type of interaction helps parents know their child's potential. The parent does not do the homework for the child, but guides the child (Mclesky 1986:15). For instance, positive remarks, supervising the child to study at home and initialling homework that has been completed, can encourage the child to do his best.

(c) Parental involvement in curriculum development

Parents know their children's needs, interests, convictions and aspirations. They should be contacted when the curriculum is drawn up. Luthuli (1988:86) states that almost all educationalists agree that no educational practice can be relevant and meaningful, unless it is based on the people's philosophy of life; the curriculum reflects the norms, beliefs, values and convictions of the people that the education system is supposed to serve, namely the parent community. Parents, if given a chance, may be involved in the selection of the package of school subjects.

2.2.2.4 Structures through which parents are involved

(a) Introduction

This introduction consists of a concise historical background to parental involvement in Black schools, which laid a foundation for the present parental involvement in all Black schools, with the exception of the farm schools. Such a background is very important when the structures through which parents are involved in education are considered.

The idea of including parents in the statutory bodies of the school control and administration stemmed right from the findings of the Levy Commission of 1892, which was appointed by the government of the Cape of Good Hope to inquire into and to report upon certain matters connected with the education system of the Colony (Rose & Tunmer 1975:215). The Commission recommended the establishment of the district board consisting of the magistrates, missionaries, colonists and two native parents, appointed every two years to run education at district level (Rose & Tunmer 1975:215). However, that proposed board ended up excluding the native parents; the final report of the commission stated that "... in matters pertaining to education, the aborigines are not supposed to have opinions that are worthy of notice" (Rose & Tunmer 1975:215).

Thereafter, many commissions were appointed and many acts passed to consolidate parental participation in statutory bodies. the Eiselen Commission of 1951 stated that Bantu parents should share, as far as possible, in the control and life of the school(Ross 1966:5) and the Tomlinson Commission of 1955 stated that the Bantu public should be afforded the opportunity to state their views on educational matters (Rose & Tunmer 1975:258). This notion was validated by Act No. 42 of 1953, in terms of which the Minister might, with regard to the principle of active participation by the Bantu people in the control and management of government Bantu schools, establish parents' councils at regional and local level (Rose & Tunmer 1975: 259). This was reiterated by Dr Verwoerd in the Senate on 7 June 1954 (Horrell 1968:102) when he stated that the main aim of Bantu education was to give effect to the notion that the local control of schools under the supervision of the state should be entrusted to Bantu parents.

This paved the way for the present structures in which parents are involved.

(b) Parental involvement in statutory and non-statutory bodies

There is a provision in common and statutory law for parental involvement in the education of the child; Prinsloo and Beckman (1988:50) state

that, in terms of the common law, parents are obliged to make the best possible provision for their children's education.

Van Wyk (1987:70) distinguishes two basic forms of an organised say for parents, namely statutory and non-statutory bodies. The statutory bodies are the bodies that must be established in terms of legislation such as the management councils, school committees, school boards, regional councils and national educational councils. The non-statutory bodies are defined by Prinsloo and Beckman (1988:41) as bodies "... which need not be constituted in terms of law." One example of such bodies in the South African educational dispensation is th**e** Federation of Parents' Association in South Africa, which is made up of representatives of various provincial parents' associations such as The Transvaalse Afrikaanse Ouervereniging, the Transvaal English Medium Parents' Association, the Parents' Association of Natal and the Kaaplandse Afrikaanse Ouervereniging (Bondesio et al 1987:107).

(c) Levels of parental involvement

Parental involvement exists on three levels: the national, regional and local or area level, as indicated in the following organogram:

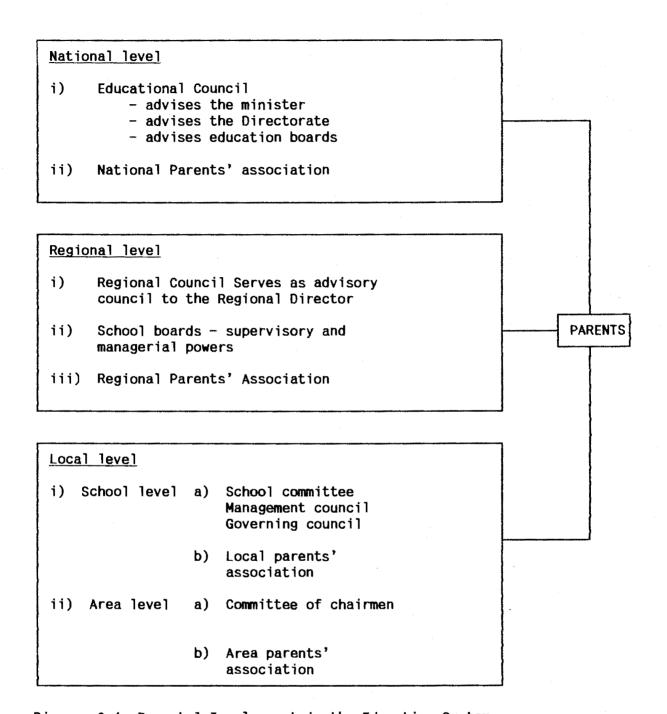


Diagram 2.1 Parental Involvement in the Education System

(i) Local level

At local level the statutory bodies are the school committees, management councils and governing councils. These are formed by the principal and the parents' elected representatives and control and manage the activities of the school. They also serve as the mouthpiece of the parents with regard to physical and material matters of the school (Van Schalkwyk 1988:88). In short, they are the local governments of schools as they carry out all the duties entrusted to them by the educational authorities.

There are also non-statutory bodies known as Local Parents' Association and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA). The main purpose of these is to combine the efforts of parents and teachers. They function in their own right and organise and manage matters of mutual interest to the local parent community (Van Schalkwyk 1988:151). Van Wyk (1987:69) states that these bodies have a responsibility for the establishment of the spirit of the school and that they ascertain whether the school is in line with their philosophy of life.

Such bodies are a great help to a school. Soni (1981:130) maintains that they participate fully in the education of their children, as they organise parent study groups which supervise students who study at the local community centres. They raise funds for the school, maintain school grounds and organise annual meetings. They undertake their different duties through ad hoc technical committees such as funding committees, committees for physical facilities and committees for internal matters such as school rules and school uniform.

(ii) Regional level

The statutory bodies at regional level are regional councils and school boards. The regional council serves as an advisory council to the Regional Chief Director of Education. The management councils of the schools within a region represent the interests of the parents in the regional council. The school board is a management body on regional level – a legal entity which includes parents. It has a supervisory, advisory,

advisory, administrative and managerial task (Van Schalkwyk 1988:88). It also advises the regional council on all matters pertaining to the provision and maintenance of schools in the region.

On the other hand, there is the regional parents' association which is a non-statutory body. The local parents' associations appoint representatives for the executive of the regional parents' association. This body advises the Regional Chief Director on behalf of parents and suggests amendments in the education policy. Van Schalkwyk (1988:151) states that the scope and function of this body is not limited since it is free and autonomous and may discuss any matter concerning formal education with the educational authorities at regional level.

(iii) National level

The national education council functions at national or provincial level. It is a statutory body which inter alia serves as the advisory and coordinating council. This council affords parents a say in education, both at provincial and at national level. By means of the provisions and authority of this council, the community which it represents takes up any educational matters with the relevant education authority and advises him/her on the matter. This high level council is not a political body, but functions in accordance with the existing government policy to bring education as near as possible to its users (Bondesio et al 1987:112).

There is also a non-statutory body known as the National Parents' Association. It is made up of regional parents' associations. This association engages in consultation with the education authorities on the national level.

However, parental involvement in education can be made impossible by the factors mentioned in the following sections.

2.2.2.5 Factors which militate against parental involvement in education

(a) Introduction

According to Van Schalkwyk (1990:42) there are factors which inhibit

positive parental involvement in formal education, such as the community's ground motives and philosophy of life about education, the family and the school as institutions, the educational regulations and education structures, the teacher, the parents and the parent-child relationship. Van Schalkwyk's concern about the above-mentioned factors is also shared by Berger (1981:300), who states that parents and teachers themselves contribute greatly towards the factors militating against positive parental involvement in formal education.

Evidence shows that, on the one hand, teachers are suspicious of parents, whereas on the other hand parents are suspicious of teachers. The problem with these two paramount players in education is the *attitude* which Van Schalkwyk (1990:44) describes as "die houding van gemeenskappe en individue teenoor ouerbetrokkenheid." The reasons for this attitude are outlined below.

(b) Social barriers

Before parents can be involved in education, certain prejudices and social barriers have to be overcome. Some teachers feel unwilling to associate socially with parents from a lower socio-economic bracket, since not all parents have been educated and find it very difficult to work with professionals on a basis of equality. This is why parents are unwilling to commit themselves effectively in education; they make excuses saying that parental involvement is demanding and time consuming (Van Schalkwyk 1990:55).

(c) Attitude of parents

When discussing the factors concerning parents, Van Schalkwyk (1990:54) states that they have their own programmes: "In baie samelewings is ouers baie bedrywige mense wat weens praktiese oorwegings net nie te betrokke kan raak by die formele onderwys nie (Van Schalkwyk 1990:54). On the other hand, Berger (1981:361) is of the opinion that parents feel left out, because they are not familiar with the development trends of modern education. They find computers and the educational jargon which teachers so often use to impress parents, strange and therefore irritating and confusing. As a result, they prefer to stay at home.

Sometimes parents, especially mothers, see their children's teachers as rivals, because the children, especially in the junior primary classes, admire their teachers more than their mothers. Some mothers feel hurt by this and become critical of the school, resenting the child's involvement in school activities. They end up blaming teachers for the child's problems and criticising their teaching methods. Such an attitude prevents positive parental involvement in education.

(d) Attitude of teachers

"Onderwysers se negatiewe houding laat ouers belangstelling verloor" (Van Schalkwyk 1990:49). Teachers with such an attitude blame parents for the child's problems, resenting them for meddling in the classroom operations. They complain about a lack of parental involvement, stating that it places an additional burden on their shoulders. They consider parents as "... las en steurnis vir die onderwyser" (Van Schalkwyk 1990:54). These teachers, according to Van Schalkwyk (1990:49), suffer from a misconception about the teacher and his professionality. They have an attitude of "...meerderwaardigheid, beterweterigheid, arrogansie en onaantasbaarheid" (Van Schalkwyk 1990:49), as they believe that the school is "...'n wêreld vir die professionele persoon wat nie deur nie-professionele persone betree of bevraagteken mag word nie voortspruit" (Van Schalkwyk 1990:49).

Such a snobbish attitude does not foster healthy home-school relationships and makes it difficult for parents to reach out to the school.

(e) Poor parent-child relationships

If the parent-child relationship is poor, the children view the school as the world of teachers only and view their home as the world of their parents. They consider the school and home as separate entities. They equate parental involvement in education to parental interference in the work of their teachers. Such children are not even prepared to share their school experience with their parents. This results in parents losing interest in the school work of their children and consequently the

parental interest and involvement in the school disappears (Van Schalkwyk 1990:57).

(f) Poor communication between school and home

Open communication between the teacher and parent is an indispensable ingredient for a positive parental involvement in schools (Macbeth 1989:34). The school is required to share with the parents any information about the child and his education. Rutherford (1979:15) states that teachers are responsible for including parents in their child's progress in school. As the parents become more and more informed about how and what their child is learning, they will be better equipped to take an active role in school activities.

(g) Conclusion

When parents are involved in education, very important benefits accrue to the child. Most of the factors that inhibit parental involvement can be rectified. Berger (1981:363) and Van Schalkwyk (1990:58) agree that the essential responsibility for parental involvement rests entirely with teachers; Van Schalkwyk (1990:58) adds: "... die onderwyser moet in ouerbetrokkenheid glo en moet 'n positiewe gesindheid daarteenoor kweek."

2.2.2.6 Conclusion

Parental involvement is not only essential, but also indispensable. The benefits which accrue to the child through constructive parental involvement are significantly increased, thereby resulting in a better, more effective education for the child. However, parents are also members of the church, therefore the church shares a common goal with parents – that of seeing to it that the young receive the most effective education they can get.

2.2.3 The Church

2.2.3.1 Introduction

The church is defined by Van Schalkwyk (1988:152) as the community of believers; it assumes its stratum from and within the community; thus without the community the church cannot exist. It is based on man whose needs should be catered for by the church as a social institution. Among man's needs is education; and as

the church is called upon to meet man's needs, it is also called upon to meet his educational needs.

The church has always held that it has a duty to teach morals to young and old alike and that religious bodies are the agencies that decide what is moral and what is not. The power of the church is, therefore, wielded not only in spiritual matters, but also in cultural matters. Since education is the unfolding of cultural activities, the church is also involved in education, an involvement which is absolutely essential.

2.2.3.2 The church as a social structure with an interest in education The education system is a unified structure, despite the fact that it is

composed of a large number of social structures, among them the church. church forms part of the education system because of its specific educational function. The church as a social structure functions autonomously, while at the same time it is in concert with the rest of the other social structures. The relationship between education and the church is common knowledge. The church is the gathering of people of the same faith, for instance teachers, members of school councils, members of parent associations, all share the common interest of educating the child. The school does not, however, act as an agent of the church. On the contrary, the school and the church cooperate in the interest of the task of educative teaching. The church therefore joins the school in carrying out certain educational tasks, hence its involvement with the school is educationally qualified. The work of the church must benefit from education and vice versa. The church as a structure of the community participates in the community's activities, such as organising parents' meetings; for instance, the church can be used as a meeting place. Church members can help by organising bazaars, rags and flea markets.

2.2.3.3 The origin of church involvement in education

The direct participation of the church in the educational enterprise has both an historical and a philosophical foundation. Grimm (1973:486) states that education has remained in the hands of the church since time immemorial and was advanced most rapidly by the clergy. The contents and the purpose of education were chiefly religious in nature, as teachers were compelled to subscribe to church creeds (Grimm 1973:487).

Before Christianity, there was never a highly organised hierarchic church. It was only during the last years of the Roman Empire that the church took root effectively, hence its stratum in education (Brubacher 1966:519). With the fall of the Roman Empire, the public funds for formal schooling disappeared and the Catholic Church appeared as a new private agency to support education (Van Vuuren 1988:167). The church, therefore, took a private interest in education, not so much to cultivate learning for its own sake, but to train students for lay and professional duties in the church (Brubacher 1966:510). Various schools were erected by the church to keep the flickering light of learning from going out altogether.

(a) Cathechumenal schools

These schools were established by the church to instruct converts who wanted to become church members. Their aim was moral upliftment of the individual and the community (Van Vuuren 1988:167). During the 3rd century the church established the catechetical schools, which were aimed at training individuals in religion and the principles of the church, so that they could refute criticisms of Greek scholars (Van Vuuren 1988:169).

(b) Monastery schools

During the Dark Ages when everything, including culture and education, was under fire from all sides, it was only the monasteries that kept the light of civilisation burning. Educational activities were conducted by monks who were training two groups of pupils, namely the *oblati* or *interni*, being trained as monks or clergy and the *externi* who wanted advanced education only (Van Vuuren 1988:179).

(c) Charlemagne (742-814 AD)

As an Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, Charlemagne did not want to separate the church from education (Van Vuuren 1988:182). He wanted the church to be the pivot around which education revolved. Consequently, he was a great supporter of the monastic schools, to such an extent that he appointed special officials known as *missi dominii* to visit all monastories without previous warning to check whether education regulations were being implemented or not (Van Vuuren 1988:182). By the

year 787 AD he had passed a series of laws in terms of which every cathedral and monastery had to have its own school. He even established in his own palace the school which became the training institution for prospective teachers in monastic schools (Van Vuuren 1988:183).

(d) The Middle Ages

In the Middle Ages the church continued to be the only institution with the organisational skills, the money, the knowledge and the teachers needed to set up schools. The state was not in a position to run schools; the church pre-eminently was (Bereday & Lauwerys 1966:1). The church had a monopoly of education to such an extent that education was based on faith first and critical reason only second (Brubacher Great thinkers of the time, such as Desiderius Erasmus, welcomed the measures taken by the church to protect education. Erasmus the ultimate aim of education was the moral religious shaping, "...done with a view to service in church, state, town and home" (Van Vuuren 1988: 206). He also maintained that he considered it the duty of the church and the state to provide sufficient teachers to continue and extend the educational work of the parents (Van Vuuren 1988:206). one doubted the idea that education was the function of the church. should, however, be noted that during that period the secular state and the church were not conceived as separate entities, since the membership of the church and citizenship was felt to coincide.

Although by the end of the Middle Ages the state had become interested in education, the church nevertheless continued to establish schools and to receive subsidy grants from the state (Brubacher 1966:510). These were known as *Poughkeepsie Plan schools*, where the state rented the church school building, while the teachers were supervised and paid by the state (Brubacher 1966:534).

(e) Reformation and Counter-Reformation

The Reformation aimed at taking the centre of education away from the church (Brubacher 1966:511). People like Martin Luther were of the opinion that the state should assume responsibility for education while the church should give and supervise the instruction provided by the

state; even religious education had to have the sanctioning of the state (Van Vuuren 1988:221). On the other hand John Calvin demanded a closer partnership between the state and the church in carrying out the educational enterprise (Van Vuuren 1988:232).

The Counter-Reformation aimed to bring education back under the control of the church as the role leader (Van Vuuren 1988:238). Teaching Orders, such as the Jesuit Order of Ignatius of Loyola, emerged, establishing many schools to train church leaders and Christian scholars (Rusk 1981:47). Within a century they managed, on their own, to control all higher education in Catholic countries; they even had some influence in the Protestant countries (Van Vuuren 1988:242).

(f) From the renaissance to the twentieth century

As a result of the rising secularism during the renaissance, the church education system became controversial and conflict was inevitable (Bereday & Lauwyers 1966:5). The religious opinions of the people ceased to be a matter of public concern and the link between the church and the state was broken. As a result, the educational activities of the church were regarded as beneficial, but no longer essential; at the same time, there was a strong demand for secular education. La Chalatais, as quoted by Bereday and Lauwerys (1966:6) described vividly the feelings of the people about church education:

I claim for the nation an education upon the state alone, because education belongs essentially to the state, because every nation has an inalienable and imprescriptible right to instruct its members, because in short the children of the state should be brought up by those who are members of the state.

The Roman Catholics argued that education was the business of the church and the family (Bereday & Lauwerys 1966:8); they went so far as to state categorically that without religion there could be no true education. The claims of both the church and the state concerning education have still not at all been solved to everyone's satisfaction; the solutions

that have been reached are regarded as necessarily temporary. Churchstate conflict very seldom exists in pure or isolated form.

2.2.3.4 The role of the church in education

(a) Church involvement in the structures that are interrelated with the school

The church is primarily concerned with developing man's function of faith. This function of faith is instrumental in the normative becoming of the child, as faith has a guiding and directing function in the unfolding of the child's values, convictions, beliefs and attitudes. These religious norms put forward by the church affect the whole spectrum of education, hence the work of the school is influenced in many aspects. For instance, the church preaches respect for God and adults. Ideally, children in school will, as a result of the teachings of the church, have that respect for God and for their teachers; that is they will live normatively. The school needs the church for correct interpretation of the biblical norms.

Van Schalkwyk (1988:184) states that the church penetrates the boundaries of time and extends its influence over every period of time and every lesson period in school. Each subject should therefore be taught in line with the teachings of the church. At the same time, the church demands a complete and undiluted search for true knowledge in all aspects of life, particularly in education.

(b) Financing education

The church usually draws no massive financial support from the state. It is mostly financed through tithes and gifts from benefactors. The churches are usually exempt from great taxation. As a result of such tax concessions, churches make use of tax rebates to pay teachers' salaries and repair school buildings. Such a financial arrangement works fairly well when education is limited and less expensive. To economise the church employs as teachers nuns and monks, who are not paid to teach. There are general debates about the state's financing of church schools. Some argue that since education is regarded as a service, and the church

provides the children of the state with education, which benefits the state and subsequently the whole nation, the state should pay for education, or at least for the major part of it.

(c) Administration and control

The church is involved in the administration and control of church schools. This is done at local and regional levels. At regional level the bishop or his appointee supervises the management of schools in the whole diocese. At local level the priest or his appointee manages the school with the church members. They cooperate with state authorities such as school inspectors, so as to avoid conflict. The relationship is regarded as a partnership. (In Germany, for instance, the church and the state sign treaties such as the Konkordate (Pope and the State) and the Kirchenvertrag (Bereday & Lauwerys 1966:245). These agreements hold keys to the administration of education. The church board, however, has the right to hire and fire the teaching staff and above all ecclesiastical authorities take steps to ensure that all teachers, are loyal to the church and are doctrinally sound (Bereday & Lauwerys 1966:245). In South Africa, in the employment of teachers consensus is reached. The church is allowed to employ teachers, whose salaries are paid by the state, the state leaves the administration of all external matters which do not concern instruction to the church.

(d) The influence of the church on moral education

Van Schalkwyk (1988:183) states that the church is primarily concerned with developing man's function of faith, which is paramount to the normative becoming of the child. Man's faith exerts power over the "...unfolding of the child's emotional, conative and cognitive life, and cognitive life, his social and aesthetic sense, his moral life..." (Stone 1981:45). For that reason the church, through religious education, influences many aspects of education. Religion in school reinforces ethic development and character moulding. It revives the ethical aspect of the child's life, such as strengthening the relations between the teacher and the child, the child and the school. The child is guided within the religious cultural milieu to develop and gain his own set of morals, principles and life-views.

Ignas (1981:408) is of the opinion that religion in school serves as a personal commitment to values that transcend the goings—on of a society. In the former exclusively Black schools in the Republic of South Africa, both religious instruction and biblical studies are taught. The main aim of religious instruction is "...to lead pupils to know God and live Christian lives" (Behr 1988:97).

2.2.3.5 Conclusion

From the above discussion it has become clear that the church has always been There is no doubt that the church has done a lot of prominent in education. good. This discussion of the church as a social structure with an interest in education was mainly concerned with the educational significance of churches as institutions and not with the educational implications of religious beliefs. However, religion is an integral part of the culture of a society and children cannot be separated from an important part of their environment. religious teaching has traditionally been a vehicle by which moral standards have been inculcated. To retain moral standards without religious education is an unimaginable exercise, hence the cooperation between church and state in providing services essential to society, such as education, should be retained and encouraged, for effective education to take place. However, to put all this into practice, the education system needs the intervention of a competent, qualified and mature adult without whom there can be no teaching and learning ... the teacher.

2.2.4 The teachers

2.2.4.1 Introduction

Among all the social structures with an interest in education, teachers are the only ones who are in a place where the tyre touches the road; for any education system to be called effective, it is vital that teachers not be excluded. That is why Castle (1970:1) describes teachers as "the sainted pioneers of civilisation." Teachers do not function in isolation; they work with other structures to form a close-knit unit. Since teachers perform a functional activity in the network, and are in the forefront of all activities, it is important to consider in greater detail their relations with other structures.

Badenhorst (1987:106) maintains that such a consideration will show the teachers how relations affect them in their task and what their significance is to their work. It is also proper that the present day teachers are understood in relation to teachers of the past. For this reason the following discussion will be based on the origins of teachers' involvement in education.

2.2.4.2 The origin of teachers' involvement in education

(a) Ancient world

During Judean, Greek and Roman times, teachers appeared in several traditional roles; they were, for instance, poets, prophets, philosophers, scribes and school masters (Castle 1970:5, Brubacher 1966:466). For instance, Homer was the educator of the Greek world; Plato, Aristotle and Socrates are seen as the model teachers of all time; scribes played an important role in Egypt, as they could write, either on clay tablets or on papyrus (Castle 1970:5). The best teacher among the Egyptians was Amenomope, whose *Book of Wisdom* was composed in the 10th century BC, even before the Old Testament was written (Castle 1970:5).

According to Castle (1970:24) in Judea the Hebrews produced two types of teachers, namely prophets and parent tutors. The prophets educated the whole of civilisation. They were concerned with both individual and social behaviour: the perennial concerns of teachers. The parent tutors taught their children to read and write. In Greece poet teachers such as Homer, Paleus and Hector, emerged as professionals who taught students across the curriculum. For example, physical education, singing and guidance were the most important subjects in the curriculum (Castle 1970:24).

In Rome, teaching was assigned to foreigners and the upper class Romans engaged slaves as teachers for their children. Brubacher (1966:466) states that in Rome a teacher was referred to as a "pedagogue." It was only during the times of Quintilian (35-100 AD) that the status of the teaching profession was elevated (Brubacher 1966:467). Nevertheless, teachers' salaries pushed them to the lowest stratum of society; they were so poor that Graeco-Roman author Lucius stated that "...whom the

gods hate, they make school masters" (Brubacher 1966:467).

(b) Medieval period

During this period, the professional education of teachers was extended to universities. As they were obtaining university degrees, which were tantamount to licenses to teach, teachers became professionals. The Middle Ages produced such competent teachers as Vittorina de Felta, Johann Sturm and Augustine (Van Vuuren 1988:173 – 216).

(c) From the renaissance to the twentieth century

At the beginning of this period, the teaching profession once again declined to an inferior level (Brubacher 1966:472). Teachers were not only ignorant, but also uncouth and perhaps not even always sober (Brubacher 1966:469). Brubacher (1966:469) further on states that teachers used to abuse their position of trust as they lacked selfcontrol. This distressing situation was also noticed by Montaigne, who accused teachers of using highflown language quite different from ordinary speech; he also found their teaching too removed from real life (Brubacher 1966:470). It took a man like Martin Luther (1483-1586) to revive the teaching profession (Van Vuuren 1988:222 - 223). At the end of the 18th century quite a number of good teachers emerged, such as Joseph Lancaster of Philadelphia (1778-1838), Samuel Readhall (1795-1877), Charles McMurry (1857-1927) and others (Brubacher 1966:565). At the beginning of the 20th century almost all normal schools were managed by professional teachers who were also qualified subject experts. Brubacher (1966:489) pointed out that the number of teachers who received Doctorate degrees in education, after the First World War was counted in hundreds.

2.2.4.3 Teachers as a social structure with an interest in education

- (a) The teacher and the Department of Education
- (i) The Department of Education as employer

 Teachers are employed by the Department of Education, hence the

 Department of Education is responsible for the welfare of teachers.

Teachers expect certain things from their employer to be able to do their job with professional expertise. They enter into an agreement with the Department of Education. Van Wyk (1987:49) notes that this status agreement has particular characteristics and consists of different parts. In the contract of employment it is agreed that teachers have a particular status, coupled with certain duties, rights and privileges such as the right to negotiate for better conditions of service. Their duty is to perform their work in an efficient and professional manner. They therefore expect a reasonable salary, good conditions of service and good working conditions from their employer, so that they can carry out their teaching tasks effectively.

The teachers may demand that the education system be properly administered, so that effective teaching and learning can take place. In order to carry out their task efficiently, they should have a classroom, furniture, text books and subject advisors. Teachers expect to share in education control and to have a say in professional matters such as syllabi, curricula, instructional objectives and teaching methods. On the other hand, the Department of Education expects teachers to carry out their duties as competently as possible, because they are paid for what do. It calls upon teachers to maintain the highest standards of personal behaviour and expects teachers to be loyal towards it and its professional and administrative personnel. It is in the interest of both teachers and the department that positive communication be maintained and a proper liaison structure established to prevent communication breakdown or mishaps that might lead to charges of misconduct, unfair dismissals, terminations of service or chalk-downs.

(ii) The legal status of the teacher

The legal status of teachers is determined by their training, skills, and teaching posts. Teachers' work also has legal implications and their knowledge of education law can be of great value to them since "...the order and harmony in the school are regulated by the legal powers, rights and obligations of the social structures with an interest in education" (Badenhorst 1987:128). This knowledge of education law enables teachers to understand fully how they relate legally to the pupils, one another,

the principal, parents, church and the Department of Education. Teachers who are ignorant of the education law run the risk of contravening some legal provision in the day to day performance of their duties.

Teachers, as legally related adults, possess authority which imposes responsibility on them and their pupils. It is the teachers' right to execute lawful instructions, their right to earn decent salaries, and to have recourse to a reasonable and fair investigation, should disciplinary action be taken against them. Van Wyk (1987:83) however, warns teachers to differentiate between rights, privileges and concessions. Leave, according to Van Wyk (1987:83), is a privilege, since privileges are considered to be *ex gratia* awards to which a person has no right, and in the case of concessions, the person has no enforceable right to claim.

There are also juridical matters that have special implications for teachers. These relate to teachers' liabilities, such as contravening provisions that may lead to certain steps being taken against them. Unprofessional conduct, which could also include incompetence and misconduct, may have a negative impact on the involvement of teachers in education. Incompetence may refer to how teachers perform their task. Department officials, teachers, and parents are divided on the issue of what exactly constitutes "misconduct" on the part of teachers, but generally they agree that it certainly does include the following:

- sexual harassment of students
- negligence of duty
- absence without good reason.

Badenhorst (1987:156) appeals to teachers to acquaint themselves with the juridical rules and principles that relate to unprofessional conduct, incompetence and misconduct, so that pitfalls and unnecessary stress can be avoided.

(b) The teacher and the pupil

The pupil is the most important component of the education system. Many things have been said about both teacher and pupil, the two equal parties in the educational partnership. The pupil is therefore not an inferior partner. Van Wyk (1987:75) describes the relationship between teacher and pupil as an interpersonal relationship that is based on mutual understanding, acceptance, trust and love.

(i) Pupil-teacher relationship

Effective teaching and efficient learning take place only if there is a sound pupil-teacher relationship. Such positive interaction between the pupil and teacher has a positive effect on the educational aims of both the teacher and the pupil. The interactants continually negotiate, giving new meaning to a situation during the course of progress. interaction occurs in a social context. As already stated, Van Wyk (1987:75) emphasises a relationship based on mutual understanding, acceptance, trust and love, while Woods (1986:28) is of the opinion that the pupil-teacher relationship should be understood in terms of the ecological, the temporal and the personal rule frames. The teacher-pupil relationship on the sportsfield differs from that between the same teacher and the same pupil in the laboratory or classroom. However, the good relationship established outside the classroom should ideally be transferred to the classroom situation.

(ii) Teachers and the students' representative council

Democratic teachers have a regular relationship with the students' representative council and their representatives, since students' representative councils are a valuable communication medium between the teachers and pupils in general. Students' representative councils are expected to be the spokespersons for individual complaints as well as for more general matters concerning the institution as a whole. The students' representative council is the channel through which teachers discover student reactions to proposals for change within the institution.

