

**MANAGING PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT WITH EDUCATION IN
*ZIMBABWE***

by

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to the late Chaboneka, my mother and all the surviving Chabonekas.

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ABSTRACT

Parental involvement (PI) in school governance is an international acclaimed worldwide practice and is viewed as a major topic in current educational reforms. This study investigated the management of PI programmes in public schools within the jurisdiction of Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in Zimbabwe. The Total Quality Management (TQM) framework was employed as attempts were made to bring all stakeholders on board in the pursuit of quality education. To achieve this thrust, literature on the historical developments which obtained in the United States of America, China and South Africa on the phenomenon was reviewed. Further to that, the models of PI which influenced the adoption of what has obtained in Zimbabwean public schools were cited too. In the process the legal statutes which mandated PI programmes in operation were explored in detail. Data for this study was obtained by means of a quantitative approach involving questionnaires with precoded responses from a sample of 51 education managers and 47 school governors. The major findings of the empirical investigation was that PI is juridical and the bulk of the parents want to be engaged in both formal and informal academic issues of the school business as long as such engagement is well planned and organised. This collaboration of the minds and efforts does not only enhance the management style of the education manager but also the realisation of academic excellence in schools as both parties collectively embark on a quality conscious crusade. Generally, parents in this province were found to be less meddlesome when it comes to the professional governance of the school system, thus making the bulk of schools in this region “conflict free zones”. Disturbing though was the failure by parents to be engaged in the conception of the school vision and mission statement. Finally, the engagement of parents in the management of PI programmes has been recommended in this thesis as it has been found to be genuine, transparent, human resource oriented, dialogical and accountable if citizen participation in school governance is to be envisaged within a democratic framework. Orientation workshops and seminars can be manned for this purpose if home-brewed PI models meant to enhance ownership, commitment and motivation are to be realised. In that way, a customised educational menu may be approximated.

KEY TERMS

Bulawayo metropolitan province, education manager, government and non-governmental schools, management, model, parent, parental involvement, primary school, school governors, total quality management.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DPDE	Deputy Provincial Director for Education
EWD	Education With Production
EU	European Union
ICT	Information and Communication Technonlogy Centre
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
PDE	Provincial Director for Education
PI	Parental Involvement
PTA	Parent Teachers' Asociation
PTO	Parent Teachers, Organisations
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SDC/A	School Development Committee/Association
SGB	School Governing Bodies
SI	Statutory Instrument
SIDA	Swedish-International Development Agency
SAS	Statistical Anlysis System
TQM	Total Quality Managment
ZANU PF	Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front
ZAPU	Zimbabwe African People's Union

CHAPTER ONE

POSTULATION OF THE PROBLEM, THE AIM OF THIS STUDY AND THE METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this research is on the management of Parental Involvement (PI) programmes in Zimbabwe's education system in general, and Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in particular as an aspect of decentralisation takes its toll within the TQM framework. PI, although present since prehistoric times, has been, is, and will continue to be a contentious issue in education (Kruger, 2002:43). Earlier attempts of involvement were observed during the Egyptians, Sumerians, Hebrews, Greeks and Roman days. In that era, the family did not provide the first education for the children through only modelling, teaching and praise or discipline, instead parents were actively involved in the selection of teachers and the education of their children as well (Berger, 2007:124). Similarly, Burke and Picus (2001:15) reveal that a "parent by virtue of parenthood is the natural and primary educator of his/her child and for that reason bears that responsibility for the child's instruction and education." These sentiments are equally shared by Koross, Ngwane and Sang (2009: 67) who assert that parents have a natural right, as the first gate-keepers, to make decisions that affect their children. This is what makes the parents be fully co-responsible for whatever happens to their child's informal education.

In that regard, when schools acknowledge that parents are the first and continuing educators of their children and recognise that they have much to gain through drawing on parents' unique knowledge of their own child and through enlisting parental support, it leads to education managers and parents working together so as to give children the best possible education (Street, 1997:80). Towards that direction, teachers and education managers as both secondary educators and *in loco parentis* need to bear with these views as they interact with parents; hence this study as the need for a new management philosophy which is human resource oriented and democratic in nature is sought (cf Van Wyk, 2000:52).

Contrary to the above observation, Fitzgerald (2004:6) propounds that PI is “empowerment which brings about its complications as it brings in non-professional personalities to the school set up.” All that is needed perhaps is the meticulous adoption of models of PI with adaptations to ensure that education managers do not view such interventions as meddlesome, a threat to their professional autonomy and integrity and an intrusion in their professional domain and sovereign institution (Heystek, 2003:328). Documented evidence in the negative reveals that PI evokes “unsolicited interventions” which can be detrimental to the education manager although he or she may desire it (Lareau, 2000:161). Celebrated cases of parents either as individuals or the juridical boards becoming too powerful for the education manager to the extent of them trying to influence the staffing at school and the re-assigning of non-performing teachers are chronicled (cf Lareau, 2000:32; Van Wyk, 2000:51). In some extreme cases, parents go to the extent of dictating concepts and the type of curricula to be taught to their children even if they are not academically, socially, physically and emotionally ready to do so (Lareau, 2000:161). On the other hand, other parents place pressure on their children through this intervention so as to satisfy their own egos and expectations regardless of what the child is capable of doing. Such controversies which emanate from the management of PI programmes are the concerns of Chapter Two (cf par 2.7).

Despite the above contradictions, contemporary research on PI by Patrikakou, Weissberg, Redding and Walberg (2005:15) has proved that:

Children benefit when school and families work closely and such benefits include higher grades and test scores, as well as better attendance improved behaviour at home and at school, better interpersonal skills and more responsible decision making.

This view is akin to Berger’s (2007:262) finding that parental attitudes and the home environment the child experiences influence his or her academic success. Patrikakou et al (2005:15) further elaborate that in order for children to succeed in a school there needs to be a synergy of many factors and a collaboration of all people and systems involved in a child’s

education. This symbiotic relationship between the parents and the school is based on the premise (Glanz, 2006:36) that:

Schools cannot do it alone and cannot be all things to students. The community school approach makes it possible for teachers, administrators, parents and community partners to work together and support each other as a strong coalition.

Such an alliance of all stakeholders in the provision of education is corroborated by Epstein's (2001:2) argument which claims that "school, family and community are important 'spheres of influence' on children's development and that a child's development is enhanced when these three environments work collaboratively towards shared goals." Hillary Rodham Clinton's speech on community leadership (cited in Glanz, 2006:10) caps it all when she says: "Just as it takes a village to raise a child, it takes children to raise up a village to become all it should be." This African proverb is in line with the African concept of *ubuntu* which means humanness, caring, sharing and being in harmony with all creation (Heystek, 2003:332).

Given the above scenario, what is needed is a proactive education manager who realises the importance PI plays in students' learning so as to engage parents in continued educational opportunities as they become educators at home (Glanz, 2006:17). This kind of engagement is meant to empower parents with the knowledge and opportunities so that they can become involved in school activities (Heystek, 2003:332). Apart from that, parents' participation at whatever level, promotes the process of decentralisation in school management (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009: 67).

To realise these goals, it is possible to adopt ideas from the Total Quality Management (TQM) movement which border on improving the quality of production systems in order to produce a quality product with 'zero defects' and the never-ending cycle of improvement in the system of production (Crawford & Shutler, 1999:67). Such a phenomenon can be achieved by focusing on the customer, setting benchmarks and defining fitness for purpose as a way of establishing effective management practices (Davies & Ellison, 1997:12; Lomax, 1996: 68). This view is

buttressed by the gurus of TQM who see the “capable of restoring international competitiveness in schools quality movement” as the magic potion which is as excellence is sought (Parsons, 1994:19). In that light, the education manager must think “totally”, that is, how all elements of the school may function to meet its vision and mission (Parsons, 1994:19)? It is in that vein that this thesis endeavours to investigate the management of PI in Zimbabwe’s public schools as a new education dispensation operational within a TQM framework in a legally binding context.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The Zimbabwean revolutionary government was born out of a protracted and bitter conflict which was Marxist-Leninist in orientation as it sought to establish an egalitarian and democratic society and thus redress the injustices of the colonial past (Nziramasa, 1999:1; Zvobgo, 1996:30; 2004:163). As soon as it attained independence in 1980, the Zimbabwe African People’s Union (Patriotic Front) (ZANU PF) government, as spelt out in its Election Manifesto of 1980, introduced a wide range of sweeping reforms in the socio-economic, political, and educational spheres (Nziramasa, 1999:1; Zvobgo, 1996:30). This created challenges to education managers who have to work in a rapidly changing world characterised with the globalisation of economic systems, technological advancement and the increased expectations that society has of education in which past certainties have been replaced with new and uncertain frameworks (Davies & Ellison, 1997:1). In that direction, the education system was placed in the category of basic human rights and its functionaries had to ensure that every child had an educational opportunity to develop his/her mental, physical and emotional faculties regardless of race, tribe, colour, religion, creed, place of origin, political opinion and the social status of parents (The Education Act, 1987:207 & The Constitution; *Revised*, 1996:87).

The placing of education within the framework of universal fundamental rights triggered a massive social demand for education by all “knowledge thirsty” Zimbabweans as literacy was sought. To accomplish this mammoth task, government realised that it could not continue to be the sole player in the provision of education in public schools as it was constrained by financial, physical, material and human resources due to participation rates which ballooned (Zvobgo, 1996:30; 2004:168). For example, in 1980, primary schools numbered 2 401 and by 1985 the

schools had risen to 4 234 giving an enrolment of 2 229 396 students from that of 819 128 (Zvobgo, 2004:161). This rude awakening to a government which was at its infancy and still intending to patronise its electorate, made it seek ways of bringing other players on board so as to realise its dream of affording every citizen a decent education (The ZANU (PF) Manifesto, 1980). However, it must be observed that the democratisation policy through the process of decentralisation ushered in expansive and extensive provision of education (Nziramasanga, 1999:1). Hence, the need for strategic planning within a TQM framework is evident aimed at responding to and anticipating the future events and trends that were to follow later in the outside world (Fidler, 1995:50).

Prior to independence, the 1979 Education Act which repealed The African Education Act, had advocated for piece-meal changes in the provision of education for blacks through its recognition of the Parent Teachers' Association (PTA). Based on their financial power, parents were empowered to take over government schools in their locality and turn them into "community schools" (Zvobgo, 1996:30; The Education Act, 1979). Fees charged at such schools were prohibitive and out of the reach for the ordinary citizens who were disadvantaged by the colonial regime through its segregation policies (Zvobgo, 1996:30; 2004:172). The proliferation of "community schools" brought about yet another evil practice in education that of class discrimination as access to such schools was by zoning. The latter privileged the affluent communities to the detriment of the impoverished ones. Thus this statute was contrary to the aspirations and desires of a ZANU (PF) socialist government. It was viewed by the down trodden masses of Zimbabwe as yet another instrument of oppression meant to perpetrate and safeguard the interests of the white settlers at the same time promoting elitism in education, hence, the enactment of the 1987 Education Act (as amended in 1991).

The promulgation of the 1987 Education Act, the brain child of ZANU (PF) policies, was not only meant to repeal the 1979 Education Act, but to regulate the involvement of parents in both government and non-governmental schools. This was on the premise that parents who play little or no role in their children's homework and study programmes contributed to the poor performance of their children in the classroom (Singh, Mbokodi & Msila, 2004: 301). Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 [S.I.87 of 1992] (generally known as the Education [School Development

Committees] [Non-Government Schools] Regulations 1992) and Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993 [S.I. 70 of 1993] (also called the Education [School Development Associations] [Government Schools] Regulations, 1993, based on Section 62 as read with Section 29A of the Education Act, 1987 as amended in (1991) were put in place and brought a new dimension to the management and education arena. The former was meant for the governance of District Council and non-governmental schools and the latter for government ones. Of late, due to the amendments pronounced in the Education Act of 2006, the parent boards are referred to as SDCs regardless of their geographic location although independent schools continue to be managed by PTAs or Trust Boards or a Board of Governors (Zvobgo, 2004:149). Through both statutes, parents were being called upon to “bridge the gap” between what government could provide and what the communities wanted in their schools (Zvobgo, 1996:30). These statutes are reviewed in detail in Chapter Three.

PI in this respect became mandatory and juridical in all Zimbabwean schools as pronounced by the statutes regardless of the geographical location of the institution. The major responsibility of these parent boards was to raise funds for infrastructural development in schools through levies, donations and any other fund-raising activities (The Education Act, 1987:29A). In addition, the statute mandates parents to hire and fire additional academic and non-academic staffs for the purposes of advancing the objectives of the school and their services were paid for from their coffers (S.I. 87 of 1992:614). This latter provision as contained in the new dispensation was met with a great outcry from members of the teaching fraternity and their professional bodies who thought their professional autonomy and integrity was being compromised. Their fears are further confirmed by Van Wyk’s (2000:52) research which revealed that education managers as “enlightened professional people know about children” and should not be placed in a position where they can be outvoted by parents whom they consider to be illiterate. Despite this controversy, the recruitment of teachers by parent bodies was not criticised in white dominated schools as parent bodies had been empowered to do so before, when all government schools located in their locality became community centres. The positive attitudes of the white dominated populace who were the ruling class towards this piece of legislation could have been influenced by developments which had occurred in developed countries in general, and the United States (US) in particular where Charter Schools had been introduced (cf par 2.2.14).

These are some of the intricacies which education managers need to navigate as they bring about mandated change in their institutions; more so when teachers view the presence of parent representatives in the school as “witch hunting sprees” meant to “gun for some teachers” they dislike as reported by teachers in Van Wyk’s (2000:2) study on the subject.

Against this background, the researcher argues that educational reforms brought about by this new dispensation in most government schools were piece-meal and haphazard. At the time of the inauguration of this policy, education managers and parents did not have the appropriate technology, skills and knowledge to handle a reform of this magnitude (Burke & Picus, 2001:11; Heystek, 2003:328); hence there is the need for communication and training in an institution’s turnaround strategy as it deals with humans and responds to its rapidly changing nature (Parsons, 1994:19; Heystek, 2003:328). Government wanted to expand the education system to meet the growing need for education by the down trodden populace. In this context, the limitations of resources gave it no option but to bring the parents into the limelight. The current involvement of parents is clear in infrastructural development, sporting, fund raising activities and homework. However, the role of parents in management has not been investigated within a TQM framework in the Zimbabwean context, let alone in formal curricula as suggested by worldwide scholars against a backdrop of varying literacy rates in different communities (Heystek, 2003:328). In that light, Berger’s (2007:27) perception of PI motivated the researcher to pursue this study as he states:

To work with a child and not with the parent is like working with only the pieces of a puzzle. It would be like a person who put a puzzle together with a thousand pieces and then as he finished found the centre missing.

Against this background, the researcher decided to investigate the management of PI in the provision of education in Zimbabwean government primary schools in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province according to the new policy. The paradigm shift in education is in line with the celebrated management tool of this century dubbed the TQM movement as propounded by Crosby (1979), Deming (1984), Juran (1988) and Ishikawa (1983) as attempts are made to include various stakeholders in the provision of quality education and education is viewed as a

panacea for development in the Third World countries (Sallis, 1996:3, Kanji, 1996:1). In the same vein, education policy designers view community participation as a remedy for whatever is going wrong or missing in the educational delivery system (Singh, Mbokodi & Msila, 2004:301). Koross, Ngwane and Sang (2009: 63) posit that decentralisation, in particular school autonomy, can improve the delivery of schooling, although with some risk of increased inequality of outcomes. In other words, the socio-economic conditions of the participating community determine the end result in the service delivery of education.

1.2.1 Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM as a philosophy of continuous improvement, although with an industrial bias, according to Deming, one of the gurus of “total quality”, can equally be applied to the education sector (Crawford & Shutler, 1999:67). It is a departure from the vestiges of the earlier forms of management practices which were influenced by Frederick W. Taylor’s Principles of Scientific Management which provided a framework for the effective use of resources in a specific way by scientifically trained personnel (Baguley, 2003:16). This was meant to ensure that the end product had “zero defects” through inspection; the catchwords were compliance, control and command (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000:32). The kind of inspection advocated by this school of thought had to come in so as to establish whether the processes in place and products conformed to the expected standard (Baguley, 2003:16). The foundations for this system were fear, intimidations and an adversarial approach to problem solving (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000:32). However, although Taylor was obsessed with the maximisation of a perfect product characterised by the rigours of inspection by an army of inspectors, the costs involved in the reworking or discarding of a flawed product seemed to be of little consequence. It is in that direction that Deming discourages a system which involves the evaluation of a human being by another. Instead he advocates for self-evaluation based on achievable targets set as part of a continuous improvement process (Mehrotra, 2009:1).

Inspired by the above revolutionary thinking of the 1980’s, many education institutions reformed their educational practices by the adoption of the principles of TQM (Algozzine, Audette, Marr & Algozzine, 2005:176). The reforms were based on the “Four Pillars” of the TQM principles.

The first principle had to do with synergistic relationships which suggest that performance and production are enhanced by pooling the talents and experiences of individuals, hence, the adoption of PI programmes. The second principle emphasised continuous improvement by all stakeholders either personally or collectively through a process of self-evaluation. Training and staff development cannot be ruled out in this respect. The third had to do with an on-going process of evaluation with the intention of removing the flawed processes without apportioning blame to the individual. This built-in mechanism is what enhances the philosophy of TQM. Finally, leadership had to work together with their subordinates so that the latter would achieve their best through continuous improvement (Algozzine et al 2005:176). Such an organisational culture and climate would allow individuals to excel at the same time making institutions effective and efficient.

An aggregate of the above principles requires that all stakeholders have a shared vision which is community driven as attempts are made to achieve competitive performance (Heystek, 2003:332; cf Kanji, 1996:114; cf Oakland, 1999:5). The education manager who adopts a TQM approach in the provision of holistic education should endeavour to equip the child for a rapidly changing world (Patrikakou et al 2005:188) and realise excellence in schools (cf Parsons, 1994:19). The assumption here is that partnerships lead to the pooling of knowledge, skills and resources that produce an outcome which is more than the sum of the individual partners (Street, 1997:11; cf Oakland, 1999:298). In that way, the use of resources can be rationalised and result in outcomes which schools could not have achieved alone (Street, 1997:11). Furthermore, PI is believed to spark off new ideas on innovative ways of doing things (Street, 1997:11). In that light, education managers are being called upon to manage PI programmes in such a way that the much needed resources will be tapped from the communities in which they operate. This thesis adopts the assumptions that teamwork and collaborative effort are necessary in creating a community-oriented school where all members are guided by a common vision and purpose (Heystek, 2003:332) within a TQM framework. Above all, increased parental and community participation in education as advocated in this thesis is an aspect of decentralisation of education management (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009: 63).

1.3 SUMMARY

The chapter has demonstrated that literature regards the parent as the primary and natural educator of the child in the formative years for his or her cognitive development and academic success (Burke & Picus, 2001:15, Fitzgerald, 2004:11; Lareau, 2000:16). Children achieve more when schools and parents work together. In turn, parents need to understand what the school is trying to achieve and how they can help (Burke & Picus, 2001:15). The PI models to be reviewed in Chapter Two will portray how parenting, communication, training and mentoring are effective strategies in supporting children's learning regardless of their previous academic experiences (Burke & Picus, 2001:15; Oakland, 1999:283). Communication as a TQM ethos in this regard will enable education managers to communicate their visions, purposes and strategies to their stakeholders (Lomax, 1996:68; Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993:61; Parsons, 1994:19). On the other hand, training is a way of investing in people and viewing them as assets so as to continuously meet customer satisfaction (Lomax, 1996:68; Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993:61; Parsons, 1994:19). The symbiotic relationship that exists between the school and the contributions of the home environment as schools move towards a collaborative effort is highlighted.

The chapter has further shown how the Zimbabwean political environment gave birth to the massive consumption of education by the populace. Thus, government resources were stretched. Informed by these impediments, government went further to enact statutory instruments on PI within a framework of TQM. The latter, as the strategic tool of management, sought to include everybody in the process of decentralisation and legislation set the parameters of involvement (cf par 1.2; Chapter 3). This has brought about a paradigm shift in the management of Zimbabwean government schools in this decade. The literature that influences community participation in the running of local schools as evidenced in the US, China and South Africa, the concept of PI, its models which spell out the areas of community involvement and partnership relationships between parents and education managers and their attitudes towards this phenomenon are explored in Chapter Two.

1.4 THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.4.1 Introduction

According to Fitzgerald (2004:4), “one of the essentials for educational advancement is a closer partnership between the school and parents.” These school-family partnerships do not foster child development and academic, social and emotional learning only (Patrikakou et al 2005:188), but also tap that much needed potential that lies latent in the parents (Glanz, 2006:2). Oakland (1999:298) agrees when he asserts that people are the source of ideas, innovation and their expertise, experience, knowledge and cooperation have to be harnessed to get those ideas implemented. Thus, it is imperative for education managers to be aware that school-family partnerships are a long-term phenomenon which can be achieved incrementally (Fidler, 1995:36; cf Parsons, 1994:28) through careful and thoughtful planning (Kruger, 2002:44) if benefits that accrue to the school are to be tapped (cf par 2.5.3). Oakland (1999:296) corroborates that continuous improvement (on which TQM borders) must be done in a planned, systematic and conscientious way to create a climate, a way of life that permeates the whole organisation. Similarly, the gurus of quality postulate that there are no short cuts to quality, no quick fixes and the improvement requires full commitment and support from the top and extensive training and participation by all stakeholders (Oakland, 1999:281).

What is needed in such a scenario is a generation of proactive education managers as alluded to earlier, who will adopt the TQM philosophy so as not only to be maintainers or sustainers of a status quo, but be sensitive to that social relationship that exists between the child and family and family and school as they adopt comprehensive reforms in the educational arena (Glanz, 2006:74). Such reforms, if they are to be quality conscious, need education managers to invert the hierarchical pyramid which usually characterises traditional organisations if they want to be closer to the point of service delivery and the customers (Davies & Ellison, 1997:38; Lomax, 1996:70; Sallis, 1996:31). This enables top management easily to identify areas of improvement in the TQM circle (Lomax, 1996:70). For such a feat to be achieved, School Governing Boards and education managers should be oriented towards PI regardless of their different backgrounds and perceptions (Heystek, 2003:328; Patrikakou et al 2005:188). In that manner, both parties may jointly create developmental and educational plans for their children and avert a situation

where schools are turned into battlefields by parents who pursue non-essential agendas (Baloyi, 2003:16). Bolman and Deal (1990) (cited in Chikoko, 2008:247) refer to such organisations as political arenas that are “alive and screaming,” and which house a complex variety of individuals and interest groups. This volatile type of situation calls for a school climate which is conducive welcoming and accommodative to parental needs if a shared vision is to be realised through such involvement programmes (Kanji, 1996:28; Lomax, 1996:19; Sallis, 1996:123). The education manager can achieve such a school environment if s/he democratises it rather than have a hierarchical or an anarchical one as observed by Ediger (2006:850). Therefore, the purpose of this research was to investigate the management of PI programmes in all government primary schools in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province within a TQM framework as an aspect of decentralisation of power and community empowerment.

1.4.2 Statement of the Problem

From the above debate, one can conclude that a TQM system should start from top management to the grassroots and education managers should identify who their customers are before a need analysis is conducted (Oakland, 1999:298). In that way they will be able to meet the needs and wants of both their internal and external customers (Lomax, 1996:68; Parsons, 1994:5). In order to ascertain whether education managers are tapping the skills, knowledge and expertise parents possess for the purposes of improving the educative process as delineated above, the thesis investigated the perceptions of SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers towards the management of PI in selected primary government Schools. This kind of engagement calls for the employment of the TQM model with the view of tapping the potentials individuals are endowed with, preventing errors, increasing productivity and lowering costs (Oakland, 1999:283). Shortcomings and impediments revealed by the empirical investigation are addressed in Chapter Six for the purposes of improving future implementation of PI programmes.

Thus, the following question demarcates the problem:

- What are the perceptions of SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers towards the management of PI programmes in the provision of education in Zimbabwean government primary schools in the Bulawayo Metropolitan Province?

In order to answer the research question, the following sub-questions were generated:

- What are the historical developments which gave birth to the concept of PI in the provision of education?
- How does the conceptual understanding of PI programmes dovetail with the concept of TQM philosophy?
- How do attitudes of parents and education managers towards PI affect the management process of PI programmes in government primary schools?
- How does the engagement of parents and education managers in the management of PI programmes operate within the legal framework?
- How do findings on the management of PI programmes and their practices enhance the educative process?

1.5 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The research aims emanating from this problem are as follows:

The first aim of this research is to undertake a thorough investigation of the historical development of PI programmes in the US, Asia (China) and Africa (Republic of South Africa) in order to understand current attempts in the Zimbabwean context. To ascertain whether both parents and education managers have a conceptual understanding of the concept, PI as a decentralisation process meant to empower parents was explored. This examination was aimed at further exploring the benefits that accrue to the learners, the school and parents. Models which have informed PI programmes were studied within this context as they offer appropriate benchmarks for contrasting and comparing that which obtains in Zimbabwean primary government schools. Benchmarking is a TQM framework against which the implementation process was measured (cf Davies & Ellison, 1997:12; Lomax, 1996:68). Since any change

process destabilizes the prevailing status quo, the attitudes of both parents and education managers in countries which have viable PI programmes were identified and the way in which they affect the management process was demonstrated.

The second aim of this research is the exploration of the legal framework under which the new dispensation operates with the view of highlighting the extent to which parents and education managers should be involved in matters of school governance as part of decentralisation. In this context, the need for a quality audit as a way of self-evaluation is discussed and indicators of organisational change and innovational management are indicated with a view to establishing a system of continuous improvement as various stakeholders are included in pursuit of excellence.