(iii) Teachers as classroom managers

Teachers are faced with the management of both the pupil and the subject matter. They design and redesign their subject matter to suit their pupils. Furthermore, they organise the instruction of that subject by providing teaching aids, suitable textbooks and services such as library

facilities. Badenhorst (1987:61) mentions that good teachers organise pupils to achieve educational goals. They also allow the election of group leaders in their classes. The resultant groups may perform curricular and extra-curricular tasks. They may organise educational tours, visit places of educational importance such as the weather station for geography students or a battle field for history students. In short, as managers, teachers apply managerial skills such as planning (creating learning opportunities), leadership (encouraging pupils to be involved in classroom tasks, delegating certain duties to group leaders), organising (coordinating pupils' activities) and control (supervising pupils and meting out discipline when the need arises).

(iv) Teachers as after-care providers

The teachers' task transcends the classroom walls. Teachers sometimes render specialised educational support services to pupils with learning problems, handicaps, subject selection problems or career selection problems. Teachers also stay abreast of pupil progress and help pupils undertake work according to their ability; in other words, teachers provide the necessary after-care pupils need.

2.2.4.4 Structures through which teachers are involved

(a) Organised professional teachers' bodies

(i) Teachers' Federal Council (TFC)

The Teachers' Federal Council constitutes representatives of teachers' associations. Each of these associations is a voluntary member of the council and may retain its autonomy and maintain and practise its own identity and ethos (Bondesio et al 1987:150). Van Schalkwyk (1988:103) describes this council as an independent body which looks after the interests of teachers in accordance with certain criteria and in collaboration with the government, the parent community and the community in general. This council has a direct interest in the admission of persons to the practice of the teaching profession, qualification and training serving as prerequisites to the practice of the profession and the educational interest of the broader community.

Bondesio et al (1987:151) state that in the Republic of South Africa the Teachers' Federal Council (TFC) has both statutory and non-statutory functions. The statutory functions involve the registration of members and administration of the code of conduct. The non-statutory activities are mainly aimed at a well-looked after teaching corps. The council is represented in various committees such as the Committee for Education Structures (CES) and the Research Committee for Education Structures (RECES). Members of the teachers' associations serve in departmental advisory committees. According to Bondesio et al (1987:151) the primary objective of the council is to uphold and promote public respect for education and the teaching profession and the status of those engaged in the teaching profession. Its main function, according to Van Schalkwyk (1988:102) is to advise the government on matters of policy and educational legislation, which includes regulations promulgated by virtue of legislation as well as regulations promulgated by virtue of existing legislation which will have a bearing on the teachers.

(ii) Other Teachers' Associations

Each department of education can have its own teachers' associations which speak on behalf of their members and create a sense of group loyalty and strengthen mutual professional bonds, such as Natal African Teachers' Union (NATU), Cape African Teachers' Union (CATU), Natal Teachers' Society (NTS), the Society of Natal Teachers (SONAT), the National Professional Teachers of South Africa (NAPTOSA), the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) and the Association of the Professional Educators of KwaZulu-Natal (APEK).

The above-mentioned associations are non-statutory and voluntary. They have drawn up professional codes of behaviour for their members and hold them to these.

2.2.4.5 Conclusion

From this discussion it has been evident that the teacher is the pillar and the cornerstone of any given education situation. That is why Luthuli (1988:86) calls him "...the builder charged with producing the sound-minded generation of tomorrow." However, teachers can only perform their educating tasks effectively

if there is a proper and sound relationship and interaction between them and other social structures with an interest in education, hence the private sector involvement in the formal education of the child should be looked into.

2.2.5 The private sector

2.2.5.1 Introduction

There is interaction between the community and the private sector. Since education is a community concern, it stands to reason that education and the private sector are intertwined. Furthermore, there is a high degree of interdependence between the school and private business enterprise. The private sector needs skilled workers for effective production, while education needs finance and technical expertise from the private sector to boost education and enhance effective teaching and efficient learning. This interdependence is emphasised by Van Schalkwyk (1988:158) when he states that without industry providing people with jobs, the efforts of education would be fruitless, because there is little point in training people without also providing them with job opportunities through which they can realise their abilities and training.

Education can either be taken by both the state and private sector as equal partners or by the private sector alone to provide for the needs of the community in the interest of civilisation and/or the profit-making economy. If this study is to be relevant, it must investigate how the problem of private sector involvement in education has been dealt with in the past.

2.2.5.2 The origin of private sector involvement in formal education For centuries man has asked who should bear the expense of education outside the home. Arguments about state or parental financing of education were advanced in previous sections. Nothing, however, has been said about expenses to be borne by private companies.

The ancient Greeks were among the first to support the idea of joint state-private enterprise involvement in formal education (Brubacher 1966:77). Schooling in Greece was the product of a surplus economy because there were well-stocked hunting grounds and crops were abundant. That surplus was sufficient to sustain a small number of the population in leisure and

consequently they had time to study (Brubacher 1966:77). Brubacher (1966:78) further on states that the decline of education was associated with the period of economic depression. He cites the example of the golden age of Greek education, which was an age of economic boom and produced great scholars such as Socrates, Aristotle and others. Greek education was sponsored by wealthy individuals who wanted to throw off the irritating restraints of state laws and was controlled by the Sophists, who are described by Van Vuuren (1988:138) as foreigners who had come to Athens to sell their special knowledge and skills.

Brubacher (1966:80) states that in Rome it was customary among the rich to appoint private tutors to teach children at home. Quintilian came up with the idea that the rich should establish schools and teachers should be paid by them (Brubacher 1966:80). To put that notion into practice, the Roman Emperor, Charlemagne, established a school at his own court (Van Vuuren 1988:139). Many studied at his school and teachers were paid by him; that marked the beginning of the involvement of private enterprise in formal education.

In Britain the Puritan clergymen who did not want to align themselves with the state and church education, formed their own schools, known as *Dissenters' Academics*, to train teachers for private schools (Butts 1973:335). This group of dissenters permeated the British educational system, establishing secondary schools to break the stranglehold of the church upon education. Butts (1973:339) refers to voluntary societies and agents such as Robert Rakes, who established schools for children who were working, and Robert Owen, who provided schooling for children whose parents worked in the factories all day.

In Germany, Francke established a series of schools that virtually ran the gamut of a complete education system: a free school for the poor; a vernacular school at primary level, a secondary school and a teacher training institution (Butts 1973:357). Francke was supported by King Frederick I who established many schools; the tuition fees of the poor children were paid by him and other wealthy community members.

Private sector involvement in education peaked during the Industrial Revolution. The shift from manual to power-driven machine production, multiplied economic

surpluses, after which employers began redistributing profits for the benefit of their workers (Brubacher 1966:88). Thus vast sums of money were channelled into the education of workers and their children. It should, however, be noted that during that era most children were working long hours at a tender age and providing them with education was not so much for their welfare, as for the benefit of their employers. On the other hand, philanthropists raised funds to sponsor charity schools for children who could not benefit from the above arrangement (Brubacher 1966:88).

At the end of the Industrial Revolution workers were demanding an education as a right and not as charity (Brubacher 1966:95). They wanted their employers to provide schools for their education and the education of their children, not only as one of the methods of adding to the efficiency of production but as the only method of producing fully developed human beings. The employers started to build a variety of workers' schools to supplement the public school programme (Brubacher 1966:96). Education has never been able to survive without private sector involvement and that involvement, in its various forms, remains desirable.

2.2.5.3 The private sector as a social structure with an interest in education

(a) The private sector and the financing of education

There are two ways in which the private sector can finance education: direct financing and indirect financing. Direct financing refers to the direct cash flow to schools from the private sector. This might be in the form of sponsorships, loans or bursaries. Indirect financing means, among other things, the erection of schools by the private sector or the purchase of educational-oriented equipment such as typewriters, photocopiers, duplicating machines and microscopes for schools by the private sector.

The fourth principle of the South African education policy demands the financial involvement of the private sector in education. It reads thus: "Where the state cannot always make financial provision for everything everywhere, the private sector has, in this case, an important share in

providing and financing education" (Van Schalkwyk 1988:213). There should be a level of commitment on the part of the private sector to supplement the state's contribution to education. With private sector support, pupils will be provided with a better, more up-to-date learning environment that will help to enable them to think critically, speak competently and write skilfully, thus better facilitating effective teaching and efficient learning.

Finance can also be made available for schools to implement staff development programmes, such as induction courses, in-service courses and one-year retraining courses. In KwaZulu-Natal the private sector has gone to the extent of employing mathematics and science teachers who are involved in staff development programmes, indicating how fruitful and effective teaching and learning can be if the private sector fully commits itself to the education of the child, its labourer-to-be. The private sector is not only interested in footing the bill, but also wants to know what the child learns, to equip him/her to be a more marketable individual.

(b) The private sector and the curriculum

The private sector insight into wants the learning Representatives of industry and education meet to discuss fields of study and subject packages that can enable the pupils to enter the employment market immediately they leave school, so that there can be fewer unemployed school drop-outs. King (1979:220) states that some private businesses determine the curriculum to be followed by schools they have For instance, in Britain the business sector presents courses known as the Technical and Vocational Education and programmes, Initiative which are prescribed for the schools the business sector built Pupils are selected for these schools. (King 1979:221). normal schools but are taken once or twice a week to factory schools. The aim of the factory schools, according to King (1979:222) is to make the school curriculum more relevant to the needs and the expectations of the community.

The private sector not only offers schools a diversified curriculum but

enriches the school curriculum by making its facilities available to students for learning purposes. For example, the business with well-equipped laboratories invites scholars to make use of them, to broaden their understanding of the subject concerned. By so doing, the private sector facilitates the teaching-learning situation.

(c) The private sector and its manpower involvement in education Business persons, in their capacity as members of school management councils, governing bodies and school committees promote educational discussion at grassroots level. They mix with local people and cooperate with the local education authorities. They also encourage close relationships between local education authorities and local business On the other hand, some business people serve on National Education Advisory Boards. Thus they might advise the government on education and educational reconstruction plans. These boards promote research in education and publish education-business oriented documents. Since businessmen are often also parents, they involve themselves in Parent-Teacher Associations, where they deal with the welfare of schools and organise extra-curricular activities. A local businessman can even donate a bus to transport pupils to various cultural or recreational events.

2.2.5.4 Conclusion

Education is responsible for the schooling of those who are to serve in the private sector with a view to supplying services to meet the needs of the economic world. It behaves any educator to know the needs of commerce and of the community, so that the education system can produce a complete, balanced and developed child who will fulfil his/her mandate in the occupational world. The importance of the private sector in education cannot be over-emphasised, since its non-intervention in schools deprives the child of progressive advancement. This deprivation breeds a poverty of intellect, leading to an inability to utilise educational opportunities.

It is therefore essential that education and the private sector develop in conjunction with one another. It goes without saying that for effective teaching and efficient learning to exist in schools, there ought to be liaison

and cooperation between the worlds of business and education. To actualise effective teaching and efficient learning, the intertwinedness of the social structures with an interest in education should be endorsed by all sectors of the community.

The next section will comprise a descriptive survey of the involvement of these sectors of the community in formal education in the Third World countries.

2.3 COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION IN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

2.3.1 Introduction

Education in the developing countries of Africa is regarded as a means to an end, not as an end in itself. Indire (1982:9) states that education in these countries is generally for an immediate induction into society and a preparation for adulthood and that is why it emphasises social responsibility, job orientation and political participation. The author has chosen Kenya and Botswana because these countries are in Africa, just as the problem under investigation in this study is in Africa. It is proper and relevant to relate African problems to African solutions. Also, Kenya and Botswana are developing countries with stable governments; they have never taken a strong socialist move towards more egalitarian states. Their conditions are therefore more or less the same as those of the Republic of South Africa. They are also former British colonies, like the Republic of South Africa. A descriptive and comparative survey will therefore be more meaningful and fair. The education systems of these two countries are open and aim at economic growth to improve living conditions and provide employment, thus encouraging aid from private enterprise and helping local communities to take the initiative. Both Kenya and Botswana have a community-oriented approach to education, which accommodates a strong community involvement in schools - the problem under investigation in this study.

2.3.2 Kenya

2.3.2.1 Introduction

Education in Africa has always been a collective affair. Traditional Black

culture called for communalism in all activities affecting the community. Because the traditional community had not differentiated various social structures, education was interwoven with existing social structures, such as the community's initiation schools (Indire 1982:118). The traditional African was a group person; there was a deep sense of integration and the goal of education was to prepare the child for integration into the group. It is through the acknowledgement of these African ground motives that the Kenyan education system can be understood in proper context, since the ground motives are "...the spiritual roots of the community life that determines the expression of, among other things, the thoughts, feelings, social life, economic principles and moral standards of the community" (Stone 1981:152).

The undifferentiatedness of the social structures with an interest in education complicates the categorisation of each social structure's activities as it has been done in the previous sections, since there is an overlapping of the activities. Consequently some structures will be treated in conjunction with one another to avoid duplication.

2.3.2.2 State involvement in education in Kenya

(a) Kenya before independence

Indire (1982:118) states that there was no state involvement in native education by way of establishing schools for natives in Kenya until 1913. Education was in the hands of the missionaries, whereas the colonial government was interested in the education of Whites and Asiatics. After 1920 when Kenya became a crown colony, the colonial office started to concern itself with African education (Indire 1982:115). Nevertheless there was a great deal of discrimination regarding which parts of the British model of education had to be followed. This argument is better elucidated by King (1977:13) when he states that the British bequeathed to Kenya an education system whose most important features were racial and numerically restrictive. The Africans in Kenya struggled for equal education for a long time; it was only in 1938 that they were offered secondary school education (King 1977:14).

During the Second World War, Kenyan education improved, as the state

started to pour more money into education, to win the support of the African people against Hitler (Indire 1982:117). King (1977:10) mentions that the excitement about Hitler in Britain was so great that the colonial office went to the extent of appointing the Asquith Commission on Higher Education in the colonies, which recommended that schools should get grants directly from the colonial development and welfare funds. This channelling of funds made the massive implementation of African education possible. However, a significant chapter in the history of education in Kenya opened up in 1960 when Kenya became independent and there was a great need on the part of the Kenyans to unscramble the colonial era and open White and Asiatic schools to Africans.

This study will focus on the role of the state as social structure with an interest in education during this period.

(b) State control and management of education

The Minister of Education is in charge of education in secondary schools. In primary schools control and management powers have been delegated to local authorities. The organogram on the following page clearly illustrates the levels of control of education in Kenya:

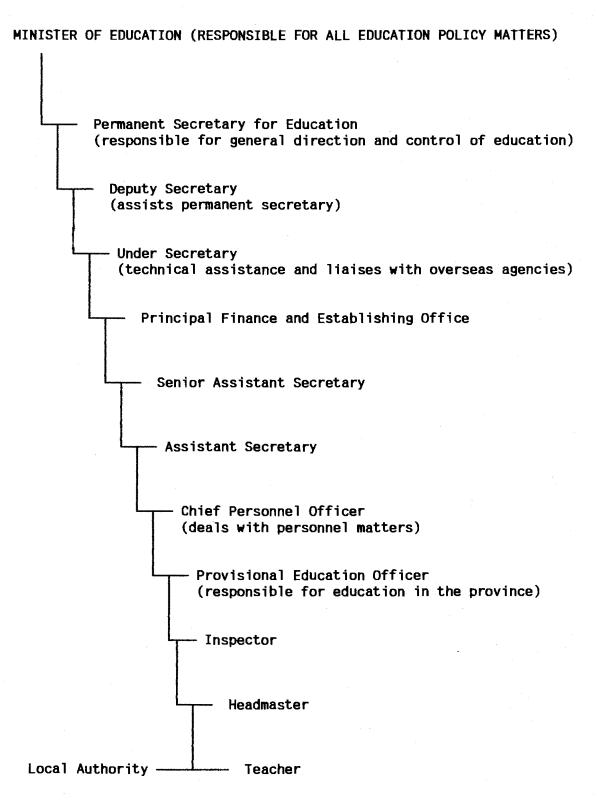


Diagram 2.2 Control of Education in Kenya

Each level is controlled by the level immediately above it; in this way, authority is transmitted from top to bottom. This shows that there is great centralisation of education control in Kenya. From the organogram it is clear that other social structures with an interest in education, have little or no say in the administration and management of education in Kenya.

(c) Financing education

The government of the Republic of Kenya has shown a strong commitment to education by investing heavily in its provision. This is reaffirmed by Achola (1988:32) who states that in a more recent study of education funding in some nineteen African countries by the World Bank, Kenya's investment in education rated number one. There is little doubt, therefore, that Kenya ranks among the leading African countries in the priority it accords to the funding of education.

The government's Principal Finance and Establishing Office deals with a national system for financing education (Sifuna 1983:484). The Government Development Plan of 1966-1977 was also established to deal with the financing of secondary education (Olembo 1986:369). Despite this plan, many secondary schools still do not have sufficient funds for boarding costs, learning material, adequate and presentable physical facilities, educational tours and sporting activities (Olembo 1986:369). In the 1979-1983 Development Plan the government decided to pass on more of the responsibility for the financing of education to local authorities (Achola 1988:38).

The expansion of educational facilities in Kenya outpaces the availability of funds from government sources, with the result that the government, in order to maintain secondary schools, is continually appealing for voluntary contributions. The possibility of raising funds from parents is diminishing rapidly because most parents are already over-burdened with school-related expenses for their dependants. According to Hughes (1989:21) the annual cost of secondary school education exceeds the per capita income, consequently the government is

looking for new sources of educational financing, such as international donors and benefactors.

Without private sector involvement in education, the Kenyan government cannot manage to finance education, as government grants fall short of the actual costs of running schools and paying teachers (Olembo 1986:370). Therefore Kenyan education benefits greatly from international donors such as the World Bank which lends the state millions of dollars to improve education. The United States of America also provides Kenya with money for primary school education programmes (Achola 1988:43), Olembo (1986:372) states that Kenya receives considerable assistance from various countries, in its attempt to develop education. Such donors are the Canadian, Swiss, German, Norwegian and Irish governments. Olembo (1986:373) states that local firms also serve as alternative sources for the financing of education in Kenya. However, according to Achola (1988:44), very little is contributed by the local private agencies in Kenya, as they contributed only 12 percent of Kenya's total education funds of 49 million in 1970 -

1971; he therefore maintains that private companies should be asked to contribute generously to funding formal education. Achola (1988:45) recommends that large private agencies, especially commercial and industrial concerns, be encouraged to operate schools for the dependants of their employees, thereby lifting part of the education burden off the government. Such private agencies would have to meet most of the costs of operating their schools themselves.

From the above discussion it is apparent that due to the fact that the Kenyan government is overcome by financial constraints, it calls upon the other social structures with an interest in education, namely the parent community and the private sector, to assist the state in bearing the yoke of education.

2.3.2.3 Parental involvement in education in Kenya

The importance of parental involvement in formal education in Kenya can be seen in the establishment of harambee schools. According to Mwiria (1990:350)

harambee means "let us pull together". Raju (1973:65) traces the origin of harambee schools from the colonial government's negligence of Black education and the bias of the religious orders, namely Muslims and Christians, who set up schools to propagate their religious doctrines. Parents, therefore, decided to establish and support their own schools, known as harambee schools.

(a) Management and administration of harambee schools

The management of most harambee schools is mainly in the hands of local leaders such as chiefs and teachers. In fact these schools are self-help projects, run purely by the community itself (Raju 1973:65). Even before independence, the community even attempted to provide its own secondary schools. However, the colonial government was suspicious of community initiatives and banned about 300 schools which the Kikuyu community had built for their children (King 1977:15). After independence, though, harambee schools, even secondary schools, mushroomed in Kenya. These were classified as assisted schools in so far as the government assisted them with qualified teachers, who helped greatly with their management and administration (King 1977:15).

It is interesting to note that despite the fact that schools are established by parents, day to day school-related functions are left to the headmaster, whose authority is seldom challenged (Mwiria 1990:351). King (1977:5) complains of parent negligence in the administration and control of the school; he states that the community knows hardly anything about what goes on in schools. The assumption is that only a teacher can teach. Such a view disqualifies most members of the community from contributing to academic development programmes (King 11977:15).

(b) Financing education

A major feature of the Kenyan education system has been community financing. According to Achola (1988:33), since independence in 1963, community participation in the financing of education has become more intense and widespread. The harambee schools are financed largely by the parents, who partly pay for it themselves and partly seek financial assistance from local authorities, individuals and firms. Local councils

levy rates, which include educational tax (Indire 1982:119).

Parents are overburdened in their responsibility of funding education, as a preponderant number of Kenyan parents earn incomes which can hardly meet educational expenses (Hughes 1989:21). Nevertheless the parents go to the extent of paying some teachers in the schools, since government provides each harambee secondary school only with a principal and two qualified teachers (Olembo 1986:371).

Sometimes the chief levies some form of tribal tax to pay teachers in his area (Indire 1982:119). In addition, parents involve themselves in fundraising activities to increase the revenue of the school and keep the children learning. By so doing, Kenyan parents manage to offer education to the underprivileged, so that they achieve social mobility, since the Kenyan nation emphasises that formal education is the only available means of selecting people for high economic rewards.

Without parental involvement the Kenyan education system, with its selfhelp educational activities, could be brought to its knees; however, parents are also assisted by religious benefactors.

2.3.2.4 Church involvement in education

The church has always been prominent in education. As in the rest of Africa, education in Kenya was established by foreign missions, namely the Christians and the Muslims. However, these missions had their own educational objectives. Their schools were created for the propagation of religious faith so as to win the Africans as converts which naturally meant that schools placed great emphasis on evangelism (Scanlam 1966:102-103). The Christian churches built catechetical schools, known as bush schools, that were run by nuns (Scanlam 1966:105). Schools were also financed by the missionaries. Most of the school day was organised around manual labour and the only opportunity to pick up academic subjects was in the night schools (King 1977:17). The Christian missionary control of schools and their ambivalent stand on matters related to African traditions, caused the government and the other African politicians to resent the reliance of education on the missions. As a result the Kikuyu

Independent School Movement was founded, to build independent schools, free from missionary control (Raju 1973:65).

On the other hand, the Muslims were building their own schools, known as *mandrassas* (Eiseman 1988:55). Students enter these schools and study there until they complete the study of the Quran. The teachers are unsalaried and their livelihood depends on the esteem in which they are held by the religious community (Eiseman 1988:67).

Despite the resentment the church education caused in the Kenyan people, there is no doubt that the missions did a lot of good work in Kenya at a time when the government could not do anything for African education. Without the bush schools many Blacks would have received no education. In the following section the teachers' involvement in education will be looked into.

2.3.2.5 Teachers' involvement in education

In Kenya teachers are held in the highest esteem. Mwiria (1990:351) states that a teacher's authority is seldom challenged. However, since Kenya is a developing country, whose educational needs are large and urgent, teachers have to be kingpins of the educational structure. A shortage of teachers in Kenya rendered the country unable to carry out its education programme. However, with the help of the United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and other foreign agencies which recruited the most qualified teachers, known as "expatriates", the education wheel in Kenya was kept rolling (Mwiria 1990:351).

(a) Pedagogical problems encountered by teachers in Kenya
While most of the expatriates were making a valuable contribution to
education, their assistance was limited to what they could improvise on
the job. Coombs and Jacques (1972:26) mention that there were no good
subject textbooks in any language, nor anyone equipped to write them.
Teachers, buildings, equipment and textbooks were not carefully
projected, scheduled and programmed. It was not uncommon to find new
classrooms with no teachers or textbooks. Sometimes the reverse
happened; there were teachers and pupils, but no classrooms. Almost

invariably there were not enough books. With any one important educational component missing, the others were seriously hampered.

The student enrolment statistics kept on rising. That resulted in over-crowded classrooms, which made it impossible for the teachers to sustain effective teaching. As this went on, the Kenyan University and training colleges managed to produce competent local teachers to replace the expatriates (Mwiria:352). These new teachers started the mammoth task of nation building as the Kenyan government viewed "...the role of education not only as one of imparting knowledge for individual benefit, but also as a promoter of equality and meritocracy and for economic development and socialisation" (Mwiria 1990:357).

(b) The relationship between teachers and pupils

Raju (1973:50) states that pupil-teacher relationships in Kenya are generally poor and adds that teachers sometimes maltreat students. He mentions further on that some teachers make children do chores for them, such as fetching water, cooking, digging and so on. Corporal punishment in schools is the order of the day. Many students leave school; they prefer to work on farms rather than be subjected to the discipline of school. Other students leave school because their hopes and aspirations have been thwarted by teachers (Raju 1973:51 - 52). This pinpoints a need for teachers to be more ethical, moral and self-respecting.

(c) Teachers' financial assistance in education

In contrast to the above, Olembo (1986:373) states that teachers in Kenya make deliberate efforts to assist schools financially, for instance by raising funds among themselves, building extra classrooms and providing educational facilities for the school. Some schools in Kenya have arable land on which teachers and students plant maize and coffee and keep cattle and pigs. These products are sold to consumers and the income earned is used to increase the revenue of the school (Olembo 1986:374).

The above indicates that some teachers' involvement in education in Kenya transcends the classroom walls and goes far beyond the pedagogic situation.

2.3.2.6 Conclusion

This brief descriptive survey of community involvement in Kenyan schools shows the strong desire and willingness of Kenyan local communities to support their own schools with money and work. However, this community involvement does not extend to matters concerning the curriculum. Parents still remain isolated from the decision-making process with regard to the teaching and learning of their children. It is therefore important that there should be a proper devolution of managerial responsibility to local communities, which might take the form of school committees which will determine the school curriculum at least in respect of those local orientations which are to be built around the national curriculum and those production activities which are to be jointly conducted by the school and the local community.

The following section will examine community involvement in schools in Botswana.

2.3.3 Community involvement in schools in Botswana

2.3.3.1 Introduction

Botswana borders, to the South and to the West, on the Republic of South Africa, to the North-East on Zimbabwe, to the West on Namibia and to the North on the Caprivi Strip and Zambia. According to Hull (1987:381) Botswana has a population of close to one million people of which about 75 percent is rural. Education in Botswana faces a number of serious problems, such as inadequate staff, deteriorating student discipline, inappropriate curricula and excessive centralisation of authority, which causes the Ministry of Education to be illequipped to provide the necessary leadership and guidance to solve the problems of schools (Hull 1987:382).

This section of the study traces the principal contribution of community structures such as missionaries, the state, parents, the private sector and teachers as social structures with an interest in education in Botswana, and their influence on the country's educational development.

2.3.3.2 The origin of formal education in Botswana

(a) State-controlled education

At first the colonial government was not interested in the education of the Batswana. It was only in 1904 that Native Education got its first grant from the colonial government (Malao 1989:162). These grants were given to community schools and missionary-controlled schools. Between 1927 and 1945, there was no secondary education in Botswana; most students received their education in the Republic of South Africa (Seboni 1946:39, Malao 1989:162). To improve the situation the government of Botswana appointed H J Dumbrell as the Inspector and Director of Education. He was the one who actually improved education, as he revolutionised the whole education system by attending to the problems of inadequate teaching material, unqualified teachers and lack of quality instruction (Seboni 1946:39).

When Botswana became independent in 1966, education was greatly expanded. The state became a direct controller of education (Malao 1989:169).

(b) Parent-controlled education

Parents were the primary educators in Botswana, shaping the children's values, forming their behaviour and endowing them with manners. Customary schools were in operation – they formally taught youths who had reached puberty the rights and responsibilities of men and women in society (Hull 1987:383).

Seboni (1946:3) states that the success of education in any area depended upon the chief's conversion to Christianity and his attitude towards the missionaries. He also mentions that chiefs even went to the extent of collecting children and giving them food to facilitate the work of the teachers (Seboni 1946:3). The local people built schools. The chiefs instituted the concept of parent responsibility in educational affairs. They formed regiments, which they frequently called up to perform duties such as erecting schools. Members were obliged to do the work and took pride in their contributions (Seboni 1946:4).

Schools in Botswana were actually operating under the umbrella of the parents. Parents began to feel that the missionaries placed too much emphasis on evangelism and not enough on secular education (Seboni 1946:5). They wanted their own schools, and their general discontent increased the voluntary financial support they gave to the school. Tribal leadership also increased its contributions to education costs. Consequently the state recommended the establishment of tribal committees, consisting of a state official as chairman, a missionary as secretary, the chief of the tribe and a member-at-large nominated by the tribe (Hull 1987:387). The majority of schools fell under the control of such committees.

(c) Church-controlled education

The cornerstone of whatever educational system exists in Botswana was laid by the missionaries. As in many other parts of Africa, education in Botswana was at first elementary religious instruction.

The missionaries of London Mission Society established schools for the Batswana as early as in 1940. Many missions were involved in education in Botswana; among others, the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of the Province of South Africa, the Lutheran Church and the Dutch Reformed Church (Hull 1987:388). These churches were bearing the financial responsibility of the schools, so formal education was in the hands of the missionaries. Loram (1917:46) sums up the situation as follows:

The history of native education in Southern Africa is the history of the Southern African missions, for it is entirely due to the efforts of the missionaries that the Natives of Southern Africa have received any education at all.

(d) Cattle post schools

The Batswana believed that if children could not come to school, the school had to be taken to them. The cattle post schools were special schools established for the express purpose of promoting literacy among the Batswana who, for one reason or another, could not utilise the

ordinary schools (Seboni 1946:24). According to Seboni (1946:24), these schools were established by Dr Schapera of the University of Cape Town. The teacher had to move from place to place within a certain area to instruct herd-boys.

A teacher was placed in charge of a few centres where herd-boys gathered for the purpose of watering or dipping their cattle. The teacher would instruct boys who desired to be taught. When he was satisfied that a start had been made, he would leave his students to carry on with tasks he set them before his departure. Later he would visit them to check the work done and to set them further goals (Seboni 1946:25). Many herd-boys benefitted from these schools.

2.3.3.3 Social structures with an interest in education in Botswana

- (a) The State
- (i) School administration and management
 The Minister of Education is the political head of education in Botswana and his duties are to:
- promote primary education, post-primary education, educational research and the progressive development of schools
- establish or disestablish schools without prejudice
- prescribe the fees to be charged in any government school (Malao 1989:168).

The administrative head of the Ministry of Education is called a Permanent Secretary, and is in charge of the activities of the Ministry of Education. The Head Office of the Ministry of Education includes the following offices: the Chief Education Officers, Secretary for Bursaries and a Director of Unified Teaching Service.

There is also local control over education, which plays a pivotal role in defining the school climate and setting expectations for students and teachers (Kidd & Byram 1978:173). There is a Local Education Authority (LEA) which is composed of the local councils that provide primary school infrastructure, such as classrooms, teachers' cottages and offices.

The Botswana government's strategy of central administration in education results in the loss of local people's discretion in the implementation of educational policies and places strict limits on the autonomy of local school administrators. These restrictions on the discretionary authority of principals discourage individual and local initiatives, as teachers have to submit decisions to the ministry that they are capable of making themselves (Kidd & Byram 1978:174).

(ii) Educational reforms by the state

The Botswana government is committed to the support of education in the country's development plans (Botswana 1988:180). Government schools are funded by the Ministry of Education and the government is currently working on the expansion and reform of the educational system. It has plans to greatly increase rates of enrolment at higher levels. This massive enrolment expansion requires the construction of new schools, development of new curricula, the production of new textbooks, the training of new teachers and the retraining of present teachers (Plank 1987:119).

The government calls for a better fit between the output of the education system and the occupational structure in Botswana, in order to address unemployment among school leavers. Curricular changes are expected to increase the employability of Botswana school leavers, as curricula place great emphasis on practical subjects (Botswana 1988:182). The government also plans a close relationship between schools and the communities in which they are located. To achieve this, the government is encouraging the establishment of local boards of governors and parent-teacher associations (Botswana 1988:184). Parents and community leaders are

encouraged to be more directly involved in the administration of local schools.

(b) Private sector and parents

(i) Local control over education

To reinforce the concept of local control over education, the government has introduced the Board of Governors which controls community junior secondary schools. The membership of the board is as follows:

- · The Manager
- The District Commissioner
- The local Member of Parliament or his nominee
- One member nominated by the Permanent Secretary
- Four to seven members chosen by the local community.

(Swartland 1983:73).

(ii) Community schools

Community schools are sponsored by local communities, largely through the payment of school fees by parents. They receive virtually no financial or administrative support from the Ministry of Education (Plank 1987:126). In these schools the principal most often works alone. Plank (1987:124) maintains that most community schools are housed in makeshift buildings and lack many facilities such as office space, laboratories and, in some cases, even toilets.

Community school students are recruited from among those who have failed to gain admission to government schools. The problems of these schools, according to Kidd and Byram (1978:175), are compounded by unqualified principals, who are not equipped to provide the leadership required to improve the quality of their schools. The recurrent cost of teacher and administrator is the responsibility of the local community. In such schools it is clear that parents are fully involved, not only in control and management, but also in the daily activities of the school.

(iii) The Serowe Brigade schools
Martin (1970:8) defines a "brigade" as "...an institution offering

primary school leavers a worthwhile or vocational training in such a way as to cover the current cost of that training." These schools combine education and training. Their curricula include manual work, as they are self-financed brigades for training young people in trade or manual skills.

The Brigades are divided into units, according to what is produced and taught; they act both as productive enterprises and as centres where skills in training and education, take place (Botswana 1988:180). The brigade managers and work supervisors are also instructors and teachers. Most training takes place on the factory floor, but trainees are released for periods of theoretical teaching and general academic lessons. This combination of education and training has economic and pedagogical benefits. The economic benefits are crucial to the universalisation of education in Botswana, as education is covered by some of the total production income of the Brigades programmes.

Pure academic schooling cannot meet the development needs of a country like Botswana, but technical education in the form of the Brigades programmes creates the opportunity and the basis for effective teaching and efficient learning. The linking of education and production lays the foundation for improved relationships between people.

Community structures are involved in the running of the Brigades schools. On the one hand, the government subsidises schools and trainees receive allowances; on the other hand, the Board of Trustees includes elected representatives of managers, staff, trainees and trainees' parents (Van Rensburg 1980:385). This involvement of almost all social structures with an interest in the education at the Brigades schools, permits participation and encourages discussion, so as to open up learning opportunities for all the Batswana.

2.3.3.4 Conclusion

Other social structures with an interest in education, who are not specifically mentioned above such as the teachers, also contribute greatly to education.

Their role should not be undermined. The contribution of the church to education is also beyond all praise; it took upon itself the hard and thankless task of educating the Batswana children.

2.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed aspects of community involvement in schools and determined their influence on the community involvement practice throughout the ages. In addition, a descriptive survey of community involvement in schools in Kenya and Botswana was presented.

Although the state, teachers, church and private sector are all important, parents occupy a major position in all social structures that have an interest in education, since they function as parents in the family, as members of parent bodies of schools, as members of the church, as supporters of the ruling political party (the government) and as employers and employees in the commercial world. It is clear that without parental involvement in education, the whole ideal of bringing about effective teaching and efficient learning is doomed. For this reason, there should be meaningful and mutual cooperation and collaboration among all the social structures with an interest in education, with collective bargaining power, if effective teaching and efficient learning are to exist at all.

The following extract illustrates clearly the need the author has been referring to: the need for the practical implementation of inclusive community involvement in education:

Thousands of placard-waving school pupils, parents, teachers, and members of all races took to the streets of Durban on Friday (15 February) in a massive show of their opposition to apartheid education.

(People's Voice 1991:1)

The next chapter gives an outline of community involvement in farm schools.

CHAPTER 3

3 THE EXPLORATION OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an outline of the exploration of community involvement in farm schools. The first part of the chapter concerns the historical review and exploratory aspects of farm schools. Thereafter the findings on the social structures with an interest in education as determining factors of community involvement in farm schools, are discussed.

3.2 AN HISTORICAL REVIEW AND EXPLORATORY ASPECTS OF FARM SCHOOLS

3.2.1 An historical review of farm schools

In this paragraph the author looks briefly at the history of Black farm schools in the Republic of South Africa, so that it will be easy to see how the system started and grew, and what influenced it to change. The approach will be to look at different historical periods and then at education in each period. Hopefully a picture of how the farm school education system came to be what it is today, will thus emerge.

Not much is known about African education in Republic of South Africa before the advent of the Whites. However, it is certain that education in the form of ceremonies, rituals and various rites did take place. Horrel (1968:3) states that, according to an entry (dated 17 April 1658) in Jan Van Riebeeck's diary, the first Black school was established for slaves in the Cape. It was in 1663 that the second school, for four slaves and one Khoi, was established (Christie 1988:33). Prior to 1800 there was little schooling for African children. Christie (1988:36) further states that it was only in 1799 that the first mission school was established at King William's Town, followed by other missionary schools, such as Lovedale. The education of African children living in White rural areas was left to the missionaries. The provincial administrations did not initiate education for the children of farm labourers. For many years the financial burden of running African schools had to be borne by the missionaries. Later ordinances were passed in the Cape (1879) and the Transvaal (1903) which stipulated that subsidies henceforth would be paid to mission schools (South Africa 1986:5). With the establishment of the Union in 1910, the control of African education was transferred to provincial authorities. From 1926 to 1945 the provincial governments, the Department of Education, Arts and Science and the Department of Native Affairs jointly controlled African education and from 1946 to 1949 control was shared by the provincial administrations and the Union Department of Education, Arts and Science (South Africa 1986:6).

In order to promote community involvement in African education, the Union government appointed the Eiselen Commission (1949-1951), which recommended that African education be transferred from the provincial administrations to the Union government (South Africa 1986:6). The recommendations of the commission gave rise to the passing of the Bantu Education Act in 1953 (Act no 47 of 1953), in terms of which the control of African education was placed in the hands of the Union government (Ross 1966:8). After the promulgation of this Act the Department of Native Affairs took over most mission schools and as from 1954, education for Africans in South Africa became a solely governmental concern. African education was effectively removed from missionary control, while farm school education remained very much under the control of the landowner.

It goes without saying that from then onwards, to all intents and purposes, farm school education remained under the control of the farmer, while the state put an end to some of the private education presented by the missionaries. Gaganakis and Crewe (1987:1) voice the opinion that the former government felt that its own interests and those of the farmers coincided sufficiently for it to support farm school education, whereas it clearly did not have the same confidence with regard to mission education. Parents, desperate to get their children into schools, raised money for schools, teachers' salaries and equipment (Gaganakis & Crewe 1987:2).

The years following the 1953 Bantu Education Act saw the state breaking down the power of the missionaries in education affairs. In 1948, of the 7 000

schools in South Africa catering for Black pupils, 5 000 were missionary-run; under the central control of the Native Affairs Department (Graaff & Gordon 1992:216). The central innovation introduced by the Bantu Education Act was the system of control for farm schools. These schools were registered as state-aided schools, subsidised by the state. In theory, the state and the farmers were dual managers of the schools, but, in practice, the farmer, as owner of the land, had the power to open or close schools and to evict teachers and pupils from his property (cf paragraph 3.3.3).

The late 1970's brought some changes. In 1979 the Education and Training Act replaced the Bantu Education Act. The new Act placed African education on White farms in the hands of the Department of Education and Training. The Act had the potential to radically alter farm schools, for it included aspects like compulsory education, free tuition, the regulation of teacher-training and employment and a government pledge for equal education (Transvaal Education Department 1990:26). In 1984 the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act (Act No. 76 of 1984) was passed, based on the national policy for general matters. Accordingly, African education was placed under General Affairs (Van Schalkwyk 1988:49).

In 1986 the previous DET published a report on farm schools. Graaff and Gordon (1992:22) state that the main thrust of the 1986 report was twofold: the creation of structures to reclaim control of farm schools from the farmer and the upgrading of schools, facilities and teaching practices.

The curriculum for farm school children came under attack. The report recommended agriculturally-based subjects (South Africa 1986:29). This led to the passing of the Education Laws (Education and Training) Amendment Act of 1988, allowing the state to buy schools from farmers, to extend the level of education to allow primary schools to become intermediate schools, to prevent pupils from being withdrawn from school to work on the farms and to establish school committees/management councils, comprising the farmer and parents, if the farmer so desired (Graaff & Gordon 1992:221). It is worth noting that little use was made of these concessions, because the Right Wing Members of Parliament were against them. Graaff and Gordon (1922:222) maintain that

Conservative Party Members of Parliament opposed the election of parents onto school committees/management councils and the then Minister of Education and Training acceded to their objections, stating that farmers would be able to maintain control if they so desired, without appointing a school committee/management council. This meant that a school committee/management council was at issue only if the owner of the farm decided not to manage the school himself (Nasson 1990:40).

The Education Renewal Strategy Discussion Document, published by the Government in June 1991 was hailed as a major policy initiative. However, it did not specifically mention anything about farm schools, beside the suggestion that there should be universal primary education up to Standard 5 (DNE 1992:9).

In 1993 there were 5 648 registered farm schools with 476 773 pupils and 12 972 teachers (Farm Schools 1993:1). That meant that 19 percent of the former DET pupils received their education in farm schools. As from 1 January 1995, all education departments started to function as one department. The former Department of Education and Training fused into provincial administrations although technically the management and running of farm schools have not changed much yet. The former DET administration and management structures are still in place.

3.2.2 What is farm schooling?

"Farm schooling", in this study, refers to the education of African pupils living in White rural areas (cf paragraph 1.6.4). There are various categories of schools which qualify as farm schools in the South African context: those for predominantly African children in the former Bantustan villages, those for predominantly Coloured children in White-owned farms and schools for African children on White-owned commercial farms (Graaff & Gordon 1992:208). This study project is confined to the last of these categories. Farm schooling is a joint venture of farmers and the Department of Education. Farm schooling, according to Nasson (1988:13), lies squarely within the wider institutional matrix of social forces and relationship in rural areas. It is rooted in the structure of work discipline, social order and moral policing (Ngwenya 1988:12). Farm schooling in South Africa was born into a situation of serious

conflict and struggle between White farmers and Black labourers (Graaff & Gordon 1992:211).

The farm school structure is in keeping with the national system for Black primary schools as a whole. The primary school course in farm schools is thus divided into two stages namely the lower primary (Sub-standards A and B to Standards 1 and 2) and the higher primary school (Standards 3 to 5). No classes higher than Standard 5 could be provided on farms without the prior approval of the previous Department of Education and Training (Ngwenya 1988:13). Educational provision in farm schools is variable. Regional differences exist, with a high concentration of schools in some areas and a dearth in others. Also, the size of schools varies from one-teacher schools catering for the official minimum of 15 pupils to larger schools, such as the one in Ixopo - Mariathal Intermediate - which has more than 15 classrooms and more than 600 pupils.

Within this grim picture of conditions in schools as a whole, there are indeed instances where the farmer's goodwill extends beyond his contractual obligations to the Department of Education, as his drive to keep the school well-equipped lies in his charity or paternalism. Farm schooling depends solely on the social practices on the farm and the relations between the farmer and his labourers, if it is to blossom.

Out of the over 2,2 million former DET school children, about half a million attended farm schools in 1993, (Farm Schools 1993:1). Consequently Graaff and Gordon (1992:208) maintain that 76 percent of all former DET primary schools were farm schools. Despite attempts by the previous DET to upgrade farm schools (for example increased subsidies and to upgrade teacher qualifications), the actual conditions in such schools still bear testimony to the heritage of neglect. More detailed information on these schools is given in paragraph 3.3.

3.2.3 Determining factors of community involvement in farm schools

The farm school system has the same universal structural principles found in all individual education systems. On the other hand, it also has its own

unique aspects of reality. In the following section the author explains the aspects of reality found in the farm school education system and illustrates the intertwinement of education with the environment, culture, politics and history, by referring to consecutive aspects of reality as embedded in ground motives.

3.2.3.1 Ground motives as determining factors

In every specific life world there is a series of forces that have affected and still affect the education system as it develops its own national character. To understand such a life world, one has to understand such forces, known as ground motives. The ground motives influence the way the principles of education are applied, therefore ground motives as actualisation factors of community involvement in farm schools will be discussed briefly.

3.2.3.2 The nature and origin of ground motives

Stone (1984:104) states that the unique character of an education system is especially brought about by unseen driving forces. In all history the changes which have taken place in culture have been directed by man's convictions and certainties. Other factors, according to Van Schalkwyk (1988:240), also play an important role in determining changes, but man's convictions and his faith are the driving forces that determine the direction of educational development. A ground motive is therefore seen as the spiritual root of community life, which determines the expression of thought, feeling and social and community norms (Stone 1984:103). According to Van Schalkwyk (1988:240), ground motives lie behind and at the base of the complex of norms in a community or cultural group. A community motive controls the community's philosophy of life and the world, its goals, ideals and policy.

A community motive, according to Hans (1982:85), leads community culture in a certain direction and bestows on it a certain spirit or national character. Van Schalkwyk (1988:241) maintains that a community motive has a profound influence on the general view a community takes of life, while playing a role in the ethos of the community as well.

There is a strong relation between a ground motive and the education system.

The education system is a cultural phenomenon and as such is imbedded in the culture of a community. The farm school education system is characterised by the blending of ground motives associated with politics, culture and nature (cf paragraphs 3.2.3.4 and 3.2.3.5). The application of these ground motives in the farm school education system is discussed in the following paragraphs.

3.2.3.3 Cultural factors

(a) Cultural-historical factors

"The education system of every country is formed in the course of time and evolved in conjunction with it, owing to its close intertwinement with the milieu" (Van Schalkwyk 1988:248). The education system may not grow in a manner that is against its cultural-historical milieu. Historically, farm schooling developed as an offspring of the Bantu When it was introduced by Verwoerd in 1954, he stated that he related education to a subject dear to the hearts of the farmers (Gaganakis & Crewe 1987:85). He added that neglecting the establishment of farm schools resulted in the sending of children to town schools and the moving of parents to town. In the light of what was said by Verwoerd, one notices a hidden suggestion that the provision of farm schools has to be understood as a policy of discouraging urbanisation, with schooling operating alongside other hindrances and denouncements. The historical demands of farm school education placed the farmer and the state above the expectations of other social structures such as the However, at present South African education is parents and pupils. making specific demands regarding the cooperation of all social structures with an interest in education.

(b) Economic factors

To understand farm schooling, one should note what part it plays in the reproduction of economic domain beyond its existence. There are no alternative employment opportunities on farms except for the jobs that the local farmer can offer, hence the farmer has an economic influence on the lives of the people living on his farm. It stands to reason that farm schooling can be generated by the farmer's desire to implement semiskilled labour on his farm. The products of farm schooling are employed

on the farms as semi-clerks; doing jobs such as counting the farmer's implements, making out purchasing orders for the farm and receiving meagre wages in return. The farmer serves as a giver of the workers' education, hence workers become his subservient clients. This is pointed out by Joyce (1980:170) as he states that "...the giver being blessed by providence, puts the recipient in the shadow of his name." The pupils on a farm always see education as an economic gift from the farmer. This gift creates an economic relationship between the farmer and the child, who will be a future worker. Joyce (1980:170) states that this economic relationship represents an organic relationship between the poor and the wealthy. For the wealthy to maintain their wealth, the poor must be engaged in the activities generating it. The farm school education system maintains that the farmer is the only one in charge of education on his farm, which means that the involvement of other social structures with an interest in education, can upset the farmer's economic order.

(c) Social factors

"The social factors refer to matters like interpersonal and group intercourse, associations, liaising and intergroup (racial) relations" (Van Schalkwyk 1988:249). These factors refer to the relationships among the social structures with an interest in education. Nasson (1988:15) describes the relationship between the farmer and the labourers in farm schooling areas as a paternalistic practice. This relationship serves as a method of social control. Because the farmer provides education, the labourers must always remain subordinate to him. The relationship between the farmer and the parents of the farm school pupils is a relationship between the rich and the poor. There are stressed values of community social bonds of identity between the farmer as an employer and the black parents as his workers. Such a relationship renders it impossible for the black parents and the farmer to serve on the school committee or management council as equal partners with a vested interest in education, hence most farm schools have no parent committees/management councils (cf Tables 4.10 and 4.11).

(d) Juridical factors

"An education system is embedded in and is influenced by the legal system and legal norms which are in force in a country, at a particular time..." (Van Schalkwyk 1988:250). The Bantu Education Act of 1954 and the Education and Training Act of 1979 made the farm school system the joint responsibility of the state and the farmer alone. The rights of the parent, teacher and pupil are not taken into account in farm school education. The onus of the provision and maintenance of education rests on the farmer. Present legislation allows the farmer or his appointee to be a school manager, which gives the farmer the exclusive right to employ teachers. So it is possible for the appointment of teachers to be based not on merit, but on what the farmer thinks of the teachers.

The power exercised by farmers over schooling should be viewed alongside legislative acts such as the Labour Relations Act, the Wage Act, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act and the Unemployment Act which do not apply to farm workers, thus rendering them powerless in terms of mobility, rights, the right to a living wage and social services. Farm schools are institutions associated with mobility and advancement that are controlled and restricted by the farmer. The farmer-state partnership illustrates that the state's is not Willing to hand over almost key responsibilities for schooling to farmers exclusively. partnership enshrines the position of the farmer as a benefactor, with the good of the farming community at heart. It is his right to decide whether or not to open or close a school on his own farm. If he does not have a school on his farm, he has the power to decide whether the children on his farm will be allowed to attend school on a neighbouring farm (Christie & Gaganakis 1989:84). The juridical principles demand that justice be done to all in the education system, hence legislation has to be amended to cater for the inclusive social structures' involvement in the farm schooling system.

(e) Language factors

"An education system functions in the lingual aspect of reality and is partly determined by it" (Vos & Brits 1988:47). The education system is

determined by the language situation in the country concerned. In multilingual countries such as the Republic of South Africa, the language factors often create great problems for the educational system. The farm school system is in keeping with the national system for Black primary schools as a whole. In the lower primary school (Sub-standards A and B to Standards 1 and 2) the medium of instruction is the mother tongue. The use of the vernacular at this stage is described by Vos and Brits (1988:49) as very important, because it connects the school with the pupils' surroundings and previous experience and cognisance is taken of the origin, national character, identity and the life and world view of In the higher primary schools and secondary schools the people. (Standards 3 - 5 and Standards 6 - 10 respectively) the medium of instruction is no longer a vernacular language. Until recently, South African legislation recognised only Afrikaans and English as official languages; regional authorities had to decide which of the two would be used in their schools. Since in KwaZulu-Natal English predominates, as a rule the farm schools in KwaZulu-Natal use English throughout. However, in the 1994 draft White Paper on Education and Training, eleven languages were declared official and each provincial government has to decide which language is to be used as the medium of instruction in the province.

The use of a foreign language in school is sometimes condemned by educationalists; as Hans (1982:62) warns:

Educators who boldly undertake to impose a foreign language as the medium of instruction run the risk of losing the fruits of all their efforts by producing a generation with a superficial verbal knowledge unconnected with its surroundings and experience...

The argument levelled against the use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction in farm schools is that education through mother tongue instruction is felt to be inadequate. It has been realised that the appropriate scientific terminology for use in different content subjects

at schools, simply does not exist yet in the African languages. This is detrimental to the advancement of Black education, more especially so in this technological age. The farm school education system, however, takes account of the fact that the Republic of South Africa is a pluralist community, rich in different languages, hence it emphasises the importance of the language and culture of the various ethnic groups in the country. Various languages are taught in farm schools, as second languages. These included – among others – Zulu in KwaZulu-Natal, Xhosa in the Western and Eastern Cape and Sotho, Pedi, Tswana and Shangaan in the North-West, Northern Transvaal, Eastern Transvaal, Gauteng and Orange Free State. These languages are also the medium of instruction for religious education and non-examination subjects like physical education and singing in higher primary classes (Stone 1984:78).

From the discussion above, it is clear that the linguistic aspect is connected to the cultural aspect of reality, in which the farm school education system functions.

3.2.3.4 Natural factors

Demographic factors

Demographic factors refer to numbers, space, mobility and population density (Stone 1984:65). It is difficult to provide education for a sparsely populated region, hence it is viable to establish farm schools in such regions. Most of the farm schools in KwaZulu-Natal are situated in rural and mountainous areas such as Swartkop, Underberg, Hella-Hella, Qunu Falls and Himmeville.

Prospects look bad for future generations of children born in these shrinking, stagnant and depressed rural communities. The rural nature of the siting of farm schools makes it impossible for the non-agricultural labour market to penetrate those areas to provide financial support. Hence, private business sector involvement is inhibited, unlike in urban areas and in the former homelands, where big companies establish comprehensive high schools and assist in converting existing secondary

schools into technical secondary schools.

3.2.3.5 National character of a community

Van Schalkwyk (1988:243) points out that a national character is the totality of a community's ground motives, philosophy of life (from which emanates the principles, norms and values embraced by the community) and community ethos. The farm school education system used to be determined by the political conditions of the apartheid and racial segregation policies, dating back to the Land Act of 1913 that prevented Blacks from owning land outside their designated reserves, restricting them to 13 percent of South African land and the Development Trust and Land Act of 1936 which provided the legal framework for the removal of Blacks from White farms (Christie & Gaganakis 1989:81). Laws preventing squatting (1968) and labour tenancy (1978) further cut short the landrights of Blacks on White farms. These laws led to the growth of a farm working class with no access to land, restricted economic participation and minimal social services. Even today, the farm schools form such social services as are available on White farms for Black children. These schools the lowest and historically most neglected link in the chain of apartheid education. The conditions that shape farm schools are still related to the particular form of racial capitalistic development in rural South and Gaganakis (1989:92), in the protracted According to Christie class struggle over land and labour power, White farmers have been able to establish their political and economic dominance and to control Black workers by a series of forceful measures.

Deprived of access to land and prevented by a network of the former apartheid laws from participating fully in the economy, the Black labourers on White farms have become impoverished. Because this impoverishment is a result of apartheid development, even current farm schooling in the Republic of South Africa has to be understood in terms of the philosophy of life adhered to by the previous government, with its apartheid education system and social inequality. It is as a result of that philosophy of life that inferiority and low status are theories which continue to define the social recognition of farm schools.

The above discussion has clearly shown that the particular economic, cultural, social, linguistic and natural aspects of a community make certain demands on the education system. Since education is a social structure of man (who functions in all aspects of reality), in the following section the author discusses the influence and the force of the social structures with an interest in the farm school education system and explores how these structures function as determining factors of that system.

3.3 SOCIAL STRUCTURES WITH AN INTEREST IN EDUCATION AS DETERMINING FACTORS OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS

3.3.1 State involvement in farm schools

The first distinctive feature of farm schools is that they fall under the joint control of the farmer and the state. Farm schools are budgeted by the provincial Department of Education. The subsidy for farm schools, which includes classrooms, administrative offices, storeroom and toilets is 75 percent as evaluated by the Department of Education. In a letter to farm school managers, Dr Bernard Louw, the then Director-General of the previous DET, stated that a 100 percent subsidy was being considered (Farm Schools 1993:2). After five years, the farmer may apply for a 6 percent subsidy on building renovations and repairs. If funds are available, the Department of Education also subsidises single quarters or cottage accommodation for teachers and water supply and fencing for the school grounds (Coan 1990:13). the state paid an average of R208 per pupil attending a farm school and each farm school received an average of R18 007,47 per annum (Joubert 1987:7). In addition, the state paid an annual allowance of R30 to school managers, as well as teachers' salaries (Joubert 1987:7).

The state exercises its own control over farm schools. Most important, it registers all farm schools. To qualify for registration, farm schools are required to meet certain criteria, namely the size of the school (minimum 15 pupils), classroom size, construction and location, syllabi, hours of instruction and terms of employment of teachers (Christie & Gaganakis 1989:85).

Farm schools are provided with desks, chairs, blackboards, chalk, a radio and textbooks (South Africa 1986:51).

As from 1987, the previous Government committed itself to improving farm school education, involving parents and attracting competent teachers to farm schools, as a result of which, it accepted the following principles (Stuart 1987:10):

- no child should have to walk more than five kilometres to reach a school.
- the state accepts full responsibility for rural education and this implies increased subsidies for farmers who provide land and buildings.
- farm schools should be converted to public schools in consultation with farm owners and new schools should be established on stateowned land.
- a group of four to ten smaller schools should be placed under the supervision of a competent itinerant principal.
- each pupil who has potential should be afforded access to secondary schooling.
- hostel facilities at selected places should be made available to pupils living beyond the reach of a secondary school.
- basic sporting facilities should be provided.
- serious attention should be given to pre-school services and in service training of teachers, to provide for the specific needs of farm schools.
- teachers' centres should be established in rural areas.
- an educational advisory service and management training for principals should be provided.

The practical implementation of the above-mentioned principles were positive steps in bringing about more effective teaching and efficient learning in farm schools. However, the state needs the support of the parents in its endeavours.

3.3.2 Parental involvement in farm schools

There is little statutory provision for orderly parental involvement in farm schools (cf Table 4.10). Parents distance themselves from the school and their sense of distance from the school is underlined by their exclusion from any control over the running or the management of the school. This is done despite the fact that in 1954 Dr Verwoerd told the Senate that:

"Bantu mothers can in accordance with local methods, erect walls where farmers allow it, and the department will provide the windows, doors and roof..."

(Transvaal Education Department 1990:26).

Teaching in farm schools is affected by the fact that teachers hardly get parents involved in the education of their children (cf paragraph 4.5.3.5). Gaganakis and Crewe (1987:69) state that the majority of parents, being illiterate, do not understand the problems teachers encounter at school (cf Tables 4.6 and 4.17). They add that because farm school parents are not aware that their children have to do some school work at home, pupils get no help. This assertion contradicts the empirical survey (cf Table 4.6). The Education Laws Amendment Act of 1988 provided for the establishment of school committees/management councils comprising the farmer and parents. This provision, according to Graaff and Gordon (1992:221), was watered down during the parliamentary debate on the Act. The then right wing Members of Parliament were against the provision (cf paragraph 3.2.1). The 1988 Act provided for a school committee/management council including the owner of the school or his representative.

The neglect of parents usually stems from the fact that some parents are of the opinion that schooling is not their concern, but the farmer's. They consider the school as belonging to the farm owner or the state, and therefore feel that it is not their responsibility. The neglect of parents, according to the report on Education for Black Pupils in Rural Areas (South Africa 1986:9) constitutes a considerable problem, as the joining of forces of home, school and church is one of the cornerstones of a sound education.

Many parents were so concerned about the education of their children that they contributed constructive suggestions that can be used in promoting effective teaching and efficient learning (cf Table 4.7).

3.3.3 Farmers' involvement in farm schools

Traditionally the education of the farm workers' children is the responsibility of the farming sector, though subsidised by the state. The farmer is the kingpin of farm school education. It is always the farmer who establishes a farm school. The state can encourage farmers to open schools, but it has no authority to insist that these schools remain open. The onus is on the farmer to provide land, erect schools and provide school facilities as well as accommodation for teachers. Some farmers even purchase stationery for pupils and transport pupils to school at their own expense (Graaff 1988:21). One should note, however, that if the farm is sold, the new owner is under no obligation to continue with the school.

The farmer or his wife is usually appointed by the Department of Education as the school manager. He or she oversees administrative aspects, including the day to day running of the school. His or her responsibilities as school manager involve among other things the maintenance of the school, interviewing all prospective teachers and recommending their appointment to the Department of Education, handing teachers their salary cheques, keeping school records and liaising with the Department of Education, the school inspector and other farmers in the district. As school managers, farmers wield great power over the educational process. This is why Gaganakis and Crewe (1987:6) point out that the education of nearly half a million Black children is subject to the will of private individuals. The farmers decide who can attend school and when. Thus for many Black children education is not a fundamental right.

There are, however, great problems with regard to these farm schools, namely, the practice of child labour and the untimely closure of schools by farmers. The structural powerlessness of the farm school is such that the farmer can remove the children from the classroom for one or two hours a day and put them to work in his fields (Tema 1987:8). Some farmers, according to a report of

the *New Nation* (Deprived, but getting ahead 1987:10), go so far as forcing the children to work for hours in the morning before they go to school, while others use children to do farm work during specially extended break periods. Christie and Gaganakis (1989:91) quote Levy (1976) as citing instances of schools being closed for one or two weeks during peak harvest times. The former DET officials have expressed concern over the use of child labour (cf Appendix H). By 1959, according to Graaff and Gordon (1992:219) farmers had the legal right to make use of pupils' labour during school hours, under the pretext that this was training in agriculture. The farmers were encouraged by the Minister of Bantu Education in 1959, as quoted in Horrell (1964:65-66):

We have made it compulsory that, where the farmer wants these facilities, part of the school instruction of those children on the farm of the European farmer must be training in the normal activities on the farm, in order to encourage a feeling of industriousness on the part of those children, and particularly to sharpen in their minds that education does not mean that you must not work with your hands, but to point out to them that manual labour and also manual labour on a farm is just as good a formative and developmental level as any other subject is.

Farmers have common law property rights over farm schools and the Department of Education cannot enforce the continual functioning of the school once the owner has decided to close it. *The Business Day* quoted Gaganakis and Crewe as stating that up to 170 farm schools were closed down between 1981 and 1984 (Tema 1987:8). The closure of farm schools underlines how precarious the provision of education on White farms is, and how entirely as the existence of these schools relies on the farmer's benevolence.