In the light of a large body of South African and international literature which indicates the significance of stakeholder participation in education management, the study endeavoured to establish that participative management in schools reflects the widely shared belief that flattened management and decentralisation structures have the potential to achieve outcomes unattainable by the traditional top-down bureaucratic structures of schools (Hargreaves, 1994:48) by means of a quantitative research design. In this regard, data was gathered which was meant to extend the body of knowledge on perceptions of SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers towards the management of PI as manifested in Bulawayo public schools. This was done to formulate theory based on empirical research and to make recommendations with the view to improving schooling through more effective home-school relations.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

A quantitative research design was deemed suitable in the search for truth on the topic (Best & Kahn, 2008:3; Muijs, 2004:5). While both quantitative and qualitative methods could have been used in this research as suggested by Wisker (2001:139), political unrest prevailing in Zimbabwe and the resources needed for self-sponsored research of this magnitude militated against the use of the interview method. Thus, quantitative data was collected using the survey method involving a pencil-and-paper questionnaire (Greenfield, 2002:172: cf Chapter 4). Against this

background, the researcher was convinced that the research problem could be dealt with adequately by the use of a quantitative research design (Muijs, 2004:11).

1.6.1 Ethical Values

Before this research was conducted, the fundamental rights to privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent and freedom to participate in this research were adhered to, with the intention of avoiding the infringement of the liberties of the individual (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:715; Grix, 2004:136). Since the objects of the inquiry in this quantitative research design were people, care was taken not to harm their dignity and reputation. Consent was sought after carefully and truthfully informing the respondents about the research; personal data sought was secured and destroyed thereafter, when it was no longer needed, as primary safeguard against unwarranted exposure (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:715; Grix, 2004: 136-145). Finally, ethical considerations demand that participants in the research have access to the thesis when completed and that the data collected should be as truthful and accurate as possible (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:745).

1.6.2 Hypotheses

The hypotheses derived from the research problem are that:

- The meddlesomeness of parents affects the professional functions of education managers.
- The expertise and juridical knowledge parents and education managers possess in school governance influences the decentralisation of education management to the grass roots.
- PI enhances the effectiveness and efficiency of the educative process.
- Positive attitudes towards PI programmes determine the successful implementation of such an innovation.

1.6.3 Validity and Reliability

The pencil-and-paper questionnaire items were subjected to the test-retest, intensive interview and post-test methods so as to ascertain their validity and reliability (cf par 4.4.5). The responses which resulted from the above referred to testing technique were correlated statistically so as to establish their validity and reliability (Muijs, 2004:51). Attitudinal scales of the Likert-type constituted the bulk of questionnaire items as it was meant to cater for a wide range of opinions on the subject (Best & Kahn, 2008:315). Responses were further tested for consistencies in both cases through pilot testing. Thereafter, editing followed with the intention of removing biases, ambiguities and modifying the questionnaire items with the hope of capturing the data required as accurately as possible (cf par 4.4.5: Muijs, 2004:51). Besides pilot testing, feedback from colleagues who constituted part of the population under investigation, experts in the field of inquiry and the promoter of this research were accommodated in the final adjustments and modifications which were made to the final questionnaire items (Best & Kahn, 2008:310). Finally, attempts were made to use non-respondents from the population to avoid inconsistencies that emanate from measuring the same subjects for the second time on the same variables (cf par 4.4.5: Schulze, 2002:52).

1.6.4 Method

Informed by literature on the subject as well as the mandate of SDCs and SDAs in Zimbabwe, the aim of the study required that the information required should be obtained from a diversity of education managers and parents who are stakeholders in education through a survey method involving self-completion questionnaires (cf par 1.4; 4.4). Since parental contribution is an ongoing process in the past up to the time of this research, the two groups were perceived to be the key informants in the area of school governance. Question items were organised in seven sections (cf par 4.4.1.1; 4.4.1.2). In the questionnaires for education managers and SDA/C Chairpersons, the nominal, ordinal and Likert scale with precoded responses was made use of as the researcher was dealing with discrete variables (Schulze, 2002:42-43).

A literature study was furthermore undertaken with regard to practice in three countries in order to establish the historical development of PI programmes and to ascertain the attitudes of both education managers and parents on the subject. The countries referred to have either well

developed or resourced PI programmes, or have experienced similar conditions which prevailed in Zimbabwe pre and/or post independence.

The US experience offers a rich and well resourced description of PI programmes. China offers two contradictory approaches which are equally influenced by historical Confucian philosophy which involves a filial piety system. In South Africa, although its democracy is still at its infancy, PI programmes in place present interesting comparisons to the Zimbabwean experience as both countries share a similar history. The opinions solicited by the questionnaires (the main data collecting instrument) from education managers and parent representatives of Zimbabwean government primary schools were benchmarked against the aforesaid experiences.

➤ **Sample**

The main sample consisted of education managers and Chairpersons of SDCs/As in government primary schools located in the Bulawayo Metropolitan Province (cf par 4.4.6). These were selected using a combination of the convenience and purposeful sampling techniques (Muijs, 2004:40).

➤ **Data collection**

The primary data of this research was collected using a pencil-and-paper questionnaire (cf par 4.4.6). Questionnaires were distributed in person. Two envelopes addressed to the Deputy Provincial Director for Education (DPDE) used for the delivery of completed questionnaires to the designated collection point (cf par 4.4.6). The DPDE for Matabeleland North was appointed as an assistant researcher at a nominal fee (cf par 4.4.6). He assisted in the collection of questionnaires from the District Offices where education managers were requested to deliver them. He also assisted in doing follow up. In that way, a 92% and 85% return rate was realised from education managers and SDC/SDA Chairpersons respectively.

➤ **Data processing**

The survey data solicited through pencil-and-paper questionnaires was checked for completeness before being dispatched to the University of South Africa (UNISA) for processing by a statistician of the Research Support Unit of the Information and Communication Technology Centre (ICT). The Statistical Analysis System (SAS, Version 9.1) computer package was used (cf par 4.4.7).

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

An outline of the chapter division is set out in this section. Up to this point an exposition has been given of the problem to be addressed in the study, the aims of the study and the method of research.

Chapter Two attempted to clarify the concept of PI within its historical context as manifested by literature and authorities reviewed. Various traditional models and approaches of PI involving case studies which have been practised in the US, China and South Africa were equally reviewed as well. These were the benchmarks against which the Zimbabwean experience was measured. The attitudes of education managers and parents towards PI programmes were reviewed in the process. These were considered crucial here as they can either break or promote any innovation of whatever magnitude. Finally, attempts were made to put this new dispensation within the context of a TQM movement as education managers seek to involve various stakeholders in the provision of education in Zimbabwean primary schools through a process of decentralisation.

Chapter Three focused on the legal framework which regulates the concept of PI in education. In that light, the ZANU (PF) Manifesto, Education Acts which gave birth to S.I 87 of 1992, generally known as: The Education (School Development Committees) (Non-Governmental Schools) Regulations 1992 and S.I. 70 of 1993 which is also called: The Education (School Development Associations) (Government Schools) Regulations, 1993, based on Section 62 as read with Section 29A of the Education Act, 1987 as amended in 1991 which regulates the formation of parental bodies in both non-governmental and government schools respectively were reviewed in detail. These were compared to identify common ground and gaps between legislation and practice to establish the effective management of PI programmes.

Chapter Four focused on the specific hypotheses of the study, the quantitative research design, the method and the sampling technique employed in soliciting data for this study. Similarly, data processing procedures, instrumentation of questionnaire items and how these were subjected to measures of validity and reliability through pilot studies were discussed as well. Finally, attempts were made to either confirm or reject the hypotheses, the literature reviewed and practice.

Chapter Five contains the results of the empirical research. Focus was on the extent at which PI programmes are managed in Zimbabwean Primary Government Schools with specific reference to Bulawayo Metropolitan Province as a new dispensation is adopted in the provision of education. An attempt was made to demonstrate how this paradigm shift is affected by the attitudes of education managers and parents and a lack of knowledge on how to go about this partnership approach in the provision of education. Similarly, further attempts were made to confirm or reject hypotheses through the findings of the empirical research.

Chapter Six discussed the findings, conclusions and recommendations derived from the empirical research. The findings of the literature study and the empirical research were compared to identify discrepancies in an attempt to map the way forward. The ultimate goal was to include parents through effective management practices in all areas of involvement. The findings and recommendations of this study are expounded in Chapter Six.

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Bulawayo Metropolitan Province

Zimbabwe is geographically divided into eight provinces. For political reasons, the two larger cities, Harare and Bulawayo, have been turned into provinces. Harare is the capital city; Bulawayo lies 439 km south-west of Harare with an estimated population of 707 000 according to the 2005 National Census. The city is a multicultural one with residents able to speak at least three languages (including English, Ndebele, Zulu, Xhosa, Kalanga, Sotho and SeSwati). It is the business capital of Zimbabwe and home to the National Railways of Zimbabwe because of its

location near Botswana and South Africa. It is a chief city of Matabeleland Province although for administrative purposes, Lupane has been named as the capital city of the province. Bulawayo was founded by the Ndebele king, UMzilikazi kaMatshobana around 1840 and the White settlers in 1893. It acquired municipality status in 1897 and became a city in 1943. About 128 primary schools are located under different responsible authorities (www.places.co.za/html/bulawayo.html). The government primary schools sampled are found in this city cum province. They are of two types: those formerly known as Group “A” Schools which were predominantly White schools and those referred to as Group “B” Schools meant for Africans (The Education Act, 1979). Admission to such schools was strictly by zoning and geographical location during the colonial period. Decentralisation brings some risk of increased inequality of outcomes (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009: 63) as parents are of different socio-economic and educational backgrounds.

Education Manager

The term refers to the executive who is officially appointed by the Public Service Commission among professionally trained teachers according to the Ministry’s promotion procedures. The incumbent has delegated authority and is usually accountable to the governing body of the institution. Such a person is responsible for planning, directing, controlling and coordinating the activities of teachers and other stakeholders in an institution. In some cases, such an office bearer is referred to as the principal, school head or administrator Johannsen and Page (in Ngwenya, 2006:10).

Government and non-governmental schools

The term “government school” refers to schools which are controlled and administered directly by the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture. The administrative structures prevalent in such schools are subordinated and accountable to those of the parent Ministry. In some cases, because enrolment to such schools is neither by segregation nor discrimination, they are referred to as “public schools.” On the other hand, non-governmental schools are all those which are registered as such according to the statutes of the Ministry whether or not they receive aid from the parent

Ministry. All Trust Schools which are run by PTAs belong to this category of classification (The Education Act, 1987:206).

Management

As used in this study, the term will mean effective use and coordination of resources such as human resources to achieve defined objectives with maximum efficiency (Johannsen & Page, 1995:186). In this case, the term will refer to the effective use and coordination of parents in the involvement process for the purpose of enhancing the educative process with the ultimate aim of benefiting the learner.

Model

The term will refer to a “simplified representation of some aspect of the real world” Dye (in Ngwenya, 2006:11). In this case, the term will refer to a conceptual framework of reference used to conceive the various parental involvement practices according to various perspectives by different specialists.

Parent

The term parents will be used to include all those who are children’s caregivers in the home. Some caregivers, such as grandparents, aunts, or older siblings, may be biologically related to children. Others, however, may not be biologically related; rather they may be legally appointed guardians or persons who are entrusted by one or both of the biological parents with the raising of children (Gaetano, 2007:149). Similarly, the term may be defined broadly to include the adult with a responsibility for the financial and emotional care and support of the school-going-age child (Patrikakou et al, 2005:132).

Parental involvement (PI)

The term goes by several synonyms: “parental engagement,” “partnership,” and “collaboration.” The Unisa Metropolitan Life Project (1994:2) for the training of teachers in parent involvement defines parental involvement as follows:

The active and supportive participation of parents as partners and allies of the teacher in the primary aspects of formal and informal education of their own child and/or broad education of their community in an individual and/or collective way and in a structured/orderly manner in order to achieve the objectives of education as fully as possible.

This definition has been found to be the most ideal because it calls for the active participation of parents as partners in all educative activities, curricular or non-curricular. This collective effort requires careful planning from the education manager as it does not happen by chance nor is it haphazard. Even when parents are referred to as allies of teachers, it means that this kind of partnership implies a special relationship between equals, that is, education managers as equals to parents, where power and control is evenly distributed (Lareau,2000:35).

Primary school

A primary school is an organisation which provides formal instruction for children of school-going-age (six plus years to twelve/thirteen years) and is not a correspondence college. In addition, it must be recognised as such by the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture. In this study, the primary school referred has the government as its responsible authority (The Education Act, 1987:207).

School Governors

School governors are democratically elected by parents of children at the school. Such appointees must be parents of children currently attending the school (Deem, Brehony & Heath,

1995). They are in office for a period of one year according to the statutes (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2). In Zimbabwe, the elected members choose a Chairperson. The incumbent is then referred to as the School Development Committee (SDC) or School Development Association (SDA) Chairperson. In this thesis, such a person is referred to as the SDC/A Chairperson or school governor.

Total Quality Management

The term will refer to the comprehensive, systematic, custom-centred approach to the management of any organisation with the broad objectives of meeting the changing needs of the customer and continuously improving every activity in the organisation. It calls for the total commitment from all stakeholders such as education managers, teachers and parents in the provision of quality education for the purpose of satisfying the present and future needs and expectations of learners and parents (both internal and external customers) in a continuously changing environment (Johannsen & Page, 1995:311; Kanji, 1996:208).

1.9 CONCLUSION

The first section of this study looked at the background of the research problem and its setting. Furthermore, the circumstances which motivated this investigation were discussed. Ethical considerations which gave this study a scientific perspective were mentioned together with the hypotheses that were derived from the research problem and its components. Thereafter, ways in which the questionnaires were tested for validity and reliability and methods used to capture data and processing were delineated. Further, the operational terms used in this research were defined. The review of related literature on the problem is the concern of Chapter Two.

CHAPTER TWO

HISTORICAL OUTLOOK AND MODELS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature on PI to shed light on the pre-colonial educational policies which were inherited by the Zimbabwean government at independence to give this study a historical perspective. The past educational policies were skewed towards the white settler as they sought to produce a second-class black citizen whom they would exploit on the job market (cf par 2.1.1). At independence, the Zimbabwean government aware of these anomalies which existed in the education field, declared education a universal and fundamental human right (cf par 2.1.2). This is what made government proceed in its attempt to offer a world-class education to its citizens against a background of diminishing funds (cf Forojalla, 1993:114). The assumption here was that an educated populace would be economically empowered in the long run; hence, they would contribute in one way or another towards the development of a young nation such as Zimbabwe. However, the economic realities and the global competition of the 21st century forced the government to adopt collaborative strategies through a process of decentralisation within a TQM framework as attempts were being made to include parents in the provision of education amid meagre resources (cf Lareau, 2000:5 Nziramasanga, 1999:10). This view is corroborated By Sui-Chu's (2003:58) perception which views PI as a panacea for economic crisis, social problems, post industrial issues and failing health of educational reforms.

In that light, the study further augments the quality debate of the time as excellence is sought in schools by highlighting the perceived benefits (cf par 2.5.3) which led to the adoption of this paradigm shift as management sought to harness the parents' potential (cf par 2.7.2) in both curricular and non-curricular activities (cf Gu, 2008:8) as the new dispensation was put in place. The assumption was that parents are the first and enduring teachers who play a crucial role in the education of their children as alluded to earlier (cf par 1.1). Solid research evidence has revealed that children achieve more when schools and parents work together and parents understand what the school is trying to achieve and how they can help (Glanz, 2006:40). Success in the education of the children depends, at least in some part, on the involvement of parents and significant

others (Burke & Picus, 2001:3). If the children see that their parents are enthusiastic about education, they are most likely to view their schooling in a positive light and are more receptive to learning (Hampton & Mumford, 1998:414). According to that view, the study calls for a transformational education manager who as a “social architect” armed with TQM tools of analysis that will enable him/her to restructure the institution so as to accommodate this innovation as quality and excellence are sought (cf par 2.1.4;2.1.5). Since satisfying the needs of the customer is one of the essences of TQM, the home-school relationship is inevitable (cf par 2.1.6). In that sense, schools should work in a true alliance (cf Glanz, 2006:75) with parents if the education of the children is not to be compromised.

Thereafter, education reform in the US, China and South Africa are historically traced (cf par 2.2; 2.3; 2.4). Since PI, as viewed in this perspective, has ushered in radical reforms in the area of education, the concept (cf par 2.5) had to be clarified within this context so as to avoid misunderstandings which arise from malpractices (cf Baloyi, 2003:3). The 1990’s witnessed a wholesome adoption of PI programmes in both rural and urban Zimbabwean Schools by education managers. Earlier forms of involvement were only in non-curricular issues such as fund-raising and infrastructural development (cf par 1.2: cf Heystek, 2003:328), although current literature suggests otherwise. Models of PI (cf par 2.6) adopted elsewhere, which demonstrate the vital role a parent plays in the child’s education in such areas as volunteering (cf par 2.6.1.3), homework (cf par 2.6.1.4), coaching and advice outside school hours (cf Patrikakou et al, 2005:140) and in determining the environment where children spend most of their working hours (cf Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:21, Kgaffe, 2001:19), have been reviewed.

The models reviewed offer benchmarks (cf par 1.5) to what obtains elsewhere as compared to that which prevails in Zimbabwean Schools. The political discourse of the time was to adopt PI programmes which were community biased (cf Frielinghaus, 2005:3) and people-centred as management was being called upon to be accountable to their local communities through a process of decentralisation. Advocates of decentralisation believe that it increases parent participation, strengthens the leadership role of school directors, increases teamwork among the teaching faculty (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009:65) and increases effectiveness, flexibility and responsiveness (Sui-Chu, 2003:58). At that time, parents were becoming literate and they wanted

to know how to help their children at home and at the same time wanted schools to keep them informed about their children's instructional programmes and progress (Pang & Watkins, 2000:142). The buzz-word of the time was "empowerment" (cf Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114) as genuine partnerships were being sought between the school and the home. Vong (2008:156) asserts that real empowerment involves a partnership relationship between educators and parents, not a dictatorial one in which the professional, by virtue of knowledge, is assumed to be superior. According to that view, educators beginning to realise that quality education meant including other stakeholders if government efforts were to be augmented and realised, adopted Vong' (2008:156) line of thought as expressed earlier.

The assumption was that if other players such as parents were involved in the education of their children, the resource base would widen and talents lying fallow in the parents would be tapped (cf par 2.7.2). Education managers, although acknowledging this development as resources were becoming scarce in practice, welcomed PI programmes with some degree of scepticism. They viewed decentralisation as a way whereby government relegated one of its major functions to impoverished communities which would no doubt compromise equity (cf par 2.4.1) which they sought to redress at independence. Others, perhaps influenced by Murphy and Beck's findings (cited in Sui-Chu, 2003:58) which claimed that decentralisation policies such as school based management failed to improve school effectiveness and student learning, believed that localisation of educational provision would reverse all the post-independence gains which had been achieved by the government. Similarly, illiterate parents complained that they were being thrown in the deep end without any training (cf Lareau, 2000: 9; Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:104). On the contrary, the overzealous ones adopted this initiative to settle scores with education authorities (cf Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:104). They carried out "witch-hunts" with punitiveness with the hope of weeding out unwanted members of staff from their local schools as reported by teachers in Van Wyk's (2000:52) study, hence the need therefore for schools to adopt PI programmes for the purpose of managing conflict and compensating legitimacy of this dispensation (Sui-Chu, 2003:58). Against this backdrop, the attitudes of both parents (cf par 2.7.2) and education managers (cf par 2.7.3) are reviewed as a way of auditing the existing organisational culture and climate of any given institution. These are considered to be the most

powerful influence upon parental motivation and participation (Street, 1997:84). They can either break or promote an innovation.

However, government succumbing to the harsh realities of the economy had no choice, save to legalise PI programmes through statutory instruments 87 of 1992 and 70 of 1993 (cf par 3.8; 3.10.1; 3.10.2). This was meant to address contradictions which arose between the parents and education managers as models of PI programmes for implementation in schools within the TQM framework were adopted in the late 1990's. Contemporary education managers with a TQM orientation believed that this philosophy was akin to PI and would not only minimise the confrontations which characterised the infant stages of implementation, but would also assist in shedding the Taylorism school of thought which is viewed as authoritarian, hierarchical and top-down (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000:32; Van Wyk, 2000:52). Similarly, although education managers did not accept parents as having authority to “make decisions” in school governance issues such as school management, budgeting and staffing, however, they found it acceptable to “inform” or “consult” with them in instructional related activities (Sui-Chu, 2003:58). This latter view is the genesis of the PI phenomenon advocated in this study.

2.1.1 Colonial Heritage

Documented evidence indicates that there is a need and a demand for increased PI in education. Frequently at attainment of independence from their colonisers, the bulk of former colonies (Zimbabwe included) embarked on an expensive crusade of trying to educate the impoverished masses whom they believed had their humanity demeaned by their colonial masters who had denied them sound education (Nziramasanga, 1999:2; Zvobgo, 1996:16; 2004:161). The populace was denied sound education through the “bottle neck” system which allowed few black learners to graduate for economic reasons (Chikoko, 2008:245). On the other hand, privileged Africans were provided with inferior education deliberately designed to produce poorly educated graduates who could be cheap labourers for the white employer so as to be able to produce raw materials for the development of their industries locally and abroad (Pansiri, 2008:445). Zvobgo (2004:8) confirms this type of orientation when he asserts that the limited educational opportunities that existed for Africans were meant to ensure that they automatically became a

“natural” reservoir for cheap labour, as well as strengthening the colonial concept of black inferiority. According to that view, earlier settlers in Africa subscribed to the above notion by perpetually providing the African child with inferior education which would make him/her a second-class citizen on the job market (Nziramasanga, 1999:2; Zvobgo, 1996:16). Thus, from a Marxist perspective, the type of education offered to the African child was meant to produce a half-baked citizen who would be subservient to the demands of the colonial master who permanently wanted cheap labour (Pansiri, 2008:445). This constitutes the colonial legacy of racial imbalances and the realities which represented a “wake up” call, forcing a huge paradigm shift from centralised to decentralised governance in the entire society in general, and in education in particular (Chikoko, 2008:245). Moreover, a highly centralised, top-down system of governance made it difficult, if not impossible, for stakeholders at various levels of the education system to participate in issues of governance, thereby alienating them from the entire process, thus pointing to the need for change in the organisational culture (Chikoko, 2008:245). The paradigm shift in this scenario was intended to create a community of collaboration between government, schools, parents, communities and other stakeholders (Chikoko, 2008:245). This is the colonial legacy the Zimbabwean education managers needed to correct by including parents in the management arena through a process of decentralisation in their attempt to provide education for all.

2.1.2 Universalisation of the Zimbabwean Primary Education System

Enlightened African governments at independence, declared education a universal and fundamental human right for everyone as they tried to rid their societies of racially skewed education policies (Chikoko, 2008:245; Pansiri, 2008:446; Zvobgo, 2004:8). This declaration has since remained a blueprint that pressurised new governments to universalise the provision of education and make it their social responsibility (Forojalla, 1993:7; Pansiri, 2008:446; Zvobgo, 2004:162). The placement of education in this category triggered the social demand for education and overstretched new governments’ meagre resources as they sought to educate all their citizens by providing them with state-of-the-art, world-class instruction amid diminishing funds (Forojalla, 1993:114).

When these governments (Zimbabwe included) realised the importance education played in the development of their economies and the pragmatic experiences on the ground, it made them think of ways of involving communities in the provision of education so as to arrest the human, financial and infrastructural resources needed at that time (Nziramasanga, 1999:10; Pansiri, 2008:446). The Zimbabwean situation was worsened by the introduction of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme in 1990 which created harsh economic conditions which prompted the government to abandon the socialist policy in the area of social services in 2000 (Zvobgo, 2004:162). At the same time, education began to experience impeded growth amid the serious financial hardships the government was experiencing (Zvobgo, 2004:162), hence the need for education managers to develop new strategies for financing and managing education. What needs to be observed from the onset is that while government was busy putting measures in place to include parents through a process of decentralisation, management and parents were not really ready for this kind of innovation (Fitzgerald, 2004:3; Patrikakou et al 2005:58), hence the need to investigate their state of preparedness and readiness in this area (cf par 1.2; 1.5).

On the other hand, Zvobgo (2004:167) notes that private and independent schools in the Zimbabwean education system were far ahead in terms of PI as most received donations and sponsorship through white-owned companies and non-governmental organisations. However, state controlled institutions needed this kind of reform and innovation as they were expected to meet mass demands for education and to address the challenges of the 21st century as Zimbabwe became part of the global community (Davies & Ellison, 1997:16; Pansiri, 2008:446). In that regard, the home is considered the primary socialiser of the child and the parent as its first and most important caregiver, nurturer and educator (Burke & Picus, 2001:15; Fitzgerald, 2004:47, Glanz, 2006:2). This notion made PI programmes in Zimbabwe inevitable. Springate and Slegelin (1999:5) agree that parents should be involved because they possess valuable knowledge about their children, are emotionally vested in their children's entire lives, and want desperately to succeed in their parenting role. These ideas are akin to the Chinese experience discussed in the issuing sections of this thesis (cf par 2.3.3). This thinking counters the view in which the school is perceived as a 'know it all' and parents are kept at arm's length (cf par 2.3.2) and has been replaced by a move to a more equal home/school relationship (Davies & Ellison,

1997:14). Such thinking calls for an education manager with a TQM orientation to spearhead such changes in the delivery of education.

2.1.3 Justification for PI Programmes

Research findings by Patrikakou et al (2005:62) support the above view when they suggest that failure in schools is not due to socio-economic status, but a lack of the caring and encouragement given by the significant others. This therefore calls for a partnership approach with not only parents but all those who have a stake in the education of the child. Kruger (2002:44) concurs that the involvement process does not happen by accident, but needs careful planning and implementation by willing professionals with a purposeful and positive mindset. This notion is further advocated by research worldwide that confirms that parents respond positively to schools that set out to collaborate with them (Berger, 2007:155). One key idea which should emerge from such a discourse is that PI is a process not an event (Hampton & Mumford, 1998:417) and calls for strategic planning (Fidler, 1995:50). However, some parents really need education in that direction because often parents are ignorant of their role and do not understand that the way they rear their children greatly influences development and learning (Fitzgerald, 2004:3). On the other hand, others like to be involved as much as possible but their social class prohibits them to do so (Lareau, 2000:3).

Given such a scenario, education managers need to know that families, schools and communities have a common goal: to nurture and guide children to adulthood (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:19). In this context, from a TQM point of view as decentralisation unfolds, management needs to capitalise on the positives and confront the negative challenges through thoughtful planning as an important means of getting things right first time (Everard & Morris, 1996:183; Kanji, 1996:208; Sallis, 1996:117) if a true alliance between education managers and parents is to be cultivated. This may be achieved by employing one of the tools of TQM: the force-field analysis of change, which implies that by decreasing the resisting forces and increasing the driving ones, change may be accomplished (Everard & Morris, 1996:174; Fidler, 1995:33).

2.1.4 Transformational Leadership

Education managers of this decade need to adopt a transformational approach as opposed to the transactional approach previously predominant (Giles, 2006:259) if they are to avoid viewing school-community relations with fear as they try to defend their sovereignty (Kruger, 2002:45; Lareau, 2000:30) and maintain the status quo. Transformational leadership demands that customer requirements be established and then an organisational structure and culture be built so as to empower both parents and teachers to meet them (Sallis, 1996:16). Such an approach as alluded to earlier calls for a genuine partnership between leaders and followers as they pursue the higher-level goals common to both in their attempt to be the best and shape the school in a new direction (Glanz, 2006:75; Giles, 2006:259) and globalise it (David & Ellison, 1997:16). In such a situation, educational managers as transformational leaders act as facilitative “social architects” who collaboratively build the community of the school by involving others in codetermining a shared vision and goals as part of re-culturing and capacity-building process that is developmental of both the individual and the organisation (Giles:2006:260). In addition, as school-community leaders, the moral commitment of education managers should be to ensure the highest educational opportunities for all students by rallying educational and social support, even political, to raise the consciousness of the school and the community at large so as to be able to engage in comprehensive reform of this magnitude (Glanz, 2006:74).

At the heart of such reforms is the blending of the aspirations of the customer and the empowerment of the staff by management as excellence is sought, not just fitness for the purpose as observed by Juran, one of the quality gurus (Oakland, 1999: 288). According to that view, education managers need to adopt the TQM philosophy of “never-ending improvement” in meeting both external and internal customer needs by motivating both the staff and parents in the quality initiative journey (Everard & Morris, 1996:182; Oakland, 1999: 296). This approach will enable the institution to compete with other institutions which have adopted the TQM philosophy as a change strategy. At the centre of transformation, the education manager must have the persuasive power to effect change, be knowledgeable, pragmatic and innovative (Kanji, 1995:54). They must also learn the psychology of the individual and that of society if they are to be informed agents of change (Kanji, 1995:54).

2.1.5 Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM as a theory of management is a quality conscious management philosophy based on the work of the best-known quality gurus, namely: Phillip B. Crosby, J.M. Juran and W. Edwards Deming (cf par 1.2; Everard & Morris, 1996:182). Although these thinkers do not always agree, their principles have been found to be applicable in schools as they are in commercial organisations (Everard & Morris, 1996:182). At the centre of a TQM organisational activity is meeting or exceeding the expectations of the customer (Davies & Ellison, 1997:213; Kanji, 1995:3; 1996:235; Sallis, 1996:26), a notion that is akin to the educational theory which calls for child-centred approaches in the delivery of education (Sallis, 1996:131). Education managers perceive TQM as a philosophy and methodology that assists institutions to manage change, and to set their agendas for dealing with the plethora of new internal and external pressures (Sallis, 1996:3). It also enables schools to better transform themselves so as to match with the accelerated growth of economies and technological advancements being experienced (Davies & Ellison, 1997:1). Thus, education managers adopt TQM as a business strategy not by accident where school management is decentralised (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009:67). This is done to bring everybody concerned with the child's education on board as quality is sought and customers demand value for the money spent on the consumption of the educational service (Kanji, 1996:235; cf Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009:67).

Quality in this regard refers to what the beneficiaries of the educative process want and for it to be up-to-date, it requires constant monitoring of the process and continuous improvement not inspection as has been the norm in the past (Davies & Ellison, 1997:12; Everard & Morris, 1996:182; Kanji, 1996:206; Oakland, 1999:296; Sallis, 1996:27). Hoy, Bayne-Jordini and Wood (2000:32) concur that a culture of 'naming' and 'shaming' is not helpful in promoting the pursuit of excellence. Instead, they suggest that professional development is enhanced more effectively through the recognition of effort which is an important factor in developing quality. This view is further supported by Schmoker and Wilson (1993:11) who equally condemn inspection as they view it to be a mere waste of time and resources by management. Instead, they advocate for a system that encourages employees to monitor and inspect their own work both as individuals or teams. In that way, excellence with reduced costs is achieved (Kanji, 1996:4; Oakland, 1999:4).

The Zimbabwean education system has embraced this quality initiative by awarding any school which has excelled in academic, extra-curricular activities and community relationships in a province with the prestigious “Secretary’s Bell”. This is also in line with the BS 5750 certificate which is awarded to an organisation that has proved to control all its processes, including auditing and correcting of these processes (Parsons, 1994:22).

The core business of TQM in this context is to satisfy the needs and wants of the customer as delineated above, who in this case is the learner and to a certain extent, the parent. The parent is as crucial as the child because at an elementary level s/he makes decisions on behalf of the child and pays for the educational service provided (Tichenor, 1997:24: cf Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009:67). Moreover, what needs to be observed here is that the primary beneficiary of any educative process is the learner and s/ he is at the heart of the TQM approach (Tichenor, 1997:24). The Total Quality principles on which the TQM model is based on are: “customer focus, involvement of people and teams, prevention based, integrated and reviewed” (Kanji, 1996: 4). What this boils down to is that, whatever PI strategies education managers adopt must be child-centred or community centred, involve all stakeholders, be conflict-free, and have zero defects. They also need reviewing periodically for modification purposes and continuous improvement so as to assume relevance at all cost.

Thus, the results of TQM will be viewed in terms of their relevance to achieve the intended goals set, how good they are in terms of internal/external targets, competition and best in class if global competitive advantage is to be achieved (Davies & Ellison, 1997:15). Similarly, education managers who adopt TQM as their management philosophy must measure their own processes without the fear of blame against their Service Charters which they set to achieve (Parsons, 1994:19). However, education managers also need to know that the adoption of this strategy of management does not bring results overnight; neither is it a panacea for all the problems that beset education. Rather, it is an important set of tools that can be employed in the management of educational institutions and they should be geared for the new difficulties and challenges it will bring about in the management arena (Sallis, 1996:3). What perhaps contemporary education managers need to do in this respect is to scan their environments by identifying the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT analysis) and adopt appropriate PI

models which will dovetail with the ideals of TQM as they move towards providing the state-of-the-art type of education which institutions usually dream of.

2.1.6 Home-School Relationship

The emerging view from the above debate is that an alliance between homes and schools comes from the recognition that not only are schools important to parents and families, but that schools also need the support of parents in order to achieve optimal success (Street, 1997:10). According to that view, parents are to provide the basic needs of their children and to instil strong values and respect in their children; schools are to teach the children (Mitra, 2006:457). However, what needs to be observed right at this point is that the home and the school are two institutions which influence the growth and development of young people but are sometimes generally at odds with each other as postulated by Baloyi's (2003:16) study. His findings revealed that, at their best, such schools and parents personnel sometimes conduct an uneasy and superficial alliance (Baloyi, 2003:16). Outwards signs of cooperation and collaboration, such as PTAs and parent councils, or similar organisations are frequently appeasements designed to prevent 'warfare' (Baloyi, 2003:16). This situation is confirmed by Lewis and Naidoo's (2004:104) findings; they assert that some parents are bent on engaging in petty 'wars' with school authorities. According to that view, PI, therefore calls for careful management of relations between the school and the home if the goals and objectives of the former are to be achieved collectively.

In that respect, the model of PI by Epstein which mooted the idea of six-types of PI (Batey, 1996:45; Burke & Picus, 2001:3-4; Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:528, Glanz, 2006:46; Kgaffe, 2001:17-19) is the cornerstone of this research. This model, according to Mitra (2006:456), categorises family-school partnerships into six types which range from least extensive to the most dramatic shift in parental roles: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making and collaboration in the community. To augment this model, attention is given to Swap who looks at the protective model, school-to-home transmission model, the curriculum enrichment model and the partnership model (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:70). Thereafter, Comer who centres on the planning and management team, the parent team and the student and staff support team will be discussed (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45-46 ; Kgaffe 2001:19-22). Finally,

Kruger's (2002:56) model will be reviewed as well. Kruger condenses models by Williams Chavkins (1989:18-29), Alastair Macbeths (1993:194-196) and Van Chalky (1980:120-122) into seven elements namely: devising a strategic plan for PI, creating an inviting school climate, parents and teacher instruction in elements of PI, communication between the school and the parental home, class parent committees, opportunities for contact and drawing up an annual programme. Before the review of these models is undertaken, a historical review of PI attempts in a developed country (the US), the Asian continent (China) and Africa (South Africa) follows which are considered crucial in this context.

2.2 THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK OF PI PROGRAMMES IN THE US

Human learning is as old as the existence of human kind. Informal education has been present since prehistoric times (Baloyi, 2003: 14; cf Heystek, 2003: 340). It did not only provide the first informal education for the child through modelling, teaching, and praise or discipline but socialised both boys and girls in their gender roles and this was done within the institution of the home under the tuition of the parents, hence the claim that parents are the first educators of the child (cf par 2.1; Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009:67). Springate and Slegelin (1999:34) further confirm this earlier involvement when they assert that families: educate their children on how to do certain things at home, transmit the ideal culture to their children in the form of values and norms and such cases of parents educating their children to be good and productive citizens were reported in Rome and Sparta. In this context, education managers need to open their arms to parents, embrace them with enthusiasm, and welcome them warmly into their classroom to serve as co-teachers and confidants (Parsons, 1994:21). This kind of approach is imperative in the sense that the value placed on children has been and continues to be affected by the context of the historical events and cultures within which they are reared (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:35).

Similarly, the early forms of education in the US centred on literacy and the first source of knowledge was the Bible; parents and their children were expected to read and study it together so as to seek their own salvation (Berger, 2007:41; cf Patrikakou et al, 2005:137). During this period, Martin Luther urged parents to educate their children in religious instructions as part of character education (Fitzgerald, 2004:19; Springate & Slegelin, 1999:35). The Americans

propelled by this notion coined the “The American Goals 2000: Educate the US Act of 1994” which emphasised that “all children in the US will start school ready to learn” (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:44). Ready to learn in this context did not imply that children should learn specific academic skills but referred to the essential care, conditions, environment, health provisions and nutrition that enable them to learn (Hampton & Mumford, 1998:412; Kruger, 2002:51). These parenting skills are considered essential as parents lay the foundation for meaningful learning to take place. This underlay Reagan’s federal educational policy of 1986 Goals 2000 (Domina, 2005:233). Its thrust was promulgated in goal 8 of the Act which read as follows: “Every school and home will engage in partnerships that will increase parental involvement in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children.” Prior to this pronouncement, there are documented attempts in the history of American education which sought to involve parents.

2.2.1 First Parent Cooperation

According to Fitzgerald (2004:6), this was founded by 12 faculty wives at the University of Chicago with guidance from the University in 1916. Berger (2007:109) further asserts that the women wanted high quality child care for their children, parent education and time to work for the Red Cross during the war. The cooperation followed the tradition of English nursery schools established in 1911 by Margaret McMillan. McMillan’s open air-school for the poor in England emphasised health, education, play and parent education, rather than mere child watching. During this era, women took the centre stage because the men had left the profession so as to join the war (Fitzgerald, 2004:6). Even nowadays, in most Third World countries (including Zimbabwe) women continue to play centre stage, not that because most of them are mere housewives, but due to the natural bond that exists between the mother and child. Management should not be surprised when female participants dominant the involvement process in their environments.

2.2.2 Parent Cooperatives

Berger (2007:11) claims that these emerged after the 1920s and grew slowly after World War 2. The emergent of Parent Cooperatives was a result of parents who wanted high quality education for their children (Berger, 2007:110). This view is corroborated by Davies and Ellison (1997:15) who postulate that there is always friction between consumers and producers of education services. Consumers expect high quality services all the time and the public sector has a problem of producing such services. This therefore called for shared responsibilities between the producers of the service and the beneficiaries (Davies & Ellison, 1997:15), marking the beginning of PI programmes through the process of decentralisation. These parental programmes of the time involved mainstreaming children with disabilities in the 1970s. However, the financial crash of the 1930s which ushered in the Great Depression brought in a new thinking. Middle-class parents were active in parent groups, optimistic about the future and concerned about health, nutrition and shaping their children's actions (Patrikakou et al, 2005:109). During this period of rampant poverty, parent education was disseminated through study groups, mass media, radio series, lectures, magazines and distribution copies on Infant Care. Later the Pennsylvania Department of Public Institutions (1935) Bulletin 85, Parent Education (in Berger, 2007:112) issued the following statement:

The job of the school is only half done when it has educated the children of the nation. Since it has demonstrated beyond doubt that the home environment and role played by understanding parents are paramount in the determination of what the child is to become, it follows that helping the parent to feel more adequate for the task is fully important as society is the education of children themselves. Moreover, an educated parenthood facilitates the task of schools and ensures the success of educational programmes with the child.

This declaration and its emphasis on parental education is what sowed the early seeds of serious PI programmes that followed later. The training of parents in PI programmes was an appropriate TQM strategy of investing in people and a quality indicator (Kanji, 1996:208). At this juncture, schools were beginning to realise that they could neither do it alone, nor could they be all things

to all students (Glanz, 2006:36). In that direction, education managers began to acknowledge that all those who had the school at heart needed to work and support each other as a strong coalition (Glanz, 2006:36), hence, the adoption of the TQM tool in their management practices so as to tap the expertise, talents, skills and knowledge parents were endowed with (Oakland, 1999:298).

2.2.3 The Role of Mothers Emphasised

According to Fitzgerald (2004:20), the early 1940s saw mothers being given the responsibility of feeding the children when they were hungry, and bowel and bladder training them as early as possible. This kind of training was supposed to be done in a gentle manner after they had developed physical control. During 1950-1960 there was a baby-boom. PTAs which had been introduced as early as 1897 in the US grew in numbers (Berger, 2007:35). The philosophy for schools according to Berger (2007:113) was: “Send your child to school and we will do the teaching: your responsibility as a parent is to be supportive of teachers and schools.” What teachers seemed to be saying by then was that the professional side of the child was their responsibility and parents needed to take care of the physical developmental side as nurturers and care givers. This view is akin to the Protective Model to be discussed later (cf par 2.6.2.1).

2.2.4 Head Start

The Head Start programme was the first one to incorporate the idea of PI as it sought to break the effect of poverty among children by providing a conducive environment (cf par 2.2). These centres were established in 1965 as part of the war on poverty. They were meant to enrich early education programmes and the parents were to be an integral part of the programmes as aides, advisory council members, or paraprofessional members of the team (Berger, 2007:117). In addition, Head Start was a comprehensive programme of health, nutrition and education for economically disadvantaged families (Patrikakou et al 2005:5). According to Springate and Slegelin (1999:22), Head Start policies of 1967 were as follows:

- Parents should be involved as decision makers.
- Parents should be involved as paid staff, volunteers, or observers in the classroom.

- Parents should be involved in activities that they themselves have helped develop.
- Parents should work at home with their own children in cooperation with Head Start staff to support the child's Head Start experiences.

The above policies echoed Springate and Slegelin (1999:40) observation:

Parents are still the key in the learning of their children because they are likely to be a constant factor in the children's lives. When parents are effective (or when they can learn to be more effective) in supporting the child's learning, they remain with the child over his or her years of schooling.

Later, Head Start programmes responded to the above assertion by having parents work in classrooms as volunteers, participants on advisory boards and provided parent education with respect to such topics as child guidance, health care and developmentally appropriate activities (Patrikakou et al 2005:114). The management of PI programmes in both curricular and non-curricular issues, at home and in decisional issues through boards as highlighted by the Head Start policies are of concern in this thesis.

2.2.5 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965)

The Act was meant to improve the education of educationally deprived children and identify children with disabilities or educational delays; in both cases parents were involved (Domina, 2005:233). In 1996, the Clinton administration resuscitated this policy initiative by authorising poorest schools in the US to spend at least one percent of their Title 1 supplementary federal funds to develop 'compacts' between families and schools (Domina, 2005:233). This made the management of earlier home-school alliances viable and strong as they were funded by the state with the blessing of the ruling president. This also motivated Chile to adopt similar PI programmes (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009:66).

2.2.6 Follow-through Programme (1967 Employment Opportunity Act)

This Act was meant to establish similar preschool programmes in public schools with the help of parent participation as a major component (Domina, 2005:233).

2.2.7 White House Conference on Early Childhood Involvement

During this debate, interest was high on family involvement and supportive programmes were brought on board and included flexible work schedules and leave policies, although not much progress was made (Berger, 2007:119). According to Berger (2007:122), the summit was meant to raise awareness on the role of kindergarten education and develop the brain and social development of the child. Moreover, health and nutrition were included. It also revitalised the formation of the Child Care Development Fund and Early Head Start. Prior to this summit, an earlier summit attended by both women and men delegates recognised the importance of PI in a child's success in school (Patrikakou et al 2005:139). At this conference, the White Paper discussed extensively subjects such as: "The Partnership of Family Involvement" and "Strong Families, Strong Schools" (Patrikakou et al 2005:139). These topics included parenting skills in which parents require training.

2.2.8 1990-2000

This decade was the celebrated period of PI which changed the emphasis to family involvement (both father and mother). Family involvement was viewed as the most important factor in a child's education and this led to the centre on Children, Schools, Families and Children's Learning being established in 1990 (Berger, 2007:122). Furthermore, programmes involving parents were established such as Title 1, Even Start, Elementary and Secondary School Act, All Children Ready to Learn and Goal 8 and Goals 2000: Educate The US (Berger, 2007:122; Patrikakou et al 2005:134). In these, the decentralisation of power was at its peak. Parents were given more power to influence the education of their children. They were also given powers to select their own school, and choose their own curriculum for their School's Early Childhood

Education. This kind of legislation according to Davies and Ellison (1997:14) is what has empowered parents as external customers in the delivery of education.

In addition, according to Patrikakou et al (2005:4), the Department of Education in the USA through its 1990 National Education Goals Panels continuously proclaimed increased parental participation in education as a key goal. Through this department, the Reagan federal government declared that: “By the year 2000, every school would promote partnerships that would increase parental involvement in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children” (Patrikakou et al 2005:4). The panel further proposed that state and local education agencies should work together to develop partnership programmes that would meet the varying needs of bilingual, disabled, or disadvantaged children and their parents. Such programmes were meant to support the academic work of children at home, promote shared decision making at school and hold school and teachers accountable for high standards of achievement (Patrikakou et al 2005:4). However, with time this desired goal was not fully met. What this literature review implies here is that education managers should not consider parents as meddlesome when they involve themselves in the manner delineated above.

2.2.9 Family Resource Centres

Berger (2007:121) claims that the goals of Family Resource Centres were meant to strengthen and empower families. The programmes were designed according to the needs of their families or populations. Programmes on parent education for children and literacy were offered. Literacy programmes for illiterate parents and reading English programmes were established. The concept of home schooling was developed. The Family and Medical Leave Act (1993) was enacted which had to do with leave days and family concerns on childbirth. Parents were given 12 weeks’ leave which, although favoured, had serious implications salary-wise (Patrikakou et al 2005:123). However, of late unemployment benefits for the working parent who looks over the infant are being considered so as to improve the working conditions of professional mothers. In that way upbringing does not become the burden of the family only, but that of the state and school as well. In this context, it would be unfair for education managers to label uninvolved

parents as uncaring without investigating the prohibitive circumstances prevailing. Hence, the need to involve parents right from the outset in decision making through legislation.

2.2.10 No Child Left Behind Act of 2001(NCLB) (Public Law_102-110, 2002)

According to Patrikakou et al (2005:4), this was the most sweeping reform of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. It was passed as law in 2002 and was one of the six central goals of the Bush administration's 2002 No Child Left Behind Act (Domina, 2005:233). Emphasis was on reading and maths tests annually. On one hand, schools were required to develop systems of accessibility through such tests and on the other, states were required to provide annual report cards on school performances and state-wide results. Furthermore, parents were given the latitude of transferring pupils to better performing schools while the failing ones were supposed to adopt supplementary service programmes such as after-school programmes and tutoring. Summer schools could use Title funds. Moreover, Federal funding in reading instructional materials and in improving teacher quality were also approved. The involvement of parents in this manner is acknowledged by Patrikakou et al (2005:4) who claim that parents play an integral part in their children's learning and they should be given the full opportunity to act as full partners in their children's education. The advantage of this kind of approach was that all children were likely to succeed (Berger, 2007:25). This latter thinking is also akin to the Chinese home-based involvement programme (cf par 2.3.3).

However, on the contrary, Epstein (2001:25) criticises the NCLB programme for stressing standardised achievement tests with time limits that do not allow enough time to achieve the goals and for lacking adequate funding to be successful. Similarly, Patrikakou et al (2005:4) also blamed it for its failure to articulate the roles of parents in the process clearly. Such high parental expectations for the child's success if not carefully checked by education managers can be stressful to the learner and detrimental to the concept of PI (cf par 2.3.3). Of major concern to the education manager in this context is the preventive theory of zero defects by Crosby, which does not allow for errors although gurus of change argue that standards can only be achieved by a high degree of failure. Sallis (1996:48) confirms that the test of the TQM organisation is how it responds to mistakes, ensures that they do not recur and learns the lessons for its future

operation. In this regard, mistakes of the past must not be condemned but should be used to perfect the future.

When all criticisms are set aside, what needs to be acknowledged is that the genesis of serious PI in curricula issues had begun. Apart from being involved in comparing the performances of schools (benchmarking) and making informed decisions based on such statistics, the major focus of NCLB programmes was that parents must read stories to their children, talk to them periodically, encourage their children to join the library (Bloom & Marley, 2007:30), monitor their homework (Brook & Hancock, 2000:259), monitor TV viewing and video games, help them learn to use the internet wisely (Seyfried & Chung, 2002:111), encourage them to be responsible and encourage active learning (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:21). In that way, both parents and schools were being called upon to be educationally accountable for the improvement of all learners, including those with learning challenges, English language learners, the highly mobile, and the homeless (Patrikakou et al 2005:25). This made the NCLB programme the centrepiece of the school's strategy. Besides it addressing various aspects of the academic achievement, it also looked at school safety, student drug-use, character education, and a wide array of other educational issues (Patrikakou et al 2005:132). It further demanded guidance based on "scientifically based research" (Patrikakou et al 2005:132) and every child was supposed to begin with the Title 1 programme. In this scenario, the management of PI is essential if the families' needs are to be satisfied continuously and appropriately (cf par 2.1.4; 2.1.5).

2.2.10.1 Title of the No Child Left Behind Act

Patrikakou et al (2005:132) claim that the Title 1 Part A was the first section of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 as amended by the NCLB Act of 2001 (Public-law 107-110, 2007). Its overall goal was to improve the teaching of children in high-poverty schools so that they could meet challenging academic content and performance standards. Originally, parents were not involved in the Title 1 programme. However, in 1971, states and localities were required to consult with parents on the development and operation of programmes and to establish parent advisory councils. Eventually, the parent advisory functions were reduced in the 1981 Amendments.

Interestingly, after this reduction of functions, in 1988 local education agencies were again required to involve parents in programme planning and implementation. In addition, local authorities were requested to give parents information in their own language and to evaluate parent programmes which were in place. Furthermore, Patrikakou et al (2005:132) claim that districts and schools were also encouraged to develop parent advisory councils, resource centres, parent liaison staff and resources for home learning.

This was the genesis of formalised PTAs/Parent Teachers Organisations (PTO) which were legalised by the new dispensation in education. Interesting to note here is the continuous consultation of the parents in decisions to effect improvement to practice is in line with the TQM philosophy. This approach is supported by Kanji (1996:39) who postulates that “business excellence is achieved through customer focus, continuous improvement and people involvement whereas operational excellence needs to be supported by customer satisfaction, process focus, teamwork and empowerment.”

2.2.11 The improving of the United States of America’s Schools Act of 1994

This Act which preceded the 1965 Act according to Patrikakou et al (2005:133-134) and added several Title 1 provisions for PI in section 118 of the Act. A certain amount (\$500 000 US or 1%) was allocated to PI activities. Each Title 1 was supposed to develop jointly with parents a “school parent compact” meant to produce high-quality curriculum and instruction. The parent’s responsibilities to support their children’s learning at home and ongoing school-home communication necessary for achieving high standards were emphasised. This compact was supposed to be signed by parents and key staff. It also required that schools develop with parents a written PI plan that included shared responsibility for high performance and make the plan available to parents of participating children. Apart from that, schools were supposed to convene parents’ meetings annually to inform them of the school’s PI plan.

What this literature seems to imply here is that PI programmes need meticulous planning by management and nothing should be left to chance if effective teams are to be developed (Everard

& Morris, 1996:156). Similarly, senior management needs to change their management culture and must take a leadership role in the quality cascade (Sallis, 1996:125). An ideal education manager in this context is one who ensures that the staff and parents work effectively and collaborate with one another ‘synergistically’ to achieve the task of the organisation (Everard & Morris, 1996:156). It is also imperative for top management to have a clear vision of what they want to achieve so as to communicate it clearly to their subordinates so that they, in turn, make informed decisions (Kanji, 1995:4). For them to be able to do so, specific training in evaluating strategies is needed so that they are able to monitor the change (Sallis, 1996:125).

However, despite the positive gains enumerated above, some parents found no correlation between student achievement and school-based PI programmes such as volunteering or serving on school governance boards, or between student achievement and Title 1 school activities meant to involve parents (Patrikakou et al 2005:135). This is a dimension that education managers need to note as they put parental programmes in operation.