Farmers have their reasons for closing schools. The bureaucratic hassles of running a school as well as the economic climate which makes it difficult for a farmer to run a school, are two such reasons. The running of a school presents serious financial and managerial implications for a farmer. He has, for instance, to provide land, buildings and even housing for the teachers,

despite the fact that agriculture is constantly plagued by drought and inflation (Joubert 1987:7). Often farmers also complain about children who tramp pathways (causing soil erosion), defecate in the veld (infecting browsing cattle), drop plastic bags (which can choke livestock) and bend fences (stealing crops) (Harvey 1980:70). In fact, it has become clear that in farm school education the state is able to secure the provision of minimal schooling at a subsidised rate, since farmers are bearing a substantial part of the cost.

Despite some criticism of the farmers with regard to inter alia child labour and the closure of schools, the farmers are the kingpin of the farm school education system. Without them there could be no education for nearly half a million black children in the Republic of South Africa.

3.3.4 Church involvement in farm schools

The church has always been prominent in education in the Republic of South Africa, especially in Black education. Before 1953 the mission schools provided almost all the education which was available for Africans. With the passing of the Bantu Education Act of 1954, most church schools closed down. Only three types were allowed, namely Bantu community schools, state schools and state-aided schools. According to Christie (1986:80) the missions were given difficult alternatives: to keep their schools as private schools with no government subsidy, to keep their schools as state-aided schools or to rent or sell the school buildings to Bantu community organisations. Graaff and Gordon (1992:215) are of the opinion that the Bantu Education Act was responsible for ripping Black education out of church control.

The mission or the church which chose to keep its school as a private, unaided school, found it difficult to continue, as money was short. There were only two viable alternatives. Those mission schools that were in the Bantu reserves or the homelands, were handed to the Bantu community organisations and became community schools and those that were in White areas and opted to be stateaided, became state-aided farm schools with the priest or the minister being appointed by the Department of Education as the farm school manager. Such schools are the same as those that are found on White farms. The church societies, together with parents and the school community, often make a

substantial contribution in the form of the physical erection of school buildings as well as financial support. The Department of Education subsidises the buildings and pays the teachers. Sometimes the church provides the school with nuns and monks to serve as teachers. Because they are paid by the state, the church and the state are jointly responsible for the education in church farm schools.

In the survey it was revealed that the former DET Bulwer circuit had private schools run by the church, with the state paying subsidies to the church.

3.3.5 The involvement of private business enterprise in farm schools There are individuals and individual organisations who, out of sympathy and benevolence, erect schools for Black children living on White farms. They provide land for a school and raise money to build it. They sometimes help by teaching subjects for which there are no qualified teachers. Jill Lidget, of Casimula Primary School in Pietermaritzburg, was teaching arts at the school in 1990, which was built by concerned individuals (Coan 1990:13). individuals donate money to build schools and members of the local community are encouraged to carry out fundraising projects (in order to supplement donations) - the Natal Midlands Farm School Project is an example. This project was started in 1989 by a community in the Nottingham Road area. The Women for Peace and Farmers' associations, backed and helped by the Urban Foundation, launched and started fundraising for a scheme to upgrade the quality of education and ease the problems faced by farm school teachers (Von Klemperer 1990:5). The project organisers are involved in various undertakings such as a Mobile Teaching Unit - where a truck, equipped with shelving, a generator and a side-tent, serves as a roaming laboratory, visiting farm schools in the area. There is also a circulating library, where one equipped library is divided into practical modules and these modules are circulated among the schools by the project organisers (Von Klemperer 1990:5).

In 1986 several United States companies pledged to take over the government responsibility to upgrade farm schools in the Republic of South Africa, as they were concerned about the lack of teachers, classrooms and educational facilities, at, for instance, farm schools in the Sandton/Midrand area (Cameron

1987:4). The reason cited by Signa for their involvement in farm schools was that its labour force is drawn from the community in these areas and it was trying to help uplift Black society (Cameron 1987:4).

In the Pietermaritzburg area, the Electricity Supply Commission (ESKOM) and a predominantly white school, Michaelhouse, jointly embarked on the project of enriching farm schools. They organised workshops attended by teachers and senior managers of big businesses such as Anglo-American and Anglo-Vaal to lobby for their involvement in the upgrading of farm schools (Moulder 1990:9). However, in the former DET Bulwer circuit the private business sector is taking little notice of farm school education (cf Table 4.21). The survey indicated that most schools (88,57%) did not receive any help, be it financial or otherwise, from any source except the state, the farmer and the church.

3.3.6 Teachers' involvement in farm schools

3.3.6.1 Introduction

According to the Farm School News (Farm Schools 1993:1) there were 12 972 farm school teachers teaching 476 773 pupils in the Republic of South Africa in 1993. These teachers had the high pupil/teacher ratio of 1:37. Their situation was made worse by the fact that they had to cope with one and two man schools where one teacher was teaching more than one standard at a time. Although the recent political and educational changes in the Republic of South Africa have fused the farm school education system with other education systems, nevertheless farm school teachers still have many pupils, all with different educational needs in front of them.

It is a valid truth that an educational system is only as good as the teacher it employs. Generally, in the farm schools, most teachers have inferior qualifications (Nasson 1988:30). Some possess no professional teaching qualification and others are under-qualified, combining a Standard 6 or Standard 8 Certificate with professional certificates. Many teachers teach subjects in which they themselves were not trained. The De Lange Commission (South Africa 1983:59) has this to say:

without a corps of well trained and talented teachers, any endeavour aimed at a system of education by means of which the potential of a country's inhabitants is to be realised, economic growth promoted, the quality of life of the inhabitants improved and education of equal equality provided for everyone, cannot be successful.

In farm schools there is both a quantity and a quality deficiency of teachers. Poorly qualified teachers will by and large produce poorly qualified pupils. Consequently, the previous DET embarked on a teacher improvement programme aimed at improving the performance and skills of farm school teachers (Van Wyk 1988:320). Such a programme, according to a report in *Die Karet* (New focus on farm schools 1988:15), was aimed at improving learning experiences for pupils, in order to better prepare them for the challenges of adult life and to help overcome farm school education disadvantages.

3.3.6.2 Farm school teachers - farmer interactions

There are varying levels of interaction between the farmer and farm school teachers. The teachers depend on the farmer for accommodation. The outcome is that frequently the teachers occupy or even share farm labourers' housing. They cannot question the dilapidated quarters in which they live (Maurice 1991:19). In some instances, when the farmer interviews teachers for employment, he questions the applicants about their political viewpoints, so that he can keep "...the communist influence away from his people" (Maurice 1991:19). In other instances, teachers were threatened with the closure of the school in cases of stock theft on the farm, unless they found out who the stock thieves were (Gift of pre-fab buildings 1987:24).

Such a relationship with teachers makes it difficult for well-qualified teachers to remain in farm schools. That is why Nasson (1988:31) states that in farm schools there are regular staff losses as a result of urban migration or transfer. The rude shock of trying to conform to a farm school manager is often sufficient to ensure that young urban recruits do not linger for very long.

From the above discussion, it is clear that it is difficult for farm schools to retain staff and stabilise their teaching force, hence to effect effective teaching and promote consistent, efficient learning is not always practically possible.

The next section deals with the factors that inhibit effective teaching and efficient learning in farm schools.

3.4 FACTORS INHIBITING EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND EFFICIENT LEARNING IN FARM SCHOOLS

3.4.1 Lack of the proper educational environment

Education in farm schools suffers a variety of limitations, resulting, among other things, from overcrowded classrooms, lack of electricity, lack of transport to schools and some farmers' negative attitudes towards schooling.

3.4.1.1 Physical facilities

Some farm school classrooms are in old buildings or huts; others do not have even toilets. There are no specific school rooms such as libraries and laboratories in primary schools, because the department does not subsidise such school rooms (South Africa 1986:81). Most farm schools do not have electricity in the classrooms. Some classrooms are so dark that children sitting in the back rows can hardly see their exercise books. Most farm schools do not have running water; others do not have any water at all. As a result, pupils have to go to a neighbouring farm during teaching hours to draw water and "roll back two 200 litre drums filled with water every day..." (Makobane 1988:3).

Overcrowding in the classroom is a pervasive problem. In one classroom there are no less than sixty children, huddled into desks. In some schools where there is not enough space to squat, children have to wait until the following year or two years after before they can begin school (Deprived, but getting ahead 1987:10). To keep the lid on overcrowding, the former DET set the upper limit to the pupil-teacher ratio at 1:55, which obviously endangers effective teaching and efficient learning. Because some schools in the former DET Bulwer circuit are overcrowded, parents contribute money to build extra classrooms.

3.4.1.2 Lack of a school transport system

Farm schools are sparsely distributed. They are located so that most children have to walk on average more than five kilometres each way. In the former DET Bulwer circuit pupils in the Ixopo section have to travel more than ten kilometres to Ixopo village schools, since some farmers have closed down their schools. In 1970, the government shrugged off the long distances, stating that "children can easily travel a distance of five miles or more to school" (Farm Schools 1970:2). Since the children walk long distances, by the time they reach school, they are tired. As a result, they can hardly concentrate in class.

3.4.1.3 The problem of insufficient schooling time

Farm school pupils get insufficient schooling time as a result of various didactic situations (Khanyile 1982:41). Because of the shortage of classrooms, farm schools employ various strategies to meet the children's educational needs. They use the combining of classes system, whereby the teacher combines one or more standards in one classroom and teaches them all together. Levy (1976:23) states that there are farm schools where as many as four to six standards share the same classroom and the same teacher. In the former DET Bulwer circuit there are many one-teacher schools. One principal apologised to the researcher for not returning the questionnaire on time, explaining that she was overloaded with work as she was the only teacher teaching four classes, namely Sub-standard A, Sub-standard B, Standard 1 and Standard 2. Such arrangements must affect effective teaching and efficient learning.

Farm schools also make use of the platoon system, which involves two classes, each with its own teacher, using the same classroom in separate sessions. Khanyile (1982:5) states that by 1982 the previous DET in KwaZulu-Natal had seventeen platooning schools with a population of 2 685 pupils. Farm schools also make use of the double session system. This involves the teacher teaching two classes, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon. The statistics from the Report of the Buthelezi Commission (1982) indicate that in 1982 the former DET had 171 schools with 13 359 pupils in KwaZulu-Natal involved in the double session system. As a result, the children concerned are generally provided with an incomplete education, as they spend too little time at school (Khanyile 1982:44).

3.4.1.4 The negative attitudes of certain farmers

To some farmers educating the workers' children is a nuisance which interferes with their profit. Such farmers develop negative attitudes and often interrupt schooling (Nasson 1988:25). Because it is the farmer's prerogative to set up or close down schools as he deems fit, there is no permanence. This leads to uncertainty and hinders effective teaching and efficient learning. In addition to the interruption of schooling activities, farmers can remove children from the teaching-learning situation for one or two hours a day of labour, as has already been mentioned. The former DET Bulwer circuit had the same problem; the Assistant Director of the area therefore issued a circular to all principals of farm schools to report such cases (cf Appendix H).

3.4.2. High drop-out rate

Despite the small number of farm children who go to school, large numbers drop out, particularly in the higher standards, and the drop-out rate is reported to be rising. Portia Maurice of the $Weekly\ Mail$ reports that about 1,5 million Black children live on farms, but fewer than 33 $_{1/3}$ percent attend school and only one percent of these go beyond Standard Five (Maurice 1991:19). This means that farm school children have a significant high drop-out rate in the country, as depicted in figure 3.1.

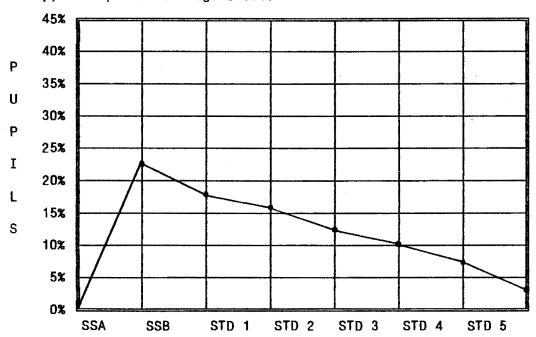


Diagram 3.1 Primary farm school drop-out rates for 1984/5 (Graaff 1988:20)

Diagram 3.1 clearly shows that only about 4,2 percent of farm school children reach Standard 5. In the following discussion an attempt will be made to describe the causes of this high drop-out rate.

3.4.2.1 School fees

School fees appear to be ridiculously low, ranging between R1 and R25 per year. Yet parents are unable to afford them, because of the low wages they earn. Failure to pay means that the child, in turn, pressurises the parents, and this often results in the child being taken out of school. In the former DET Bulwer circuit some schools charge building funds of as high as R70,00 per child and because farm workers cannot afford such fees, some children leave school.

3.4.2.2 Low household economy

Nasson (1988:23) maintains that impoverished parents are incapable of enriching the lives and minds of children and of encouraging them to remain in school. Poor households do not see investment in farm schooling a paying proposition; once children are old enough to get a job in the labour market, they are expected to contribute to the household economy. This leads to a situation where children are kept home from school to do domestic work or are withdrawn from school to labour for the farmer, thus bringing an extra income into the household.

3.4.2.3 Lack of harmony between the school and the family - both cultural resources.

Farm school education takes place in a vacuum. For many school children, the farm on which they live and the path they walk to school makes up their entire world view. Most of them seldom get to town. They have no experiences which would stimulate their interest in education. Educational concepts which are taken for granted in urban areas, do not apply in the world of farm schools, which is why pupils leave school. Isolation ensures that farm schools are bypassed by the main arteries of democratic education.

3.4.2.4 Unavailability of secondary education

According to a report in the *Natal Witness* (Robbins 1987:10), the lack of secondary education contributes greatly to the high drop-out rate. Access to

secondary schooling in farm schools is negligible. In the former DET Bulwer circuit out of a population of 42 schools, there are fewer than five secondary schools. Pupils who pass with distinction and a first class in Standard 5, who are supposed to have another five years of schooling ahead of them, cannot complete their education because the closest secondary school is nearly 80 kilometres away. The farm working parents can afford neither transport nor boarding and so they are forced to withdraw their children from school. These bright children end up doing unskilled work at low pay, leading farm working parents to believe that formal education has nothing to offer.

3.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter gives an indication of the level of community involvement in farm schools and shows a need for inclusive community involvement in these schools in order to bring about effective teaching and efficient learning. The findings also indicate the position of community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area with particular reference to the former DET Bulwer circuit. The same situation in the former DET Bulwer circuit is in the whole of the KwaZulu-Natal region to a certain extent. One could even say that the results and findings in this chapter are generally predictive of what can be expected among farm schools in the Republic of South Africa. If this is the case, what suggestions can be made? This becomes an important subject of discussion in the final chapter.

The next chapter outlines the empirical investigation into community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area.

CHAPTER 4

4 EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION INTO COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FARM SCHOOLS IN THE PIETERMARITZBURG AREA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the methodological procedures adopted to acquire the data needed on the current state of community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area and how effective teaching and efficient learning in these farm schools can be brought about by expanding current community involvement (cf section 1.2). The selection and design of the research instruments are discussed, followed by presentation, analysis and interpretation of data.

4.2 AIM OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

The empirical investigation was selected because it is an efficient method of assessing attitudes or opinions towards individuals, organisations, events or procedures (Gay 1987:11). In this study it involved assessing the opinions and attitudes of farm school parents and principals towards community involvement in farm schools. To determine this, use was made of primary sources such as correspondence between the Department of Education and farmers, newspaper cuttings and circulars from the Department of Education (cf sections 1.4 and 1.5). To supplement the information in the documents, the empirical investigation became indispensable, since it is concerned with finding out "what is" (Borg & Gall 1989:331). This type of investigation was chosen to provide important leads in identifying needed emphasis and necessary changes in farm schools.

4.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

The population relevant to this study comprised principals and parents in the former DET Bulwer circuit (cf section 1.3). There are forty two schools in the former Bulwer DET circuit, and five sections or wards, as indicated in the organogram. The Bulwer circuit is one of the former DET circuits of the Pietermaritzburg area in the KwaZulu-Natal region. The researcher chose the former DET Bulwer circuit because it has the desired population, representing

all the relevant subgroups of the population. It is therefore a microcosm of the Pietermaritzburg area, representative of other circuits and reflecting the farm school system as it functions in the whole of the Pietermaritzburg area (cf section 1.3). The following organogram represents the structure of the Pietermaritzburg area in 1993.

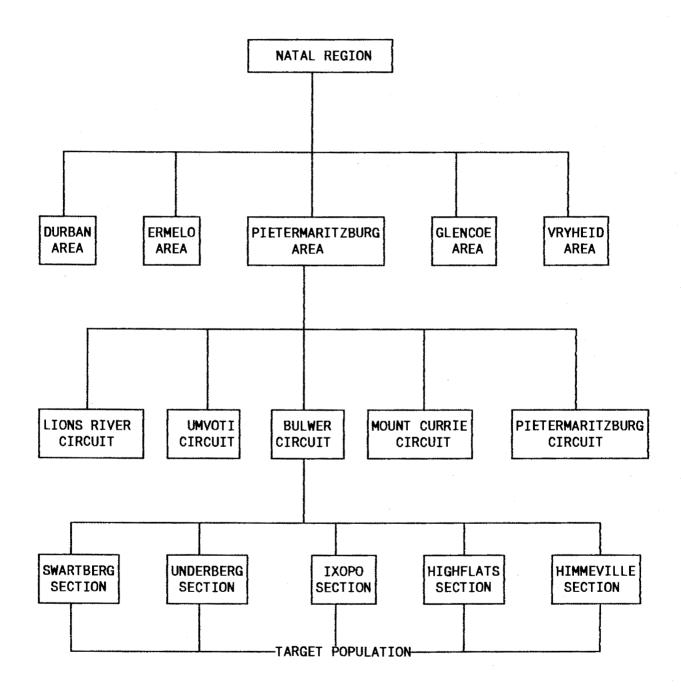


Diagram 4.1 Organogram representing the target population of this study in the Pietermaritzburg area

4.4 HOW THE RESEARCH WAS CONDUCTED

4.4.1 Development of the questionnaires

Since the population that was covered was widely and thinly spread, the use of mail questionnaires was a relevant technique in this investigation. This saved both the researcher and the respondents time, input and money. Many educationalists such as Moser and Kalton (1978) and Lehobye (1978) concur in stating that the questionnaire makes it easy for the respondents to answer questions of personal or embarrassing nature more willingly and accurately, as they are not actually facing the interviewer, who may be a complete stranger.

Two questionnaires were developed; one for the principals and the other for the parents. The questionnaire for the parents was developed because the gist of this study comprises community involvement. A community without parents is unthinkable; parents occupy a major position in all social structures that have an interest in education. The other questionnaire was developed for the principals because they are in the forefront of any educational activity in farm schools. They perform a functional activity and they cannot be left out in a research project that concerns them directly. Above all they are also in the position to answer many questions with regard to community involvement in their schools.

The construction of the questionnaires was guided by the general principles suggested by Moser and Kalton (1978), Cohen and Manion (1989) and Nachmias (1987). There is a considerable range of opinions concerning what constitutes the optimum length of a questionnaire, but it is generally agreed that, provided the purposes of the research are met, shorter questionnaires are more effective. The questionnaire for parents (Appendix A) had ten items and the questionnaire for principals (Appendix B) thirty-one.

A personal request was made to the Circuit Inspector of the former DET Bulwer circuit for permission to collect data from farm schools in his circuit. Permission was granted after consultation with the Area Manager and the former DET Head Office (cf Appendices E and F).

4.4.2 Administration of the questionnaires

4.4.2.1 Pilot study

Since the year was rapidly drawing to a close, pre-testing was done with five farm school principals and ten parents around Pinetown in the first week of November 1993. This was done in accordance with Leedy's (1989:143) observation:

All questionnaires should be pre-tested on a small population ... Every researcher should give the questionnaire to at least half a dozen friends or neighbours to test whether there are any items that they may have difficulty understanding or that may not ask exactly what the writer of the questionnaire is seeking to determine.

Through the use of pre-testing, the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked were meaningful because clear responses were received from the respondents and hence, on the basis of the feedback received, no adjustments were made to draft questionnaires. Final questionnaires were prepared for distribution to forty-two school principals and eighty-four parents (cf paragraph 4.4.2.2).

4.4.2.2 Final administration of the questionnaires

During the second week of November 1993 questionnaires were sent to forty-two school principals. Three questionnaires, a stamped, self-addressed envelope and a covering letter were furnished. In the covering letter addressed to principals, they were requested to complete their own questionnaires and to distribute two questionnaires to parents who would be able to complete them (cf Appendices C and D). Although this practice was difficult, as most farm school parents are illiterate, the principals were, nevertheless, in a position to know which parents would be able to complete the questionnaire. Because of all the ongoing violence in the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands, in which the former DET Bulwer circuit is situated, it was impossible for the researcher to administer the questionnaire himself or to employ people to do that.

After the parents had completed their questionnaires, they had to return them to the principal, who in turn returned them, together with his own

questionnaire, to the researcher. The principals whose schools are near the circuit office were asked to return the completed questionnaires to the circuit office (cf Appendix C). The principals whose schools are a distance from the circuit office were asked to return the completed questionnaires to the researcher in the self-addressed and stamped envelope, by not later than 19 November 1993 (cf Appendix D).

The completed questionnaires began to arrive before the end of November, but most of them were received during the December holidays. Those questionnaires that were sent to the circuit office were sent to the researcher by the secretary of the Circuit Inspector in the 1st week of January 1994.

The questionnaires received by January 10 1994 were as follows: 59 from parents and 30 from principals (giving the response rates of 70,23% and 71,42% respectively). On the 11th of January 1994 the researcher undertook a follow-up method in the form of a postcard reminder (cf Appendix G). The reminder postcards were sent to all forty-two school principals. This was done because responses were anonymous and the researcher did not know which schools the received responses had come from, as the questionnaires had not been marked before they were mailed to the respondents.

The follow-up was reasonably effective and it finally increased the response rate by 11,88% for principals and by 11,91% for parents. The responses were as follows:

	Number of questionnaires mailed	Number of questionnaires received	Percentage
Principals	42	35	83,3%
Parents	84	69	82,14%

This represented a satisfying response. Concerning the non-response, the researcher gained the impression that, since most of the completed questionnaires were returned during the holidays, some principals might have forgotten them in their schools or might have ignored the appeal to complete the questionnaires and distribute some to parents. This is evidence that "...response is correlated with interest in the subject of survey" (Moser &

Kalton 1978:268).

Having outlined the methodological procedures adopted in the empirical investigation, the following section is directed to an analysis of data obtained in connection with the formulated research questions.

4.5 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.5.1 Introduction

The first step the researcher took was to give each response an ID number. The second step was the scoring of the questionnaires. Each response to an item was assigned a number of points, for example: No = 1, Not sure = 2 and Yes = 3. The respondent had to cross the relevant number as an answer.

The scoring of data was done by hand and an extra check was done by a qualified A-test user from Pinetown who conducts psychometric and edumetric tests for students in the area and is an expert in scoring standardised tests. Rechecking is recommended by Gay (1987:336), when he states that it is advisable to have at least one other person scoring the tests as a reliability check.

After the tests were scored, the results were transferred to a summary data sheet. The scores were systematically manually recorded. Each item was assigned to its own column. Since the data analysis involved item analysis, all the scores for each item were tabulated at the end, as each item formed a subgroup. This was done without the aid of the computer because there was a limited number of subjects. This method is supported by Gay (1987:423) as he states that if the population size is not large, if a limited number of variables are involved, and if relatively simple statistical analyses are to be performed, the use of a calculator may be the most efficient approach.

After the statistical analyses had been completed, all the data was rechecked. The original scores were rechecked, as well as the data sheets.

Presented below are statistical tables drawn up from the replies to the questionnaires, together with brief analyses and interpretation of the data.

4.5.2 Data concerning parents

4.5.2.1 Attitudes of the parents towards the school

Would you like to become a member of the school committee?

Table 4.1 Willingness to become a member of the school committee

	No.	%
Ye s	42	60,9
Not sure	19	27,5
No	7	10,2
No answer	1	1,4
Totals	69	100

Table 4.1 reveals that most of the parents (60,9%) agreed on the need for participation in the school management structures or school committees. This implies that the majority of the parents have a positive attitude towards the school, despite the earlier findings by Gaganakis and Crewe (1987:69) who stated that parents do not want to get involved in the education of their children (cf paragraph 3.3.2). The crux of the matter is that there is little statutory provision for orderly parental involvement in farm schools (cf paragraph 5.3.2), despite the fact that the Education Laws Amendment Act of 1988 provides for the establishment of governing bodies such as management councils and school committees in farm schools (Graaff & Gordon 1992:220). The data in this table (4.1) indicates clearly that many parents are concerned about their involvement in farm school education, despite 10,2% "No" and 27,5% "Not sure" responses. The latter percentages may be the result of the fact that some parents have no time to participate in such bodies, either because they work on farms or because farm schools do not offer parents opportunities for participation.

4.5.2.2 Parent-teacher interaction

(a) Would you like to be a member of a Parent-Teacher Association in order to promote good relations between teachers and parents?

Table 4.2 Relationship between parents and teachers

	No.	- %
Yes	51	73,9
Not sure	10	14,5
No	7	10,2
No Answer	1	1,4
Totals	69	100

Table 4.2 reveals that the majority of the farm school parents (73,9%) want to promote good relations between themselves and teachers by being involved in non-statutory bodies such as Parent-Teacher Associations (cf paragraph 5.4.2.2). What can be said here is that most parents want to share the burden of educating their children with the teachers. The examples of bodies that promote parent-teacher interaction are indicated in paragraph 2.2.2.4 (ii). These bodies enable parents to cooperate with teachers, communicate with them openly and share burdens without feeling threatened or embarrassed. The professional implications for non-statutory bodies are discussed in paragraphs 2.2.2.4 (ii) and 5.4.2.

Very few parents (10,2%) indicated that they would not like to be members of the parent-teacher association; others (14,5%) were not sure. This may be because some parents do not know anything about Parent-Teacher Associations or have no time or opportunity to belong to such associations (cf Graaff & Gordon 1992:229).

(b) Would you like to be a member of a Parent-Class Teacher's Club?

Table 4.3 Relationship between class teachers and parents

	No.	%
Yes	39	56,5
Not sure	16	23,2
No	13	18,8
No answer	1	1,5
Totals	69	100

Table 4.3 reveals that 56,5% of farm school parents seem to be positively inclined towards a good relationship between parents and class teachers. The percentage is lower than the "Yes" response in Table 4.2 (73,9%). That may because the concept of parent-class teacher's clubs is not common in farm school areas or because parents are not sure of the role played by such clubs. It appears that those who responded positively to this item would like to communicate with their children's teachers and want to contribute towards their child's education (cf paragraph 5.3.2). However, 23,2% of the parents say that they are not sure. This finding suggests that they are not sure what a parent-class teachers' club is. In fact, there are no such clubs in farm schools. Perhaps the fact that 18,8% of the parents gave a "No" response can be attributed to the same reason.

The fact that there are no parent-class teachers' clubs in the area suggests that parents have limited opportunity to meet the teachers of their children in action, to discuss the children's problems and progress with teachers and to exchange views with teachers. The importance and the necessity of these clubs are discussed fully in paragraphs 2.2.2.3 and 5.4.2.

4.5.2.3 Informal involvement of parents in schools

- (a) Would you like to help the school by:
- 1. maintaining the school grounds?
- 2. repairing buildings and equipment?

Table 4.4 Attitude of parents towards their informal involvement in schools

4.4.1 Maintaining school grounds	Yes Not sure No No Answer Total	No 37 10 20 2 69	% 53,6 14,5 29 2,9 100
4.4.2 Repairing buildings and school equipment	Yes Not sure No No Answer Total	34 11 20 4 <u>69</u>	49,3 15,9 29 5,8 <u>100</u>

Table 4.4 reveals that about half of the parents surveyed (53,6%) would like to help the school by maintaining the school grounds and 49,3% are prepared to repair buildings and school equipment. This means that about 29% of the parents are not willing to volunteer to help at the school, should needs of this nature arise. It should be kept in mind that farm school parents are mostly working parents, who probably do not have the time to maintain school grounds and repair school buildings and equipment. It is also appropriate to relate the ownership of the school to the attitude of parents. The farm school is the property of the farmer and he receives a subsidy for erecting it (cf paragraph 3.3.1); he also receives a subsidy for building renovations and repairs (cf paragraph 3.3.1). This suggests that parents could feel that the school is not theirs. It is, therefore, important to include the parents in any control over the running and management of the school, so that they can feel that they are part and parcel of the school (cf paragraph 5.4.2).

- (b) 1. Would you like to accompany the pupils on educational tours?
 - 2. Would you like to assist with sport by coaching pupils?

Table 4.5 Promotion of extra curricular activities

4.5.1 Accompany pupils on educational tours	Yes Not sure No No answer Totals	No. 42 12 14 <u>1</u> 69	% 60,9 17,4 20,3 <u>1,4</u> 100
4.5.2 Assist in sports by coaching	Yes Not sure No No answer Totals	36 9 22 <u>2</u> <u>69</u>	52,2 13 31,9 <u>2,9</u> 100

Table 4.5 represents a consolidation of sub-tables 4.5.1 and 4.5.2. Sub-table 4.5.1 reveals that the majority of the parents (60,9%) want to promote extracurricular activities for their children. This implies that many parents are willing to commit themselves effectively in education, by sacrificing their time to accompany pupils on school educational tours. Fewer parents, (20,3%) indicated that they did not want to accompany pupils on educational tours. This may be because of the fact that most farm school parents work on the farm and therefore may not able to accompany pupils (cf paragraph 5.4.7.4 (d)).

Sub-table 4.5.2 reveals that only about half of the parents (52,2%) are prepared to help with the coaching of school sport. This can be attributed to the fact that in farm school areas there are limited sporting activities. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the parents themselves may not be good at sport, or may be good, but not understand particular rules, or maybe do not participate themselves, due to a lack of facilities. Hence, it would apparently not be an easy undertaking to involve farm school parents in the coaching of school sport (cf paragraph 5.4.2).

4.5.2.4 Formal involvement of parents in the school

- (a) Would you like to function as a teacher—assistant in the classroom situation e.g. supervise the reading lesson, needlework, art and craft?
- (b) Would you regularly supervise your children studying at home?
- (c) Would you like to control the homework of your child by signing the the work that has been completed?

Table 4.6 Formal involvement of parents in the school work.