2.2.12 No Child Left Behind definition of parental involvement

According to Patrikakou et al (2005:134), the PI plan as enshrined in the NCLB Act (cf par 2.2.10) entailed the following strategies:

- It should include “regular”, two-way, and meaningful communication on student learning and school activities, ensuring that parents play an integral role in assisting their child’s learning and act as partners in their child’s education.
- It also requires training materials for parents in working with their children, and training for educators on the value of parent contributions and how to reach and work with them as equal partners. Parents may help develop this training.
- Failing schools need to give parents an explanation as to why students were failing, what the school would do to address the problem of low achievement and how parents could be involved in working on the academic issues. In that respect parents would make a choice on whether to retain their child there or transfer to the next school. Transport was paid for or the school could give supplementary educational tuition outside school hours.

- It was also a requirement that annual report cards for all schools must show overall student performances by subgroups in each school and district on state assessment of basic subjects in grades 3-8, graduation and retention rates for secondary schools and teacher qualifications.
- Districts were expected to conduct, with parent input, annual evaluations of the content and effectiveness of PI policies.
- States were to review district PI policies and practices.

All the above approaches were potentially powerful ways of communicating, sharing power and responsibilities and building mutual respect between schools and families which is the essence of partnership (Patrikakou et al 2005:134). In addition, a positive assessment would determine funding in the issuing year. The continuous use of statistical analysis in the process of implementation so as to determine the problems at hand as a new direction is sought is one of the tenets of the TQM philosophy (Oakland, 1999:283).

2.2.13 Anti-Drug Media Campaign (2004)

Together with the Improving of America Act of 1994, the Anti-Drug Media Campaign of 2004 which was launched in 1998 after the enactment of the Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act of 1987 was popularised (Patrikakou et al 2005:5). This was an equally historic initiative meant to educate and empower all youth to reject illegal drugs. The important role parents were supposed to play in the preventive works across the nation was underlined and its campaign motto was: “Parents: The Anti-Drug” was meant to prevent student’s risky behaviour. This approach was a response to the National Education Goal for the year 2001 which wanted to make all schools safe, disciplined and drug free (Patrikakou et al 2005:136). In 1994, the law added safety to the 1987 Act and individual responsible behaviour was promoted in this Act. Later on the Safe and Drug Free Schools and Communities Act were re-authorised as Title IV Part A of the NCLB. Government showed its commitment by allocating funds for the promotion of PI programmes, training and conducting education programmes advocated for in this research. These programmes were supposed to entail innovation, prevention activities and strategies for training school personnel, parents and community members. After two years, an evaluation

followed (Patrikakou et al 2005:136). This literature implies that indiscipline declines when PI is well managed a move towards “zero defects” with reduced costs; however, successful involvement programmes require funding, issues which will be dealt with in this thesis.

2.2.14 Charter-Schools (2006)

These were meant to fund and develop their own facilities, hire their own teachers, and design their own curriculum. The Charter-Schools were more popular with parents than the traditional ones (Patrikakou et al 2005:123). Interestingly, the hiring of teachers, perhaps borrowed from this thinking, is contained in the Zimbabwean SDC/A statute (cf par 3.4) and South African legislation (cf par 2.4.3).

The emerging view from this historical perspective of PI is that the alliance between homes and schools comes from the recognition that not only are schools important to parents and families, but that schools also need the support of parents in order to achieve optimal success (Berger, 2007:209). In that regard, according to Glanz (2006:22), education managers should recognise that educators are not the sole educational experts, instead, the Deweyan sense that claims that all in life educates must be embraced. Parents, therefore, should be true partners in the quest to help children learn and succeed (Glanz, 2006:22). Since literature reviewed has indicated that family involvement has been present since prehistoric times through both formal and informal education, revisiting the research of many renowned scholars and successful practice worldwide of home-school-community programmes is a step in the right direction towards introducing this kind of innovation in schools. This therefore, calls for educational managers who are well informed in the area of PI if the talents, skills, interests and expertise of parents are to be tapped for the benefit of realising school goals particularly these days when budgets are commonplace in institutions (Batey, 1996:57). This kind of engagement enables parents to be educators at home as well (Glanz, 2006:17), hence, the need for proper management of PI programmes.

2.2.15 Conclusion

Parents are the primary socialisers of children into gender roles which makes them the natural educators of their children (cf par 2.2). Informally, the cultural norms of their children are transmitted that way; formally, they are being called upon to participate in both curricula and non-curricula issues (cf par 2.2.4) as desired by this thesis. Along those lines, Head Start policies wanted parents to be visible in the classrooms as volunteers and paid staff (cf par 2.2.4). The policy also demanded that parents as stakeholders should be involved in decisions which involved the education of their children. Similarly, literature reviewed reveals that earlier forms of involvement demanded that biological parents or caregivers be involved in the parenting of their children as they sought to provide an enabling environment for instruction and reading to take place at home (cf par 2.2.3; 2.2.4; 2.2.10). Above all, they were also required to equip their children with the ideal character education. In that context, women wanted high quality care for their children and time off to do certain things as their husbands participated in the war (cf par 2.2.1). Informed by this literature, it is important to observe that since most men were breadwinners and women were housewives, it must not come as a surprise to find that earlier forms of PI were dominated by women. However, with time, legislation was put in place through the Medical Leave Act of 1993 to improve the working conditions of professional women (cf par 2.2.9) and relieve them of their busy schedules (cf par 2.2.7) so that they would adequately attend to the parenting needs of their children although this approach had serious implications on the family budget (cf par 2.2.9). Of interest to note during this era is that the home-school relationship which existed was akin to the Protective Model as postulated by Swap (cf par 2.6.2.1).

As society was becoming more literate through the education they were being given and the training in PI they underwent, their interest in PTAs/PTOs was rejuvenated (cf par 2.2.2). These partnership approaches started off as parent cooperatives as quality education was sought and developed into formal ones with time (cf par 2.2.3). The idea here was meant to customise the provision of education, avert friction with the parents and tap ideas from them on issues of educational and parenting concerns through adequate communication (cf par 2.2.2) between the home and school. Attempts at this level were meant to bring both mothers and fathers on board

through such sessions so that PI programmes shifted to family involvement (cf par 2.2.8). Of noteworthy here is the involvement of ruling presidents of the time in the PI crusade (cf par 2.2; 2.2.5; 2.2.8). They issued a decree that a certain fraction of federal funds be used to initiate PI programmes in schools as a way of emphasis (cf par 2.2.5) and this propelled the formation of PTAs/PTOs. The involvement of the top executive in the quality initiative is one of the dictates of a TQM philosophy as alluded to in the literature reviewed.

When literature revealed that academic success of the child was correlated with the active involvement of parents, the US government formalised all its involvement programmes through the NCLB Act (cf par 2.2.10), The Improving the US School Act of 1991 (cf par 2.2.11) and the Anti-Drug Media Campaign of 2004 (cf par 2.2.13). The latter was a preventive measure for risky behaviour as attempts were being made to make schools safe havens for meaningful instruction to take place. What is of interest here is that funds were allocated to develop both parents and teachers in PI programmes. Since the idea was to implement PI programmes with minimum defects and at reduced costs, these were periodically evaluated and modified to suit the prevailing conditions of that time (cf par 2.2.13). This calls for education managers who, as facilitative “social architects” (cf par 2.1.4), can design home-made PI programmes and adopt the TQM framework of thinking with adaptation if both are to be relevant to the institution.

The introduction of the NCLB and the Improving the American School Act were giant steps in the formation of viable and active PTAs/PTOs. Parents were being called upon to be actively involved not only in reading as alluded to earlier on, but in maths tests as well (cf par 2.2.10). The results of such tests were displayed for public consumption and were supposed to be accessible at all costs. The statistical analysis of such results made parents choose better performing schools of their own choice for their children as they sought value for their money. They also chose (cf par 2.2.8) and designed (cf par 2.2.14) the type of curriculum their child would pursue, little wonder that parents are considered as external customers of the educative process. Furthermore, the Act empowered them to hire their own teachers (cf par 2.2.14). In this way, parents determined the fate of their children in decisions of this kind influenced by their own perceptions and beliefs of what an ideal school was to them, hence the need to educate them (cf par 2.2.12) along those lines. At the centre of this kind of involvement was that all children

should succeed and funds were availed for reading programmes and improving the quality of teachers as excellence was sought.

To ensure that customers were satisfied, double feedback loops were put in place so as to tap the views of the parents (cf par 2.2.12). This thrust is clearly seen in the ‘school parent compact’ on homework which was conceived with the active participation of parents (cf par 2.2.11). Such participation was meant to prevent failure by both parents and teachers and to achieve collective responsibility. Where supplementary programmes were put in place to improve the results of the under performing pupils, it was done with the consent of parents and such programmes were state funded. The consultation referred to was meant to approximate what the parents and learners wanted at that time and constituted a genuine alliance between parents and schools. However, in the management of schools education managers working within a TQM framework should be aware of the literature which finds no correlation between certain forms of PI and student success in education (cf par 2.2.11).

2.3 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES IN THE CHINESE EDUCATION SYSTEM

2.3.1 Introduction

The education system in the People’s Republic of China has been influenced greatly by the population which has led to the one-child policy as introduced in 1979, although in the past there is little evidence of Chinese influence in the education of their children due to their ultimate goal embedded in the Confucian philosophy which sought harmony by placing every individual in his/her appropriate station of life (Liu & Chien, 1998:214). Nowadays their attitude has changed. Firstly, they have been influenced by the Western practices on PI and secondly by their traditional beliefs (Gu, 2008:575). The Chinese traditional culture emphasises a strong interdependent relationship between parents and children (Gu, 2008:573), the kind of mentality the Zimbabwean education system has attempted to emulate through the concept of holistic education (cf par 3.4). The Chinese believe that if they assist children with their educational opportunities and advancement, their children, as adults will be in a solid position to care for them at old age (Ming & Abbot, 1992:50). This view is influenced by their filial piety system

which means (“of a child”) in Chinese literature. It characterises the legal respect the Chinese child, particularly that of a son, should show to his parents (Vong, 2008:155). Secondly, the one-child policy has made the Chinese’s hopes and dreams be centred on the only child (Gu, 2008:573). This has made them believe that education is the beginning rung on the ladder leading to future success and better life (Gu, 2008:573). In that regard they try their best to provide their only child with the best education (Ming & Abbot, 1992:51). It is against this historical background of events that the Chinese education system has two distinct approaches to PI: non- involvement and home-based involvement. The latter view is based on the premise that education cannot be left solely to professional educators, but should provide the framework for parental participation in the educational process so that more parents can avail themselves of this opportunity (Winter, 2001:314). Below are details of the approaches.

2.3.2 Non-Involvement

According to Marrow and Malin (cited in Vong, 2008:150), the Chinese government, as viewed from the traditional lens, has absolute power over common people. The Confucian doctrine which they subscribe to places high value on teaching careers and teachers (Gu, 2008:576). Confucianism is a Chinese ethical and philosophical system developed from the teachings of the Chinese philosopher, Confucius (Gu, 2008:576). It is a complex system of moral, social, political, philosophical and quasi-religious thought that has had a tremendous influence on the culture and history of East Asia (Gu, 2008:576). To the Chinese, this philosophy is just as good as a state religion because of government promotion of it. Its major assumption is that human beings are teachable, improvable and perfect through personal and communal endeavour especially including self-cultivation creation (Li, Holloway, Bempechat & Loh, 2008: 12). In that regard, the generality of the Chinese people, partly influenced by the concept of Confucianism, have also placed high value on education as a means to contribute to the country and bring honour to the family (Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:36).

Linked to that concept of perfectionism, the Chinese education system is highly centralised and its policies and curriculum which are universally applied to all schools across the board do not give parents the freedom to intervene (Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:36: Wang, Wang, Ming,

Lang & Mayer, 1996:204). Even the standardisation of course requirements and prescribed textbooks pupils read technically excludes them (Wang et al, 1996:205). Within this framework, Chinese families believe that harmony is maintained by the social hierarchy of relationships (Diamond, Wang & Gomez, 2004:1). Vong (2008:155) asserts that their filial piety system “is a cultural value indigenous to China [which] serves as a guiding principle for socialisation and intergeneration conduct.” This hierarchical ranking of authority is a central concept across familial, educational and political institutions in China (Vong, 2008:155). It is this social hierarchy that forms the norms of behaviours for the Chinese. The power distance that exists between individuals possessing related social roles such as that of teacher and student is recognised and acknowledged by most Chinese people (Vong, 2008:155). Within this filial piety framework, seniors are entitled to have authority over young persons, for instance, fathers have authority over their sons. The traditional term, *sen-shen*, in Mandarin literally means “born early” and implies that teachers deserve respect and deference (Vong, 2008:155) in the Chinese education system as they are born earlier than their learners. This kind of relationship in the Chinese context is extended by a series of other relationships: ruler to ruled, husband to wife, elder brother to younger brother and friend to friend although the latter is of little consequence ((Vong, 2008:155).

It is within this cultural outlook that the approach of non-involvement was mooted by the Chinese scholars. What this means according to Gu (2008:575), Chinese parents are not involved with their children’s education and functions of the school and families are completely separated. Parents in this regard believe that the only place for education is the school and the only people who can educate are the teachers (Gu, 2008:575). The assumption here is that educational professionals know it all and theirs is to give passive support to the educative process (Li, Chen & Sun, 2002:9). This special role which is accorded teachers within the filial piety system has earned them a high status in Chinese society (cf Vong, 2008:155). The teachers, besides being highly respected for their knowledge and expertise in teaching, are also regarded as models in both learning and conduct for their students (Vong, 2008:155). In exchange, they are expected to shoulder the responsibility for the students’ learning and moral involvement (Vong, 2008:155). Thus, Chinese teachers are regarded as authority figures second only to a child’s parents (Vong, 2008:155). It is by that token that Chinese parents acknowledging this interdependent

relationship between teachers and learners believe that education can only take place in schools under the guidance of teachers as alluded to earlier (cf Gu, 2008:573).

Similarly, within the non-involvement phenomenon, parents also believe that for teachers to be able to teach their children, they should be strict and authoritarian. (Vong, 2008:155). In this light, the student-centred orientation preferred in the West might appear to be irrelevant in the Chinese education system. Instead, they prefer a teacher-centred approach which emphasises student compliance (Vong, 2008:155). In that light, exam grades and rote memorisation are the only measures of success (Li et al 2008:13). Under these moral principles discussed above, Chinese teachers are expected to be passionate about their profession and this can be seen in the manner in which they enforce strict discipline in classroom management, thus connoting a kind of power at the expense of another person (Vong, 2008:155), a kind of relationship their cultural set up subscribes to. It is perhaps this trust society bestows on the teachers coupled with the knowledge they have that has made Chinese societies revere their teachers so much. Thus, they believe that conflicts which breed a negative influence on their children's learning are averted (Diamond, Wang & Gomez, 2004:2). However, within the non-involvement approach, parents believe that as heads of the household, their only duty is to provide food, clothes and other living and schooling necessities to their child. This is in line with the invisible cultural line of divide which the Confucianism and filial piety system draws between parents and teachers. Parents are not expected to cross this line and education to them is the territory of the teacher (Vong, 2008:312). They think that the only way for parents to get an idea of their child's school performance is through mid-term and semester-end grade reports. This kind of thought gives the impression that parents involve themselves in parenting skills as observed by Epstein's Model (par 2.6.1.1) at home divorced from what professionals do at school, hence making it akin to Swap's Protective Model to be discussed in the issuing discourse of this thesis (cf par 2.6.2) and the attitude of Second World War Two mothers (cf par 2.2.3).

2.3.3 Home-based involvement

This approach implies that while some Chinese parents may not be involved in the education of their children as delineated above, others are either partially or really involved in the home setting (Gu, 2008:575). Influenced by their highly competitive education system and the reforms

in the 1980s which adopted the open door policy, a move was launched aimed at learning advanced technologies and administrative skills mainly from the West which created rapid economic growth seen over the past years (Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:36), Chinese parents have very exacting standards and are prepared to invest a great deal of time and effort in supporting their children (Winter, 2001:312). Winter (2001:312) further confirms this perception when he asserts that when Chinese parents get involved, they pay attention to micro-aspects of the learning situation, emphasising accuracy and perfect scores, not macro ones as the British do. While error in the British education system is considered as a normal pattern of learning, the Chinese parents will try to establish their children's weak points and push them to practice and improve, an approach the British think can be diametrically opposed to the school ethos (Winter, 2001:326). Despite evidence to support this latter view, parents in the Asian context, in particular Chinese parents, have been well-documented for their zealous involvement in their children's academic development (Ming & Abbot, 1992:53).

The involvement of the Chinese parents in the academic progress of their children as compared to the development in other fields, such as physical, emotional and social development is profoundly influenced by their cultural learning model which relates to Confucian teaching (Gu, 2008:57: cf Lu, 1999:1). Confucianism is heavily influenced by the process of *ren* which is called self-perfection (Li et al 2008:13). The disciples of *ren* are called *junzi* which literally means "lord's child" (a perfect gentleman in the English version) (Li et al 2008:13). A *junzi* in the Chinese mind is one who has recognisable achievement which can be utilised in community and government institutions through *meritorious service* (Li et al 2008:12), a concept which abolished the distinction of classes. Instead, it established the imperial examination in China and allowed anyone who passed it to become a government official, a position which was believed to bring honour to the whole family (Li et al 2008:12).

The thinking in this context is that everybody has the capacity to perfectibility as long as one has the virtues of determination, diligence, endurance of hardship, perseverance, concentration and humility (Li et al 2008:12). The driving engine of this school of thought is the filial piety system enshrined in Confucianism which espouses two basic mutually constitutive obligations: a) parents' total commitment to children's welfare, and b) children's reciprocal commitment to

their parents (Li et al 2008:13). In the former, the parental obligation is primarily gauged by how well their children learn and achieve in school (Li et al 2008:13). In this view, parents are expected to make sacrifices such as taking their children to enrichment programmes even if they cannot afford them (Li et al 2008:13). In turn, children's filial piety obligation is to honour their parent's sacrifice by accomplishing what the sacrifice intends to serve: academic achievement (Li et al 2008:13). This dual obligation principle is morally commanding and is understood by both parents and children as unquestionable and nonnegotiable, therefore, transmittable from one generation to another (Li et al 2008:12).

In Chinese people's minds, achieving such learning brings honour, respect, and everything good in life for they believe that "education is the only means to a good life" (Li et al 2008:12). It is therefore not surprising to hear the poignant expression in present-day China: "Students are not allowed to fail, but only allowed to succeed", as population growth escalates and competition for scarce resources becomes ever fiercer (Li et al 2008:12). Little wonder that when parents really get involved in the education of their children, they spend most of their time checking their homework and helping them prepare for the coming quizzes or examinations (Gu, 2008:575). In severe cases, some parents even want to know the textbook pupils use at school so that they can buy it and assist as much as possible at home as they try to augment the teacher's efforts (Winter, 2001:317). While others demand that their children should be given more exercises to do at home and their involvement should clearly be defined within the process (Winter, 2001:317). Their real concerns in this involvement phenomenon are literacy, mathematics and science which they consider of paramount importance as compared to children's physical health, emotion and socialisation (cf Gu, 2008:575; Lu, 1999:1). To facilitate PI in the education system in China, difficult concepts in mathematics were removed, rote learning methods are being discouraged in favour of problem solving ones and communities are being encouraged to come up with locally based textbooks as long as they comply with the national standards (Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:36).

In this context, PI in curricular issues seems to be influenced by the filial piety system which Chinese society sees as an investment in the future (cf Ming & Abbot, 1992:50), thus confirming the interdependent relationship alluded to earlier between parent and child (cf par 2.3.1) This

kind of thrust could have been borrowed from the Western literature on the establishment of Head Start Centres and the NCLB Act which desired that all children should pass (cf par 2.3.4; 2.2.10). Towards that direction, the best learner is one who applies himself or herself to those virtues which are associated with success which Chinese parents so much admire. Success in scholastic written examinations which focus on classic literature is not only crucial to the Chinese, but determines the child's future opportunities (Lu, 1999:1). The children who make it at school do not only bring honour to the family, but are admired by the entire kin and to a certain extent used as role models and family guides with the hope of motivating the young learners (Li et al 2008:12). On the other hand, those who fail are not tolerated at all and are referred to as *Xiaoren* ("small person") implying that one has a petty mind and heart, narrowly self-interested, greedy, superficial and materialistic (Li et al 2008:12), a label many Chinese loathe. Little wonder that those, who succumb to such views, do not only supervise homework at home (cf Gu, 2008:575; Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:88), but set theirs as well (Winter, 2001:319).

2.3.4 Conclusion

According to the non-involvement approach alluded to above, it seems on one hand the Chinese parents do not want to be involved in their children's education for a number of traditional reasons which are embedded in their culture. The Confucian doctrines which they subscribe to places high values on teaching careers and teachers (cf Gu, 2008:575) and in that light, education to them determines one's future social hierarchy in their society. Teachers therefore are the ladder to such success and are considered as professionals who know it all who should deliver the educative process with dedication (Li, Chen & Sun, 2002:9). According to that view, PI programmes to them are neither their right nor constitutional responsibility (Li, Chen & Sun, 2002:9). Education must take place at school (cf Gu, 2008:575), divorced from the home. The exclusion phenomenon is aggravated by the Chinese education system which is rigid (cf Wang et al, 1996:204).

Furthermore, the high stakes the Chinese parents place on their filial piety system compels them to maintain an inferior social ranking with teachers, a kind of relationship they would like to see

between teachers and students (cf Vong, 2008:155). In their view, teachers are authority figures who assume the role of parents at school and harmonious relationships must be maintained with them at all cost to avert conflict (Diamond, Wang & Gomez, 2004:1). They argue that conflicts impede their children's learning and children will become unruly, disrespectful and aggressive (Diamond, Wang & Gomez, 2004:1). The Chinese nurturing authority at home by nature prefers a conflict-free environment. They are protective and control their children to an extent that they do not really encourage them to be independent in line with their culture of collectivism (Ekblad, 1996:225). Little wonder that they prefer the teacher-centred method of teaching as compared to the student-centred one (Vong, 2008:155).

On the other hand, contrary to the views of the non-involvement phenomenon, when Chinese parents get involved, they are influenced by their filial piety system enshrined in Confucianism (cf Li et al 2008:13). Both parents and children are aware of such demands. Parents are expected to make sacrifices even if it means being impoverished by the additional enrichment programmes on offer they seek, for the benefit of their children's success (Vong, 2008:155). Their one-child policy (cf Liu & Chien, 1998:214), interdependent relationship between parents and children (cf Ming & Abbot, 1992:50) and the notion that success is unquestionable and nonnegotiable as learners commit themselves fully to their education enterprise (Li et al 2008:13) are what propels them to greater action. To the Chinese family, every child has the capacity to succeed regardless of the individual differences endowed in them which Western educators always preach about (Vong, 2008:155). Failure brings shame to the family and cases of children being disowned are reported in the Chinese society (Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:88). In this kind of scenario, when parents demand homework and extra lessons, it must not come as a surprise to the educators.

2.4 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.4.1 Introduction

Historically, South Africa's education system like the Zimbabwean experience (cf par 2.1.1) was designed on racial lines until 1994 when the government decided to democratise it through legislation and statutes (Mncube, 2009: 1; Van Wyk, 2000:49). Prior to this arrangement,

statutory governing bodies which were in existence by then were in White dominated schools (Van Wyk, 2000:1). During the same time, in the majority of Black schools, a cosmetic type of alliance existed made up of a few members of parent bodies who were elected; the bulk were government appointees (Van Wyk, 2000:49). The latter legal framework of constituting parent bodies has been criticised by many scholars because of its lack of accountability and grass root opinions.

The democratic elections held in 1994 heralded a new era in the South African education system. They marked the formal end of apartheid rule and a shift from authoritarianism to democratic rule in South Africa, introduced a new constitution that included an unequivocal commitment to representative and participatory democracy, accountability, transparency and public involvement (Mncube, 2009: 2; RSA, 1996c). Attempts in that direction were made to democratise the management of education through a process of decentralisation as this had become a worldwide trend (cf par 3.3: Heystek, 2006:477). The redistribution of power, administration, responsibilities and functions away from central government to lower peripheral (or community) levels was a hallmark achievement in the character of this reform (Brown & Duku, 2008:416). Similarly, this thrust was meant to eliminate the racial inequality and segregation policies which existed in the past system of education as a non-racial education system was sought based on the principles of equity (Frielinghaus, 2005:2; Van Wyk, 2000:49) to advance the “democratic transformation of society” (RSA, 1996b: Preamble). This thrust was meant to “combat racism, sexism and all other forms of unfair discrimination and intolerance” (RSA, 1996b). In that view the National Department of Education and nine Provincial Departments were constituted to oversee this transformation (Van Wyk, 2000:49). Schools were being called upon to “uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and promote the acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools in partnership with the State.” (RSA, 1996b: Preamble). Issues of school governance in South Africa emerged as a response to a new national exigency for educational reform (Brown & Duku, 2008:413).

2.4.2 The South African Schools Act (SASA), Act 84 of 1996: Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1996a)

The above referred to Act acknowledges the rights of parents (Engelbrecht, Oswald & Forlin, 2006:2; Van Wyk, 2000:50) and created a school governance landscape based on citizen participation, partnerships between the state, parents, learners, school staff and communities, as well as devolution of power towards the individual school and community (Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:103). It demands that all public schools must elect a School Governing Board (SGB) as part of the governance and management structure of the school (Frielinghaus, 2005:2; Heystek, 2006:474; Mncube, 2009: 6; Van Wyk, 2000:49). Since management and governance are viewed separately in this Act, the management of the school is the responsibility of the principal with the professional staff who constitute the School Management Team (SMT); the SGB is responsible for the governance of the school (Heystek, 2006:474; Mncube, 2009: 6; Van Wyk, 2000:49). The SMT consists of the Principal, Deputy and Heads of Department or Senior Teachers while the SGB is made up of the Principal as an ex-officio member and selected members from various stakeholders, namely the educators in the school, non-educators staff, democratically elected parents of learners at the school and learners (cf par 2.6.1.5) in grade eight or higher secondary school (Heystek, 2006:475). In any given situation, the legal members of parents or guardians of learners must be one more than the combined total of other members in the SGB (Heystek, 2006:475; Van Wyk, 2000:50; RSA, 1996a).