4.6.1 Parents functioning as teacher- assistants	Yes Not sure No No answer Total	No. 33 15 20 <u>1</u> <u>69</u>	% 47,8 21,7 29 <u>1,5</u> 100
4.6.2 Parents supervising study at home	Yes	55	79,7
	Not sure	4	5,8
	No	9	13
	No answer	<u>1</u>	<u>1,5</u>
	Total	69	100
4.6.3 Parents controlling homework	Yes	55	79,7
	Not sure	4	5,8
	No	8	11,6
	No answer	<u>2</u>	<u>2,9</u>
	Total	<u>69</u>	100

Table 4.6 represents the consolidation of sub-tables 4.6.1, 4.6.2 and 4.6.3 as indicated above. Sub-table 4.6.1 reveals that less than half of the parents (47,8%) would like to be formally involved in the school to promote effective teaching and efficient learning. However, 21,7% are not sure and 29% responded negatively. This may be because they are not sure what teacher-assistants are. They might also be anxious about mingling with the teacher in the classroom situation. If one bears in mind the fact that the same respondents (parents) overwhelmingly endorsed the idea of supervising their children's studies at home and controlling their homework (cf sub-tables 4.6.2 and 4.6.3 and paragraph 5.4.7.4 (d)), it makes sense to assume that, because they work, most of the parents do not have the time to participate as teacher-assistants.

Sub-table 4.6.2 reveals that an overwhelming majority of the parents (79,7%) want to regularly supervise their children studying at home. It suggests that there is a growing culture of co-responsibility on the part of the parent community with regard to the academic school programme (cf paragraph 2.2.2.3). The 5,8% "Not sure" responses and 13% "No" responses can be attributed to the fact that some farm school parents do not understand anything about studying, let alone supervising it (cf paragraph 3.3.2). This backlog can be addressed by organising parent workshop programmes, where parents can be oriented on how to control homework and studying at home.

Sub-table 4.6.3 reveals that an overwhelming majority of the parents (79,7%) want to control their children's homework by signing work that has been completed. This shows a sincere willingness on the part of the parents to cooperate, especially if one takes into consideration that the majority of farm school parents are semi-literate or illiterate. However, those who completed the questionnaires were literate (cf paragraph 4.4.2.2). Further discussion of this issue appears in paragraph 2.2.2.3. The 5,8% "Not sure" responses and 11,6% "No" responses can be attributed to the same reasons stated under Subtable 4.6.2.

4.5.2.5 Recommendations on improving teaching and learning

Item 10 of the questionnaire was an open-ended question where parents were required to mention things that they would like to see happening in the school that could help improve teaching and learning (cf Appendix A). Out of 69 respondents only 52 gave reply to this item. This can be attributed to the fact that parents, in this instance, were required to write words and not merely put a cross (x). The replies were written in Zulu and English. The researcher had to translate those in Zulu into English. In total 80 responses were given. In analysing the responses the recommendations were ranked in order of frequency.

What would you like to see happening in the school to improve teaching and learning?

Table 4.7 Parents' recommendations on improving teaching and learning in schools, analysed according to the frequency rate. N = 80.

Recommendations		Frequency of the recommendation	
_		No.	*
1	Schools should be engaged in extra-mural activities such as the traditional dance, soccer, music, netball and drum majorettes	12	15
2	Schools should have teaching aids such as television sets and video machines	10	12,5
3	Schools should regularly undertake educational tours to expose pupils to the practical experience of the classroom situation	10	12,5
4	The farm school curriculum should be extended to include manual and technical subjects such as arts, crafts, gardening, needlework and computer studies	9	11,25
5	There should be willing cooperation between parents and teachers	6	7,5
6	Children should be encouraged to speak English throughout the school day	4	5
7	Books and stationery should be distributed to students early, preferably on the first school day of the academic year	4	5
8	Study loans and bursaries should be given to pupils to finance their education	3	3,75
9	Sex education should be taught to avoid teenage pregnancies	3	3,75

Rec	commendations (Continues)	Frequen recommen	cy of the dation
		No.	x
10	Schools should be upgraded to Std 10	2	2,5
11	The community should be involved in selecting the curriculum	2	2,5
12	Prayer sessions should be conducted to instil religious values in pupils so as to encourage good morals	2	2,5
13	There should be a feeding scheme for pupils	2	2,5
14	The school should employ labourers to maintain school grounds and not expect the children to do so	2	2,5
15	Structures should be put in place to supervise the work done by pupils and teachers	1	1,25
16	Structures should be established to protect pupils and teachers against the political violence engulfing the area	1	1,25
17	The teaching personnel should be democratically unionised	1	1,25
18	There should be a regular check on pupils' work by teachers and parents	1	1,25
19	More qualified teachers should be employed in farm schools	1	1,25
20	Subject societies should be formed to facilitate the teaching of difficult subjects such as Physical Science and Mathematics	1	1,25
21	Both teachers and pupils should attend school regularly.	1	1,25
22	Parent-teacher-students associations should be formed to promote friendly relations among all social structures with an interest in education	1	1,25
23	The children should be given academic progress reports on a quarterly basis	1	1,25

Table 4.7 gives the frequency in which 23 recommendations were mentioned by 52 respondents. This shows how parents view the implementation of effective teaching and efficient learning in their schools.

Firstly, this table reveals the need for the expansion of extra-mural activities in the farm schools. It suggests that education in farm schools should transcend the classroom walls. Secondly, it also reveals that parents view teaching and learning aids as important (12,5%). This implies that effective teaching and efficient learning can be facilitated by the use of

teaching and learning aids (cf paragraphs 3.3.5, 3.4.1 and 5.4.2.3). Thirdly, the table shows that parents want their children to be exposed to the practical experience of the classroom situation (12,5%). The suggestion is that parents notice the narrow world in which the farm school stands and they want their children to get exposed to the outside modalities of teaching and learning. It is also interesting to note that the table reveals that parents want a diversified curriculum, that includes inter alia gardening and arts and crafts, to be implemented in the schools.

As the table reflects, there were many parent recommendations. It is worth noting, however, that parents are aware of the fact that the current violence in KwaZulu-Natal does affect effective teaching and efficient learning and that they suggested that structures be established to protect pupils and teachers against political violence. It is also interesting to note that the issue of qualified teachers was mentioned only once. In essence, the recommendations present valuable insights into the needs and ideals of farm school parents regarding teaching and learning in farm schools.

4.5.3 Data concerning principals

In this section a brief overview is given of the analysis and interpretation of data from those questionnaires that were completed by the farm school principals. The findings are presented with sufficient interpretation to clarify their meaning.

4.5.3.1 Types of schools in the former DET Bulwer circuit that responded to the questionnaires

Table 4.8 Types of schools

	No.	%
State-aided farm schools	31	88,6
Public schools	3	8,6
Private schools	1	2,8
Other		
Total	3 5	100

Table 4.8 shows the respondents according to the schools of which they are the principals. It also illustrates how many more farm schools there are in the Bulwer circuit than public schools.

4.5.3.2 Parental involvement in farm schools

(a) Was part of your school built by the parents?

Table 4.9 Parental contribution to the school

	No.	%
Yes	7	20
Not sure	1	2,86
No	27	77,14
No answer	_	_
Total	35	100

Table 4.9 reveals that a limited number of the parents (20%) contribute towards the construction of schools. It may be appropriate to relate the ownership of the farm school to how little parents contribute towards its construction. It is the farmer's responsibility to erect farm schools and he receives a huge subsidy for that (cf paragraph 3.3.3), hence 77,14% of the respondents made no parental contribution towards the construction of the school.

(b) Does your school have a school committee/management council?

Table 4.10 Management and control of schools

	No.	%
Yes	9	25,71
Not sure		-
No	26	74,29
No answer	-	
Total	35	100

Table 4.10 reveals that in most farm schools (74.29%) there are no school committees/management councils that manage and control the schools. finding is disturbing, because common and statutory laws provide for the establishment of organised school governing bodies such as school committees and management councils, through which parents can get involved in the education of their children (cf paragraphs 2.2.2.4 and 3.3.2). This situation schools can be attributed to the fact that the White Right Wing members of the former Parliament objected to the election of farm school parents to school committees/management councils (cf paragraph 3.2.1). The previous government objections by deciding that in farm schools the school acceded to those committees/management councils could only be established if the farmer decided not to manage the school himself (Graaff & Gordon 1992:222). disappointing gesture on the part of the previous government, as the need for the involvement of parents in education cannot be overemphasised. For effective teaching and efficient learning to take place, there should be proper parental involvement and greater parental participation in the education process. Further discussion of this matter appears in paragraphs 2.2.2 and 5.4.2.

(c) Are parents represented on the school committee/management council?

Table 4.11 Parental involvement in the management and control of the school

	No.	%
Yes	10	28,57
Not sure		_
No	25	71,43
No answer	_	-
Total	35	100

Table 4.11 reveals that most schools (71,43%) do not have parents as members of the school committees/management councils. This implies that in most schools parents are not involved in the management and control of schools (cf interpretation and comments on Table 4.10). However 28,57% of the principals

gave a "Yes" answer. This may be because, in principle, the former government approved the establishment of parent school committees/management councils in farm schools (Graaff & Gordon 1992:222). The establishment of a school committee rests on the farmer as an individual. According to the "Yes" respondents (28,57%), some farmers have indeed decided to appoint parents to manage the schools. The farmers may, however, maintain control of the school, if they so desire, without appointing a school committee/management council.

4.5.3.3 Attitude of parents towards the school

Do you think parents want to be involved in the school?

Table 4.12 Parents' attitude toward parental involvement in schools

	No.	%
Yes	25	71,43
Not sure	7	20
No	3	8,57
No answer	_	
Total	35	100

Table 4.12 indicates that most principals are of the opinion that parents would like to be involved in schools. This is validated by the parents' response to questionnaire A1 (cf interpretation and comments on Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3). There is clearly a need for farm school parents to be represented in the management and control structures of the school, for effective teaching and efficient learning to take place (cf section 2.2.2.3). Of the principals, 20% gave a "Not sure" answer and 8,57% a "No" answer. This may be because some farm schools do not have statutory or non-statutory parent bodies and it is difficult to assess whether parents want to be involved in the running of the school if there are no such linking bodies.

4.5.3.4 Parents' financial contribution towards the school

(a) Do parents pay some teachers' salaries?

Table 4.13 Payment of teachers' salaries

	No.	%
Yes	0	0
Not sure	_	•
No	35	100
No answer	-	_
Total	35	100

Table 4.13 shows that all farm school teachers (100%) are remunerated by the state. In most rural Black schools, there are privately paid teachers (PPT) who are paid by parents. In most church state-aided schools, the state pays the annual subsidy to the church and the church pays the teachers privately from its coffers.

(b) Do parents raise funds to defray school expenditure?

Table 4.14 Parents' commitment with regard to school expenses

	No.	%
Yes	18	51,43
Not sure	1	2,86
No	16	45,71
No answer	_	_
Total	35	100

Table 4.14 reveals that half of the parents (51,43%) do raise funds to defray school expenses and 45,71% do not. Nasson (1988:23) maintains that most farm school parents are poor, because of the low wages they earn. This suggests that, even if parents are committed towards raising funds to defray school

expenses, because of low household income, they can hardly afford to pay school expenses (cf paragraphs 3.4.2.1 and 3.4.2.2). It seems imperative that farm schooling should be compulsory and free (cf paragraph 5.4.1.1).

4.5.3.5 Parent-teacher liaison

(a) Do you regularly call parents meetings?

Table 4.15 Parents meetings

	No	%
Yes	20	57,14
Not sure	_	_
No	15	42,86
No answer	_	_
Total	35	100

Table 4.15 shows that a considerable number of farm school principals (57,14%) do call parents' meetings. This indicates a positive intention on the part of the school principals to implement the concept of parental involvement. This survey has already indicated that many parents are willing to be involved in school activities (cf Tables 4.1 and 4.2); principals should, therefore, tap this charitable potential, by initiating and facilitating parental participation (cf paragraph 5.4.7.3).

The relatively high negative response (42,86%) may be attributed to the attitude of some teachers towards parents, which is best described by Van Schalkwyk (1990:49): "Onderwysers se negatiewe houding laat ouers belangstelling verloor" (cf paragraph 2.2.2.5.). This may also be because most farm school parents are working parents and the principals are not able to contact them when parent meetings are called. Further discussion of this aspect appears in paragraph 5.4.2.

- (b) 1. Do parents and teachers meet during these meetings?
 - 2. Do parents and teachers exchange views about the behaviour and performance of pupils?

Table 4.16 Parent-teacher interaction

4.16.1 Parents meet teachers	Yes Not sure No No answer Total	No 18 1 16 - 35	% 51,43 2,86 45,71
4.16.2 Parents and teachers exchange views about children	Yes	17	48,57
	Not sure	3	8,57
	No	15	42,86
	No answer	<u>-</u>	-
	Total	35	100

Table 4.16 is the consolidation of sub-tables 4.16.1 and 4.16.2. Sub-table 4.16.1 reveals that about half of the parents and teachers (51,43%) meet during parent meetings and about 45,71% do not. This relatively high percentage of parents and teachers not meeting may be attributed to the fact that there are no parent-teacher associations in farm schools to enhance parent-teacher interaction (cf paragraph 3.3.2) or it may be because there are no opportunities for parents and teachers to meet or no programmes that make it possible for them to meet. They are often not even given the opportunity to discuss their children (cf sub-table 4.16.2).

Nasson (1988:22) mentions another reason. He states that the adult population in farm school areas is socially estranged from the world of the school. This implies a great need for parent-teacher interaction in farm schools (cf paragraph 5.4.2). Principals should encourage the creation of a parent-teacher network, so that parents may have a positive attitude towards the school. Another reason for parents not to meet teachers and exchange views regarding the children could be that some farm school teachers are town-based and they commute to and from the school. Should meetings be called during weekends when parents are at home, town-based teachers may not be present. This finding is disturbing, because both parents and teachers are child educators. It is vital

that they meet and exchange views regarding the behaviour and performance of pupils (cf paragraphs 5.4.2.2 (b) and 5.4.7.4 (c)).

Sub-table 4.16.2 reveals that, according to the respondents, less than half of the parents and teachers (48,57%) exchange views about the behaviour and performance of pupils. This finding is disturbing, because parents are the primary educators. Despite their illiteracy, they may have something to say to the teacher about their child's behaviour, health, habits and attitudes - thus enabling the teacher to know the child in totality and therefore to teach with great efficiency. On the other hand teachers may inform parents about the child's progress or disciplinary problems. As Graaff and Gordon (1992:222) observed:

The parents of Black children attending farm schools very successfully discipline their children in those Black schools.

Further discussion of this aspect appears in paragraph 5.4.2.3.(b).

4.5.3.6 Level of the current parental involvement in schools

What is the present involvement of parents in your school?

Table 4.17 Present involvement of parents in schools

	No	%
Excellent	2	5,71
Good	7	20
Poor	19	54,29
Very Poor	6	17,14
No answer	1	2,86
Total	35	100

Table 4.17 reveals what has been found in the previous sections - that parental

involvement in farm schools, according to the school principals, is generally poor (54,29%) and very poor (17,14%). This can be attributed to the fact that the majority of the farm schools surveyed did not have school committees/management councils (cf Table 4.10), that there are also no parent-teacher associations and that hence, there is no structure through which parents can be involved in these schools. The "excellent" (5,71%) and "good" (20%) responses to this item can mostly be attributed to principals of public schools (cf Table 4.8), where it is obligatory to establish the parental statutory bodies, and to some liberal farm school managers who apparently heeded the Education Laws Amendment Act of 1988 which provided for the establishment of school committees/management councils comprising the farmer and parents (cf Table 4.10). Further discussion of this matter appears in sections 3.3.2 and 5.3.2.

4.5.3.7 Suggestions on enhancing parental involvement in schools

How would you like to see parental involvement implemented in your school?

Eight suggestions were given to respondents on how they might like to see parental involvement in schools implemented. The respondents were asked first to study all eight suggestions and then to rank the suggestions in order of importance from 1-8. To simplify the data analysis, the importancy ratings of 1 - 3 were combined. Subsequently it was established how many respondents allotted a rating of 1, 2 or 3 to each of the suggestions, and the ranking of the suggestions was done accordingly.

Table 4.18 Suggestions on how parental involvement can be implemented in schools, categorised according to the importancy rating.

		NUMBER AND PERC RESPONDENTS WHO OF 1, 2 OR 3	ENTAGE OF ALLOTTED A RATING
	Suggestions	Order of I	mportance
1	Parents repair school buildings and equipment.	25	(71%)
2	Parents supervise school homework and sign homework that has been completed.	20	(57%)
3	Parents visit the school regularly to observe how their children perform in class.	16	(45,7%)
4	Parents regularly examine the neatness of their children's exercise books.	12	(34,3%)
5	Parents select representatives who will work with principals to control and manage schools.	10	(28,6%)
6	Parents control school funds.	9	(25,7%)
7	Parents act as teacher- assistants in classroom situations e.g. supervising reading lessons, needlework, arts and crafts.	6	(17%)
8	Parents have a say in the selection of the subjects that are taught in the school.	3	(8,6%)

Table 4.18 is self-explanatory and only recommendations with significant tendencies will be discussed. The suggestion that parents repair school buildings and equipment rated as the most important. The impression created is that parents should volunteer their labour to the school. It is interesting, however, to note that the parents surveyed are reluctant to offer help (cf Table 4.4). The suggestions that parents should supervise school homework, and attend class visits, were also rated as important. This implies that both teachers and parents know that they need one another in order to promote effective teaching and efficient learning (cf paragraphs 2.2.2.3 and

5.4.2). It is interesting to note that the suggestion that parents should have a say in the selection of curriculum options received the lowest rating. This may be attributed to the fact that farm school principals have more insight with regard to the level of education of farm school parents. Despite the fact that those farm school parents who completed the questionnaires were literate, it may be that parents, because of the poor level of parental involvement in schools (cf Table 4.17) are not exposed to curriculum options and therefore cannot make a proper subject selection. This means that farm school principals should facilitate programmes to orientate parents towards the school curricula and career guidance, so as to enable parents to participate meaningfully in designing the curriculum of the school (cf paragraphs 2.2.2.3 and 5.4.7.3).

4.5.3.8 The farm school managers' involvement in schools

- (a) Does the farm school manager encourage school-going pupils to attend school?
- (b) Does the farm school manager allow his/her family members to assist with pupils' education in the school?
- (c) Is the farm school manager aware of what the children learn at school?

Table 4.19 The farm school managers' concern regarding Black education on their farms.

	·	No	%
4.19.1 Encourage pupils to attend school	Yes Not sure No No answer Totals	10 4 18 <u>3</u> 35	28,57 11,43 51,43 <u>8,57</u> 100
4.19.2 Allow family members to assist with education in the school	Yes Not sure No No answer Totals	3 2 27 <u>3</u> 35	8,57 5,71 77,14 <u>8,57</u> 100
4.19.3 Know what the children learn at school	Yes Not sure No No answer Totals	8 6 18 <u>3</u> 35	22,86 17,14 51,14 <u>8,57</u> 100

Table 4.19 is the consolidation of sub-tables 4.19.1, 4.19.2 and 4.19.3.

Sub-table 4.19.1 reveals that more than half of the principals are of the opinion that farmers do not encourage pupils to attend school. That suggests that some farmers do not use their influence as farm owners to accelerate education in their areas. This may be because there is no evidence of any link between educational certification, farm employment and earnings (Nasson 1988:17) and implies that, even if people cannot go to school, they will get jobs on the farm because educational background is not a prerequisite for employment in these areas. Some farmers speculate that too much education would lead to capricious behaviour on the part of the Black people, and threaten their future labour supply (Nasson 1988:18). It therefore stands to reason that such farmers would not encourage pupils to attend school.

Sub-table 4.19.2 reveals that, according to principals, many farm school managers do not make their family members available for assistance in schools. This may be because school work is demanding and the family may be busy with matters related to their own family life and occupations. On a small scale, some family members do help, by transporting pupils to nearby secondary schools or by teaching special subjects such as needlework or arts and crafts, if no suitably qualified teachers are available to teach such subjects (cf paragraph 5.4.3).

Sub-table 4.19.3 reveals that about half of the principals (51,14%) are of the opinion that farm school managers do not know what the children learn at school. There is no stipulated condition that the farm school manager should be an education-oriented person. He can be in charge of the administration of the school, he can hire and fire teachers, but he does not necessarily know what those teachers teach. It is important for farm school managers to establish organised structures which may consist of parents, teachers and themselves. Such a forum may orientate the farm school managers to the school curriculum and subject package (cf paragraph 5.4.3 and Table 4.20).

4.5.3.9 Suggestions on improving the farm school managers' involvement in schools

What do you think can be done by farm school managers to enhance effective teaching and efficient learning?

Five suggestions were given to principals on what they might think could be done by farm school managers to enhance effective teaching and efficient learning. The principals were asked first to study all five suggestions and, then to rank the suggestions in order of importance from 1-5. To simplify the data analysis, importancy ratings of 1 and 2 were combined. Subsequently it was established how many respondents allotted a rating of 1 or 2 to each of the suggestions and the ranking of the suggestions was done accordingly.

Table 4.20 Suggestions on how farm school managers can enhance effective teaching and efficient learning, categorised according to grade of importance.

		NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WHO ALLOTTED A RATING OF 1 OR 2	
	Suggestions	Order of Importance	
1	Farm school managers should attend short courses in management and administration of schools.	18 (51%)	
2	Farm school managers should award bursaries and study loans to students living in their areas.	16 (46%)	
3	Farm school managers should establish feeding schemes for pupils.	15 (43%)	
4	Farm school managers should establish school committees to solicit the views and the support of parents.	12 (34,3%)	
5	Farm school managers should attend meetings with inspectors, parents, teachers and church groups to discuss schooling in the circuit	7 (20%)	

Table 4.20 contains suggestions as arranged in the order of importance. suggestion that farm school managers should attend short courses in management and administration of schools rated as the most important. This implies that crash courses in school management and administration should be offered to prospective farm school managers so that they may be in a position to cooperate with the teachers and parents in order to run and control the school, thereby facilitating community involvement in the school. The suggestion that farm school managers should award bursaries and study loans to students and establish the feeding scheme were also rated as important. This reveals that the farm school community does need the support and assistance of the farm school manager to facilitate teaching and learning in schools (cf paragraph It is interesting to note that the suggestion that farm school managers should establish school committees received a low rating. be because, according to the principals, the level of parental involvement in farm schools is poor (cf Table 4.17). The suggestion that the farm school manager should attend meetings with inspectors and parents was ranked the least important. This may be because the respondents know that farm schools are the property of the farmers, who usually run their schools without involving other social structures with an interest in education (cf Table 4.10 and paragraphs 3.3.3 and 5.4.3).

4.5.3.10 Private sector involvement in farm schools

Does your school receive financial or other help from sources other than the farmer or the state?

Table 4.21 Assistance from private sources

	No	*
Yes	2	5,71
Not sure	2	5,71
No	31	88,57
No answer	-	
Totals	35	100

Table 4.21 reveals that most schools do not receive any help, be it financial or otherwise, from any source except the state, the farmer and the church. This table seems to indicate that the private business sector takes little notice of farm school education. This may be because farm schools are situated on private property and it is difficult to develop substantial projects on the private property of another person. This implies that the ownership of farm schools deters the involvement of private enterprise in farm schools. (In other rural areas big companies such as Shell and Anglo-American build commercial schools or supply schools with laboratory equipment, library books, even cars for the purpose of driver education). Further discussion of these aspects appears in paragraphs 3.3.5 and 5.4.5.

It has become clear from this empirical survey that two schools receive outside help. In one school, the church (Catholic Church) covers more than half the cost of running the school and hostel combined. The church farm also supplies the hostel with some food items. In the other, the farm owner supplies the school with clean water, the Red Cross runs a feeding scheme for the pupils and the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Administration conducts health clinic programmes in the school.

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with an empirical investigation into community involvement in farm schools in the former DET Bulwer circuit. The research technique used in this investigation included two kinds of mail questionnaires (one intended for parents and the other for farm school principals). These questionnaires were designed to assess the impression of parents and farm school principals on community in farm schools. The methodological procedures adopted in acquiring the data in connection with the research problem were discussed, whereafter data was analysed and interpreted.

Once the statistical data had been interpreted, the researcher brought in supplementary information from a literature study on farm schools as well as from his own experience. That meant that where statistics revealed a tendency in one direction or another, the searching question: "Why is it like that?" was posed. The approach of probing the causative factors rather than being

satisfied with only the purely empirical data, permeates this investigation, for it is only by identifying the causative factors that the problems surrounding community involvement in farm schools can be exposed and solved. Among the most important findings, this investigation revealed that:

- there are few school committees or management councils through which parents can be involved in education, hence the level of parental involvement in schools is limited (cf Table 4.1).
- there are factors militating against parental involvement namely the attitude of certain principals towards parental involvement (cf Tables 4.15 and 4.16), the attitude of some farm school managers (cf Table 4.19), the presumably high rate of illiteracy among farm school parents and the lack of parent-teacher liaison structures (cf paragraph 4.5.3.5).
- there appears to be a strong, positive attitude of parents with regard to their own involvement in schools (cf paragraphs 4.5.2.1, 4.5.2.3 and 4.5.3.4).

The next and last chapter discusses the summary of these findings (conclusions) in detail, including the summary of the whole study project. Attempts will be made to collate responses to individual aspects, so as to arrive at specific conclusions, followed by a set of recommendations.

CHAPTER 5

5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to give a summary of the study, to describe which conclusions were drawn, and to make certain recommendations. Attempts were made to collate responses to individual aspects, so as to arrive at specific conclusions, followed by a set of recommendations, which, it is hoped, may help alleviate the problems identified.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Throughout the study, the emphasis was on the need for community involvement in farm schools. The interest in this study arose from the fact that the author was a teacher in a private high school of which the main feeder schools were farm schools.

Chapter 1 revealed that educating farm school children involved issues in which some community structures were not involved (cf section 1.1). It is mostly through the benevolence of farmers that farm schools survive. Hence the actuality of the study was to determine the extent to which the community was involved in farm schools and how that involvement could be expanded for the sake of effective teaching and efficient learning (cf section 1.1). The author concluded that there was a strong need for community structures with an interest in education, namely the teaching corps, the state, the parents, the church and the private sector to be involved in the farm school system on a productive scale (cf section 1.2).

In Chapter 2 the researcher examined the broader historico-theoretical framework of community involvement, namely the involvement of state, the parents, the teachers (cf paragraph 2.2.4), the church (cf paragraph 2.2.3) and the private sector (cf paragraph 2.2.5) in formal education, so as to realise educational objectives with all the pillars of the community fully participating in the educational process of all the children within the community (cf section 2.1). The author then discussed the role and task of each social structure striving for effective teaching and efficient learning.

Examples from the past educational eras were cited, so as to highlight the fact that educational problems of the past do, in a way, still persist in the current educational era (cf section 2.1). In addition, a descriptive survey of community involvement in schools in two Third World countries, particularly Kenya and Botswana, was presented (cf section 2.3). These two countries were chosen first and foremost because they are on the African continent. Secondly, they are the developing countries with stable governments, which have never taken a strong socialist move to egalitarian states; their conditions are, therefore, more or less the same as those in the Republic of South Africa (cf paragraph 2.3.1). Thirdly, they are former British colonies, as is the Republic of South Africa. A descriptive survey was, therefore, more meaningful and fair. Lastly, these two countries have a community-oriented approach to education which accommodates a strong community involvement in schools - exactly the problem under investigation in this study (cf paragraph 2.3.1).

This study revealed that in Kenya education is a collective affair (cf paragraph 2.3.2.1). While the state controls and manages education in Kenya, most of the controlling powers have been delegated to local authorities (cf paragraph 2.3.2.2). It is on the local level that the parent community assists the state in bearing the yoke of education. The management of most harambee schools is mainly in the hands of local leaders such as the chiefs and teachers. The harambee schools are, in fact, self-help projects and are run by the community itself (cf paragraph 2.3.2.3).

The study also revealed that religious benefactors, namely Christians and Muslims, assist parents to erect schools (cf paragraph 2.3.2.4). These religious schools are known as bush schools and mandrassas (Eiseman 1988:55). Teachers in Kenya are held in high esteem (cf paragraph 2.3.2.5) and educational activities in Kenya centre around them. Teachers in Kenya assist schools financially; for instance, they raise funds among themselves to build extra classrooms and provide educational facilities (cf paragraph 2.3.2.5). The study showed that in Kenya the teachers'involvement in education transcends the classroom walls and goes far beyond the pedagogic situation.

The conclusion reached was that in Kenya there is a strong desire among Kenyan local communities to support their own schools with, among other things, money and labour.

This study revealed that the corner-stone of Botswana's educational system was laid by the missionaries (cf paragraph 2.3.3.2), who also bore the concomitant financial responsibility. The missionaries worked hand in hand with the tribal leaders, who created an environment conducive to education and supported missionary efforts (Seboni 1946:3).

In Botswana, the state has excessive central control over schools (Malao 1989:171). This makes it impossible for the local people to use their own discretion in the implementation of educational policies. It also places strict limits on the autonomy of local school administrators (cf paragraph 2.3.3.3). The private sector and parents are, however, in charge of certain schools, such as the Serowe Brigade schools and community schools, both of which receive virtually no financial or administrative support from the government (cf paragraph 2.3.3.3).

The conclusion reached was that in Botswana the state is gradually reinforcing the concept of community involvement in schools by introducing Boards of Governors to control junior and secondary community schools. These boards consist of local Members of Parliament and representatives chosen by the local community (cf paragraph 2.3.3.3 b).

Chapter 2 also revealed that while the state, the teachers, the church and the private sector are important, parents occupy a major position, since they function in the family, as members of parent bodies of schools, as members of the church, as supporters of the ruling political party (the government) and also as employers and employees in the commercial world (cf section 2.4). The author concluded that there should be meaningful and mutual cooperation and collaboration among all the structures with an interest in education for effective teaching and efficient learning to exist.

Chapter 3 explored community involvement in farm schools. It described the circumstances surrounding farm schools (cf paragraph 3.2.3) and the shortcomings which affect them, such as inadequate state subsidies (cf paragraph 3.3.1), too few parental bodies which can serve as school-home-links (cf paragraph 3.3.2) and the omnipotent role played by the farmer, in that he

has the power to establish or close a farm school and to employ or dismiss farm school teachers (cf paragraph 3.3.3).

Chapter 3 also revealed a lack of private sector involvement in farm schools (cf paragraph 3.3.5) as well as environmental factors such as lack of a proper transport system and a lack of classrooms and teachers which causes the farm school to make use of double session classes (a system which involves the same teacher teaching classes in the morning and afternoon in the same classroom) or the platoon system (two classes, each with its own teacher, using one classroom and dividing the time into sessions) (cf paragraph 3.4.1.3). Both of these systems result in insufficient schooling time and a high pupil dropout rate (cf Diagram 3.1). The author concluded that there is a need for inclusive community involvement in farm schools, in order to bring about effective teaching and efficient learning (cf section 3.5).

In Chapter 4 a description was given of the empirical investigation in the study (cf section 4.4). Two kinds of survey questionnaires (one intended for parents and the other for farm school principals) were designed to assess the impressions parents and farm school principals have of community involvement in farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area with particular reference to the former DET Bulwer circuit (cf paragraph 4.4.1). These questionnaires were sent to forty-two farm school principals and eighty four parents, to complete and return to the researcher. Thirty-five principals and sixty-nine parents responded (cf paragraph 4.4.2.2). The results were analysed by the researcher and a test-helper (cf section 4.5). The findings (from the empirical survey and from the literature) were then discussed.

The author concluded that many parents are positively inclined towards parental involvement in schools (cf Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.6), which implied a strong need for the establishment of statutory and non-statutory parent bodies in farm schools. The empirical survey also revealed that parents want the school curriculum to be diversified to include subjects such as arts, crafts, needlework and computer studies (cf Table 4.7). Parents also made recommendations on how teaching and learning in farm schools could be made more effective and efficient. Their recommendations included, among others, the

following: schools should have teaching aids; children should be encouraged to speak English throughout the school day and structures should be put in place to supervise work done by pupils and teachers (cf Table 4.7).

The empirical survey also showed that most farm schools do not have parental involvement structures such as management councils, school committees and Parent-Teacher Associations (cf Tables 4.10 and 4.11) and that the majority of farm school principals are of the opinion that farm school managers could benefit by courses on the management and administration of schools (cf Table 4.20). Furthermore, the survey confirmed a serious lack of private sector involvement in farm schools. Very few schools receive help from any other source except the state and the church (cf Table 4.21).

Chapter 5 deals with a review of the whole study project; it also gives a summary of the findings (conclusions) from the literature and the empirical survey and a set of recommendations, which, it is hoped, may help alleviate the problems identified.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

In a nutshell, the conclusion the author draws from the study on farm school education is that it is characterised by the inadequate allocation of resources, a lack of money (cf paragraph 3.3.1), insufficient and poorly qualified teachers (cf paragraph 3.3.6), limited parental involvement (cf paragraph 3.3.2), a lack of private sector intervention (cf paragraph 3.3.5) and the omnipotent role played by the farmer (cf paragraph 3.3.3). The following section deals with the conclusions per social structure with an interest in education.

5.3.1 State involvement in farm schools

The research findings indicated that the state is the major shareholder in the farm school education system, since it pays the teachers' salaries (cf Table 4.13). Though state subsidies have improved, the state has as yet not accepted full responsibility for the education of farm school children. There is little subsidisation for school buildings, hence there are few attractive farm schools (cf paragraph 3.3.1). In addition, the state does not subsidise teachers'

cottages. The state has, however, recently committed itself to improving farm school education and has adopted principles as stated in Chapter 3 (cf paragraph 3.3.1).

5.3.2 The parents' involvement in farm schools

Farm schools do not have statutory parent bodies that control and manage the school (cf Table 4.15 cf paragraph 3.3.2). The empirical survey revealed that most parents have a positive attitude towards the school and are both serious and concerned about the extent of their involvement in the school (cf paragraph 4.5.2).

The majority of the principals surveyed thought that parents would want to be involved in the school, yet only a handful of them regularly call parent meetings and at these meetings only a handful of parents and teachers exchange views about the behaviour and performance of pupils (cf Tables 4.11 and 4.15). It is sufficient to say that the present involvement of parents in farm schools is poor.

5.3.3 The farmers' involvement in farm schools

Both the factual review and the discussion in Chapter 3 indicate that some of the problems in farm school education centre around the fact that the school belongs to the farm owner and not to the state (cf paragraphs 3.3.1 and 3.3.3). The farmer is entitled to close the school or terminate the services of any teacher, subject to ministerial approval (cf paragraph 3.3.3). The 1994 Draft White Paper on Education acknowledges the fact that farmers have the right to refuse school access to any child or teacher and that teachers are subject to the farmer's control over their movements in the school precincts and on the farm (South Africa 1994:49). Once a farm owner decides to close a school, the Department of Education cannot enforce the continued functioning of that school, as that would be tantamount to an infringement of the farmer's rights under common law (cf paragraph 3.3.3).

Some farmers do accept a measure of responsibility for the schools on their farms (Graaff & Gordon 1992:219), but others hardly care about the farm school pupils; they do not encourage all school-going pupils to attend school (cf paragraph 4.5.3.8) and are not even aware of what takes place inside the

schools they manage. This is confirmed by the fact that according to the questionnaire responses of the school principals surveyed, 52,43% of the farm school managers do not know what the pupils attending schools on their farms learn at schools (cf Table 4.19). Nevertheless, there can be no question of farm school education without the contribution of the farmer, as the existence of farm schooling relies entirely on his benevolence and goodwill.

5.3.4 The involvement of the church in farm schools

Some farm schools are church or state-aided schools (cf paragraph 3.3.4). The school administration is left with the representative of the church as the school manager. This arrangement permits the churches to continue their religious role in education. There are also private church schools, run at the churches' own expense (cf paragraph 3.3.4).

5.3.5 The involvement of the private sector in farm schools

Very few individual organisations finance farm school education. The business sector finds it difficult to invest in the farmer's property (cf paragraph 3.3.5). Very few of the respondents to the empirical survey mentioned having received assistance from other sources beside the state, the farmer or the church (cf Table 4.21).

5.3.6 The teachers' involvement in farm schools

The majority of farm school teachers are either unqualified or under-qualified (cf paragraph 3.3.6.1). The Department of Education offers a three month inservice training programme for lower primary teachers which stresses pupil activity, problem-solving approaches, the spontaneous use of language which is geared to the specific needs of farm school teaching and other problems such as managing combined classes (Gaganakis & Christie 1989:16).

Despite these efforts, the problem of poorly qualified staff in farm schools remains (cf paragraph 3.3.6). It is very difficult for these teachers to sustain effective teaching and encourage efficient learning among the pupils (South Africa 1987:10). In addition, there are no bodies that link the teachers and parents and there is, therefore, poor interaction between parents and teachers which in itself greatly inhibits effective teaching (cf paragraph

3.3.6.2). From the empirical survey it became clear that most principals rarely call parent-teacher meetings and that there are hardly any forums where teachers and parents meet to exchange ideas about pupils (cf Tables 4.14 and 4.15). The same survey, however, indicated that the majority of parents would have liked to belong to Parent-Teacher Associations so that teacher-parent relations could improve (cf Table 4.2).

After the factual review and discussion in Chapter 3 and the empirical survey and findings in Chapter 4 the author concluded that a lack of a strong statedirection in farm schools (cf paragraph 3.3.1), few or no statutory and nonstatutory bodies through which parents can be involved in farm schools (cf paragraph 3.3.2), social barriers between parents and teachers (cf paragraph 2.2.2.5), lack of positive parent-teacher interaction (cf Tables 4.15 and 4.16), poor parent-child relationships (cf paragraph 2.2.2.5), lack of harmony between the school and the family (cf paragraph 3.4.2.3), poor communication between school and home (cf Table 4.17), little or no intervention of the private sector in farm schools (cf section 3.3.5), the unchecked role of the farmer in farm schools (cf paragraph 3.3.3), unhealthy relationships between farmers and teachers (cf paragraph 3.3.6.2), the attitude of certain farmers towards Black schooling and the principal's reserved role in parental involvement are all factors which militate against community involvement in farm schools. In the light of these conclusions, the following recommendations are made.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 The state

5.4.1.1 What ought to be done by the state?

In the principles for the provision of education as contained in the White Paper on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, 1983 and Draft White Paper on Education and Training, 1994, state that the provision of formal education shall be the responsibility of the state. The government of National Unity has been mandated to plan the development of an education and

training system for the benefit of the country as a whole and all its people (South Africa 1994:9). Since the state has a central responsibility in the provision of education and training, it should provide a framework in which learning opportunities are on as wide a scale as possible. Naturally schools situated on farms should also be included in the new arrangement.

While Section 10 of the Education and Training Act of 1979 provided for the taking over of state-aided schools as public schools (South Africa 1987:84), the 1994 Draft White Paper on Education and Training acknowledges the existence of farm schools and proposes that these schools should receive 100 per cent state subsidies, while the farmers remain the owners of schools situated on their land (South Africa 1994:49). This acknowledgement waters down the former DET report on rural education (South Africa 1987:8), which recommended that the Department of Education should:

- i) purchase the land on which the school stands, the advantage being that the land becomes the permanent property of the state and hence, the state can rightfully develop the school or
- ii) expropriate the land, the advantage being that the land becomes the property of the state and the state pays compensation to the owner of the land or
- iii) lease the land, the advantage being that the owner retains the right of ownership and receives the regular income, while the state is ensured of occupation for the term of lease.

On the other hand, the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) recommends that the state should own the land and the school buildings in farm school areas and that parents should be encouraged to pay the non-compulsory fees, which the principal and the school committee/management council should manage (NEPI 1993:30).

Various publications have been issued recently by the state and other social structures with an interest in education, outlining recommendations on what ought to be done by the state to bring about a new education dispensation. The

Education Renewal Strategy Discussion Document published by the state in 1991, is one of these publications. This document (ERSD document), does not specifically mention farm schools, besides the suggestion that there should be one education system which should be compulsory for the first nine years (DNE 1992:5). The African National Congress, in its Education Discussion Document, proposes free and compulsory basic education for the first ten years of schooling (ANC 1992:15). The Ministry of Education is committed to the provision of free and compulsory general education. This means that all children in the age group of 5-14 will be required by law to attend school, or alternatively, that all children will be required to be in school until they have attained the equivalent of what is known today as Standard 7 (South Africa 1994:53).

Many educationalists and financial advisers doubt whether the government can deliver free state schooling. Randall (Focus on education 1994:27-28) states that the education budget is limited. The government itself, in the 1994 Draft White Paper on Education and Training, acknowledged the fact that its commitment to the provision of free and compulsory general education has major implications for access, quality and efficiency in the education system as well as the sustainability of financial resources; the government therefore proposed that the implementation phase of compulsory education had to begin in January 1995 with the enrolment in Grade One of all children aged six (South Africa 1994:55). One hopes that such a proposal is also extended to farm school areas.

It has become clear from the above-mentioned documents that it is the duty of the state to provide education at all levels (cf section 2.2.1.3); and to encourage community involvement to facilitate effective teaching and efficient learning in farm schools. The African National Congress education policy aims to achieve two goals, namely to give all South Africans access to education and to change the education system into a democratic system (ANC 1992:15). The African National Congress is of the opinion that the state plays a very important role in democratising the education system. At the same time, it maintains that parents, teachers and students must be involved in the day-to-day running of schools. It also believes that through the active involvement

of local communities in schools, the culture of learning can be revived and restored (ANC 1992:15).

The 1994 Draft White Paper on Education and Training states that the Ministry of Education strongly believes that schools must be owned by the community they serve (South Africa 1994:50). It states that parents, teachers and representatives of the broader local community should constitute the ownership forum of each school. The Ministry of Education invites the goodwill and active participation of, among others, parents, students, religious bodies, workers, the media and community leaders in designing a new education and training system (South Africa 1994:10). This should be extended to farm schools where the ownership should be reflected in good, accountable management, which should, in turn reflect the constitutional principles of democracy (cf diagram 5.1).

It is the duty of the state to expand the learning opportunities of farm school pupils by enforcing free and compulsory basic education. The concepts of free and compulsory education should be that the basics are free and no child gets denied education because parents cannot make a financial contribution. 1994 Draft White Paper on Education and Training states that the Ministry of Education recognises that education and training are basic human rights and that the state, therefore, has an obligation to protect and advance these rights (South Africa 1994:11). Thus it wants educational inequalities redressed among those sections of the population which have suffered particular disadvantages, for example, rural communities (South Africa 1994:12). Ministry of Education is aware of the fact that farm schools are the least developed class of school in the education system. One can only hope that in the implementation of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) in education and training farm schools will get the best part of any educational transformation.

Peter Buckland of the Urban Foundation Education Policy (Focus on education 1994:27 - 28) proposes an index of need to determine the size of state funding, where the school is used as the unit. This involves working out what the level of need is in each school and making a global assessment of the economic

background of the parents whose children attend the school, which means that schools with poor children should get a greater state subsidy. If this can be done, the farm schools will benefit tremendously. Quality education will be ensured in these schools and the process of upgrading teachers and equipment can then be initiated.

Since the state has committed itself to providing equal educational opportunities for all population groups, it has to give prominence to farm areas, both as a fundamental human right and as one of the main prerequisites for the country's economic development. The state has to provide for the following aspects:

5.4.1.2 Aspects to be considered by the state with regard to farm schools

(a) Quality education

A number of improvements and changes should be implemented in order to raise the quality of farm school education. These include the adoption of curricula relevant to rural communities, structural and administrative changes and close coordination with the manpower needs of the local community. The curricula should contain subjects that students can put to use in the life they face when they leave school. There is an urgent need for concerted efforts by all social structures with an interest in education to aim at educational transformation, by adopting a curriculum, teaching materials and methods that can provide quality education in the farm school situation.

(b) Manpower requirements

Since there is a lack of adequately qualified teachers in farm schools, the state should financially maintain teacher-trainees who would, after completing their training, teach in farm schools. As incentive, so as to improve manpower policy and educational plans, good salaries should be paid to qualified teachers. Unfavourable salary structures handicap the educational system, as many teachers give up teaching to earn better salaries in private industry. Salaries should be upgraded, in order to keep good teachers in the farm schools, since otherwise farm schools will continue to get the poorest pickings of the already limited available manpower supply.

(c) The agricultural aspect

Almost all the farm schools are situated in the rural agricultural areas. Industries in urban areas cannot possibly absorb all the students from farm schools. They can barely absorb those who had the best of educational opportunities. At the same time, the educated farm school youngsters do not want to work on farms planting gum trees and cutting sugar cane with their illiterate peers. Moreover, the farmers cannot afford to pay the wages demanded by the educated section of the Black population.

One approach to this problem is that the state should encourage the private sector to make rural areas attractive to the unemployed. This involves modernising facilities, for instance through electrification and developing light industries such as meat and dairy products, large-scale canning factories and handcraft centres. Once the farm setting is made more attractive, there will be less of an exodus to urban areas, and the economy of the rural areas in general will thus be boosted by skilled and literate manpower.

(d) Technical education

Farm schools should provide children with a technical education. Pupils leaving farm schools have little chance of being employed in modern industry with its capital-intensive techniques. This problem can be met by farm training, youth service and community development projects. Primary school leavers need crafts and commercial training. Education should be combined with productive work, which pupils are prepared for, as an incentive, not necessarily in money alone, but also by creating more courses for them. The 1994 Draft White Paper on Education and Training proposes that academic and vocational training should not be separated in education and training systems (South Africa 1994:10).

5.4.2 Parents

The link between the school and the community does not grow automatically; it needs to be fashioned and then to be nurtured. There should be a clear school community relations policy, which fosters common values and builds realistic expectations for the school as well as the community.

5.4.2.1 Parental involvement in farm schools

Parents should be an integral part of schooling. Macbeth (1989:1) states that parents inevitably (by both example and instruction) teach their children, and, through that teaching, influence the extent to which teaching can be effective. Consequently they should be involved in schools, formally and informally. The parental dimension of schooling is central to the teaching profession. If neglected, no effective teaching or efficient learning can materialise as these depend upon the extent to which teachers take seriously their partnership with parents (Macbeth 1989:1). Parental involvement is best ensured by giving parents a meaningful say in the day-to-day activities of the school.

As indicated earlier in the chapter, most of the parents surveyed are positive as far as parental involvement is concerned (cf paragraph 5.3.2). The survey conducted among the principals of farm schools indicates how the principals would like to see parental involvement implemented in their schools. They list the following recommendations in the order of their rating preference (cf Table 4.18):

- They would like parents to handle repairs to school buildings and equipment.
- They would like to see parents supervising school homework and signing homework that has been completed.
- They recommend that parents visit the school regularly to observe the class performance of their children.
- They suggest that parents should regularly examine their children's exercise books for, among other things, neatness.
- They want parents to select representatives to work with the principal in the management and control of the school.
- They would like parents to control school funds.
- They would like parents to act as teacher-assistants in the classroom.
- They suggest that parents should have a say in the selection of the subjects that are taught in schools.

Most parents who responded to the empirical survey said that farm schools

should have statutory parent bodies (school committees or school management councils) (cf Table 4.1). These should consist of parents, teachers, farmers and the members of the church community, and should function as follows:

- They should be consulted when school sites are identified by the Department of Education and/or farmer.
- They should assist in the eraction of the school building(s).
- They should assist in the formulation of the school policy.
- They should establish procedures for financial control over the school fees and management of the school property.
- They should assist the Department of Education with the appointment, retention, dismissal and promotion of teachers.
- They should guide the teachers in the admission, suspension and discipline of pupils.

Farm schools should also have parental bodies for example, school committees, Parent-Teacher Associations and Class Teacher-Parent Clubs. The empirical survey indicated that the majority of the parents (73,9%) would like to belong to such bodies, which can help develop the school (cf Table 4.2). Shah (1990:353) suggests that key persons who have much influence in the community should be organised into a support group to promote the image of the school. They can enrich the curriculum of the school by providing additional equipment and teaching aids to the school, and by offering their expertise in helping pupils gain skills. All this can be successful, if there is good parent-teacher interaction on all levels.

5.4.2.2 Parent-teacher liaison

If parents are to be involved effectively in schools as suggested above, ways should be sought to smooth the relationship between them and teachers. The development of effective parent-teacher interaction is one component missing in the farm school education system (cf paragraph 3.3.2). There is an urgent need for genuine interaction between teachers and parents, so that they can work collectively, in the interest of the child in education. Levels of parent-teacher liaison should, therefore, be understood.

(a) Parent-teacher partnership

There are different levels of partnership between parents and teachers and several modes of contact should be maintained on all these levels. In the farm school, there should be four main levels of partnership: the individual, the class, the school and the representative level. The following diagram illustrates these levels:

	PARTICIPANTS	BODIES	PARTICIPANTS	PARTICIPANTS
Representative Level	Representative of Parents	School Management Council	Representative of Teachers	The Farm School Manager/ Church Official
School level	All parents of the school	Parent-Teachers' Association	All teachers of the school	
Class level	Parents of all children in the same same class	Class Teacher- Parents' Club	Class Teacher/ Subject Teacher	,
Individual Level	Parents of individual child	Individual child - home visit	Teachers of individual child	
	PARENTS		TEACHERS	FARMER/CHURCH

Diagram 5.1 Organisation of participants on different levels in the farm school. Adapted (Macbeth 1989:14)

This diagram indicates how parental involvement can be implemented in farm schools and how programmes of parent-teacher liaison can be effected.

(b) Liaison on the individual level

Macbeth (1989:32) is of the opinion that the education of the individual child is the most important reason for parent-teacher cooperation. At this level the subject teacher or the class teacher deals directly with the parent of the child. This can be done by the teacher visiting the home of the child. The advantages of home visits are that the teacher can observe the child's natural environment and evidence his concern for the child (Rutherford 1979:23). In addition the parents can discuss the child's problem in the familiar, related environment of their own home. The home visit is appropriate for farm schools, because the majority of parents are labourers on the farm and are unable to attend to school matters during working hours. However, the teacher should carefully plan a home visit and should explain to parents the reason for the

visit. The parents should be assured of confidentiality, because home visits can be a disaster if teachers share personal information about parents or their homes with others who have no right to such information.

Sometimes written reports on the child's behaviour and progress can be sent to parents, but since most parents in farm school areas are illiterate, verbal communication between parents and teachers would be better. Parents want to know what their children are learning, what activities they are engaged in and who their teachers are. They want to know which teachers are responsible for which aspects of their children's experience, and how to contact them. They want to know about the school's time table and the children's progress.

(c) Liaison on the class level

The class teachers/subject teachers should form clubs with the parents of the pupils in their classes. Cooperative efforts in the classroom between teachers and parents can be rewarding and exciting. The parents have a common interest in the educational experience of one class. The Class Teacher-Parent Club is one of the most promising levels on which home-school interaction can be developed. The school should make use of this to establish active rapport with parents. Many parents find the mass meeting of parents (where the topics that are being discussed are usually general rather than specific) boring and overly formal. This often deters parents from expressing their views, since most are unaccustomed to speaking at public meetings. Communication on class level may help meet such needs. When parents are invited into classrooms, they can discuss, face to face, the problems their children experience in that particular class, with that subject teacher/class teacher. According to Macbeth (1989:97). class level interaction should aim to:

- sensitise parents to their duties, rights and educational importance
- inform parents of the curriculum followed in their children's class
- encourage parents to support that curriculum by providing appropriate inhome education and interest
- involve parents in discussions and joint activities between home and school

- inform teachers of parents' views on schooling and education for that class
- influence decisions for that class
- negotiate, so that the wishes of both parents and teachers can influence the nature of educational activities.

In addition to the above-mentioned objectives, parents could assist in conducting classroom activities. Many parents, for instance, have highly desired skills: they are musicians, story-tellers or artists. They might be asked to share their skills or experiences with pupils (cf Table 4.6). Parents could, while the teacher worked with slow learners, supervise the remainder of the class.

To initiate the Class Teacher-Parent Club, the parents should elect two or three parent delegates who would work with the teacher. They could form a committee known as the Parent-Class Teacher Working Committee. This committee would assist in the coordination of educational partnership between parents and teachers of that class, and represent the parents of that class at school and class council level. It could also help plan class meetings and make personal contact with other parents. Invitations to class meetings could be extended by parents to other parents, to get those who are timid or reluctant to commit themselves. The chairmanship of meetings could alternate between teachers and parents. Meetings should be held on a regular basis, maybe once a month, and the venue should not be confined to the children's classroom. Village halls, private homes or even pubs could be used, so that the Class Teacher-Parent Club might develop into a social group of parents (who might know one another from the start, or come to know one another during the time their children spend in the same class).

(d) Liaison at school level

Parent-Teacher Associations should be established at this level. The empirical survey indicated that most farm school parents want such associations to be established (cf Table 4.2). These associations should be formed by all the school parents and should not be run by teachers, although teachers can assist upon request, especially in providing information. The main concerns should

be education provision and parent-teacher links (Macbeth 1989:20) and their chief objective would be to enable parents and teachers to work together for the benefit of children. When parents and teachers work at cross purposes, it is the children who suffer.

Parents and teachers are naturals for child advocacy as they are both duty-bound to recognise and defend the rights and needs of children in education. Child advocacy is a nationwide network that ensures "...to every child whatever services, programmes and resources may be required to facilitate his normal development" (Lewis 1989:10). It is an intervention on behalf of children in relation to those services and institutions impinging on their lives (Kahn, et al 1973:10). From these definitions, it is clear that pupils need adults who can intervene on their behalf, protect them from danger and offer support in expanding the boundaries of the children's confined existence (Urbani 1991:4). This implies that teachers and parents in Parent-Teacher Associations should be adults with whom children can look to the future with confidence.

The fallacy that Parent-Teacher Associations are for fundraising purposes only, should be dismissed. The main aims of Parent-Teacher Associations should be to:

- provide support for teachers
- represent parents' interests
- foster an educational partnership between home and school for the benefit of children
- provide a forum for educational discussion and a means of communication (Macbeth 1989:109).

Parent-Teacher Associations should recognise that the education of a child is a process of partnership between parents and teachers, and parents and teachers should take joint action to improve the quality of education. They should be involved in generating services for children, such as organising transport to school, financing school feeding schemes and attending to the availability of textbooks and fair examination procedures. Other issues, such as forced party political recruitment of students and strategies to protect teachers and students against assailants, could also be addressed by Parent-Teacher

Associations. In short, all issues that impinge on the lives of children and teachers, are grist for the mill. Parents who neglect an opportunity to aid their children, are guilty of omission and deny their children, the right to self reliance (Urbani 1991:6).

(e) Liaison at representative level

The representatives on the school committee or management council should be elected by the parents and teachers. The survey indicated that many parents would like to be members of such a body (cf Table 4.1). The farm school manager, whether a farmer or a church official, should also serve on such a committee. The Education Laws Amendment Act of 1988, recommended the establishment of school committees/management councils, comprising the farmer and parents, to govern farm schools (Graaff & Gordon 1992:220). However few farm schools have implemented the recommendations of that Act (cf Table 4.10).

It is recommended that teachers be involved in the governing of the school. The ERS Discussion Document (DNE 1992:74-79) states that the farm school committees/management councils should be integrated into developmental institutions in other spheres like health, community development, youth organisations or civic organisations so that they can share physical and administrative facilities and at the same time involve members of these organisations (such as nurses in local clinics, clerks and councillors in the resource centre) in schools. A number of schools in the area can fall under one enlarged management council, so that combined needs can be attended to. Facilities could be shared between schools and state funding could be channelled to one administrative body. NEPI (1993:61) suggests that schools be managed by the local school committees/management councils consisting of parents, and that the Department of Education should only come in on an effective advisory and monitoring system. The African National Congress Education Document (ANC 1992:15), in its programme for free compulsory education for the first ten years of schooling, concedes that it will need the support of parents in the school committees to keep the children at school. This, therefore, calls upon the local community, including the farmer in farm school areas to support the process wholeheartedly. The African National Congress Education Document also states that the parents should manage the

financial contribution they make to schooling (ANC 1992:15). If funds are parentally controlled and are not treated as school fees which go to the farmer, it is possible to mobilise resources from parents.

In conclusion, the school committee/management council of the farm school should be concerned with all major educational decisions at school level, should ensure that the parental dimension of every issue is considered and should monitor the mechanisms for liaison between home and school. It should be the responsibility of the members of the school committee/management council to keep constantly in mind their obligation to parents as the school's clients. Parents meetings, should be called at least four times a year to make quarterly statements.

(f) Conclusion

A commitment to parental involvement in the school is, at all levels, a worthwhile investment. While parental involvement is a viable exercise, it is not easy to achieve and teachers should, therefore, initiate training programmes for parents. Workshops could help promote trust between parents and teachers and encourage parents to communicate openly and to share burdens without feeling threatened or embarrassed. The teachers should initially form small groups with parents, for instance ten parents from each class with two or three teachers, depending on the number of teachers at the school. groups could meet over weekends or during the afternoons when they can interact freely. Teachers and other parents will act as facilitators for training programmes. Since the majority of farm school parents are illiterate or semi-literate (cf paragraph 3.3.2), it would be a good idea for facilitators to use illustrative charts or diagrams when addressing a particular problem. All members' views should be entertained. The working circles should be explored on all the different levels of liaison and all members should agree on the programme. For instance, a circle consisting of parents might decide that they ought to deal with the teenage pregnancy problem. It is recommended that the members of the working circle have experience and understanding of the It is therefore suggested that teachers be issue they will be tackling. members of working circles. If the school does not have many teachers, as is

the case at farm schools, the membership of the teachers in that working circle should be on an ad hoc basis.

In a nutshell, it is important for every farm school to develop a constant policy of parental involvement. The principal, who is the chief executive, the senior professional and the person to whom responsibility is predominantly entrusted by the education authority, should initiate whole-school policies of parent involvement.

5.4.2.3. Promoting effective teaching and efficient learning

In the empirical survey the parents were asked to mention things that they would like to see happening in the school in order to help improve teaching and learning (cf Table 4.7.2). The parents surveyed recommended that certain suggestions be effected in farm schools in order to bring about effective teaching and efficient learning. These suggestions have been categorised into the following aspects:

(a) Physical facilities

Schools should be supplied with teaching aids such as television, audio-visual aids and photocopiers to facilitate the learning process. The parents also recommended that laboratories be erected at all farm schools and equipped with relevant equipment to counteract the effect of mere theoretical learning (cf paragraph 3.3.5). They were also of the opinion that textbooks and stationery should be distributed to pupils early, preferably on the first school day of the academic year (cf Table 4.7).

(b) Curriculum

The parents were of the opinion that the farm school curriculum should be diversified (cf paragraph 4.5.2.5). They suggested that the curriculum include manual work such as gardening, needlework, arts and crafts. They also recommended that children be able to engage in extra-curricular activities such as soccer, netball, traditional dance and drum majorettes. They suggested that educational tours be encouraged, so that pupils can see the practical side of what they learn at school. To avoid teenage pregnancies, they suggested the introduction of sex education in schools. To promote language proficiency,

they recommended that pupils be encouraged to speak English throughout the school day, since English is the medium of instruction in all farm schools in the former DET Bulwer circuit.

(c) Parent-teacher interaction

Parents advocated a strong relationship among themselves, teachers and pupils. They therefore suggested that Parent-Teacher-Student Associations be established in all schools (cf Table 4.7) and that regular parent meetings be called to discuss the needs and academic achievements of pupils (cf Table 4.14). Since ongoing violence is ravaging schools at present, the parents recommended that protection structures such as self-defence units and self-protection units be formed to protect teachers and pupils.

(d) Improving the didactic situation

The parents envisaged the employment of more teachers as a solution to the problem of a multi-standard class with only one teacher (cf Table 4.7 and section 3.4). They also recommended that teachers be punctual and that they remain in the classroom in order to supervise study lesson periods (cf Table 4.7). This implies that teachers should keep the students occupied and parents, if they have the time, should be engaged in supervising the pupils.

(e) Private sector involvement

The parents recommended that the state and the business sector upgrade farm schools to Std 10 in order to afford pupils a secondary education (cf paragraph 3.4.2.4). They should also make bursaries and study loans available to pupils, so that they might pursue their education without financial constraint.

It is, however, important to note that in a farm school situation any improvement of education needs the farm owner's cooperation.

5.4.3 The farmer

The empirical survey revealed that most principals felt that farmers should promote and enhance effective teaching and efficient learning in their farm schools (cf Table 4.19). NEPI (1993:28) states that the pupils, teachers and parents of the farm school are very much at the mercy of the farmer on whose land the school is situated. Since he is both the employer and the school

manager, education falls far short of being a legal entitlement of Black children. The existence of the school should not depend on the farmer. farmer should be required to donate or sell the land on which the school stands, to a trust, which is controlled by parents. Such a trust should coordinate schooling in that particular area. A school committee should be established, as provided in the Education Laws Amendment Act of 1988 (Graaff & Gordon 1992:220), by the farmer. The farmer should not be omnipotent where the management and administration of the school are concerned. Together with the committee, he should find rational spots to locate schools, so that there is an even spread in the provision of schooling for farm children. without saying that schools should, ideally, be on the major feeder roads, within reach of as much of the surrounding population as possible. The school facilities should be provided by the state and more state financing should be granted to the farmer for the erection of school buildings. Through the active involvement of the farmer and the parents in schools, a culture of learning can be revived and restored in farm schools.