The Education Act is very clear on the following issues: learners (minors) do not have voting powers in matters of accountability together with co-opted members for whatever reasons, a parent employed by the school may not represent parents on the governing body and active members of the body may be reimbursed for operational costs incurred but no remuneration for executing the duties of the body (RSA, 1996a). Little wonder that Sayed and Soudien (2005:112) criticise the latter part of legislation which assumes that parents can all afford personal time to spend on school activities which are not related to any form of remuneration at all. Moreover, the statute goes further to state that it is only parents who can assume the post of Chairmanship and members are free to participate in various subcommittees constituted for the purpose of advancing the interest of learners depending on their expertise (RSA, 1996a). While this mandate

is possible in urban areas, in rural ones where parents are of different social standing, the illiterates have been found to be marginalised in participation (Maharaj, 2005:33; Mncube, 2009: 7). The legislation has been found to be biased in favour of the professional middle class and historically dominant parent groups, according to Sayed 1999 (in Brown & Duku, 2008:416). Maharaj (2005:33) corroborates this view when he asserts that the devolution of decision-making to lower levels has not necessarily extended participation of the marginalised; instead, it may extend expert elite or privileged groups. In such cases it has been observed that, school administrators do not actively involve the marginalised parents in the affairs of the school and such schools are known to experience financial mismanagement if not constantly checked by educational authorities (Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009: 63). Despite that, all SGB meetings held should be recorded and the minutes should be availed to the Head of Department periodically. Similarly, while the terms of office for parents stretch to three years that of learners does not exceed a year. The Act further stipulates that previous members of the body may be re-elected or co-opted as the case may demand after the expiry of their term of office.

2.4.3 The functions of School Governing Bodies (SGB) in South African Schools

The functions of the SGB according to the SASA (RSA, 1996a) are to:

- develop the mission statement of the school;
- ensure quality education for the learners;
- adopt a code of conduct for learners of the school after consultation with the learners, parents, and educators of the school;
- determine administration policy and language policy of the school within the framework laid down in the national Education Policy Act (1996b) and any other applicable provincial law;
- after a fair hearing, suspend learners from attending the school as a correctional measure for a period not exceeding one week;
- recommend to the Head of Department the appointment of teachers (and other) staff at the school, similar to the American (cf par 2.2.14) and Zimbabwean experience (cf par 3.4);

- allow the school be used for community, social and school fund raising purposes (cf par 3.8.2); The latter purpose is meant to augment the school coffers;
- administer and control the school property, building and grounds occupied by the school including hostels;
- encourage members of the community to tender voluntary services at the school, similar to what Epstein Model of PI (cf par 2.6.1.3) advocates for;
- supplement the resources supplied by the state in order to improve the quality of education provided to all learners of the school. To do this, parents may be asked to pay school fees. The amount must be agreed upon by the majority of parents by voting and such funds must be administered by the governing body. The Act also stipulates that mechanisms must be put in place by the SGB as to how parents who cannot afford the agreed upon fees will be accommodated within the fee structure. The governing body is further mandated to prepare a budget each year which shows the estimated income and expenditure of the school for the following year. Such budgets must also be subjected to voting by parents of the school present for approval purposes.
- keep records of funds received and spent by the public school and of all assets, liabilities and financial transactions. In the same vein, financial statements should be drawn annually for presentation to the parent body and onward transmission to the Head of Department for scrutiny. Such financial statements will determine the needy areas in which parents need to chip in.
- Appoint a registered accountant to audit their financial books annually.

One important stipulation by the Act is that SGBs should not be involved in the professional management activities of the school such as decisions about learning materials, which teaching method to be used or class assessment (Heystek, 2006:474; RSA, 1996a). This separation of functions is meant to avoid conflict and interference between the STM and the SGB, as the alliance is expected to operate in a position of trust. Finally, the list of responsibilities enumerated above are not exhaustive, those cited illustrate sufficiently the pivotal role SGBs play in South Africa's school affairs (Mncube, 2009: 5-6; Van Wyk, 2000:50).

2.4.4 Conclusion

One essential observation which needs to be observed is that SGBs are a new phenomenon to South Africa and are meant to redress a racial anomaly which existed in the past like in the Zimbabwean scenario. South African parents, because of the previous racially exclusive regime, tended not to acknowledge their own abilities and the know-how at their disposal with regard to educational problems (Engelbrecht, Oswald & Forlin, 2006:2). Although legislation put in place was meant to make SGBs legal in both former White dominated schools and Black schools, the success rates are different for these governing bodies (Frielinghaus, 2005:2; Mncube, 2009: 7). The latter appear disadvantaged in all respects. Firstly, they do not have the experience; secondly they lack resources; and thirdly, their level of education is lower compared to their white counterparts (Frielinghaus, 2005:2; cf Brown & Duku, 2008: 415-416). Little wonder when government legislation tries to rationalise the distribution of the scarce resources, the already affluent white dominated schools take it to be as a “recipe for uniform mediocrity” (Frielinghaus, 2005:3). They even view it as a way that the African National Congress (ANC) exerts its influence on independent schools on the basis of its policies and ideology that has nothing to do with educational criteria (Frielinghaus, 2005:3).

The crisis of this legislation is visible in SGBs of disadvantaged schools which lack the experience and have received no training or orientation. In such institutions parents who are the majority in SGBs sometimes have the bizarre notion that they control schools and engage in petty battles with the school authorities at the expense of education (Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:104). Cases of SGBs wanting to control the professional side of the school in South Africa are a common phenomenon although the legislation prohibits such interference (Heystek, 2006:474). In some extreme cases they have even advocated for the removal of the principal where they do not see eye to eye with him (Frielinghaus, 2005:2). If such a scenario develops, the SGBs will work against the ideals of the school, thus betraying the trust which the Act bestows upon the two parties, hence the need for training if conflicts are to be averted (Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:104).

By the same token, the issue which has already been heavily contested by schools that are run by influential and affluent SGBs is that of teacher selection (Frielinghaus, 2005:2). At its initiation, the Act allowed teachers to apply to the Provincial Education Department and SGBs short-listed the applicants, carried out interviews and made a final choice to recommend to the Department of Education (RSA, 1996a) which invariably ratified it (Frielinghaus, 2005:2). On one side, teacher organisations believe that such a scenario should not go on unchecked and government should come in to control the distribution of quality teachers who are lured to such schools by lucrative conditions of service as equity is sought (Frielinghaus, 2005:2). Moreover, government intervention is sought also to break down the racial barriers that existed in the past (Frielinghaus, 2005:2). Contrary to this view, White-dominated SGBs argue that if that responsibility is taken away from them, their motivation to be part of these bodies will be taken away (Frielinghaus, 2005:3). In some extreme cases, they have even resisted this stance by government by employing unqualified teachers to replace those they do not like (Frielinghaus, 2005:2). The latter is a move which South African education managers consider to be unethical and unprofessional in all respects (Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:105). Lewis and Naidoo (2004:104) go further to observe that such tensions and confusions emanate from the SGBs not understanding their roles of governance as opposed to management as stipulated by the statute.

Despite the above controversies brought about by mandated change, success stories in the provision of world-class education in South Africa have been registered in the following areas: helping with accounts, maintaining buildings, raising funds and determining and maintaining the character and ethos of a school (Frielinghaus, 2005:2; cf Brown & Duku, 2008:416). Above all, SGBs are expected to work within the framework of key policies and legislation at national and provincial level and the education manager who sits in both statute bodies is “key” to whatever relationship obtains on the ground (Heystek, 2006:475). The way participation is structured and institutionalised by the principal actually determines who participates and how they participate and what decisions are open to participation (Lewis & Nadoo, 2004:106). S/He must play a pivotal role in nurturing any change, should be able to plan, organise, motivate, empower and direct people towards achieving genuine transformation and school improvement (Van Wyk, 2000:4). In this regard, management practices of the old school of thought which were authoritarian, hierarchical and top-down should be shunned in favour of those which are human

resource oriented and democratic in nature (Van Wyk, 2000: 4). Hence there is a need to adopt the TQM orientation in school governance which accommodates decentralisation as advocated for by this thesis. Before that is done, it would be in the best interest of education managers to comprehend what genuine PI programmes entail. The discussion on the concept of PI below tries to address that concern.

2.5 THE CONCEPT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT (PI)

Kruger (2002:52) sets the tone for this debate when he asserts that educative teaching is a collaborative act as both parents and teachers are involved in educating the same child, hence the social contract required between the parents and teachers as partners. In that vein, Fitzgerald (2004:4) acknowledges that the earlier forms of partnership models were merely compensatory as they were meant to address deficiencies in deprived environments. Even those which superseded this era were not genuine at all. They were superficial alliances which were manifested under the guise of PTAs, Parental Councils or similar organisations which were meant to appease parents and avert organisational conflict between parents and schools (Baloyi, 2003:7; cf Lareau, 2000:165). Since education is a collaborative enterprise, true alliances must be based on the premise that parents are the first primary educators of their children (cf par 2.1; 2.2) and play a critical role in their children's academic success (Baloyi, 2003:7). According to that view, community empowered schools involve all stakeholders in their governance, programme delivery and in both statutory and non-statutory activities (Burke & Picus, 2001:11). This kind of involvement in learning activities is a strategy for increasing the educational effectiveness of the time that parents and children spend with one another at home (Epstein 2001:101). A body of research confirms that parents can influence student achievement and social development if they provide a conducive home-environment as the success of their child is their co-responsibility (Kruger, 2002:51). However, both parents and teachers are often not aware of the possible PI structures in existence (Kruger, 2002:52). Thus, the onus is on education managers to create school policies and procedures that will provide an adequate balance of structures and freedom for developing comprehensive school wide community partnership programmes (Burke & Picus, 2001:15). Engvall (2002:480) sounds this warning clearly when he asserts that: "Like so many things, parental involvement is best when done well and in

moderation and is worst when done poorly and/or to excess”. A sound warning to management as a home-grown model of PI is adopted for implementation in schools.

2.5.1 What is Parental Involvement?

The concept of PI in education is not a new one and can refer to different forms of participation in education such as, attending school functions and responding to parent-teacher nights, taking a hands-on approach in helping with homework assignments and encouraging and arranging an appropriate, set and scheduled time and space for schoolwork (Bryan & Burstein, 2004:214), modelling desired behaviour (sitting down to read a book for pleasure, leisure and enjoyment) monitoring progress and actively tutoring at home to supplement classroom and school activity (Brook & Hancock, 2000:259; Bloom & Marley, 2007:30). According to that view, the term PI in the literature goes by several names: “collaboration”, “partnership”, “participation” “family/home-school relationships/connections” “alliances” or “engagement”. However, what must be clear here is that whatever term is used in this context denotes a special relationship between the school and home. Since the aim of this subsection of literature review is to explore and describe the concept of PI in the provision of education, the definition on the subject authored by UNISA Metropolitan Life Project (1994:2) has been adopted for this thesis so as to enable both parents and education managers to develop a conceptual understanding of it. In that light, PI is viewed as:

An active and supportive participation of parents as partners allies of the teacher in the primary aspects of formal and informal education of their own child/or school and/or broad education of its community in an individual/or collective way and in a structured/orderly manner in order to achieve the objectives of education as fully as possible.

This definition reveals that the management of PI programmes entails an active participation of parents in a true alliance (Glanz, 2006:75), not a passive one. This involvement should include both the formal and informal educative enterprise with the child being at the centre of the activity. It can be by an individual or the effort can be a collective one. For it to be meaningful, it

should be structured by management in an orderly fashion for the purposes of achieving school goals to the fullest. What needs to be reiterated to education managers is that PI programmes are not an event but a process which demands hard work and time for them to come to fruition (Hampton & Mumford: 1998:417). They need painstaking planning and caution as they are operationalised (Kruger, 2002:44); if this fails an antagonistic relationship may develop and become catastrophic (Baloyi, 2003:17). Little wonder that Kruger, (2002:54) asserts that education managers play a crucial and decisive role in creating management cultures that are characterised by PI. This is in line with Dun and Booth's (1996:46) view which claims that schools are intentional cultural communities deliberately designed by educators in order to engender a school ethos that they consider to be more beneficial to the school's vision and mission.

2.5.2 Parental Involvement and the education of children

According to Fitzgerald (2004:11), when parents are valued by practitioners, children in the early years of their education will see less of a division between home and school. According to that view, Kruger (2002:54) claims that managing PI is one of the most challenging tasks facing education managers. Apart from that, the demand for increased PI in education of children is as universally applauded as apple pie and motherhood (Engvall, 2002:477). Research conducted on PI concludes that:

- Children from homes with routines, structured and shared responsibilities do better in school.
- Children need someone at home who will offer them encouragement in their school work, understand their strengths and limitations and be aware of what they are studying.
- Children need someone who provides them opportunities to know about events in the world through print materials at home, trips to libraries and participation in family hobbies and activities.
- Children need opportunities to see and hear adults use oral and written language in the home.

- A child needs an adult at home who will set high but realistic standards for the child's school efforts and to aspire to the highest levels of education (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:40).

Mitra (2006:455) agrees with the above views when he points out that when parents are involved in this manner, the parent benefits include: levels of self-confidence, a wider understanding of the aims of the educational setting and curriculum, and the awareness of the opportunities of home as a learning environment. Little wonder that PI in this context has always been correlated with high academic achievement (cf par 3.1: Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25; Mitra, 2006:455), improved school attendance, increased cooperative behaviour and lower dropout rates (Bryan & Burstein, 2004:217; Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). Similarly, Burke and Picus (2001:48) concur with Fitzgerald's (2004:11) idea of involving adults and the significant others as role models or adult mentors as these interact with children on a daily basis and have positive experiences to share with the young children as they strive to make the best of their life. These are some of the reasons why Burke and Picus (2001:48) claim that schools need the collaboration of minds, hearts and hands for them to register success, hence, the need for education managers with a TQM orientation as they adopt appropriate PI programmes with adaptation for the purposes of reaping the mentioned benefits.

2.5.3 Benefits of Parental Involvement

The cries for the involvement of parents in education is supported by documented research evidence which claims that there are perceived benefits which accrue to the learner as a result of such endeavours. The PI school of thought asserts that parents and schools are partners in the education of children because schools are formalised extensions of the family (Heystek, 2003:328). In that view researchers seem to be agreed on the following benefits that accrue to the learner, institution and community if PI programmes are well managed and coordinated by management.

- Improved student achievement and the motivation to learn (Gerardo, Lopez & Scribner, 2001, Heystek, 2003:331; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:109).

- Well resourced schools in terms of human, material and finances (Glanz, 2006:19; Hampton & Mumford, 1998:412; Heystek, 2003:331).
- Parents through well orchestrated workshops were taught parenting skills which helped them reinforce instruction at home and to develop a conducive environment that facilitated achievement (Hampton & Mumford, 1998:412). In that way, the attitudes of learners towards school work improves (Pelco, Ries, Jacobson & Melka, 2000:235).
- Improved assistance and participation by parents in home work and tutorials at home (Heystek, 2003:337). Monitoring of television watching (cf par 2.2.10), internet access and video games at home improved as well (Seyfried & Chung, 2002:111).
- Improved school and community relations and understanding of both formal and informal curricula issues (Gerardo et al 2001, Heystek, 2003:340) and appreciating new resources and programmes meant to improve teaching and curriculum (Glanz, 2006:19).
- Higher test scores, better grades and better attendance by the learners (cf par 3.3; Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25; Patrikakou et al 2005:4). Also the behaviour of learners improved, the dropout rate was reduced (Seyfried & Chung, 2002:11; Padgett, 2006:44), and the suspension rate declined as well (Pelco et al 2000:235).
- Improved communication between the home and school, parent participation in school events and participation of volunteers in both academic and extra-curricular concerns of the school (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:111). This promotes the social, emotional and cognitive development of the learners (Seyfried & Chung, 2002:109).
- The education manager's knowledge of parenting practices which took place at home made him/her understand the perceived learner's disruptive behaviour (Darch, Miao & Shippen, and 2004:26). This improved knowledge about the child leads to improved pedagogical skills on the part of the education manager (Dun & Booth, 1996:45).
- Parental expectations were reconciled with those of the school and there was improved synergy between the two parties as they forged ahead in the accomplishment of school goals (Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114).
- Parents who took time to read to their children and equally listened to them reading, did not provide the learners with the much needed paragon for emulation, but enhanced their reading skills as well (Bloom & Marley, 2007:4; Willis, Heavens, & Dorris, 2007:53).

- Parents become powerful forces of change processes in schools and the learning of the school and family becomes a potent force in the community in promoting healthy holistic development among all children (Dun & Booth, 1996:46).
- Improved interpersonal skills and parents became more responsible in decision making (Patrikakou et al 2005:4).

However, Seyfried and Chung (2002:110) claim that most of these benefits have been found obtaining in the elementary school aged children. Little is known in the junior school and adolescent minority group, another grey area for research on this subject. In this context, the thesis will try to ascertain their existence in the Zimbabwean government primary schools through the empirical research. However, education managers should also take cognisance of contemporary research which refute some of the claims stated above. These findings report that certain forms of PI in education is negatively related to children's educational outcomes (cf Domina, 2005: 234; Patrikakou et al 2005:135), a concern which the researcher needs to be aware of if the results of this thesis are not to be biased.

2.6 MODELS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

As indicated earlier on, models of PI are as abundant as the literature itself and those cited in this thesis cannot be exhaustive (cf par 2.1.). They serve as an eye opener in the exploration of the concept of PI. The educational reforms sweeping across the teaching fraternity have necessitated a global revolution in the area of PI of which the Zimbabwean situation is no exception (Nziramasanga, 1999:22), hence the pronounced new dispensation in that direction. Past studies by Lareau (2000:2-3) have usually viewed PI as:

Preparing children for school (teaching them the alphabet, telling and reading to them stories to promote language development), attending school events (parent-teacher conferences), and fulfilling any requests teachers make of parents (playing word games with their children at home), children with a place to do homework and ensuring the completion of it.

Although the cited researcher argues that this kind of PI improves school performance as measured in reading scores or standardised test scores (Bloom & Marley, 2007:4; Willis, Heavens, & Dorris, 2007:53), contemporary scholars consider such involvement as peripheral and narrow. The current paradigm shift in this area calls for a holistic approach to PI by all stakeholders of which parents are part of that global village (Kruger, 2002:42), if academic excellence is to be achieved in schools within the TQM framework. The assumption here is that parents who are involved in one way or another in the education of their children create a climate that is conducive to teaching and learning activities (Kruger, 2002:49). In that light focus will be on the models of PI by Epstein, Swap, Comer and Kruger (cf par 2.1.6).

2.6.1 Epstein's Model of Parental Involvement

Joyce L Epstein is principal researcher at the Centre on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning in Baltimore, Maryland (Burke & Picus, 2001:3-4; Glanz, 2006:40). She has conceived a six-type PI model which is reviewed below.

2.6.1.1 Type 1: Parenting

Parenting is an activity that schools can perform in order to assist families with parenting and child rearing skills, family support, understanding learner and adolescent development and creating home conditions to support learning at each stage and grade level through well-organised workshops (Burke & Picus, 2001:3; Kgaffe, 2001:17). In practice, this entails providing information to all families on basic development, health and safety needs and monitoring of students at home to all parents who want or need it, not just the few who can attend workshops, or meetings at the school buildings (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). Likewise, this type of involvement according to Glanz (2006:40) includes providing families the opportunity to share information about the child's culture, background, talents, goals and needs. Effective education managers recognise parents as the first educators (Glanz, 2006:40) and try by all means to teach specific skills (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). According to that view, parents need training if they are to educate effectively. Hampton and Mumford (1998:414) seem to agree with this notion when they posit that the goal of such training workshops was to teach

parents to reinforce instruction at home, to help parents develop a home environment that facilitates achievement, including the development of children's self concept and to have discussions concerning basic parenting skills. Apart from that, families should be taught how to establish a warm, supportive physical and emotional home environment for learning (Glanz, 2006:40).

2.6.1.2 Type 2: Communicating

Communication in home-school relations involves communicating with parents about school programmes and learner progress by means of school-to-home and home-to-school communication (Kgaffe, 2001:17; Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). This can be through notes, telephone calls, conferences, weekly folder transmittals to parents with student's work, classroom newsletters, brochures describing the school procedures and policies and other types of communication (Burke & Picus, 2001:3). This also means that schools should regularly review the readability, clarity, form and frequency of all memos, notices and other print and non-print communications (Kgaffe, 2001:17). Likewise, parents who do not read well should be considered and readability can be enhanced if children are used in the production of whatever means or forms of communication (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:57). Also, education managers should know that parents are interested to hear about the positive things their children do if their (children's) self esteem is to be boosted (Berger, 2007:169). In collaboration with this view, Burke and Picus (2001:3) assert that parent school communication could be strengthened by more opportunities in: a) one-to-one contact with school personnel, b) participation in the curriculum that their children experience, c) joint problem solving between the school and home rather than the school alone, d) precise suggestions on how parents can help their children through suggestion boxes or any other means, and, e) more observations of children as they are involved in school activities.

Education managers should take advantage of the family conferences, considered to be an imperative type of communication which they usually hold either as orientation meetings or developmental ones (Fitzgerald, 2004:34; Springate & Slegelin, 1996:70). These need to be carefully planned and should be used to provide information to families about curriculum events,

schedules, policies, other procedures and professional information about the developmental stages and then, let the parents do the rest. The advocates of conferences advise that these should adopt a two-way communication system so as to accommodate feedback from the participants on their knowledge, concerns, desires (Berger, 2007:134), expectations about their child's performance and his or her attitude towards school and learning (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). Glanz (2006:40) claim that such "input from participants helps schools address challenges and improve plans, activities and outreach programmes so that all families can be productive partners in the children's school success." Whatever topics are discussed at such sessions should centre on the child's interests, learning styles, interesting anecdotes and developmental progress. The information gathered can then be used to build up a "conference portfolio" on the child which can be used for future references. This kind of interaction between education managers and parents is crucial because parents are believed to know their children best. However, education managers are equally advised to respect the confidentiality of the family in the process of getting to know the child (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:70) and should also play a critical role in establishing communication channels in their schools (Glanz, 2006:40).

Similarly, schools are advised to hold social activities periodically such as "Family Fun Days" which provide adequate opportunities for families to spend time getting to know one another in the context of the school environment (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:70). Such interactions are typical of a TQM initiative meant to satisfy both internal and external customer's needs and expectations (Sallis, 1996:124). At such interactions information shared should concern parenting skills (cf par 2. 4.1.1) and how children should cope with information from other sources such as electronic and print media, computers, internet and many other sources (cf par 2.3.3). Furthermore, it would be in the interest of the school to conduct a needs analysis of the parents if their desires are to be incorporated in the school's endeavours. The result of such a survey can be used to place parents in subject committees of their interests for the purpose of facing future challenges of the school (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:70). Berger (2007:169) contends with this view when he asserts that: "involving parents in the planning processes is just another of the ways you show respect for them and their role." On the other hand, TQM principles demand that the views and needs of the customer must carry the day in such

interactions (Sallis, 1996:124). Above all, education managers, according to Barrera and Warner (2006:72) should know that communication between home and school is the foundation of a solid partnership. When parents and educators communicate effectively, positive relationships develop, problems are solved more easily and students make greater progress.

2.6.1.3 Type 3: Volunteering

Education managers should solicit community volunteers with varying degrees of expertise to assist children both at home and at school in order to enhance the success of the learner's education (Burke & Picus, 2001:3; Kgaffe, 2001:17; Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). In this regard, volunteers must be recruited widely so that all families know that their time and talents are welcome (Glanz, 2006:40; Berger, 2007: 134). Furthermore, special tutors, personnel-power to assist with lunch duty responsibilities, and individuals to help with office work may be sought (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). According to that view, parents can either tutor their own child at home or other children at school (Berger, 2007:264). Research has also revealed that when parents visit the classroom as volunteer workers, they do not only instil confidence in their children, instead learn how their children learn and the content as well (Lareau, 2000:70). This enables parents to reinforce and supplement the curriculum goals of the school and the home becomes the extension of the classroom (Lareau, 2000:70). Kgaffe (2001:17) goes further to suggest that such volunteering programmes should have measures to accommodate both working and non-working parents as participants.

Since volunteering does not come about on its own and it equally needs careful planning and implementation, Springate and Slegelin (1999:71) came up with 8 points for orienting volunteers working in a cooperative nursery. These they claimed could be adapted to any programme.

- Parents visit the school first before enrolling their child to gain experience of the events.
- A socialisation luncheon could be held where concerns of parents and events in the classroom are discussed. An orientation handbook is distributed and discussed.
- Parents are called before opening day for cleaning the school and arranging learning materials. It helps them be acquainted with available materials.

- Education managers to pay home-visits to volunteer parents. It gives them the opportunity to ask questions.
- Parents attend lessons at least once a week or so to familiarise themselves with classroom events.
- An orientation should be held a week later to familiarise parents with events. They can be shown a video of staff members engaged in panel discussions.
- Follow-up meetings can be held and issues of guidance need to be addressed.
- An orientation should continue throughout the year via newsletters and telephone calls to parents.
- Other strategies are: bulletin boards, file boxes of activities and notebooks that outline daily assignments that may be conducted by volunteers.

Darch, Miao and Shippen (2004:25) advocate for such an organised type of volunteering programme instead of the traditional one where parents participate in making photocopies, bake cookies, organise classroom parties, raise funds and chaperon field- trips. To them such kind of involvement is cosmetic and does not assist parents understand what is going on in the classroom. Genuine parental volunteering programmes evoke the participation of parents when they see that their involvement benefits their child and that, they are valued as part of their child's education (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:26).

2.6.1.4 Type 4: Learning at home

Education managers should establish workshops meant to educate parents on how to assist children with homework and projects (Batey, 1996:45; Burke & Picus, 2001:4; Hampton & Mumford, 1998:412). Such an interaction helps to link school atmosphere with the home atmosphere of the learner (Kgaffe, 2001:19). This could include designing and organising a regular schedule of interactive homework that gives learners responsibility for discussing important things they are learning and helps families stay aware of the subject content of their children's class work (Hampton & Mumford, 1998:412). Such workshops should be repeated as much as possible so as to involve as many families as possible (Burke & Picus, 2001:4). In addition, schools should involve families in all important curriculum- related decisions.

Furthermore, education managers should not underscore the importance of homework, hence the need for adequately planning and communication on it between the home and school. Since the tasks are done during non-school hours (Heystek, 2003:337), parents need to know the amount of involvement required in the home-based reinforcement programmes if they are to make meaningful contributions to the educative process (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). Failure to know the content of homework the child is undertaking may lead to parents resenting it or not being able to assist their children. In that way it becomes a negative experience and may also become divisive, fail to strengthen the child's achievements (Seyfried & Chung, 2002:109), and consequently, it demotivates the learner in the process (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). However, if it is done properly, it can provide immediate retention of recent learning, and reinforce learning during leisure time (Heystek, 2003:337). Besides, homework supports great self-direction, self discipline and time organisation. In that regard researches cited in Berger (2007:264) recommend the following guidelines on homework:

- Parents should listen to children, ask open-ended questions, and allow children the opportunity to predict and problem solve.
- Children like adults, work best when they have a quiet, private work area and regular time to work.
- Children are expected to enjoy and succeed at home assignments. "If the child struggles with more than 20 percent of the projects or problems, the activity selection should be reassessed and a new activity better geared to the level of pupils should be chosen.
- Many home activities can be recreational and enriching to family life.

2.6.1.5 Type 5: Decision making

PI should be more than mundane activities (Glanz, 2006:40). Parents should become real representatives with opportunities to hear from and communicate with other families. They should be included in class committees, councils, advocate groups and other relevant governance structures of the school (Batey, 1996:45; Kgaffe, 2001:19; Burke & Picus, 2001:4). Central to this commitment is the undertaking to include parent leaders from all racial, ethnic, socio-

economic and other groups in the school (Kgaffe, 2001:19). In addition, schools should offer training to enable leaders to serve as representatives of other families, with input from and return of information to all parents (Brook & Hancock, 2000:262). In secondary schools, learners by virtue of their maturity should be involved in decision making groups although with a little bit of guidance from adults (Halsey, 2005:67).

The role of the education manager in this respect is to encourage participation in PTOs or PTAs (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). These are avenues meant to give parents opportunities to engage in decision making with respect to their child's care and education (Halsey, 2005:65; Hess, 1992:90). According to Baloyi (2003:16), such decision making bodies should mean "a process of partnership, of shared views and actions towards shared goals, not just a power struggle between conflicting ideas." He further claims that the parental bodies should be democratically elected in their respective committees and they should be given agendas and tasks to accomplish. In that way, participants will have ownership in the decisions that affect the education of their children (Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114). These kinds of opportunities if well utilised, empower families in the care and education of their children. Darch, Miao and Shippen (2004:25) also believe that the presence of parents throughout the school is related to higher levels of student achievement and decreases school wide disruptive behaviour. Moreover, parents who are involved with school-wide activities become more supportive of teachers and school policy (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). Berger (2007:86) concurs with this type of interaction between education managers and parents when he observes that: "Our understanding of parental involvement needs to be on a continuum that allows for parental participation on a variety of levels and through a wide variety of activities."

2.6.1.6 Type 6: Collaborating with the community

Schools can collaborate with the community by sharing and engaging communities in all activities of the school, as communities have a societal and cultural responsibility of caring for and socialising learners (Kgaffe, 2001:19; Glanz, 2006:40; Berger, 2007:132). In this regard, grandparents and other members of the learners' extended family may also play a role in the education of the learner and should be included when programmes of PI are introduced at school

(Hampton & Mumford, 1998:410; Kgaffe, 2001:19). The involvement should entail integrating community partnerships, resources and services into the school's daily programmes (Burke & Picus, 2001:4). In essence this means that the school interacts with businesses, agencies, cultural and civic organisations, colleges, universities and all those people who are interested in and are affected by the quality of education and not just those parents with learners in education (Kgaffe, 2001:19; Glanz, 2006:40).

Kgaffe (2001:19) contends with this view when he postulates that individual schools may tailor their practices within these six areas to meet the needs and interests, time and talents, the ages and grade levels of learners and families. However, Giles (2006:258) has simplified the six levels of PI in three broad categories: involvement, engagement and empowerment.

2.6.1.6.1 Involvement

According to Giles (2006:258), the word involvement is used to describe a comprehensive set of multilevel and concurrent activities that seek the broad participation of parents in the life and work of schools. In this respect, involvement would include attending parent nights to communicate about student progress.

2.6.1.6.2 Engagement

Engagement in this scenario would require higher levels of participation such as volunteering in classrooms and neighbourhood safety patrols, meeting and greeting visitors and providing technical support for teachers (Giles, 2006:259).

2.6.1.6.3 Empowerment.

This would see parents involved in committees, decision-making teams, and PTO/PTA groups, or with governance arrangements that offer limited leadership opportunities in schools (Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114).

2.6.1.6.4 Ownership

Although not part of his broad categories, Giles (2006:259) claims that a synergy of involvement, engagement, and empowerment results in ownership of the task at hand.

2.6.1.7 Conclusion

Epstein's model of PI, akin to literature reviewed earlier on, acknowledges that parents are the primary educators of children and the transmitters of an ideal culture (cf Glanz, 2006:40). This is what makes the school an extension of the home and parents can therefore not be ignored in that regard (cf par 2.1.6). Towards that direction, education managers informed by this model must put measures in place which will not only enable them to tap the knowledge, skills and talents parents have if the educative process is to be enhanced, but to equip them (parents) with parenting skills as well (cf par 2.6.1.1). Family conferences and social gatherings such as "Family Fun Day" (cf par 2.6.1.2) which should either be formally or informally would be ideal here for the purposes of gathering information. For parents to be able to donate the valuable experience they have freely (cf par 2.6.1.3), the management structures in place must be porous and accommodative to their aspirations and views. This can be achieved by establishing parental bodies which are democratically elected (cf par 2.6.1.5). In addition, management should place willing parents who are skilful and knowledgeable in subject committees for the purposes of improving instruction and curricula content. The physical presence and involvement of such representatives in this manner, does not only enhance the academic achievement of learners only, but the ownership of decisions and organisational goals in place (cf Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114). Failure of which, parents can be apathetic and reserved.

However, since parents are not professionally trained in the area of pedagogies, there is need to organise workshops which will equip them with the necessary skills needed so as to make them meaningful players in the involvement process and adequately reinforce learning at home (cf par 2.3.3; 2. 6.1.1). Such workshops should involve both curricula and non-curricula issues (cf Heystek, 2003:340). What perhaps needs to be noted here is that things should not be taken for granted neither should they be left to chance. Not all parents have the expertise schools need.

Neither are all teachers knowledgeable in PI programmes, hence the need to involve both parties in the above referred to workshops (cf par 2.6.1.1).

On the other hand, education managers need to be wary of the mode of communication which is used between the school and home and the type of information to be transmitted (cf par 2.6.1.2). In the latter, parents prefer positive information as compared to negative one. With the former, the level of literacy in that community will determine the mode of communication to be used and in some extreme cases, effective education managers should not hesitate to use a language native to the locals. Whatever communication channel is used must have feedback loops which will enable parents' views and aspirations to be registered. Finally, education managers as public relation officers of their institutions, gifted with a TQM orientation, should try to engage all those who have a stake at the School. Over and above the parents and significant others, the business community, civil organisation, tertiary institutions and any other agent which is a consumer of the school's output should be brought on board (cf par 2.6.1.6). In that light, the empirical research will try to reveal whether the management practices in public schools through a process of decentralisation measures to this school of thought.

2.6.2 SWAP'S Model of Parental Involvement

Swap proposed three different models on philosophies of PI programmes: the school-to-home transmission philosophy, the curriculum enrichment philosophy and the philosophy of partnership for school success (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:45; Kgaffe, 2001:19). Later on Swap further added a fourth model- the protective model (Kgaffe, 2001:19).

2.6.2.1 The Protective Model

According to Swap the Protective Model comprises minimal PI and its goal is to reduce conflict between parents and educators primarily through the separation of parents and educators' functions, thus protecting the school from interference (Kgaffe, 2001:19). Contrary to involvement views alluded to earlier on, this model sees PI in decision making or collaborative problem solving as an interference with the educator's job. Many educators are reported to share

this attitude described by this model and thus experience the disadvantages associated with limited PI (Lareau, 2000:33). The Protective Model further assumes that parents delegate the responsibility of educating learners to the school and hold school personnel responsible for the results. The model also assumes that educators accept the delegation of responsibility by parents (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:45). In this way, parents can easily point fingers at educators in the event of learner-failure of any nature (Kgaffe, 2001:19). Springate and Slegelin (1999:45) claim that it eliminates the earlier notion which asserts that parents are the first and natural educators of children (cf par 2.1; 2.2). The views enshrined in this model seem to contrast with what the earlier model (cf par 2.6.1) calls for and what current literature claims on PI (cf par 2.2). It draws a line of divide between parents and educators. In that regard, parents and educators may engage in petty wars meant to defend their territories (cf Baloyi, 2003:16), a tendency of which management needs to be wary.

2.6.2.2 School-to-Home Transmission Model

Swap suggests that while on one hand, parents should endorse the importance of schooling, reinforce school expectation at home, provide conditions at home that nurture development and support school success, and ensure that the child needs minimum academic and social requirements (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45; Kgaffe, 2001:20). On the other hand, he calls for school personnel to identify the values and practices outside school that contribute to school success (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45). At all costs, education managers should make sound effort to engage parents and encourage them to participate (Heystek; 2003:337). In that light, parents can be made to hold bake sales, build playgrounds, provide class materials, prepare food for school parties and all the time, two way communication must be sought (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45). However, literature alluded to earlier on considers such involvement as being peripheral.

Swap further emphasises the transfer of cultural capital to the learners. In his view, cultural capital comprises the ways of being, knowing, writing and talking which characterises those who are successful within the dominant culture (Epstein, 2001:21). In the same vein, Kgaffe (2001:20) argues that some children come to school with aspects of power in place (or cultural

capital) while others do not. In that case, such children do not have the discourse patterns, interaction styles and spoken and written language codes that will allow them success in the larger society (Kgaffe 2001:20; Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45). However, schools hope that parents can in the same way contribute to cultural capital of the child. While according to Swap this cultural capital alluded to here can be transferred by way of talking, thinking and mixing with people, particularly with parents and members of the community in which the child lives (Kgaffe, 2001:20), such values and behaviours which are hypothesised to undergo school success are, however, not necessarily confined to parents of a particular class, racial or ethnic background (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45). He also explains that middle-class parents may for example, not support the mainstream values of hard work, self-discipline, self-motivation and respectful manners, yet poor people may teach these skills very successfully (Kgaffe, 2001:20).

Contrary to the above view, Epstein (2001:120) seems to espouse the idea that PI programmes based on the philosophy of school-to-home transmission and the transference of culture can be more effective where parents are encouraged to reinforce learner behaviour, values and attitudes which educators believe will lead to improved school achievement. She further asserts that, learners whose parents feel that they can and should be part of the school's mainstream, have the best chance to acquire the social skills that they are not so equipped with, in schools where there is parent support for their acquisition and use. Springate and Slegelin (1999:45) contend with this observation.

Similarly, Kgaffe (2001:20) points out that influences that parents and communities may have over learners' networks and connections that the learners may have with other informants towards their educational success (social capital) and support through economic provision may be instrumentalised through inheritance (economic capital). Given the scenario of the forms of culture and transference, it becomes obvious that PI is necessary to enhance school achievement (cf par 2.5; 2.5.2) although there are complexities underlying the use of culture. However, academics advise that schools review their interest in the family after its long exclusion from the education arena as observed by Lewis and Naidoo (2004:104). Consistent with the view of cultural transmission, education managers need to know that the task of the school is to prepare children to take their place in the world of adults (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:87). Epstein

(2001:80) corroborates this notion when he postulates that families do so through enculturation and schools through education. She further claims that both family and school try to work together in this complex task of bringing children to adulthood, although sometimes conflicts arise between these two “giants” in the child’s life (cf par 2.5.1) because of the differences in beliefs, values and practices (cf Baloyi, 2003:16; Springate & Slegelin, 1999:87). Such conflicts may only be averted if professionals learn how children develop, what roles they take in the family, how they are nurtured, since such practices take root in broader political, social, economic and religious beliefs which are necessary ingredients for the survival of that group (Springate & Slegelin, 1999:87).

2.6.2.3. The Curriculum Enrichment Model

Swap claims that this model is guided by the philosophy of inheritance-learning. He further claims that the premise of interactive-learning is that there must be mutual respect between parents and educators (Kgaffe, 2001:21). The model also stresses mutually developed objectives. Two valued outcomes justify PI in this model according to Swap; the one is learner achievement in the mainstream and the other, the valuing of goals and beliefs of non-mainstreaming culture by the school (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 46). However, the focus is on curriculum and instruction. Both parents and educators recognise the continuity between homes and school and support the recruitment of more educators who reflect and value the learner’s culture (Kgaffe, 2001:20; Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 45). This should have the effect of bringing more parents into the school in order to solve behavioural and learning problems (cf par 2.5.2; 2.5.3) through frequent informal communication and shared projects in volunteering in the classroom (Kgaffe, 2001:20).

A further scrutiny of Swap’s observations makes one surmise that through this model he seems to be a strong advocate of the Head Start programmes which claim that parents are the child’s first and most important teachers (cf par 2.2.4).The assumptions guiding her model are parents and educators should work together to enrich curriculum objectives/content, relationships between home and school are based on mutual respect, and both parents and teachers are seen as experts in the process of delivery (Kgaffe, 2001:20).

In this model, Swap's views seem to be suggesting that schools function "without walls" as parents and community members share their areas of expertise with children and children "make sense" of what they are learning in the school as they see its relationship to the outside world (Epstein, 2001:105). Apart from that, parents can serve as volunteers within the classroom (cf par 2.6.1.3), reading to children (cf par 2.5.3) and assisting children in work with manipulative and physical activities (cf par 2.6.1.4). Above all, they also play a role in decision making through site-based decision making councils and policy councils (cf par 2.6.1.5). Such decision making according to Epstein (2001:105) should mean "a process of partnership, of shared views and actions towards shared goals, not just a power struggle between conflicting ideas". In this regard, the child is viewed as part of the family system; experiences at school affect the experiences of home and vice versa (Kgaffe, 2001:20).

2.6.2.4. The Partnership Model

Swap's fourth type of PI is the partnership-model. It views parent-school-partnership as a fundamental component of learner success and welcomes parents as assets and resources on the search for strategies that will achieve success for all learners (cf par 2.5.3; Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 46; Kgaffe, 2001:21; cf Oakland, 1999:298). It also emphasises two-way communication, parental-strength and problem-solving with parents. Furthermore, it promises a single unifying mission that brings all aspects of school together (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 46; Kgaffe, 2001:21; Lomax, 1996:66). This model of PI dwells much on the success that schools can achieve by drawing parents' help and advice, seeking confirmation of the school's high expectations for learners and clarifying how parents can help support learners' achievements (Kgaffe, 2001:21). Effective programmes with the partnership model also draw from other sources within the community, such as business agencies and medical partnerships so that services can be offered to children in a non-bureaucratic way and needed funding and materials can be obtained (Springate & Slegelin, 1999: 46; Kgaffe, 2001:21).

2.6.2.5 Conclusion

Swap's protective model gives the traditional view of what PI has been. Both parents and education managers seem to be defending their territorial integrity (cf par 2. 6.2.1) as educators fear that meddling parents might make "unsolicited interventions" in the name of PI (cf Lareau, 2000:33). On one hand, parents think that their parenting role ends in the home and whatever happens at school, they are neither accountable nor answerable to it (cf par 2. 6.2.1). Education managers, on the other hand, prefer a professional-client relationship which keeps parents at bay (Lareau, 2000:33). This kind of approach is akin to the non-involvement approach which the Chinese advocate for (cf par 2.3.2). These are some of the contradictions which this thesis tries to reconcile as the TQM tool is adopted in the management of PI programmes.

However, Swap's school-home transmission model (cf par 2.6.2.2) moderates the above scenario by advocating minimal intervention between parents and teachers. While she believes that learners can learn the ideal culture through socialisation regardless of one's socio-economic background, Epstein (2001:105) thinks otherwise. She encourages parents to deliberately provide a conducive learning environment at home which will allow the transmission of culture rather than to let things happen by chance. In that regard, both the school and home are encouraged to work together so as to avoid unnecessary contradictions which only serve to derail the organisational goals. To facilitate that, education managers need to know that curriculum instruction and content takes place within a given culture (cf par 2.6.2.3). What this literature seems to be implying here is that the ideal learning culture which schools propagate must be transferred to the home setting. The cultural transference is made possible by mutual discourse between education managers and parents. In that direction, recruiting culturally oriented teachers as a preventive measure would be ideal. Sallis (1996:117) corroborates such an approach as he reiterates that the test of a TQM organisation is how it responds to mistakes, ensures that they do not recur, and learns the lessons for its future operations. This school of thought is supported by the quality gurus who claim that service organisations, such as schools, can only get things right the second time around due to the complexities of the human element, not the first time (cf Sallis, 1996:117).

Swap like Epstein believes that a two-way communication network with a double feedback loop between the home and school will trigger voluntary participation from the parents and other stakeholders (cf par 2.6.1.2). All stakeholders are regarded as valuable assets in this model. The assumption here is that this kind of involvement will not only generate the much needed ideas from the society but will enable society to realise that their contributions are treasured and respected. This does not only promote ownership of plans and ideas (cf Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114) but will also enhance the partnership programmes in motion as well as commitment. What perhaps education managers need to do in this situation is to democratise their bureaucratic and management structures so as to solicit active participation from parents so as to accommodate the decentralisation process of school management. A closer scrutiny of Swap's model seems to reveal the important 3Cs in a TQM journey as propounded by Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:65-66): culture, commitment and communication.

2.6.3 Comer's Model of Parental Involvement

Research on Comer's model emphasises the empowerment of parents and educators to work in partnership with schools in addressing all the developmental needs of the learner in order that learners may succeed (cf Heystek, 2003:331; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:109). His approach to PI is known as the School Development Programme (SDP) and targets the whole school to ensure that all school decisions are made in the best interest of learners (Glanz, 2006:47; Kgaffe, 2001:22). In the SDP, Comer came up with three mechanisms or guidelines that are prevalent: the school planning and management team, the parent team and the student and staff support team (Glanz, 2006:47; Kgaffe, 2001:22). The model of involvement further emphasises the necessity of developmental needs of the learner thus improving the learner's chances of success (cf Heystek, 2003:331; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:109).

2.6.3.1 The Planning and Management Team

According to Comer, this is the central organising body in the school and includes the principal, educators, parents and staff support representatives (Glanz, 2006:47; Kgaffe, 2001:22). This

team plans staff development activities and assesses and modifies the school plan in order to improve learner achievement (Glanz, 2006: 47; Kgaffe, 2001:22).

2.6.3.2 The Parent Team

Comer claims that the Parent Team involves parents' active participation in the learner's parent's daily school endeavour, policy, management issues and general school support (Glanz, 2006:47; Kgaffe, 2001:22). This team bridges the gap between the home and the school and is actively involved in developing workshops for themselves and learners (Kgaffe, 2001:22). Seyfried and Chung (2002:110) concur with this opinion when they advance that the social skills curriculum for Inner City Schools in the US whose target group is mainly the low-income and minority communities or whoever parent feels a sense of exclusion, low self-esteem or hopelessness are the chief participants.

2.6.3.3 The Student and Staff Support Team

This according to Comer includes staff with learner development and mental health knowledge and experience such as the school psychologist guidance counsellor, school nurse, special education educator and others (Glanz, 2006:47; Kgaffe, 2001:22). The model shares the learner's development and behaviour, knowledge, skills and sensitivity with parents, educators and administrators (Glanz, 2006:47; Kgaffe, 2001:22). Kgaffe (2001:22) further claims that the implementation of the three mechanisms of the Comer approach to the PI programme is driven by three operations: the comprehensive school plan, that delineates the social and academic goals and the activities of the school, the monitoring and assessment that generates useful data on the programmes, processes and outcomes, and recycles information back to inform programme modification where necessary and establish new goals and objectives. This is typical of a quality audit plan which involves everybody in the designing of goals and checking the concordance between quality plans and quality results within the TQM cycle of continuous improvement (Kanji, 1996:80), which education managers should take care of at the implementation level of PI programmes.

2.6.3.4 Conclusion

Akin to Epstein's school of thought, an education manager who embraces the TQM philosophy and Comer's orientation of PI must try to bring everybody on board with specialised knowledge in the educative process to constitute the think tank ((parent body) of the school (cf par 2.6.1.5; 2.6.3.1; 2.6.3.2). The responsibility of this body is to design and modify the blueprint of the school. Since Comer's school-reform theory views the school as a social system, which needs to be changed if it is not working well (cf Kgaffe, 2001:22), the change-agent in the likes of the education manager must work with the local people, school staff, parents, community members and where appropriate, with any person with specialised knowledge on learner development problems (cf par 2.6.3.3). In other words, the school development programme as a way of conceptualising and working in schools, completely replaces the traditional organisation and management systems of the institution (cf Kgaffe, 2001:22), hence, the need for a new management philosophy such as that advocated for above, which tries to embrace all stakeholders (Sallis, 1996:29). Kanji (1996:88) corroborates this view when he asserts that TQM, through its effective implementation, is perceived as a vehicle for change which will sweep away the old management practices characteristic of the status quo and heralds the dawn of a new era of effective management.

The education manager, in this case, intending to make the teams work effectively and collaboratively with one another should act like the conductor of an orchestra, drawing from each group and player the highest possible quality of performance (Everard & Morris, 1996:156). This is no mean achievement at all as knowledge of group dynamics is crucial as well if teams are to be harnessed for the benefit of achieving organisational goals (Everard & Morris, 1996:156). Teams made up of homogeneous members are likely to be problematic as compared to heterogeneous ones. Everard and Morris (1996:158) sound this warning when they expostulate, "When very clever people are put together they tend to suffer from 'analysis paralysis'; anyone putting forward an idea finds it gets hacked to bits by his or her colleagues, and no progress is made". Despite that folly, working in teams can provide every person in the organisation with the means of expressing their view and making a contribution to the quality improvement process (Sallis, 1996:128).

2.6.4 Kruger's Model of Parental Involvement

Kruger (2002:56) as alluded to earlier on (cf par 2.1) incorporates condensed models by Williams Chavkins, Alastair Macbeth and Van Chalky and includes seven elements which are enumerated below.

2.6.4.1 Devising a strategic plan for Parental Involvement

Akin to Comer's philosophy of the Planning and Management Team (cf par 2.6.3.1) Kruger (2002:56) postulates that the school management body should meet so as to plan the involvement programme for parents. At such sessions, statutory instruments must be discussed and all members of the management body should be conversant with them. The management body must further identify areas in which parents will be involved and committees should be set involving both parents and teachers in the identified areas. In that light, it is incumbent for management to coordinate these committees and the drawn up programme of involvement needs to be evaluated periodically. This kind of initial involvement of parents and teachers, according to Kruger (2002:56), enhances the ownership of the programme which will in turn motivate their participation.

2.6.4.2 Creating an inviting school climate

Kruger (2002:56) asserts that the school climate should convey warmth and sincerity and parents should feel welcome and comfortable when they visit the school. Van Chalky (in Kruger, 2002:56) lists the following factors which he considers as cardinal points for creating an inviting school climate:

- correct conduct on the part of staff.
- proper attitude on the part of staff.
- a neat anteroom or reception room for parents.

- a principal's office that is neatly and functionally arranged and leaves parents with an impression of professionalism.

2.6.4.3 Parents and teacher instruction in elements of Parental Involvement

According to Barometer (in Kruger, 2002:56), parents should go to seminars where they will be taught about free education because most of them are in the dark about the whole issue. They think that if it is free education their children should get everything like clothing (uniform) freely. This misunderstanding or misinterpretation of government policy can only be corrected if both parents and education managers are given instruction on PI so as: a) to enhance the quality of the guidance parents give their children at home, b) to form parent groups, and, c) to incorporate and organise parents as partners in the school.

Kruger (2002:59) also advocates seminars meant to educate both parents and education managers when he proposes these themes for sessions:

- parenting styles.
- the responsibility of parenthood.
- communication between parent and child.
- teaching independent decision making.
- study methods and subject choices.
- conflict management.
- the training of education managers and teachers in practical cooperation with parents.

These ideas are akin to those proposed by Epstein's model (cf par 2.6.1.1; 2.6.1.2; 2.6.1.5).

2.6.4.4 Communication between the school and the parental home

Kruger (2002:59) postulates that any involvement programme, should view communication as paramount (cf par 2.6.1.2). This view is supported by Burke and Picus, (2001:3) who propose the following procedures meant to enhance communication between the school and parental home:

- informal discussion.
- formal consultations.
- telephone conversations.
- exchange of correspondence.
- circulars.
- parents' evening.
- home visits.
- a school newspaper.
- a communication committee can be established for this purpose.

Springate and Slegelin (1999:63) cautions educationists on the use of home visits as a strategy of PI by raising the following salient points which need to be observed:

- Do not be judgemental about the child's lifestyles.
- Knowledge of the child's culture is crucial and do not use it to stereotype the child.
- Listen to family members about ways of growth and development on the child.
- Recognise stresses placed on families, dual careers, economic uncertainty, care for the elderly grand parents and care for younger children and information that bombard children from various media including print, television, video games and computer technology (cf par 2.2.10; 2.5.3; 2. 6.1.2).
- Work as a team member with each family.
- Admit to family members that you may not have all the answers to the child's problem but you are prepared to assist.
- These visits may last for an hour.

- Chaotic and homeless families may shun the teacher's home visits; however, alternative venues may be used such as: a library, or having a picnic in a local park. These alternatives provide one-to-one attention and an opportunity for enhanced communication and understanding relative to the child.
- Children who experience one hour of the teacher's undivided attention feel special and important.