5.4.4 Teachers

Much has been said about the involvement of teachers in farm schools (cf paragraph 5.4.2.2). Previously, farm school teachers were paid low salaries to ensure that they became part of the farm workers' community (Graaff & Gordon 1992:218). Horrel (1964:171) states that men and women teachers at junior primary farm schools were paid R294 per annum, irrespective of their qualifications. This has, however, changed. Farm school teachers are now paid at the same rate as their urban counterparts. Nevertheless, there is a great shortage of qualified teachers in these schools. It is, therefore, recommended that the students of colleges of education be selected from farm school areas so that when they complete the training they may be easily recruited to return home and teach in their home areas.

Under-qualified teachers should be given extensive opportunities for in-service training by means of distance education, as in the former KwaZulu schools where unqualified teachers who have taught for more than three years, train for a Teacher's Diploma through distance education under the Vulani Project. Such a project should be extended to farm schools. In order to attract well-

qualified teachers who would be in a position to set goals that develop student confidence, gather ideas from a wide variety of sources and provide an appealing array of school activities, the Department of Education should render assistance with regard to the provision of housing accommodation for teachers and their families.

The former DET Report (South Africa 1987:82) recommended that housing be leased to teachers; and that rentals could be deducted from their salaries.

Good teachers are not diverted from achieving their objectives. Farm school teachers ought to be independent, self-reliant, mature and strong, to aid and educate farm school pupils. That is why it is important that programmes should be implemented to upgrade under-qualified teachers.

5.4.5 The private sector

Education is the responsibility of the whole community, including the private sector, as a social structure with an interest in education and training. So important is the range of private sector intervention in education that big companies should ideally provide money for farm school education (cf paragraph 3.3.5).

The private sector ought to initiate and establish education projects for teachers, such as supplying courses to improve their teaching methods and roving lecturers or tutors to help both farm school pupils and teachers with the teaching and learning of complicated subjects such as Mathematics, Science and Computer Studies. These tutors ought to be paid by the private sector, as is the case with public schools where companies like BP and Shell and the Science Education Project (SEP) employ tutors to help Mathematics and Science teachers and supply public schools with science kits. Such an exercise could be extended to farm schools as well.

The other kind of private sector involvement which Kallaway (1983:10) identifies is represented by joint venture with the state, in this instance with the Department of Education. This means that the Department of Education together with the private sector, should establish technical schools on farms

with the private sector providing the funds and the Department of Education the buildings and curricula. The private sector could play a significant role in the provision of formal and informal education on farms. It can, in addition, provide vocational training outside the formal structures, but in partnership with formal education. The African National Congress Education Document recommends that the private sector support the upgrading of basic education (ANC 1992:15). The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) recommends that employers be involved in the education of both workers and workseekers (Focus on education 1994:27 - 28).

5.4.6 The church

Since time immemorial the church has always held that it is its duty to provide education. The church's power is wielded not only in spiritual matters but also in cultural matters, including education. The years following the 1953 Bantu Education Act saw the state breaking down the power of the church educational affairs (Graaff & Gordon 1992:214). More than 5 000 missionary-run schools were closed down; others remained state-aided (Christie 1986:162). Since there are some church schools that are state-aided farm schools, the church can play a significant role in promoting effective teaching and efficient learning in these schools (cf paragraph 3.3.4). The church could allow its buildings to be used as makeshift schools, should the farmer close the school on his farm (cf paragraph 3.3.3). The church could also make its halls and facilities available to farm school pupils who would like to study in the evenings or during weekends. Since the church has much influence on community members and rubs shoulders with prominent businessmen and women, it could arrange study loans and bursaries for farm school pupils who would like to further their education.

If the farm school is on church land, it is recommended that the church should not monopolise the education of the children by prescribing what religious content should be taught during a religious education period. It ought to extend the administration and management of the school to other structures with an interest in education, in the form of the establishment of the education committee, which can be a sub-committee of the Parish Council. In conclusion, the church could encourage good rapport among teachers, parents, pupils and

farmers so that effective teaching and efficient learning can be facilitated.

5.4.7 The role of principals in parental involvement

5.4.7.1 Introduction

The empirical survey indicated that there is a willingness and need among many parents to be involved in school activities (cf Tables 4.1 and 4.2). Farm school principals should tap this charitable potential. Nieman (1991:425) maintains that it is an important management task of the principal to activate parents in a partnership with the school. It is his duty to build cooperative partnership with parents. This is illustrated by van Schalkwyk (1990:39):

"... daar is geen beter manier waarop die twee persone se gemeenskaplike werk en verantwoordelikheid saamgesnoer kan word nie, as deur 'n vennootskap."

This partnership between parents and teachers is of great significance, as parents are central to teachers' professionalism and hence can no longer be seen as peripheral.

Principals occupy key positions in the schools. In the Principal's Guide of the former Department of Education and Training, the principal is described as a link between the school and the parents (DET 1989:3). This indicates that principals have vital roles in establishing parental involvement in the farm schools.

5.4.7.2 Why should farm school principals solicit parental involvement in their schools?

Parental involvement is vital and significant in a child's education (cf paragraph 5.4.2). Its importance can never be over emphasised. Piltch (1991:10) maintains that when a parent takes an interest in the child's learning, the child will probably be motivated to put more of an effort into learning than when parents behave as if they do not care about the child's education. If parents are not attached to the school, they feel isolated and do not understand what is going on in the school. It is, then, the farm school

principal's duty to solicit the parents' involvement in school matters. The farm school principals should welcome parents in the schools (cf Table 4.16), as it is through the parents' participation in schools that the schools will receive ideas, expertise and human resources and improve educational programmes (cf paragraph 4.5.3.7). There can be no doubt that the investment the farm school parents may make in their children, and the values they instil in them, are a major determining factor in how their children fare in farm schools.

Toth (1987:21) states that parents who are actively involved in their children's education engender positive results. Farm school principals should make parents aware that, besides the farmer, they are fundamentally responsible for the education of their children (cf paragraph 2.2.2.3). It is the responsibility of school principals to inculcate in parents that sense of partnership between home and school which will enhance parental involvement.

5.4.7.3 Approaches to parental involvement that may be undertaken by farm school principals

Farm school principals may use various models or approaches to parental involvement. For example:

(a) Parents as policy makers

Farm school principals can help empower parents as decision-makers in the structures and implementors of school policies (cf paragraph 2.2.2.4). Parents, through school committees and management councils, can contribute to decisions at school level on budget resolutions, teacher selection and curriculum options (cf paragraph 2.2.2.3). Because some decisions on policy level may need trained and experienced people, the teachers and other educators may share their experiences with parents and should orientate parents for responsible and informed participation.

Farm school principals should then facilitate the establishment of school committees or management councils, as most parents surveyed are willing to serve in these structures (cf Table 4.1). School committees/management councils have been provided for in the Education Laws Amendment Act of 1988 (cf paragraph 5.4.2). The snag is that, in

the farm schools, the school committees/management councils established if the farmer so desires (Graaff & Gordon 1992:221). Many Right Wing farmers do not have school committees/management councils. This was evidenced by the Conservative Party's opposition to the election of parents onto school committees/management councils. Graaff and Gordon (1992:222) state that the former Minister of Education and Training finally acceded to the Conservative Party's objections, saying that farmers would be able to maintain control if they so desired, without appointing a school committee/management council. It is recommended that the farm school principal negotiate with the farm owner for the establishment of the school committee/management council and enlist the service of government officials and the community to plead with the farmer to accede to such a request, since the importance of school committees can never be overemphasised (cf paragraph 5.4.2 school is dependent on the protection and support of the whole community; it is, therefore, in a position of great responsibility.

(b) Parents as volunteers

Farm school principals may involve parents as "peoples' power" (Moore 1991:19), meaning that they can be used as a corps of volunteers, assisting teachers as classroom helpers, field trip chaperons, project fundraisers and so on (cf paragraph 2.2.2.3 and Table 4.6). Farm school principals should encourage parents to take their children on local outings to expose them to art and music gatherings (cf paragraph 4.5.2.5).

When parents resolve to do their share in education there can be an upward trend in educational standards and achievements in farm schools. Farm school principals should insist on heavy parental involvement in their schools to draw the parents from complacency into participation (Mahlase 1989:7).

(c) Parents as facilitators of children's development

This approach emphasises developing parents' capabilities to contribute to the educational success of their children (Moore 1991:19). Farm

school principals should organise training programmes for parents where they can be counselled on how to enrich their children's lives through effective parenting and by using social service agencies. The empirical survey indicated that parents want bursaries and study loans for their children to further education (cf Table 20). They also want feeding schemes to be instituted in schools (cf paragraph 4.5.3.9). This suggests that parents want their children to grow up strong and successful, despite the fact that some may lack the resources to contribute to the process. It is imperative for principals to organise parent education programmes that will help parents facilitate their children's development.

- 5.4.7.4 To what extent may farm school principals promote parental involvement?
- (a) Farm school principals should manage parent and community involvement
 Principals should take it upon themselves to manage parent and community
 involvement. They should involve every member of the community. They
 should perform certain management tasks in conjunction with parents.
 Principals ought to design methods of involving parents by dealing
 directly with community members. They should know what the community
 thinks of the schools in its midst and should know the community in order
 to keep abreast of its thinking. They have to communicate with
 influential people in the community, such as prominent businessmen,
 church leaders, district surgeons and sportsmen, and ask them to serve
 on the school committees/management councils and to join Parent-Teacher
 Associations (cf paragraphs 4.5.2.1 and 4.5.2.2).

Farm school principals should initiate and implement parental involvement. By inviting parents to schools and involving them in school functions such as concerts, fundraising functions and the opening and closing of the school year (cf paragraph 5.4.2), a lot of good can be done by principals to open channels of communication between school and home. In order to enhance parental involvement farm school principals may initiate a parents' day, the purpose of which would be to familiarise

parents with the school setting and reward pupils for intra-mural and extra-mural activities (cf sections 2.2.2.4 and 5.4.2). The parents and the community at large could be drawn into the planning, organising, directing and controlling of such a day.

The principal, in order to maintain the community's involvement in the school, should have good communication skills. He should provide the mechanism for feeding back information from the school to the community (Nieman 1991:388). The degree to which the community supports school programmes, depends on the understanding and knowledge members of the community have of the activities in the school programme. Community involvement is of strategic importance in promoting positive attitudes on the part of community members. Kindred (1957) in Nieman (1991:389) suggests that in order to influence the attitude of the community towards the school, the principal should:

- develop an understanding of the school and its activities
- determine what the expectations of the community are with regard to the school
- instil an awareness in the community of the nature of the educational programmes which have renewal as their aim as well as the attendant needs of a programme of this kind
- actively involve the community in the school programme as well as the solution of its problems
- support community services in a spirit of sincere cooperation.

Mahlase (1989:56) suggests that there should be a control system for managing parental involvement in schools. He recommends the establishment of liaison committees by school principals. Such committees would be constituted by school committee members, the teaching staff and members of Parent-Teacher Associations. The chairman of such

a committee should be the principal (Mahlase 1989:56). Committees such as these would be ideal bodies to foster and encourage parental involvement.

(b) Farm school principals should remove barriers to parental involvement
There are barriers that inhibit parental involvement (cf paragraph 2.2.2.5) and these must be confronted and removed by the farm school principals before parents can be meaningfully included in the education of their children.

(i) Distance between teachers and parents

Distance, either physical or psychological, often prevents parents and teachers from making face-to-face contact (Moore 1991:19). Schools have to become pleasant places for parents to enter, without formidably barred entrances and gates, which make them formidable places. School personnel should be warm and should make a visiting parent feel at home. Consequently, schools ought to have comfortable spaces for parents and teachers to talk together. The more obstructions placed between the parent and teacher, the harder it becomes for them to bond for joint responsibility. It is the duty of principals to narrow the gap between teachers and parents (cf paragraph 5.4.7.4 (d)).

(ii) Lack of teacher-training

The teachers hold the partnership between school and home together. The principals have to give them time, training and the resources to fulfil this role. Most farm school teachers are not adequately trained to manage situations they may find in the classroom (cf paragraph 3.3.6). Principals may organise in-service training for teachers, so that they may develop the necessary skills to work effectively with parents.

(iii) Class barriers

There is a social class barrier between farm working parents and teachers (cf paragraphs 3.3.6, 2.2.2.5 (b) and 3.4.2.3). Principals should see to it that teachers and parents overcome invisible class boundaries that prevent effective interaction (cf paragraphs 2.2.2.5 (d) and 2.2.2.5

(f)). For involvement to be meaningful, it must occur between people who view themselves as equals. Farm school principals should therefore not allow a situation where teachers approach parents with a patronising air and communicate a view of themselves as superior rather than equal.

(iv) Limited view of parental involvement

Limited parental involvement such as parent-teacher conferences, classroom visits and fundraising by parents should be expanded. Principals could establish parental involvement programmes that teach parents to navigate the school system and make them advocates for their children's education (cf paragraphs 2.2.2.1 and 5.4.2). These programmes should give parents confidence to speak to the principal and even to make suggestions at the school committee/management council meetings. Moore (1991:20) suggests that such programmes should train parents to recognise and articulate their children's dispositions, attitudes and behaviour to teachers, to empower parents and prepare them to ensure that their children's educational needs are met.

(v) The perception of the school

Principals ought to broaden the perception of their schools. should not be considered structures whose sole purpose is the education of children; they could serve more functions. For instance, schools could be used as old age pension collection points, health care centres where vaccination and inoculation services are rendered or as a place where social welfare services are rendered. These activities could take place over weekends or after school hours. Schools could be used as community halls for, among other things, weddings, concerts, contests and church services. The principals, by so doing, would be promoting the atmosphere of cooperation and understanding between the schools and Parents would consequently perceive farm schools as theirs, parents. thus directing their interest towards what takes place in the classroom and on the sports- fields, as well as other activities undertaken by the schools attended by their children.

(c) Farm school principals should facilitate parent-teacher interaction
The paramount duty of the principal is to ensure that there is reciprocal dialogue between teachers and parents (cf paragraph 5.4.2.2). Farm school principals should create situations where teachers and parents interact. These situations should be designed to enhance the effectiveness of teachers and parents in working with each other and in dealing with the children for whom they share responsibility. To achieve this, school principals should advocate and facilitate the establishment of Parent-Teacher-Student Associations, to afford parents direct access to teachers. Such bodies should open their membership to any persons empathetic to the school.

School principals should encourage parent visits to school so that parents may experience the atmosphere on campus, talk to pupils and staff, or observe in the classroom or on the sports-fields. To give more effect to this parent-teacher interaction Macbeth (1989:20) suggests that the principal arrange consultation sessions between parents and teachers, discussing children's reports and planning the next phase of their learning. Positive parent-teacher interaction ensures parent cooperation and thus parental participation is guaranteed.

(d) Farm school principals should solicit the support of the employers of the parents to facilitate parental involvement

Espinoza (1988:63) maintains that employers wield a great deal of power over the resources that enable families and schools to work together for the improvement of children's education. The empirical survey indicated that most principals felt a strong need for the farmers to contribute to community involvement in education (cf Table 4.20). This suggests that parental involvement can become meaningful and successful with the full cooperation of the farmers who are the employers of the majority of the farm school parents. Farm workers can usually not take less than a full day of leave and cannot, therefore, attend parent meetings or conferences during working days without taking the whole day of unpaid leave (Nasson 1988:58).

Many parents surveyed expressed a desire to be involved in their children's education (cf Table 4.6), thus suggesting that they regret not being able to attend school events because of the rigid leave policies of their employers. Principals should therefore negotiate with employers within the community, as they are one of the social structures with an interest in education and should be sensitive to the needs and values of the communities in which they operate. Flexible leave policies can become a legitimate arrangement, that benefits employer, employee and schools (Epstein 1988:65).

It is imperative that principals involve corporate business in supporting parental involvement. This could include scheduling, among other things, parent-teacher conferences, parent training programmes and parents' school visits. Principals should establish and sustain positive relationships between the business world and their schools. These partnerships are valuable to educators, business people and parents.

(e) Farm school principals should facilitate communication structures
In 1984 the former DET appointed five committees to make recommendations on "Better education with better results: Improvement of education" (Mahlase 1989:3). Certain findings of one of the committees were that principals should inform parents of matters concerning education and that parents should receive guidance at parent meetings about the needs and problems of children and how these can be solved.

However, it transpired in *Minute 24/3/1* of the former DET dated 18 February 1987 that headmasters were not transmitting vital school information to parents, and parents, therefore, were feeling uncommitted (DET 1987:4). Farm school principals should establish communication structures through which schools can communicate with parents (cf paragraphs 4.5.2.2, 4.5.3.2 and 4.5.3.5); they should play a significant role in establishing communication structures (cf diagram 5.1).

The former DET recommended the formation of the communication structure in the form of a liaison committee which is a body of fourteen members

consisting of departmental officials, teachers, pupils and parents (Mahlase 1989:29). The liaison committee is the closest ideal for community involvement, because all parties involved in school situations are represented. It is proper that in the farm school a farmer or his representative should be a member of the liaison committee. Its aim should be to effect personal liaison among pupils, staff, parents, church, farmers and the Department of Education at local level to formulate and submit positive and constructive ideas to the Department of Education and to effect participation and involvement among all the parties involved (Mahlase 1989:30).

(f) Farm school principals should establish the system of a Panel of Identification, Diagnosis and Assistance (PIDA) in their schools

Farm school principals should establish a Panel for Identification, Diagnosis and Assistance (PIDA) in their schools. The PIDA places great emphasis on the partnership between parents and teachers in the education of the child (DET 1987:17). The PIDA committees identify and prescribe corrective programmes for children who need remedial assistance. The home background of such children is checked. This suggests a close liaison between the school and home when solving the pupil's problems. The PIDA committee links the guidance teacher with other teachers and helps teachers to establish a meaningful relationship with parents (DET 1987:18). The PIDA panel is expected to report to the circuit office on the number of parents that a school has interviewed.

For farm school principals, who are confronted with the task of promoting parental involvement, the PIDA system in their schools is a matter of necessity.

5.4.7.5 Conclusion

Parental involvement in farm schools should not be a sporadic event, but should be carefully planned, organised and coordinated by principals, who should take it upon themselves to manage parental involvement. Parental involvement should be an on-going process, included in the school year planner. The school year planner should, therefore, reflect specific activities in which parents will

be made to take the lead and be initiators of action. Consequently school principals have to know that in order for parents to ensure that their children's potential is optimally realised, for their own benefit and that of the community, for the good of the country, and to honour God, they should become actively involved and have a say in the effective teaching and efficient learning of their children (Nieman 1991:407).

5.5 CONCLUSION

This study has revealed serious shortcomings concerning the participation of parents and community members in the affairs of the farm schools. The 1988 Act which provided for a school committee/management council comprising the owner of the school or his representative and elected parents has been ignored by most farm schools. The school committee/management council, broached by the ERSD document which makes provision for the transfer of extended powers to the local community (DNE 1992:20-26), has not been heeded by most farm schools. Tsele (1991:460) describes this education crisis in the farm schools as a deliberate political decision to deny Blacks a proper education, to hold them in perpetual subservience to White farmers and thus to systematically rob parents of any means of genuine empowerment. It is for this reason that this study recommends that both educators and politicians are needed to solve the crisis in farm schools. Gordon (1991:13) states that the restructuring of farm schools cannot be solved by injection of funds, but is intimately interwoven with the social and economic restructuring of rural areas.

The new education system in farm school areas would have to allow for the participation of all interested parties, while providing for the needs of the country's socio-cultural groups. The farm school system should be truly democratised. The representative structures of the community should be allowed to intervene in the destiny of their children's education. They should give their input on what the content of education should be. This should not be left to the top policy-makers alone. The administration of farm schools should be restructured to be more democratic. To begin with, Student Representative Councils (SRC's) are crucial in the administration of schools. Democratically elected parents' councils with real decision-making powers are even more

important players. Independent Teachers' Unions, the farmers and government officials form the next sector of players. At the end of the day, farm school education will be determined by all the social structures with an interest in education. This also means that one does not have to change the educational system every time the government changes, as it is the community which is in control of education.

It is interesting to note that in 1993 the National Education and Training Forum was established to address educational issues. Sub-committees on the integration of education were established in May 1994 by the Minister of National Education, Professor S Bhengu. Their compositions, however, should reach out to the farm school areas. Such forums, the author believes, should reflect the diversity of the community structures involved in education so that a new education system can reflect the basic needs of the community in which it operates. These forums should expect input from the farm school teaching fraternity as well as from the representatives of the farmer groupings that have a vested interest in the education of their labourers' children. Community involvement in farm schools on a regional basis as expounded in this study should pave the way for community involvement in a new educational dispensation on a national level.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

One of the possible shortcomings of this study is the fact that it was confined to farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg area only. In general, a study of the entire farm school system in the whole Republic of South Africa would prove more reliable. However, the scope of this study had to be limited, and it is possible that the results could be valid for the entire farm school education system in the country. In particular it would be of value to investigate the farm school system with regard to, among other things, the ownership of schools, the restructuring of farm school education and the managerial behaviour of farm school managers. Such an investigation would prove beneficial to farm school education country-wide.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Achola, P.P. W. 1988. Mobilising Additional Funds for Secondary Schools. *Kenya Journal of Education*, 1 (1):32 52.
- African National Congress 1992. An ANC Political Education Manual for Organisers, Educators and Study Circles. Johannesburg: Shellhouse.
- Anderson, J E 1973. Organization and Financing of Self-help Education in Kenya. Paris: IIEP.
- Ary, D, Jacobs, L C & Razavieh, A 1985. *Introduction to Research in Education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Badenhorst, D C 1987. School Management: The Task and the Role of the Teacher.

 Pretoria: Haum.
- Baker, B 1991. A lesson in a small farm school. *The Weekly Mail*, October 4 October 10, 1991:23.
- Baltimore, M D 1991. Profiles in excellence: Parent involvement. Executive Educator, 13 (3):1 17.
- Banathy, B H 1968. Instructional Systems. California: Feoron Publishers.
- Behr, A L 1978. New Perspectives in South African Education. Durban: Butterworths.
- Behr, A L 1983. *Empirical Research Methods for the Human Sciences*. Durban: Butterworths.
- Behr, A L 1988. Education in South Africa: Origins, Issues and Trends 1652 1988. Pretoria: Academica.
- Bennet, J 1990. Piet Marais visit raises hopes for Natal's 'forgotten' farm children. *The Sunday Tribune*, October 7, 1990:9.
- Bereday, G Z F & Lauwerys, J 1966. *Church and the State in Education*. London: Evans Brothers Ltd.
- Berger, E H 1981. Parents as Partners in Education: The School and Home Working Together. London: C V Mosby Company.
- Bergin, J 1981. Practical Communication. Massachusetts: Pitman.
- Best, J & Kahn, J 1989 Research in Education. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Best, J W 1977. Research in Education (3rd Edition). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

- Beveridge, S 1989. Hilton College Farm School, Natal, South Africa. *Gifted Children Education International*, 6 (1):51 56.
- Black rural education report is welcomed 1987. The Eastern Province Herald, 143 (177):9
- Bondesio, M J et al 1987. *The Teaching Profession: Legal Requirements*. Pretoria: J P van der Walt.
- Borg, W R & Gall, M D 1989. Educational Research (5th edition): An Introduction. New York: Longman.
- Botha, M C 1966. An address of the Minister of Bantu Education at the Education Conference of the University College of Fort Hare, in Duminy, P A 1966. Trends and challenges in the education of the South African Bantu. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Botswana 1988. Education, Culture and Politics. Centre of African Studies: University of Edinburgh.
- Branston, P 1988. Children and Parents Enjoying Reading: A Handbook for Teachers. London: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Brophy, J E & Good, T L 1974. *Teacher-Student Relationship*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Brubacher, J S 1966. A History of the Problems of Education. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Brubacher, J S 1969. Modern Philosophies of Education. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Burnet, J 1913. Aristotle in Education. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Buskin, M 1975. Parent Power. New York: Walker.
- Buthelezi Commission 1982. The Requirements for Stability and Development.

 Buthelezi Commission Report, 2. Durban: H & H Publications.
- Butts, R F 1973. The Education of the West. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Cameron, B 1987. Boost for rural education. The Star, July 28, 1987:4.
- Canter, L 1988. Homework Without Tears. New York: Perernel Library.
- Castle, E B 1970. The Teacher. London: Oxford University Press.
- Chamberlain, D 1940. Some Letters from David Livingstone 1840 1872. London: Longman.
- Chirenge, J M 1976. Church, State and Education in Bechuanaland in the 19th Century. *International Journal of African Historical Studies*, 9(3): 401 418.

- Christie, P 1986. Apartheid in the countryside: South African schools. In Gillespie (ed), *Education as an International Commodity*. Proceedings of the 14th Annual Conference at Queensland University, Dec 1 5 (New Zealand and International Education Society). Brisbane: Queensland University.
- Christie, P 1986. The Right to Learn: The Struggle for Education in South Africa. Johannesburg: Raven Press.
- Christie, P & Gaganakis, M 1989. Farm Schools in South Africa: The Face of Rural Apartheid. *Comparative Education Review*, 33 (1):77 97.
- Cloete, J J N 1986. Introduction to Public Administration. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Coan, S 1990. Casimula a leading light among farm schools. *The Natal Witness*, 145 (36801):9.
- Cohen, L & Manion, L 1981. *Perspectives on Classrooms and Schools*. Sussex: Rinehart & Winston.
- Cohen, L & Manion, L 1989. Research Methods in Education. London: Croom Helm.
- Coombs, P 1985. The World Crisis in Education. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Coombs, P & Jacques, H 1972. Educational Cost Analysis and Action: Case Studies for Planners. Paris: IIEP.
- Cox, F M 1979. Strategies of Community Organization. Illinois: F E Peacock Publishers.
- Curtis, S J & Boultwood, M E A 1986. *A Short History of Educational Ideas*. New York: Slough University Tutorial Press.
- D'aeth, R 1983. *Education and Development in the Third World*. Hampshire: Gower Publishing Company.
- David, M E 1980. The State, the Family and Education. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Davies, E H 1986. The Involvement of Relevant Social Structures in the Training of Teachers. D Ed Thesis. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Dekker, E, Goodey, J S & Pretorious, S G 1989. Comparative Education: B Ed Module OVO 402 Pretoria: UNISA.
- De Lange, J P 1981. Provision of Education in the RSA: HSRC Investigation into Education. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Department of Education and Training 1985. Managing Parent and Community Involvement: Top Down No 4. Pretoria: Government Printers.

- Department of Education and Training 1987. Ouerbetrokkenheid vir die Onderwys: Minute 24/3/1. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Department of Education and Training 1989. *Manual for Principals of Schools:*DET 281. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Department of Education and Training 1987. A Guide for Teachers: Educational Auxillary Services. Guardianship and PIDA. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Department of National Education 1992. Education Renewal Strategy: Discussion Document. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Department van Onderwys en Opleiding 1986. Onderwysvoorsiening vir die Plattelandse Swart Leerling:3 7. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Deprived, but getting ahead 1987. The New Nation, 2 (14):10
- De V Graaf, J F 1988. Rural Schools: Cause for Hope? African Insight, 18 (1): 20 25.
- Duminy, P A 1973. African pupils and teaching them. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Eedle, J H 1971. Financing Education in Developing Countries. *Comparative Education Journal*, 7:60 67.
- Eggen, P D & Kauch, D P 1988. Strategies for Teachers: Teaching Content and Thinking Skills. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Eiseman, T O 1988. Benefitting From Basic Education, School Quality and Functional Literacy in Kenya. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Epstein, J L 1988. Parents and Schools: How Do We Improve Programmes for Parent Involvement? *Educational Horizons*, 66:57 95.
- Espinoza, R 1988. Working Parents, Employers and Schools. *Educational Horizons*, 66:62 65.
- Fafunwa, A B, & Aisuku, J M (ed) 1982. Education in Africa: A Comparative Survey. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- Farm Schools 197C. Bantu Educational Journal, 16 (9):2 3.
- Farm Schools 1993. Farm School News, 15:1 3.
- Feldman, L M 1989. Low-income Parents Becoming Professionals with Children. Early Child Development, 50:151 - 158.
- Fiske, S G 1976. Spotlight on Farm Schools. Farmers' Weekly, 130 (2):16 19.
- Focus on education 1994. The Weekly Mail and Guardian, June 10 June 16, 1994: 27 28.

- Fox, D J 1969. *The Research Process in Education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Gift of the pre-fab buildings ends children's plight 1987. The Sunday Tribune, April 12, 1987:24.
- Gaganakis, M & Crewe, M 1987. Farm Schools in South Africa. Johannesburg: SAIRR.
- Gay, L R 1987. Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application. London: Meril Publishing Company.
- Good, H G & Teller, S 1963. History of Western Education. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Goodling, J I 1976. Facing the Future: Issues in Education and Schooling.

 New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gordan I J 1976. Building Effective Home-School Relationships. Boston: Atly & Bacon.
- Gordon, A 1987. Another Mealie in the Bags: Opportunities and Constraints Facing Farm Schools in Peri-urban Areas. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Gordon, A 1991. Farm Schools: A Bumper Harvest for the Ninties. *Matlhasedi*, 10 (1):10 13.
- Gottschalk, L 1954. Understanding History. New York: Alfred D Knopf.
- Graaff, J F de V 1988. Rural School: Cause for Hope? Africa Insight, 18 (1): 20 25.
- Graaff, J & Gordon, A 1992. South African Farm Schools: Children in the Shadow, in McGregor, R & McGregor, A 1992. Education alternatives. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Graves, F P 1913. A History of Education. New York: Macmillan.
- Grimm, H J 1973. The Reformation Era (1500 1600). New York: Macmillan.
- Gunter, C F G 1982. Aspects of Educational Theory. Pretoria: University Publishers and Booksellers (Pty) Ltd.
- Gutek, G L 1972. A History of Western Educational Experience. New York: Random House.
- Hans, N 1982. Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Harvey, R W 1980. The Farm School System and Bantu Education. Cape Town: SALDRU.

- Hepworth, T F 1988. A Preliminary Investigation into the Role of Parents and the Community in the Improvement of Schools and the Third (Local) Level, with Special Emphasis on Curriculum Development.