2.6.4.5 Class Parent Committees

Kruger (2002:59) claims that involvement of parents in smaller groups will encourage them to do so at macro level. This observation is also supported by Everard and Morris, (1996:156). Kruger further advises that parents should choose their own executive committees in a democratic way and plan their programme of action for a year in confirmation with the school education managers.

2.6.4.6 Opportunities for Contact

Van Schalkwyk (1993:189) advises schools to open up opportunities for contacts in a form of: a) parents' evenings and open days, and, b) scheduled appointments with specific parents. He further suggests that schools must try in all their endeavours to have contacts with uninvolved parents at such gatherings.

2.6.4.7 Drawing up an annual programme

According to Kruger (2002:59), all projects, activities, meetings and contact opportunities agreed upon should be drawn in a calendar of events for a year and these events should clearly fit in easily in the academic and instructional programme of the school.

It is against this background of abundance in which education managers can operate in as they try to adopt and adapt PI programmes to suit the environments they will be working in within a TQM framework. What education managers need to know is that there is no "one-size-fits all"

parent programme and schools must modify these models to meet the needs of their communities (Barrera & Warner, 2006:72). Education managers should also be aware that what works well in one school may not work in another because communities around the country are varied and represent different demographics, cultural differences, professional and organisational socialisation problems and community expectations (Glanz, 2006:20). According to that view, effective PI models must respond to the cultural traits and values of ethnic populations (Barrera & Warner, 2006:72). Little wonder that Patrikakou et al (2005:8) summarise the involvement models into two broad types: at home and at school. In the former it involves parents helping with homework whereas in the latter parents should attend to school events. The two institutions in their view should be linked with communication which is considered as a catalyst of PI activities at home and at school.

2.6.4.8 Conclusion

Kruger, like Epstein and Comer, advocates a well-constituted management team comprising all stakeholders as a way of tapping the various skills, talents and knowledge they possess (cf par 2.6.1.7; 2. 6.3.4). These people will have their responsibilities and duties delineated according to their specialised abilities they are endowed with (cf par 2.6.2.5). Management, acknowledging the various potentials each one of the players has, will come in to coordinate the activities of the committees established. There is need for education managers to create a welcoming climate by democratising the organisational structures of the institution if these volunteers are to be forthcoming. An open-door policy would be ideal here (cf par 2.6.4.2). Moreover, education managers also need to organise seminars and workshops involving all those people who have a stake in the affairs of the school (cf par 2.6.1.6; 2.6.4.3). At such gatherings, issues such as parenting styles (cf par 2.6.1.1) should be discussed and government policies and statutes which provide policy on the extent of involvement (cf par 2.6.4.3) should be explained. Similarly, the vision and mission of the institution should be discussed so as to accommodate whatever ideas the parents may have so as to strike a balance between what parents' desire and what schools do. Even, when they are called upon to reinforce learning at home (cf par 2.5.3; 2.6.1.4); they need to know how far they can go. In that manner both parents and education managers become genuine and knowledgeable partners in the educative process (cf par 2.6.1.7).

It is also at such platforms that the ideal mode of communication which is meant to reach everyone must be adopted by consensus (cf par 2.6.1.2; 2.6.2.4). Since the idea here is to adequately communicate with all the stakeholders, there is nothing wrong to agree on the language to be used instead of taking things for granted. There is also need to encourage informal means of communication to prevail at social gatherings (cf par 2.6.1.2), so as to tap information from the less vocal parents at such meetings in a relaxed atmosphere. In some cases, parent evenings (cf par 2.6.4.4) may be used to reach the ever busy and less involved parents as attempts are made to get everybody on board. Where home visits are used as information gathering tools, consent should be sought and these should not be used to spy on the private life of the child as advised by Springate and Slegelin (1999:63). Akin to Epstein, Swap and Comer, Kruger advises education managers to have parent committees which are democratically elected (cf par 2.6.1.5; 2.6.2.4; 2.6.3.2). It is such committees which may be used to draw up an annual or term calendar of events which will be availed to all parents. This becomes the school's road map to be adhered to. In that light, this literature review becomes the benchmark of what obtains in schools as parents are empowered and the school management process is decentralised so as to accommodate PI programmes. In the next section attitudes of both parents and education managers which either promote or hinder the management of PI programmes are discussed.

2.7 ATTITUDES OF PARENTS AND EDUCATION MANAGERS TOWARDS PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES

2.7.1 Introduction

Studies on PI indicate that the major barrier to parent-community-relationships is the attitudes of parents, staff and education managers (Lareau, 2000:33). In this regard, positive attitudes enhance the promotion and support of the changes brought about by this new dispensation; negative ones serve as gate-keepers (Gu, 2008:8). Since the literature reviewed has acknowledged that PI can be critical to a child's academic success, yet the education community still knows very little about the impact of specific programmes (Cooper & Christe, 2005:2248), there is need therefore for education managers to contend with the views started below and those

referred to earlier on (cf par 1.2) if their school goals are to be realised within this context. The aim of this section, therefore, is to identify the attitudes of both parents and education managers towards PI programmes and demonstrate how these affect the management process.

2.7.2 Attitudes of SDC/A Chairpersons towards Parental Involvement Programmes

Extensive research conducted in the US have revealed that some parents of high-achievers do not want to be involved in the education of their children as they do not see the logic of doing so (Dun & Booth, 1996:10). Consistent with this view are that working-class parents are less likely to attend to school events as compared to their middle-class counterparts (Gu, 2008:8). In both instances, parents claim that they do not have time to do so (Gu, 2008:8; Lareau, 2000:7). Parsons (1994:22), although seems to agree with the time constraints which usually lead to disengagement by working-class parents, he also criticises the cultural set up in schools which he thinks favours parents of higher socio-economic status as compared to the lower ones. Education managers with no background information to non-involvement may misconstrue this to mean that such parents neither care nor value the education of their children (Knopf & Swick, 2006:293). Such careless remarks may have a ripple effect on the attitudes of parents towards PI. Education managers in this context according to Knopf and Swick (2006:293) must remember that non-involvement may be caused by lack of resources such as transport or school events could be coinciding with the parents' busy schedules aspects which need to be taken care of if all parents are to be brought on board.

Similarly, some parents may withdraw from school functions and parental programmes because of their past experiences with the school set up. With some, uncertainty and insecurity of subject matter and a dearth of educational materials in the home could be one of the deterrents to their reinforcing school instruction at home (Hampton & Mumford, 1998:417). While others, could be traumatised by their own bad experiences at school with their teachers (Long, 2007:29). For instance, if their past school experiences were pleasant and successful, they are likely to enjoy visiting the school again, but if their experiences were filled with failures and disappointment, whether real or imagined, the thought of school is depressing (Berger, 2007:98). The latter group of parents will feel intimidated and uncomfortable due to their limited educational background

(Long, 2007:30; Heystek, 2006:476). Such parents will even remain silent and alienated when it comes to parental programmes as they think that their inputs at conferences will not be considered (Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:26). They are also the same parents who will go further and complain that they are sidelined and never consulted when important issues regarding their child's schooling and the family-teacher-relationship are discussed (Knopf & Swick, 2006:291), yet in reality, they feel disempowered by the prevailing status quo (Glanz, 2006:23). Parents of this nature would need a supportive environment and should be provided with assistance in order to navigate the intricacies of a school (Glanz, 2006:23).

Disengaged parents do not take kindly when they are called upon by school authorities to solve their children's disciplinary problems (Joshi, Eberly & Konzal, 2006:12; Engvall, 2002:481). They argue that it is the responsibility of teachers and education managers to manage problematic behaviour independently, for that is what they are paid for (Darch, Mia & Shippen, 2004:26). They further claim that if the child's behaviour is disruptive at school, it is the teacher's responsibility to manage that kind of situation and they will only take care of it if it arises at home. It is also such parents who will claim that they are already involved in the education of their child when they engage in parenting skills by virtue of being parents (cf par 2.1; 2.2; Long, 2007:30). Such parents seem to subscribe to the notion which states that they are to provide basic needs for their children and to instil strong values and respect in their children while schools are to teach the children (cf Mitra, 2006:457).

Apart from that, research evidence has also revealed that some of these parents will claim that they are involved when they drop their children at school and pick them up at the end of the day without even having an informal discussion with the teachers or any other adult (Lareau, 2000:46). Galloway (2006:257) refers to such parents as 'dry-cleaner' ones who drop off their children expecting them to be 'cleaned up' by the time they are picked up after school. The most arrogant ones do not even bother to come out of their cars and they neither know the education manager of their school nor the teacher of their child (Lareau, 2000:46). A sorry state in as far as school-family relationships are concerned, which needs prompt addressing by education managers.

On a positive note, there are parents who, according to Knopf and Swick (2006:298), claim that it is their social responsibility to be involved in school activities by actually being present, while others believe that high visibility in the school is a signal of disrespect or lack of confidence in their child's teachers. Teachers, on the other hand, do not have a problem with the latter group but the former one, who claim that their involvement is their constitutional right (Lareau, 2000:114). In such situations, cases of parents being meddlesome in the teacher's professional responsibilities are registered. Such parents become so powerful that they influence staffing at schools, the reassigning of a non-performing teacher and even suggest the kind of curriculum to be followed (Lareau, 2000:30). They also go further to suggest the methodology to be used by teachers and tests to be administered to their children. Although controversial, the approach focuses on the customer who is the parent who acts on behalf of his/her child in this case. TQM gurus who subscribe to this thought argue that the customer must be listened to and his/her views should be taken into account, both in the formal mechanisms of the school choice and in the approaches to management within the school (Davies & Ellison, 1997:12).

In extreme cases the so-called "meddlesome parents" in Lareau's (2000) study suggest that their child be included in a gifted programme even if s/he did not merit such preference. School authorities, fatigued by these unsolicited interventions and unwarranted pressures succumbed to such demands by making such pupils attend these programmes as guest pupils (Lareau, 2000:33). Little wonder that education managers faced with such a situation developed apathy towards parental programmes. In most cases of this nature, literature reveals that parents and education managers pull in different directions without necessarily being aware of what is happening (Joshi, Eberly, & Konzal, 2005:12). The child is in the middle, receiving one set of messages at home and another one at school (Joshi, Eberly & Konzal, 2005:12). The onus in this respect is incumbent on the education manager, who should reconcile these contradictions for the benefit of the child in a tactful and diplomatic manner (Lareau, 2000:163) as both parties have a wealth of experience to offer and at the centre of it all is the child's education which matters.

Equally important in this respect are the negative relationships between parents and teachers which if not checked can be disastrous and chaotic. Teachers informed by Piaget's pedagogical theories of acquisition of knowledge (Baloyi, 2003:16; Springate & Slegelin, 1999:100) may

advise that a particular child repeat a grade. Parents who lack this knowledge may perceive this action as a sign of educational failure and embarrassment on their part (Lareau, 2000:43) while teachers informed by the learning theories may consider it as late maturity (Lareau, 2000:30). However, upper middle-class families may consider this kind of approach as normal; whereas, the working-class families may take it with a pinch of salt, let alone, the Chinese parents (cf par 2.3.3). In severe cases and where teachers are careless with the usage of language, the latter may pass disparaging remarks which may imply that backward pupils are a reflection of their parents' background (Gaetano, 2007:12). When such a potential situation for conflict is not well handled by the education manager, it can dampen the attitudes of parents to the detriment of their children's education. The situation is aggravated when both parent and teacher/ education manager are not knowledgeable in the area of PI (Hung, 2007:116; Kruger, 2002:45). Where education managers are of a lower economic-status than the complaining parent (Lareau, 2000:7), parents have a tendency of shunning such school authorities and despising them.

2.7.3 Attitudes of Education Managers towards Parental Involvement Programmes

In the same way parents find PI programmes time consuming,, the already overburdened education managers and their teachers, who are fatigued due to burnout, may find it equally taxing and limited by time constraints (Deplanty, Coulter-Kern & Duchane, 2007:362). They do not understand how paraprofessionals such as parents with limited educational background (Van Wyk, 2000:4) can be brought on board in issues of academic importance such as assisting in homework and skill acquisition (Burke & Picus, 2001:11). Instead, they continue to see parents as problematic and excess baggage schools can do without (Fitzgerald, 2004:22). Van Wyk's (2000:4) research, which revealed that education managers were concerned by parents who got information from the "grapevine" and used it to cause conflicts in schools, corroborates this notion. Little wonder that such education managers play the role of gate keepers and insulate their institutions by structuring them in such a way that they are not approachable (Gu, 2008:8).

In addition, education managers make the life of uneducated parents unbearable by speaking to them in vague and long sentences punctuated with professional jargon (Lareau, 2000:7). They go further to demand a 'professional-client relationship' with both parents and children. They view

education as a round-the-clock experience in which parents can and should play a role in supplementing the classroom experience by preparing children for school, reinforcing the curriculum and showing support by attending to school events (Lareau, 2000:7). Although they seem to be acknowledging the interdependence which exists between the home and school, not the separation, such education managers prefer parents to be involved in peripheral issues of the curriculum such as fund raising, not the core ones (Gu, 2008:8). In the process parents feel that the education manager is making them feel inferior by claiming many a time to have superior qualifications (Heystek, 2006:478). They further claim that parents do not have the knowledge and expertise to provide appropriate learning activities for their children (Hung, 2007: 116; Kruger, 2002:45; Van Wyk, 2000:4). They also believe that such parents only become vocal when there is an academic crisis involving their own child or when school funds have been misappropriated by the school staff (Galloway, 2006:257), a time bomb of which education managers should be wary (Long, 2007:30). These are some of the traditional views which education managers may encounter and tolerate as they try to globalise the school community. In this context, involving parents in power-sharing activities and re-channelling their energies towards school goals would calm the situation to a certain extent (Long, 2007:30).

Moreover, education managers need to be wary of the social status of parents which may impact heavily on the perceptions of the classroom practitioner as they interact with the learners. Teachers in this context were found to discriminate with learners according to class (Lareau, 2000:24). To a certain extent, this kind of thinking somehow influenced the grouping of learners and the selection of methodology to be used (Lareau, 2000:24). Some of these teachers went further to conclude that uncaring and negligent parents in their view were those who turned over to them the whole responsibility of educating their children (Lareau, 2000:15). Instead they preferred those who played an active role in preparing children for school such as assisting them in homework and those who reinforced the curriculum at home (Gaetano, 2007:149). They further argued that the deliberate ploy by parents to dump their children at school and forget about them until dismissal time made them appear as if they were social workers not educators (Lareau, 2000:15), a label they disliked. The teacher's plight was worsened by those parents who viewed teaching as a job which takes place during the week at specified times and the weekend was for resting, let alone a holiday (Lareau, 2000:28).

What perhaps is needed in both scenarios are in-service type of workshops centred on two-way communication systems meant to make both parties realise the role partnerships can play in the growth and development of learners (Gu, 2008:8). This notion is supported by Van Wyk (2000:4), who claims that parents with low-occupational and education status seem to lack confidence in their ability to understand educational challenges and fear teachers as equals. The worst culprits are those who distrust and fear the school system that had failed them so badly in their own childhood (cf Berger, 2007:98; Giles, 2006:270; Glanz, 2006:23; cf Long, 2007:29). These negative perceptions by parents made them view schools as alien worlds and left everything to happen in the hands of teachers (cf par 2.3.2; Lareau, 2000:112). In this view, both formal and informal interactions need to be encouraged by education managers so as to facilitate PI programmes.

Finally, attitudes reviewed suggest that education managers although regarded in high esteem by parents as they are specialised in professional issues and should accommodate parents to tap the potential, skills, resources and expertise they are endowed with for the purposes of accomplishing school goals. What education managers need to know is that a school is one of those institutions responsible for socialising pupils into a dominant culture and that can be achieved by recognising parents as primary transmitters of that culture (Gaetano, 2007:148). On the other hand, education managers should be geared for friction with parents as they try to operationalise whatever PI programmes they would put in place. This kind of friction is inevitable between the producers and consumers of education services. Consumers expect high quality services all the time and the public sector has a problem of producing these quality services (Davies & Ellison, 1997:15). Thus, PI programmes do not happen in a smooth fashion as delineated in the literature reviewed, skirmishes are bound to crop up here and there. Similarly, education managers will be making the position of parents very difficult if their involvement is not well communicated and legislation on involvement is not well interpreted through purposefully designed workshops (Van Wyk, 2000:5).

2.8 CONCLUSION

Literature reviewed has demonstrated that lack of adequate financial, human and material resources in schools has necessitated a paradigm shift in the provision of education (Lareau, 2000:5; Nziramasanga, 1999:10). Developed countries such as the US have decentralised some of their school functions to the community tailored on the Head Start policies (cf Patrikakou et al, 2005:109) with the support of their ruling presidents and their federal governments (cf Domina, 2005:233), hence the global desire for parental involvement in the provision of education (cf Nziramasanga, 1999:22). The mandated NCLB Act (cf par 2.2.10), The Improving the American School Act (cf par 2.2.11) and the Anti-drug Media Campaign (cf par 2.3.13) make landmark developments in the area of PI. Parents in that light were involved in character education, Maths assessment tests and decisions such as the choice of the school, recruitment of teachers and the curriculum to be pursued are part of parents' quest for quality education. To that end, funds meant to enhance reading programmes and the service delivery of teachers were provided by the state. All these attempts were done by consensus and parents were adequately consulted through well established communication networks with double feedback loops.

New democratic governments such as that of South Africa (Zimbabwe included) propelled by the racial imbalances which were prevalent in their countries and the revolutionary thinking of the time, adopted transformational policies which were meant to address the anomalies which existed before independence as equity was sought in their attempts to transform society (cf par 2.4.1). Realising the magnitude of the crisis and the demand for education vis-à-vis the resources at hand they decided to legalise the responsibility of providing education to the populace within their communities (cf par 2.4.1). This was no mean achievement to the South African government whose development policies were dominated by apartheid. The White dominated parental bodies continued to resist the rationalisation of resources based on equity which they considered to be political (cf Frielinghaus, 2005:3). Coupled with that are the contradictions which usually arise due to the separation of powers between the SGB and professional staff with the former group being dominant (cf Heystek, 2006:474; RSA, 1996a). This has created a notion that parents control schools, more so, with the appointment of teachers in their hands (cf par 2.4.4). Despite these controversial issues, the researcher is convinced that the South African

experience offers one of the best models of decentralisation, democracy in school governance and empowerment which can be used for benchmarking what is being experienced in Zimbabwe (cf par 1.5).

The transformational thrust adopted by both the US and the South African government was based on the premise that parents as primary educators, nurturers and caregivers for their children, possess an ocean of experience, potentials, skills, talents and expertise which needed to be tapped by education managers for the benefit of the learner (cf Berger, 2007:3; Glanz, 2006:2; Patrikakou et al 2005:1). Documented benefits for the learners include higher grades and test scores, better attendance, more positive attitudes and behaviour and higher graduation rates which have been highlighted (cf Glanz, 2006:13; Patrikakou et al 2005:4), above all reading proficiency (cf Berger, 2007:26; Lareau, 2000:19).

On the other hand, classroom practitioners who have embraced the concept of parental involvement have had their pedagogical skills improved as well (cf par 2.5.3). In the process, involved parents have been urged to provide an enabling environment at home where their children will engage in educational discourse with them, read to them and assist them (children) in doing their homework in their attempt to reinforce the curriculum activities at home (cf Patrikakou et al 2005:69). In such a scenario, the home becomes the extension of the school and learning goes beyond the official walls of the classroom (cf Lareau, 2000:24; Patrikakou et al 2005:154). For such home-community relations to be on course, workshops and seminars based on a two-way communication system should be put in place by informed education managers so as to link the family relationship to school goals (cf Berger, 2007:140; Glanz, 2006:16; Patrikakou et al 2005:7). This is on the assumption that both education managers and parents want to be involved but do not know how and how far (cf Berger, 2007:27; Lareau, 2000:74). The situation becomes worse if the education manager does not have this kind of orientation and is of a lower status than the parents he/she will be dealing with (cf Lareau, 2000:7).

The new dispensation on PI programmes demands that proactive education managers adopt the TQM principles if they are to bring all those who have a stake in the affairs of the school on board (cf Kanji, 1996:6). TQM principles demand that parents be true allies in the provision of

education (cf Glanz, 2006:75). Such parents should be engaged in continued educational opportunities so that they become educators at home (cf Glanz, 2006:17) and volunteers in the classroom (cf Berger, 2007:264). They should be involved in the core business of the school not peripheral and narrow ones such as chaperoning trips, cake sales and fund raising activities or being used as window dressers in PTOs/PTAs (cf Baloyi, 2003:16; Glanz, 2006:19). Chinese home-based approach to involvement compels parents to be involved not only in homework and reading at home, but in exam preparation (cf par 2.3.3). However, such engagement would need professional checking if it is not to exert too much pressure on the learner. The embracement of the philosophy of partnership in this regard should involve the sharing of power and responsibilities and the adoption of strategic planning by education managers (cf Glanz, 2006:16; Lareau, 2000:8). They also need to be aware that success in the implementation process does not come overnight. In that regard, PI programmes become a process not an event; hence, the need for one to be magnanimous when it comes to planning (cf Lareau, 2000:70).

Since any change process threatens the status quo and those involved in it live in perpetual fear and stressful conditions (Lareau, 2000:10), there is need for education managers to contend with the negative attitudes raised in this literature review section (cf par 2.7). Both teachers and parents seem to demand much according to Swap's notion (cf Kgaffe, 2001:19). Teachers defend their profession at all odds and consider parents who are informed and well engaged as meddlesome (cf Lareau, 2000:32). The traditional Chinese non-involvement approach which regards teachers as sacrosanct and professionally privileged to deal with any educational process of any magnitude would be preferred by some teachers as it would barricade their professional territory and avert would be conflicts between parents and them. Such a situation, although undemocratic, would only be feasible in a highly centralised system which is exam oriented and populated by illiterate parents as exposed by the Chinese experience (cf par 2.3.4)

On the other hand, when parents empowered by statutes go to an extent of influencing the staffing of teachers, re-assigning non-performers and deciding on the curriculum to be taught to their children as well as the methods to be used in the process (cf Lareau, 2000:30), they need checking. Such a situation, if not well handled by education, managers can be a potential source for organisational conflict between parents and teachers (cf Lareau, 2000:165; Baloyi, 2003:16).

It becomes worse when parent gossip (the grapevine) affects non-performing teachers (cf Van Wyk, 2000:4). When parents behave in the manner delineated above, it may brew negative relationships between parents and education managers (cf par 2.4). Critics of South Africa's PI programmes have advanced that the separation of school power into governance and administration is not clearly delineated by the statute, hence, causing certain ambiguities (cf Heystek, 2006:474).

What perhaps educators need to know in this context is that, although they possess appropriate skills that can assist parents, in large measure, keen education managers should acknowledge that parents possess unique relationships with their children that educators can capitalise on (Glanz, 2006:22). Failure to acknowledge this may make parents feel disempowered and in turn, they become withdrawn and apathetic (Glanz, 2006:23), hence, derailing the process of decentralisation which schools yearn for.

In conclusion, although some contemporary literature reviewed has refuted that all parental involvement programmes lead to academic success (Patrikakou et al 2005:135), this is a scenario which must serve as an eye-opener to the education manager. This view is further confirmed by Epstein's (1991) study (cited in Mncube, 2009:1) which revealed that gains in achievement may occur only in subjects in which parents feel confident about their ability to support their children's learning. All things being equal, it appears PI has more net gains than failures (cf par 2.5.3). According to Glanz (2006:2), schools as communities have two major functions: the promotion of quality academic learning for all students and the socialisation of the group into the experience and practice of the community itself. The former function is further supported by Darch, Miao and Shippen's (2004:25) research which revealed that higher achieving schools have greater parent satisfaction. The latter is based on Hillary Rodham Clinton's speech on community leadership which claimed that it takes the whole community to educate children, hence the need for partnership relationships (Glanz, 2006:12). Education managers in their pursuit of these partnership relationships need to be sensitive to ethnic, cultural differences, social backgrounds and community expectations if they are to bring parents on board (Berger, 2007:98; Glanz, 2006:20; Patrikakou et al 2005:89).

Motivated by the literature reviewed, particularly the benefits which accrue to the learners, the school and the community as PI programmes are operationalised, the researcher decided to investigate the management of PI in the Zimbabwean government primary schools within a TQM framework. The researcher is convinced that the TQM philosophy can deliver the desired aims of this research as opposed to the traditional modes of management which had the Taylorism school of thought as a dominant feature. The latter bordered on inspection which was more fault finding than preventative (cf par 2.1.5). The former shuns inspection but calls for formative evaluation to be put in place so as to continuously improve the system as it is being operationalised (cf par 2.1.5). This is so because education is a service industry which deals with the complexities of humans (cf Sallis, 1996:11). Products and processes in the industry can be recycled or reversed but not so with humans. Little wonder that where defects are observed, these can be corrected with the second group of learners, hence, the notion that education institutions can get things right the second time around not the first as advocated for by quality gurus (cf Sallis, 1996:11). Since the new dispensation and TQM framework are innovations in the educative process, such changes are bound to unsettle the status quo of organisations. According to that view, the attitudes of both parents and education managers which either promote or hinder the implementation process will be investigated as well (cf par 2.7). The role democratically elected PTOs/PTAs (cf par 2.6.4.8) play in the involvement, implementation and management process and both primary/secondary statutes which led to the formation of school governing bodies in Zimbabwean schools coupled with their formal mode of operation will be the concerns of Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE

THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK WHICH GOVERNS THE MANAGEMENT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES IN ZIMBABWEAN SCHOOLS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Global competition demands that schools stand shoulder to shoulder with the best if they are to have a place to stand in this world of stiff competition and survival (Davies & Ellison, 1997:15). In that light, the adoption of TQM as a new paradigm shift in the educational management domain calls for a participative style of management with other community stakeholders to achieve competitive performance as it evolves out of Taylorism (cf Kanji, 1996:110). Schools can only realise this dream through well-orchestrated PI programmes. In that light, the purpose of this subsection of literature review is to explore and discuss the legal framework which demarcates the PI domain within the TQM framework. This will enable education managers to devise turnaround strategies which will respond to the rapidly changing nature of the school as it embraces legislation that emanates from the involvement school of thought (Parsons, 1994:19).