 M Ed Thesis. Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth.
- Hlahla, P 1987. Education's role 'decisive'. *The Pretoria News*, July 2, 1987:6.
- Holdstock, T L 1987. Education for New Nation. Sandton: Media House Publication.
- Horrel, M 1963. African Education: Some Origins and Development Until 1953. Johannesburg: SAIRR.
- Horrel, M 1964. A Decade of Bantu Education. Johannesburg: SAIRR.
- Horrel, M 1968. Bantu Education to 1968. Johannesburg: SAIRR.
- Houghton, H & Tregar, P 1989. Community Schools in Developing Countries. Hamburg: UNESCO.
- How to Boost Parent Involvement? 1992. Educamus, 38(6):29.
- Hughes, R R 1989. The Family as an Educator in Kenya. *Kenya Journal of Education*, 4 (2):15 30.
- Hull, D M 1987. Educational Development in Botswana. *Journal of Negro Education*, 56 (3):381 389.
- Huss, B 1977. The South African Natives. A Monthly Series Special to "The Southern Cross", 2. Pinetown: Mariannhill Printers.
- Ignas, E 1981. *Comparative Educational Systems*. New York: F E Peacock Publishers.
- Indire, F 1982. Education in Kenya, in Fafunwa, A & Aisuku, J M 1982. Education in Africa: A Comparative Survey. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- Jackson, R K & Stretch, H A 1976. Perceptions of Parents, Teachers and Administrators to Parental Involvement in Early Childhood Programmes.

 Journal of Educational Research, 22:130 135.
- Jenkins, C 1989. Farmers' Role in Education Highlighted. *The Natal Mercury*, 137 (38294):4.
- Joubert, J 1987. Rural Schooling and Jobs Are Priority. *The Daily Dispatch*, October 24, 1987:7.
- Joyce, P 1980. Work, Society and Politics: The Culture of Factory in Later Victorian England. Brighton: Harvester.

- Junor, D G 1989. Parents' Concept of Homework. M Ed Dissertation. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Kachelhoffer, L 1989. Farm Kids Get Their Own School. *The Argus,* April 11, 1989:11.
- Kahn, A J, Kamerman, S B & McGowan, B G 1973. *A Study in Evaluation*. Columbia University Publishers.
- Kallaway, P 1983. Education and Apartheid. Johannesburg: Ravan Press.
- Kennedy, M E 1984. Government and Education: Who Is Responsible? *The Education Digest*, 22 (5):133 136.
- Kenya Government 1949. African Education in Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Kerlinger, F N 1973. Foundations of Behavioural Research (2nd Edition). London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Khanyile, E B 1982. Adult Education for Blacks in Natal.KwaZulu: A Study of Some Aspects, With Particular Reference to Opportunities for Teachers. M Ed Dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.
- Kidd, R & Byram, M 1978. Performing Arts and Community Education in Botswana. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 13 (3):170 178.
- King, E J 1979. Other Schools and Ours. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- King, K 1977. The African Artisan: Education and Informal Sector in Kenya.

 London: Heinemann.
- Kruger, M M 1981. Fundamental Perspectives in Education. Cape Town: Juta.
- Leedy, P P 1989. Practical Research: Planning and Design. New York: Macmillan.
 - Lehobye, S M 1978. The Need of Pre-school Education in the ODI District of Bophuthatswana: A Psychopedogogic Approach. M Ed Dissertation. Pietersburg: University of the North.
 - Levy, B 1976. Farm School in South Africa: An Empirical Study. Saldru Farm Labour Conference Paper No 44. Cape Town.
 - Lewis, A W 1989. Development Planning: The Essentials of Economic Policy. London: Allen & Unwin.
 - Livingstone, D 1958. Missionary Travels and Researches in Southern Africa. New York: Harper Brothers.
 - Loram, C T 1917. The Education of the South African Bantu. London: Longman.

- Lubbe, B 1986. 'n Ondersoek na die Pedagogiese Problematiek van die Plaasskool in die Department van Onderwys en Opleiding in die Republiek van Suid Afrika. M Ed Verhandeling. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Lucas, C J 1972. Our Western Educational Heritage. New York: Macmillan.
- Luthuli, P C 1988. What Ought to be in Black Education. Durban: Butterworths.
- Mabeba, M A 1988. A Pedagogical Evaluation of the Role of the High School Principal in Lebowa. M Ed Dissertation. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Mabogoane, B 1990. All People Must be Involved in Education for the Real World. *The Sunday Times*, September 23, 1990:8.
- Macbeth, A 1989. Involving Parents: Effective Parent-Teacher Relations.
 Oxford: Heineman.
- Mahlase, A B 1989. Managing Parent Involvement in Secondary Schools of the Department of Education and Training. M Ed Thesis. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.
- Makobane, N 1988. Our Prayers Answered. The Sowetan, January 29, 1988:3.
- Malao, J 1989. Determinants of educational Systems of Bophuthatswana and Botswana: A Comparative Study. D Ed Thesis. Potchefstroom: University of Potchefstroom.
- Martin, A 1970. Report on the Brigades in Botswana. Gabarone: National Archives.
- Maurice, P 1991. Crisis Hidden by the Urban Bias of Protest and Politics. *The Weekly Mail*, October 4 October 10, 1991:19.
- Mbongwe, A S 1986. The Role of Inkatha (National Cultural Liberation Movement) in KwaZulu Education System. M Ed Thesis. Pretoria: UNISA.
- McCaskill, R 1987. Parent Involvement in Education: What Local Groups Can Achieve. Aboriginal Child at School, 15 (1):24 27.
- Mcleskey, J 1986. Working With Rural Parents. Rural Educator, 7 (3):15 19.
- McGregor, R & McGregor, A (ed) 1992. Education Alternatives. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Mkhabela, L P P 1991. The Need for and Provision of Alternative Education in KwaZulu. M Ed Thesis. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Moore, E K 1991. Improving Schools Through Parent Involvement. *Principal*, 77 (1):17 20.
- Morant, R W 1981. In-service Education Within the School. London: Allen & Unwin.

- Morgan, V, et al 1992. Parental Involvement in Education: How do Parents Want to Become Involved? *Educational Studies*, 18 (1):11 20.
- Moser, C & Kalton, G 1978. Survey Methods in Social Investigation. London: Heinemann.
- Moulder, J 1990. Eskom and Michaelhouse Join Forces to Provide Schools in Black Rural Areas. *The Sunday Star*, August 5, 1990:9.
- Mouly, G J 1978. The Science of Educational Research. New York: Van Nostrand.
- Mouton, J & Marais, H C 1991. Basic Concepts in the Methodology of Social Sciences. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Mulder, J C 1983. Statistical Techniques in Education. Pretoria: HAUM.
- Murrey, A V 1938. The School in the Bush. London: Longman.
- Mwiria, K 1990. Kenya's Harambee Secondary School Movement: Comparative Education Review. *Comparative and International Society*, 34 (3): 350 358.
- Nachmias, D & Nachmias, C 1987. Research Methods in the Social Sciences. New York: St Martin's Press.
- Nasson, B 1988. Bitter Harvest: Farm Schooling for Black South Africans. Perspectives in Education, 10 (1):13 - 42.
- Nasson, B 1990. Education and Poverty. Education: From Poverty to Liberty. Report for the Second Carnegie Inquiry into Poverty and Development in Southern Africa. Cape Town: David Philip.
- Nel, C B F 1978. Education and Citizenship: The Essential Bond Between Education and Public Administration or Government. Paidonomia, 6 (1): 6 7.
- Nelson, P et al 1992. Two Studies of Low Income Parents' Involvement in Schooling. The Urban Review, 24 (3):185 202.
- NEPI 1993. Education Planning, Systems and Structure. Cape Town: Oxford NECC.
- New Focus on Farm Schools 1988. Die Karet, January, 31, 1988:5.
- Ngwenya, Z 1988. Farm Schools: A Case Study in Vanderbijl Park Circuit.
 M Ed Dissertation. Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.
- Nicholas, E J 1983. *Issues in Education: A Comparative Analysis*. London: Harper & Row Publishers.
- Nieman, G S 1991. School Business Management, in Van der Westhuizen, P C 1991. Effective Educational Management. Pretoria: Haum.

- Ntataise: Farm Pre-schools 1988. The Natal Witness, 144 (36532):20.
- Nurnberger, K (ed) 1991. A Democratic Vision for South Africa: NIR Read No 3. Pietermaritzburg: Encounter Publications.
- Olembo, J A 1986. Financing Education in Kenya. Prospect, 16 (3):369 375.
- Oliver, R 1991. The Missionary Factor in East Africa. London: Longman.
- Orpen, R C 1982. The Place of the Farm School in the Education System, with Special Reference to the Combined Class. M Ed Thesis. Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.
- Pupils' Forum 1992. Farmer Threatens to Shut School. *The New Nation*, April 3 April 9, 1992:16 20.
- People's Voice 1991. Crisis in Education. Umzinto News Magazine, 2:1 2.
- Piltch, B 1991. What to do When Parent Involvement is not Possible. *Journal of Educational Public Relations*, 14 (3):10 11.
- Plank, D N 1987. School Administration and Reform in Botswana. *International Journal of Education Development*, 7 (3):119 126.
- Prinsloo, J G & Beckman, J L 1988. Education and Rights and Duties of Parents, Teachers and Children. Johannesburg: Lex Patria Publishers.
- Quade, E S 1989. *Analysis for Public Decisions*. New York: Elsevier Science Publishing Company.
- Raju, B M 1973. Education in Kenya: Problems and Perspectives in Educational Planning and Administration. London: Heinemann.
- Ramarumo, M M 1990. High Drop-out Rates and Low Levels of Literacy in Farm Schools. M Ed dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- Redden, J D & Ryan, F A 1955. *A Catholic Philosophy of Life*. Bruce: Milwaukee.
- Richardson, E 1980. The Teacher, the School and the Task of Management. New York: Heinemann.
- Robbins, D 1987. What's Happening to Farm Schools? *The Natal Witness*, 141 (35707):10.
- Rose, B & Tunmer, R 1975. Documents in South African Education. Johannesburg:
 Donker.
- Ross, J J 1966. Bantu Education in Historical Perspective, in Duminy, P A 1966. Trends and Challenges in the Education of the South African Bantu. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

- Rou, P J A 1989. Reference Techniques. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Ruperti, R M 1976. The Education System in Southern Africa. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Rusk, R R & Scotland, J 1981. Doctrines of Great Educators. Bristol: Macmillan.
- Rust, W P 1981. Management Guidelines for Teachers. Massachusetts: Pietman.
- Rutherford, R B 1979. Teachers and Parents: A Guide to Interaction and Cooperation. London: Allyn & Bacon.
- Sattes, B 1989. Parental Involvement in Student Learning. West Virginia: Appalachia Educational Laboratories.
- Scanlam, D 1966. Church, State and Education in Africa. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Seboni, M O M 1946. The Development of Education in the Bechuanaland Protectorate. M Ed dissertation. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Shah, C H 1990. Managerial Communication for Secondary School Principals. D Ed thesis. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Shefield, J R 1971. Education in the Republic of Kenya. Washington: U S Government Printing Office.
- Sifuna, D N 1983. Kenya: Twenty Years of Multilateral Aid. *Prospects*, 13 (4): 481 492.
- Smit, E J & London, C B G 1981. Overview: A Union of School, Community and Family. *Urban Foundation*, 16 (3):258.
- Smock, D R 1983. Black Education in South Africa: The Current Tension. New York: SAEP.
- Soni, P P 1981. Problems for the Teaching of English: Deriving Home Background of a Group of South African Indian School Pupils. M Ed dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.
- Sonnekus, M C H 1969. The Connection Between the Part of the Parent and the Teacher in the Learning Activities of the Child. South African Journal of Pedagogy, 2 (3):26 30.
- South Africa 1987. The Provision of Education for Black Pupils in Rural Areas: A DET Synthesis Report. Pretoria: Persko.
- South Africa 1983. White Paper on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.

- South Africa 1991. Education Realities in South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South Africa 1994. Draft White Paper on Education and Training. *Government Gazette*, 351 (15974):1 60.
- Stable, E 1967. Education Since Uhuru: Kenya Schools. Middletown Cann: Wesleyan University Press.
- Stone, H J S 1981. *The Nature and Structure of the School*. Pretoria: Academica.
- Stone, H J S 1984. The Common and the Diverse: A Profile of Comparative Education. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill.
- Stuart, B 1987. Education Shake-up Plan Involves 1,2 Million Pupils. *The Citizen*, July 28, 1987:10.
- Swartland, J R 1983. Botswana Society: Education for Development Since Independence: An Overview. Conference Paper No 4.
- Tema, S 1987. Rural Education: Farmer Pulls the Strings. *The Business Day*, June 9, 1987:8.
- Thompson, A R 1981. Education and Development in Africa. London: Macmillan.
- Thrush, U 1988. Farm Schools. Montessori Today, 1 (5):5 7.
- Topping, K J 1986. Parents as Educators: Training Parents to Teach Their Children. London: Croom Helm.
- Toth, R S 1987. Put Parents Back into Education. *Journal for Technical and Vocational Education*, 116:20 22.
- Transvaal Education Department 1990. But will the Department Supply Windows? Transvaal Education News, 86 (4):26.
- Tsele, M S 1991. Education for Democracy: A Case Study, in Nürnberger, K 1991. A Democratic Vision for South Africa. Pietermaritzburg: Encounter Publications.
- UNESCO 1990. Community Schools in Developing Countries. Hamburg: UNESCO.
- Urbani, G 1991. Parenthood and Child-Rearing. Educational Psychology. Lecture Notes: 2 6. Durban: University of Zululand Umlazi Extra-mural Division.
- Van Rensburg, P 1991. Another Look at the Scrowe Brigades. *Prospects*, 10 (4): 379 391.

- Van Schalkwyk, O J 1982. Focus on the Education System. Durban: Butterworths.
- Van Schalkwyk, O J 1988. *The Education System: Theory and Practice.* Pretoria: Alkanto.
- Van Schalkwyk, O J 1990. *Ouerbetrokkenheid: 'n Handleiding vir die Onderwyser*. Alkantrant: Alkanto.
- Van Vuuren, J C G (ed) 1988. Orientation in Pedagogics. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Van Wyk, J G 1987. The Law of Education for the Teacher. Pretoria: Academica.
- Van Wyk, C 1988. The Development of a Training Programme for Farm School Principals in Managerial Skills Based on Distance Education. *Distance Education*, 9 (2):316 325.
- Venter, I S J 1979. History of Education. Durban: Butterworths.
- Vergani, L 1987. To the Rescue: Blackboard Breakthrough. *The Sunday Tribune*, January 12, 1987:24.
- Von Klemperer, M 1990. Innovation in the Face of an Almost Hopeless Situation. *The Natal Witness*, 145 (36756):5.
- Vos, A J & Britz, V M 1988. *Comparative* and *International Education for Student-Teachers*. Durban: Butterworths.
- Watson, K 1985. *Key Issues in Education: Comparative Perspectives.*New Hampshire: Biddles.
- Wiersma, W 1991. Research Methods in Education. New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Woods, P 1986. Sociology and the School. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

APPENDIX A

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN DET FARM SCHOOLS

QUESTIONNAIRE A 1 : FOR PARENTS

This is not a test, but a questionnaire which forms a part of a research project to identify the current state of community involvement in DET farm schools. Your contribution is of great importance.

You are cordially requested to return the completed form to the principal.

For Office	e Use	Only
Form.No.		
		1-3

Please answer the relevant number.	following questions by crossing the
Answer No	= 1
Answer Not sure	= 2
Answer Yes	= 3 e.g. 1 3

- 1. Would you like to be a member of the school committee ?
- 2. Would you like to be a member of a parent-teacher association to promote good relations between teachers and parents ?
- 3. Would you like to be a member of a parent class teacher's club ?
- 4. Would you like to help the school by: 4.1. maintaining the school grounds?
 - 4.2. repairing buildings and equipment ?
- 5. Would you like to accompany the pupils on education tours ?
- 6. Would you like to assist in sports by coaching pupils ?
- 7. Would you like to function as a teacher assistant in the classroom situation e.g. supervise the reading lesson, needlework, art and craft ?
- 8. Would you regularly supervise your children studying at home ?
- 9. Would you like to control the homework of your child by signing the work that has been completed?

_				
	1	2	3	4
	1	2	3	5
	_	۲		
	1	2	3	6
	•	_		_
	1	2	3	7
١	1	2	3	7 8 9
	1	2 2 2	3 3 3	9
	1	2	3	10
	1	2	3	11
	1	2	3	12
	J .	2	3	13
		<u> </u>	L	
			•	14 15

10.	What things can help to			the	school	that
	and the same with the same and	ne called allino pures mange apple alleges année alleges alleges année alleges alleges année alleges alleges a	ma anna agus airis iodhi anna agus airis iodh airis agus Mariann ann agus agus agus airis anna agus ann ann ann ann ann ann ann ann ann an	 		
		 		 W	من ووقع عبد منت بلتي يولند منيو يو	

APPENDIX B

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN DET FARM SCHOOLS QUESTIONNAIRE A 2 : FOR PRINCIPALS

This is not a test, but a questionnaire which forms a part of a research project to identify the current state of community involvement in DET farm schools. Your contribution is of great importance.

		*				-mont	
	1.	Be honest when answering. Remember you need name or the name of your school.	not	give	your		
	2.	Answer <u>all</u> the questions.					
	3.	Answer each question by putting a cross on the relevant answer. e.g. 1 3	the	numbe	er of		
	4.	The numbers on the right are for office-use.	Plea	ase i	gnore		
	5.	Thank you.					
					1	Offi m No.	ly 3
		VOLVEMENT IN DET FARM SCHOOLS by inserting an (X)).					
1. 2. 3.	Stat Publ	ool is: e-aided farm school ic school ate school				4	
re An An	levant swer <u>N</u>	ot sure = 2					
Wa	s part	of your school built by the parents ?	1	2	3	5	
	es you uncil	r school have a school committee/management?	1	2	3	6	
		nts represented on the school committee/ nt council ?	1	2	3	7	
	you thool ?	hink parents want to be involved in the	1	2	3	8	
Do	paren	ts pay some teachers' salaries ?	1	2	3	9	
		ts collect money to defray school ure ?	1	2	3	10	

				For Form		e Us	e Only
	Do you regularly call parent meetings ?	1	2	3	11		
	Do parents and teachers meet during these meetings?	1	2	3	12		
	Do parents and teachers exchange views about the behaviour and performances of pupils ?	1	2	3	13		
3.	What is the present involvement of parents in your school ? 1. Excellent 2. Good 3. Poor 4. Very Poor				, 14		
4.	How would you like to see parental involvement implemented in your school ?						
	Select your choice of the following suggestion's by numbering them from 1 to 8. Number your first choice 1, your second choice 2 and your last choice would be 8. Before starting to number them, read all the suggestions.						
	Parents control school funds.]	15		
	Parents do repairs to school buildings and equipment.				16		
	Parents select their representatives who will wor with you to control and manage the school.	k			17		
	Parents supervise the school homework and sign th homework that has been completed.	е			1 8		
	Parents visit the school regularly to observe how their children perform in class.				19		
	Parents regularly examine the neatness of their children's exercise books.				20		
	Parents act as teacher-assistants in the classroc situation e.g. supervising, reading lessons, need work, art and craft.				21		
	Parents have a say in the selection of the subject that are taught in the school.	ts		1	22		
5.	Please answer the following questions by crossing trelevant number. Answer No = 1 Answer Not sure = 2 Answer Yes = 3	he			·		
	Does the farm school manager encourage all school-going pupils to attend school ?	[:	. 2	3	23		

For Office Use Only Form No.

	membe	the farm school manager allow his/her family ers to assist with the education of pupils in school?	1	2	3	24	
	¹ Does	the farm school manager know what the children at school ?	1	2	3	25	
ô.		you think can be done by farm school managers ance effective teaching and efficient learning?			•		
	numbe would	et your choice of the following suggestions by ering them from 1 to 5. Your last choice i be 5. Read through all the suggestions first re starting to number them.					
		nould attend short courses in management and stration of schools.]	26	
	-	nould establish the school committees to solicit ews and the support of parents.				27	
	teacher	nould attend meetings with inspectors, parents, rs and the church groups to discuss schooling circuit.				28	
		nould award bursaries and study loans to students in their areas to further their education.			_	29	
	They sh	nould establish feeding schemes for pupils.		<u> </u>	_	30	
7.	releva Answei	Not sure = 2				-	
	7.1.	Does your school receive financial or other help from sources other than the school and the state?	1	2	3	31	
	7.2.	If the answer is "YES", mention the $\underline{\text{source}}$ and the type of help received.			-1		
		fc	r o	ffice	e use	32	33

APPENDIX C

The Research Department P.O. Box 49353 Qualbert 4078 O8 November 1993

The	Principal	

Sir/Madam

I would be grateful if you will assist in connection with some research that is being taken with regard to the Community Involvement in DET farm schools. This research, it is hoped, may prove to be of some real value to our profession.

This research is carried out with the full support of the Director-General of DET. In this connection any querries you might have regarding the research may be directed to DET (Pretoria) Research Section - (012) 312 5176 or to the writer of this letter (031) 706 3661.

The success of this research evolves around you as a school principal. Find enclosed three questionnaires in this envelope.

- i) Complete one questionnaire for principals i.e. Questionnaire A 2.
- ii) Arrange to get <u>Two</u> parents who are able to complete the form, and distribute these <u>two</u> questionnaires to them.

Completed questionnaires should be sent to Bulwer Circuit office for attention of:

Att: Miss R. Mdlangathi (Research)
Education and Training
Bulwer Circuit
P/Bag X146
Bulwer
4575

I wish to conclude by placing on record my sincere thanks and appreciation to you, in anticipation, for your kind assistance.

Yours sincerely

M.A.N. DUMA (Researcher)

APPENDIX D

The Research Department P.O. Box 49353 Qualbert 4078 Nov. 08 1993

The Principal				

Sir/Madam

I would be grateful if you will assist in connection with some research that is being taken with regard to the Community Involvement in DET farm schools. This research, it is hoped, may prove to be of some real value to our profession.

This research project is carried out with the full support of the Director-General of DET. In this connection any querries you might have regarding the research may be directed to Pretoria (DET- Research Section - (012) 312 5176 Att: Mrs Joubert) OR to the writer of this letter (031) 706 3661.

The success of this research evolves around you as a school principal. In this envelope there are three questionnaires.

- i) Kindly complete one questionnaire for principals (Questionnaire A 2)
- ii) Arrange to get <u>Two</u> parents to complete the other two questionnaires. (Questionnaire A 1)
- iii) Send the completed questionnaires in the self-addressed envelope. You need not pay for postage as this has been paid for.

Kindly return the questionnaires before 19/11/1993.

I wish to conclude by placing on record my sincere thanks and appreciation to you, in anticipation, for your kind assistance.

Yours Sincerely

M.A.N. DUMA (Researcher)

APPENDIX E

P.O. Box 10797 Umzinto Station 4201

12 May 1993

The Area Manager Att: Mr L. Bhengu P.M.Burg Area P/Bag X 9026 P.M.Burg 3200

Sir

Request for conducting an educational research study in the Bulwer Circuit .

I am doing M. ED. with Unisa in Educational Management and Comparative Education. My dissertation is based on the community involvement in DET farm schools in the P.M.Burg Area with particular reference to the Bulwer Circuit. I have decided to embark on this study because farm schools play an important part in the system which provides education for Black people.

Part of my studies involves a research on this topic in the Bulwer Circuit. I have prepared questionnares for this research project (find a copy attached) and I request that I be allowed to conduct this research. The rationale of this research is to determine the current state of community involvement in farm schools.

I have phoned the Circuit Inspector of Bulwer who advised me to contact you as the Area Manager.

I hope my academic attempt will in a small quantity contribute towards the betterment of Black education in our country.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours	Faithfully

M.A.N. DUMA

APPENDIX F

P.O. Box 10797 Umzinto Station 4201

07 June 1993

For Attention: Dr N.E. Roux Director - General Department of Education and Training Private Bag X202 Pretoria 0001

Sir/Madam

Request for conducting an educational research: Bulwer Circuit (Natal region).

I am doing M. ED. with Unisa in Educational Management and Comparative Education. My dissertation is based on the community involvement in DET farm schools in the Pietermaritzburg Area with particular reference to the Bulwer Circuit.

I am seeking your approval to conduct the educational research in that Bulwer Circuit. I have spoken to the circuit inspector (Mr Petzer) who referred me to the Area Manager (Mr B.L. Bhengu) whose letter is attached here. As soon as I get a nod from you, I shall contact the relevent school principals for their subsequent consent.

The aim of this educational research is to identify the current state of community involvement in farm schools and how its expansion can bring about effective teaching and effecient learning. The logical hypothesis of this research study is that the use of acceptable procedures and formation of desired objectives in community involvement will bring about effective teaching and learning, thus improving the quality of education as a whole in farm schools.

Since I am serving as a teacher in this department at Isizinda Secondary School in Durban. I shall take it upon myself to supply the department with a copy of a dissertation as soon as I complete my studies. As I hope that this study will make a contribution to the improvement of community involvement in our farm schools

I hope that my request will meet your favourable consideration.

Thanking you in co-operation.

Yours Faithfully

Martin Anthony Nkosinathi Duma (Pers. no. 1147483)

URCENT REMINDER!!! COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN DET FARM SCHOOLS QUESTIONNAIRES

The above mentioned questionnaires were sent to your school for completion in November 1993. The completion of these questionnaires is very important for improving education in Black schools. Kindly complete and send the questionnaires to:

The Researcher P.O. Box 49353 Qualbert 4078

MB: If you have already responded, please disregard this reminder and thank you for your co-operation.

M.A.N. DUMA

APPENDIX H

TO PRINCIPALS OF FARM SCHOOLS

PIETERMARITZBURG-SOUTH Education and Training Private Bag \$921 PIETERMARITZBURG 3200

16 April 1987

THE USE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AT FARM SCHOOLS FOR FARM LABOUR

- ī. The Regional Office anticipates some possibilities of certain farmers using farm school children for farm work during official school hours.
- 2. You are therefore instructed to report to this office immediately of any practice of this nature.
- Your co-operation in this matter is appreciated. 3.

ACTING ASSISTANT DIRECTOR

P.B. MASEMOLA

OO/ET 230 (m)

DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN OPLEIDING

REF. NO.

6/16/2

ENQUIRIES B.L. BENGU

TEL. NO.

0331 458265

FAX. NO.

0331 420275





DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

AREA MANAGER: PIETERMARITZBURG PRIVATE BAG X5021 PIETERMARITZBURG 3200

19 MAY 1993

A.A.N. DUMA P.O. BOX 10797 UMZINTO STATION 4201

REQUEST FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH : BULWER CIRCUIT

- Your letter dated 12 May 1993 refers. 1.
- 2. Policy stipulates that approval to conduct a research at Department Of Education And Training Schools should be obtained from Head Office. Direct your application to:

Director General Department Education and Training Private Bag X212 PRETORIA 0001

For Attention Dr. N.E. Roux.

AREA MANAGERY PIETERMARITZBURG BLB/db

APPENDIX J

OO/ET 230

DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN OPLEIDING

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Magister Building/-gebou 123 Schoeman Street/-straat 123 PRETORIA 7 "MFUNDO"

Verw. Ref.

6/16/2

(012) 312 5176

1993 -07- 1 4

Privaatsak X212 Private Bag 0001 PRETORIA

© C E Joubert (Mrs Fax Navrae/Enquines:

Mr M A N Duma

P 0 Box 10797

UMZINTO STATION

4201

Dear Mr Duma

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH PROJECT

Thank you for your fax dated 7 June 1993.

Please complete the attached application and commitment forms and submit it, together with the applicable documentation, to the Department for the attention of Mrs C E Joubert, Room 235 magister Building.

Please note point 19 of the application form.

Kind regards

DERECTOR-GENERTAL

APPENDIX K

COMMITMENT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH PROJECT IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

I, MR	DUMA MA	RTIN ANTHONY	MKOSINATHI
(Title, surname	e and names in full)		
	O BOX LMQIYTO STAT 4201	1017	
Tel no:(H)	(W)	7063661 (0	

undertake the following:

- 1. That no media statement shall be made or publication issued in connection with my research project or any information obtained during my research <u>before</u> consulting with the Department of Education and Training in this regard.
- 2. Not to divulge any information I obtain from the files/records/documents of the Department of Education and Training to any person not employed by the Department; or to release such information in any other way unless written permission to do so has been granted by the Department; and that if required to do so, I shall be prepared to take the oath of secrecy in writing.
- 3. To clear information with the Department in writing <u>before</u> publishing or disclosing in any way departmental statistics and other information about the Department not on public record. In such an event the Department shall be granted sufficient time to verify the details.
- 4. To effect no changes with respect to my questionnaire/method of work <u>after</u> having my research application approved by the Department of Education and Training. Any changes I might make shall be submitted to the Department for approval.
- 5. Not to place the State, the Department or anybody under the jurisdiction of the Department in a false light or to embarrass the State/Department/persons in any way.

- 6. That a draft copy of my paper/report/dissertation/thesis shall be submitted to the Department of Education and Training for scrutiny and comment <u>before</u> submitting it to my promotor and that the Department shall be granted a minimum of <u>thirty (30)</u> days in order to study the draft copy.
- 7. That, after having obtained permission to continue with my research project from the Department of Education and Training (and regional offices, where applicable), I shall negotiate with the relevant regional, area and/or circuit offices regarding final arrangements for visits to the offices/institutions concerned.
- 8. Not to use this Department's written letter of consent as a means of making unreasonable demands on an office/institution.
- 9. To involve persons in my research project on an <u>absolutely voluntary basis</u> these persons being all those concerned (including pupils) and all others associated with the Department of Education and Training as well as with all offices/institutions under the control of the Department. Parental/community approval shall be obtained should such a measure be prescribed by the Department.
- 10. To submit to the principal and teachers (rectors and lecturers) of the educational institution where the research is being undertaken, as I need their willingness and co-operation.
- 11. Not to visit institutions (schools/colleges) during official hours for the purpose of completing questionnaires, conducting interviews or conducting any form of research, unless official approval has been granted.
- 12. Not to remove files/records/documents from the offices and institutions of the Department of Education and Training, should information contained in these files/records/documents be needed; to obtain such information under the supervision of a departmental official assigned by the Department; and to select only information applicable to my research project.

- 13. To abide by any additional conditions the Department of Education and Training may impose regarding the implementation of my research project.
- 14. To ensure that this research project involves no financial implications for the Department of Education and Training.
- 15. To present the Department of Education and Training with a copy of my final paper/report/dissertation/thesis free of charge.

SIGNATURE :-	Man Dun	•		
DATE : [8	July 1993	••••		
PLACE : UN	4211170		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	• • • • •
WITNESSES:	(1) BbHlahoyo			
	(2) Millians		DATE: (8) 51 13	·