Since TQM aims to “Get it right the first time, every time” so as to reduce avoidable costs (Algozzine et al 2005:178), this can be achieved through a management quality audit (cf par 3.2). The aim of any audit is to assess the operational readiness of any institution before a TQM initiative is adopted. The devolution of power to both local communities and authorities through a process of decentralisation (cf par 3.3) brought non-professionals into the management arena (cf Fitzgerald, 2004:6) as a holistic type of education was sought (cf par 3.4) and attempts were made to show how the new dispensation included them legally through the dictates of Vision 2020 (cf par 3.4). The chapter goes further to show how holistic education and Vision 2020 are intertwined as both centre on the home and family, hence, demanding a collective approach to the realisation of quality education within a TQM framework (cf par 3.3; 3.4).

Thereafter, the ZANU PF Manifesto (cf par 3.6), believed to be the foundation of the educational reforms which swept across Zimbabwe in the 1980s to redress the racial anomalies of the past in

education, is explored. The document is considered to be the blueprint of all the policies that followed thereafter as attempts were made to democratise and universalise the education system. Attempts have also been made to show how the ruling government of the time responded to these colonial concerns by the promulgation of several Acts of Parliament (cf par 3.8; 3.9; 3.10) which sought to address the racial discriminatory anomalies of the past and localise the management of education (cf par 1.2). As a result of these statutes, the 1990s witnessed a paradigm shift in the area of educational management. The political debate of that time was that the costs and demands for educational provision were outstripping the available revenue (cf Kanji, 1996:113). According to that view, the Zimbabwean government had no choice, save to bring parents on board through the SDCs/SDAs statutory instruments (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2). The assumption was that communities, through legalised PI governing boards, would argue the meagre resources which government was trying equitably to rationalise as a way of bridging the gap caused by the racial educational policies of the past (cf par 1.2).

However, both professionals and parents resisted out of fear of the unknown as each party tried to defend its territory amid the growing realities of the economy. While education managers viewed parents as meddling in severe cases (cf par 1.1; cf Lareau, 2000:3), some parents took the statutory boards as springboards to settle their personal scores with educational authorities (cf Baloyi, 2003:16) and such hostilities almost left the illiterate parents in the cold. In that way, the education of the children was compromised. On the other hand, communities such as those which were dominated by Whites, made long strides in the development of infrastructure and service delivery. Galvanised by the positive developments which were taking place in private, independent and White dominated schools, government had no choice but to legalise PI as it sought to reap the benefits referred to in this thesis (cf par 5.2.3) amid the growing concerns of the teachers who thought the statutes disempowered them. It is through these statutes that the researcher has sought to ascertain whether both education managers and parents were aware of the juridical requirements of PI programmes within a TQM initiative as this dispensation is implemented in government schools in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province.

3.2 A QUALITY AUDIT

Proponents of TQM nowadays call for quality and quality in their view is characterised by increased customer satisfaction through continuous improvement (cf Oakland, 1999:297). To achieve this, everybody needs to be brought on board and the process must begin with a quality audit (Kanji, 1996:78). This institutional quality audit is an introspection of the organisation (the school) with regards to its strengths and weaknesses so as to work on the areas of improvement as excellence is sought (Kanji, 1996:1). The areas which need assessment are: funding, administration structures, management skills available and the morale of the employees as the school works towards the quality initiative (Algozzine et al 2005:178), The involvement of all the stakeholders (in this case, parents) at the initial stages is what makes TQM a holistic approach to management (Kanji, 1996:87) since it is believed that, all members of the organisation should participate in the improvement of the processes, products, services and culture of the institution they work in (Algozzine et al, 2005:178). The argument which is always advanced is that education should not be offered for the school's sake but for the child, family, community and the whole social system for the purposes of developing the child intellectually, culturally, morally, emotionally, socio-economically and physically (Gelsthorpe & West-Burnham, 2003:142).

Even in the UK, transformational education managers did not want to be left behind. They adopted the TQM philosophy as they wanted schools to play their part in national economic competitiveness (Kanji, 1996:135). Pressure was on raising pupil achievement against the growing realisation that costs and demands for educational provision by the public purse were outstripping the available revenue (cf Kanji, 1996:113). According to that view, the situation on the ground called upon education managers with a philosophy which would enable them to be self-critical, self-reflective and analyse teamwork as demanded by the principles and procedures of TQM (Lomax, 1996:66).

By the same token, according to Algozzine et al (2005:178), the following organisational principles of TQM need to be put in place (if they are found to be non-existent) during a quality audit as they are preconditions for innovative management:

- A clear and constant purpose. This refers to the development and continuous refinement of the vision and mission statement by both education managers and the parent board.
- System thinking. This entails recognising and studying the casual relationships between processes and outcomes.
- Customer focus. It involves attending to the real needs of the parents and learners to a certain extent, who work in the organisational processes and the expectations of those who receive or inherit organisational products and services.
- Leadership. This involves promoting the organisational mission and reducing or eliminating system barriers to its attainment.
- Management by fact. The use of process and outcome data to make decisions.
- Continuous process improvement. Prioritising, piloting and improving organisational processes.
- Participatory management. It involves the use of workers/parents in planning and implementing improvement to attain the mission.
- Human resource development. It involves investing in workers/parents as the most efficient means of attaining the organisational mission. In this case, ignorance can be overcome by training, workshops and staff development programmes.
- Teamwork. This involves breaking down the bureaucratic nature of the organisation to facilitate parent cooperation across functions in organisational processes.
- Long-term commitment. Avoiding short-term solutions by functioning with the long term mission in mind.

When all these quality assurance indicators have been assessed through a quality audit, those which are found absent need to be addressed by both education managers and stakeholders who have been brought on board so as to facilitate the TQM initiative. In this view, the quality assurance strategy must get into the habit of involving improvement to the quality management system, getting into a cycle of continuous improvement and establishing a system of innovative management (Mendez, Casadesus & Gurana, 2006:317). This kind of approach recognise that the quality of products and outcomes is the direct result of the quality of the processes or systems that produce them which is the essence of TQM (Algozinne et al 2005:176).

In addition to the quality audit enumerated above, research conducted by Gill (2008:35) posits that schools which seek to adopt turnaround strategies within a TQM framework may adopt the following approaches which were found to be workable in the private sector:

- High expectations need to be set and flexibility should be the key word with regard to how education managers, teachers and learners go about meeting them. The bureaucratic constraints need to be unravelled and educators should be allowed greater freedom in solving problems. They also need to be held accountable for whatever they do within the given frame with adequate resources and a few restrictions.
- Reformers should not hesitate to change education managers or leaders to jump-start the turnaround process. Leaders who over stay in an institution may play the role of gate-keepers and may therefore insulate the organisation against change.
- Education managers as leaders of institutions should be prepared to invest time and resources required to implement comprehensive measures to avert organisational conflict. Reform in that manner needs to be aggressive and teachers should be prepared to lose their jobs. John Lock (cited in Gill, 2008:32) advanced the following suggestions in this regard:

Sometimes burning the employee manual, making everyone reapply for their job and then axing those structures that created the problems is the only way to convey that you are serious about the turning around an organisation.

- Lastly, reformers should avoid forcing change on the school through organisation-wide, top-down mandates. Instead they should establish high goals for individual teachers and staff, while giving them tools and allowing them flexibility they need to be successful. This will evoke commitment. Ordering teachers to match to orders from administrators does not work. With the right mindset cultivated, the will, drive and training, educators can excel in bringing about organisational change.

What this boils down to is that education managers as reformers should be proactive and knowledgeable first (cf par 1.5; 1.6.2) if they are to transform the culture, expectations and routines of the constituency they will be operating in, not to be “burdened by anachronistic contract provisions, rickety external support, and years of accrued administration incompetence (Hess & Gift, 2008:32), if the above referred to turnaround strategies are to bear fruition.

3.3 DECENTRALISATION

In that context, Zimbabwe realising that it was part of this global community had to adopt a new paradigm shift and new reform strategies for the provision of education as it sought to empower local authorities (Nziramasanga, 1999:21). It was beginning to realise that the universalisation of the education system which was pronounced and adopted in 1980 was no longer sustainable as the government’s financial base had been eroded because of expenditure of providing the requisite infrastructure for education (cf par 2.1.2; Chikoko, 2008:245). Even the majority were advocating for cost-sharing strategies on a dollar to dollar basis (Nziramasanga, 1999: 23). According to that view, central government was left with no choice, save to decentralise some of its functions to local authorities (Chikoko, 2008: 246). The 1987 Education Act and in particular the statutory instruments No 87 of 1992 about SDCs and No 70 of 1993 about SDAs (Chikoko, 2008:247) offer starting points for the decentralisation of functions to lower tiers, in particular for the delegation of management to school level (Zvobgo, 1996:38; 2004:110).

One of the major objectives of decentralisation was the strengthening of local political institutions and increase of people’s participation in development to boost mobilisation of local resources (Zvobgo, 1996:38). Similarly, decentralisation was meant to increase efficiency and effectiveness in government schools with the hope of improving service delivery (Zvobgo, 2004:110). This was in line with the holistic type of education Zimbabwe aspired to provide as spelt out by its Vision 2020 which intended to reform the educational system so that the rich diversity of the spiritual, cultural and moral values were incorporated into the curriculum (Nziramasanga, 1999:1). Vision 2020 regarded the family as the key factor in passing on traditions and moral values to the children and the school was also viewed as an institution with a significant influence through the curriculum (Nziramasanga, 1999:61). In that way, holistic

education would develop a whole person: physically, mentally, spiritually and socially (cf Gelsthorpe & West-Burnham, 2003:142). For such a person to be moulded that way, it needed the involvement of the whole community (Gelsthorpe & West-Burnham, 2003:142), hence, the need for decentralisation in the provision of education as a way of empowering local authorities as central government administration wanted to reduce its direct role in the delivery of the education service (Chikoko, 2008:245; Zvobgo, 2004:110).

3.4 HOLISTIC EDUCATION

Traditionally, according to Nziramasanga (1999:61), the Zimbabwean education system was such that the family and the extended family, the community, took an active part in it and every adult felt responsible for guiding children in what is respectable, ethical and good. He goes further to assert that education was essentially an induction into the culture and cultural norms that interpreted life that guided human relationships and behaviours, in addition to passing on skills for survival (Nziramasanga, 1999: 61). Leading children to what was considered to be a good human being (well behaved and morally upright, characterised by qualities such as responsibility, solidarity, hospitality, devotion to family and the welfare of the community) was the pride of parents and families (Nziramasanga, 1999: 62). This process was guarded with so much concern that any evidence of slackening or problems in behaviour and relationships called for further education and counselling by the extended family throughout life (Nziramasanga, 1999:62). This was so because both parents and teachers believed that character education commenced at home and parents had a key position as role models since much of the values such as self-worth, respect for elders and authority, responsibility and honesty were learnt at home (cf Glanz, 2006:40).

Vision 2020 (cited in Nziramasanga, 1999:74) confirms this perception when it asserts that “the development of an individual’s morality and sense of belonging takes place within the family”, hence the view that the family and home are the first place of learning and of life-long learning which makes them irreplaceable institutions in the learning process (Glanz, 2006:40). For parents to achieve this primary responsibility there is need to provide them with educational opportunities which will enable them to interact with educators for the purpose of developing

such parenting skills (Burke & Picus, 2001:3; Kgaffe, 2001:17). This kind of interaction between educators and parents concurs with the TQM initiative. It demands that through communication the individual must be made to know the direction and aims of the school and training must be put in place so as to enable them to take charge of their improvement in the change processes (cf Hampton & Mumford, 1998:414; Parsons, 1994:21). To that aim, Zimbabwean policy-makers had to put certain statutes in place as a way of legalising the involvement of parents so as to arrest the growing need for education against the background of a shrinking economy as holistic education was sought.

3.5 CONCLUSION

What the above literature review implies is that the Scientific Management School of Thought that characterised the past models of management has outgrown its existence (cf par 3.1). Contemporary theories such as the TQM philosophy which views all players in education as assets should be brought on board as attempts are being made to give the child a holistic type of education (cf par 3.4). Holistic education demands that parents, the significant others and the community participate in the transmission of the cultural, societal and moral values of the family from one generation to another as advocated in Vision 2020 (cf par 3.3). The interaction between educators and parents at the initial stages of a quality audit will no doubt cater for the child's social, mental, physical and spiritual development as both move towards producing a whole being in as far as character education is concerned in a traditional sense (cf par 3.3). In that light, when central government realised that the resources it had were being stretched by the demand for education, it had no option save to legalise the empowerment of parents through decentralisation (cf par 3.3). This was meant to maximise resource mobilisation and also tap the rich cultural diversity of society which was latent in parents. According to that view, for TQM to succeed, the vision of the school needs to be well communicated to all players and those without the skill would need to be trained (cf Darch, Miao & Shippen, 2004:25). In that way the participants become genuine allies in the implementation process.

Since Zimbabwean's independence was brought about through a protracted and bitter revolutionary process, a look at the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) Patriotic Front

(PF) Manifesto would put some of the problems which befell it in their proper perspective as it tried to decentralise its education system amid the racial policies that existed before.

3.6 THE ZANU (PF) MANIFESTO OF 1980

ZANU (PF) was one of the major political parties which waged a liberation struggle alongside the Zimbabwe African People's Union (PF ZAPU) which culminated in the attainment of independence in 1980 (Zvobgo, 1996:40). The party went further to win the first general elections which were held in 1980 and it had the task of forming a government of national unity embracing PF ZAPU and the regime (The Rhodesian Front) they were fighting against. During the colonial era, the policies and political ideology was characterised by racial discrimination in education and society as well ((Nziramasanga, 1999: 1; Zvobgo, 1996:39; 2004:163). These are some of the imbalances and inequalities that the education reforms embarked on in 1980 were meant to eliminate as attempts were being made to democratise the education system (Nziramasanga, 1999: 1; Zvobgo, 1996:39; 2004:163). According to that view, the principles for education which were spelt out in the ZANU (PF) Manifesto of 1980 (p12) were:

- The abolition of racial education in order to develop in the young Zimbabweans a non-racial attitude.
- The establishment of a free and compulsory primary and secondary education for all children of Zimbabwe. There was, therefore, not going to be any discrimination in the provision of education on grounds of colour, creed, tribe, culture, sex, religion, economic, background or ability/disability.
- As stated in (2) above, that sex discrimination in education be abolished.
- Education be considered and recognised by the people of Zimbabwe as a basic right (and not a privilege) for all young as well as the adults.
- Education be utilised to transform society. Education was thus seen as an essential process in bringing about change in the socio-economic life of the people.
- Principally practices such as Education With Production (EWP) were envisaged as revolutionary approaches to the preparation of the young for the world of work.

3.7 CONCLUSION

The abolition of both gender and racial discrimination in the provision of education as it was placed in the category of fundamental human rights by a government which was at its infancy was really a tall order (ZANU (PF) Manifesto, 1980:12). Government was really left with no choice as it had to appease its electorate which was a product of the inequities referred to above as it sought to transform society. Celebrated expansions in infrastructural development in the educational field were registered at the initial stages of development with most of the seed money being provided by the Swedish-International Development Agency (SIDA), the European Union (EU) and foreign governments which were anxious to assist (Zvobgo, 2004:168). However, with time, the harsh realities of the economy made the Zimbabwean authority adopt school-based management strategies meant to involve parents in the provision of education amidst limited resources through a process of decentralisation (cf par 3.3). They were beginning to realise that the universalisation of education (cf par 2.1.2: 3.3) as yearned for in part two of the Manifesto (cf par 3.6) would continue to be a pipedream as long as government wanted to act alone in the provision of education. The ensuing section discusses the Education Act of 1987 with its objectives.

3.8 THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1987

The Education Act of 1987 (p 208) Sections 4, 5 and 6 clearly articulated the fundamental rights which govern the provision of education in the following objectives:

1. (1) Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in any other enactment, but subject to the provision of this Act, every child shall have the right to education.
- (2) No child in Zimbabwe shall be refused admission to any school on the grounds of race, tribe, colour, religion, creed, place of origin, political opinion or the social status of his parents.
2. It is the objective in Zimbabwe that primary education for every child of school-going age shall be compulsory and to this end it shall be the duty of the parents of any such child to ensure that such a child attends primary school.

3. It is the objective in Zimbabwe that tuition for primary education shall be free and the Minister shall encourage the attainment of this objective, in particular by the making of grants and other subsidies to all schools.

What should be recalled here is that, this Act was meant to repeal the Education Act of 1979 which was racist in orientation as it served the interests of the ruling elite who happened to be the white colonial powers (Zvobgo, 1996:40). Furthermore, government wanted to match the European education system which was free and compulsory for all white children, and had a balanced curriculum that prepared learners for the real world of work (Nziramasa, 1999:2). Little wonder that at attainment of independence, the philosophy of EWP was brought to the fore so that the black child would match his/her European counterpart as aspired for by the government (ZANU (PF) Manifesto, 1980:12) in the world of work. Motivated by the Education Act of 1987, the government together with the local authorities forged ahead in their attempts to operationalise Section 4, 5 and 6 of the Act. In 1991, at the height of the education success which had been brought about by the concept of free primary education (Nziramasa, 1999:9), the government, realising the massive expenditure involved in the provision of education amended the 1987 Education Act based on Section 62 read with Section 29A as amended in 1991 and Section 36 as amended in 1996.

3.9 THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1996

The Education Act (Chapter 25:04) of 1996 (p 624) on School Development Committees reads as follows:

1. The assemble authority of every registered school to which a grant is made in terms of Section thirty-six shall establish a committee, to be known as a School Development Committee.
2. A School Development Committee if approved by the Minister shall be vested with the control of financial affairs of the school for which it has been established.
3. The composition, financial and procedure of every School Development Committee shall be prescribed.

This thrust was further revised in the Education Act (Chapter 25:04) of 2006 (p11) under Section 36 entitled as School Parent Assembly and School Development Committee.

3.10 THE EDUCATION ACT OF 2006

This Act reads as follows:

1. Parents or guardians with children at any school shall constitute a School Parents Assembly.
2. The responsible authority of any registered school shall cause the School Parents Assembly to establish a School Development Committee.
3. The composition, function, duties, procedures and powers of SDCs shall be as contained in the constitution of the School Parents Assembly.

What needs to be observed here is that although Section 29A of the 1987 Education Act as amended in 1991 had mandated the formation of SDAs for government schools and SDCs for rural and local authorities, these were being amalgamated to SDCs regardless of authority and location. It is in that light that the statutory instrument No 70 of 1993 which lead to the formation of SDAs may appear to be of little relevance to this study. However, the events on the ground indicate that the name changes have not affected the functions of the current SDCs in government schools as they still refer to this statute. What has changed therefore is the name not the functions hence, its relevance to this study.

3.10.1 The School Development Committee (SDC)

All non- governmental schools are required by law (Section 29A (1), (2), (3) of the Education Amendment Act of 1991, 1996 and 2006 to establish a committee that is known as the School Development Committee (SDC). This Committee has to be approved by the Secretary for Education and Culture. The Committee's composition, functions and procedures are prescribed in Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992. This is generally known as the Education (School

Development Committees) (Non-Government Schools) Regulations 1992. The objects of SDCs as given on (p613) are as follows:

Section 4 stipulates that every SDC shall exercise the functions conferred upon it by Section 29A of the Act and these regulations in order to achieve the following objects-

- a) to provide and assist in the operation and development of the school; and
- b) to advance the moral, cultural, physical and intellectual welfare of pupils at the school; and
- c) to promote the welfare of the school for the benefit of its present and future pupils and their parents and its teachers.

In that regard the powers of the SDCs (p613-614) shall be as follows:

- a) to take all measures that appear to it to be necessary or expedient to preserve and maintain the property and facilities of the school;
- b) to employ or hire staff to serve the needs of the school, on such terms and conditions as the committee may fix with the approval of the Minister (This is akin to the American (cf par 2.2.13) and South African (cf par 2.4.3) experience already referred to in this thesis;
- c) to borrow money on such terms and conditions as the committee considers expedient and to receive grants and donations, whether from parents of pupils at the school or from other persons;
- d) to apply its funds towards the promotion of its objects;
- e) subject to subsection (6) of section 19, to invest such of its funds as not immediately required;
- f) by means of insurance policies, to protect its property and the property of school;
- g) to take professional advice on all matters affecting the committee and to institute, conduct, defend, compound or abandon legal proceedings; and
- h) generally, to do all things that, in the opinion of the committee, are necessary or expedient for, or are reasonably incidental to, the operation, extension and development

of the school in the best interests of its present and future pupils, their parents and its teachers.

3.10.2 The School Development Association (SDA)

Statutory instrument 70 of 1993, generally called the Education (School Development Associations) (Government Schools) Regulation, 1993 is equally based on Section 62 of the Education Act, 1987 as amended in 1991, 1996 and 2006. It provides the establishment of School Development Associations in state or government schools. The objects of SDAs (p620-621) are the same as those stipulated above which relate to SDCs. Their functions and duties are as follows:

- Use the land, buildings and other facilities at the school for educational, sporting, recreational or any other purposes which benefit the school as a whole.
- Assist, operate, develop or extend the school in consultation with the head and approval of the Secretary.
- Help preserve and maintain the school property and facilities in a sound condition fit for the intended purpose.
- Help in the organisation and administration of secular and non-academic activities of the school in consultation with the head.
- Engage or hire additional members of staff. Such teachers, who should be under seventy years of age are engaged in consultation with the head and Secretary, regardless of whether they are full or part-time teachers.
- Engage or hire, in consultation with the head and with the approval of the Secretary, an agreed number of ancillary staff whose qualifications for specified posts shall be approved by the Secretary.
- Ensure that only classes of not less than fifteen children and not more than fifty children start school at the beginning of each academic year.
- Undertake to provide, with prior consultation of the head and Secretary's approval, new buildings and additional facilities, and to carry out any alterations, additions, improvements or repairs to existing buildings.

- Repair any damage caused to property and facilities in the school which its servants or agents or contractors may cause.
- Establish committees or sub-committees to assist expedite the association's work.
- Provide financial assistance to those pupils experiencing financial inadequacy through grants or scholarships.
- Submit, or request, annual audited books of accounts of the association, to the Secretary.
- Charge or impose a levy in respect of each child enrolled at the school.
- Increase levy in any period of not less than twelve months.
- Charge a capital development levy for a fixed number of terms; and
- Submit budgets to justify increase in levy or charge of levy for capital development.

3.11 CONCLUSION

Since the Education Act of 1979 promoted elitism, government had to curb this practice by controlling the levies charged and prohibiting voluntary ones which were known for excluding the underprivileged parents (Zvobgo, 1996:21). By the same token, it was an offence chargeable in the court of law if any child was excluded from school for non-payment of levies (Zvobgo, 1996:21). However, for the purpose of development, schools were also mandated to charge reasonable levies approved by all parents of school going children and to increase these annually with the approval of the Secretary for Education. The latter view was easy to implement in government schools but difficult in private ones. Private schools complained that government took long to approve these and whatever they approved was far below the inflation rate and their requirements (Zvobgo, 1996:22). This resulted in running battles in the court between government and Trust Schools.

A closer look at both statutes will reveal that although both associations were mandated to hire additional staff, that view was more specific on SDAs which were authorised to employ additional teachers with the concurrence of the Secretary for Education. This was meant to reduce the teacher-pupil ratio and improve the educational standards in the schools (Zvobgo, 1996:38), more so that the former Group A schools were still dominated by the White settlers. These had been turned into community schools by the 1979 Education Act and were in the hands

of the financially powerful parents (Zvobgo, 1996:39). Little wonder that government had to control their expansion programmes when it came to infrastructural development unlike those schools under the jurisdiction of the SDCs. These instead were allowed to build schools as long as the plan was approved by the Secretary for Education. On the other hand, SDAs were specifically meant to carry out maintenance work since most of the infrastructure, as part of the regime's apartheid system in education, had already been provided for. Consistent with their geographic location, their level of education and financial clout which they had, parents through approved committees were made to participate in both secular and non-academic issues. They even had no problem in establishing subcommittees for specific functions, academic issues of the school or non-academic ones (Zvobgo, 1996:39).

Of interest to note is the free primary education policy as pronounced in the Education Act of 1987 vis-à-vis the capital development levy charged. The levies charged, although they depended on what communities could afford by then exceeded the school fees paid when learners were made to pay school fees in 1991 (Zvodgo, 2004:160). Obviously, the former Group "A" schools excelled in this area as the majority of parents could afford. In a way, the rationalisation of resources which government wanted to achieve through equity was reversed by this thrust. These are some of the inequalities which are brought about by what the policy document intends to achieve and what really happens on the ground, an anomaly which needs checking by the education manager. Having looked at the statutes which gave birth to the parent body, a discussion of the constitution of the parent body follows.

3.12 MEMBERSHIP OF SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE/ASSOCIATION

Both statutes are very clear on who belongs to these institutions. According to Section 6 clause (1) Subject to subsection (2) and (3), a school development committee shall consist of-

- a) five persons elected, subject to these regulations, by parents of pupils at the school;
- b) the head of the school;
- c) a deputy head of the school;
- d) a teacher at the school, who shall be appointed by the Secretary; and

- e) where the responsible authority of the school is-
 - (i) a local authority, a councillor appointed by the local authority: or
 - (ii) any other authority or body, a person appointed by the authority or body.

- (2) The Secretary may, by written notice to the responsible authority of the school concerned, for the good cause shown, permit a school development committee to consist of persons other than those referred to in subsection (1) or permit a school development committee to consist of more or fewer elected members than the number specified in that subsection.

- (3) If, at the date of commencement of these regulations, a school is managed by the board of governors, the Secretary may, by written notice to the responsible authority of the school, declare that the board of governors shall be the school development committee established for that school.

Provided that the Secretary shall have the right to appoint one person as a member of such a board of governors.

- (4) Where the Secretary has made a declaration in terms of subsection (3), the board of governors concerned shall be deemed to be the school development committee for the school concerned, and the provisions of these regulations relating to the election, appointment and terms of office of members of school development committee shall not apply to the board of governors.

- (5) The Secretary may at any time, by written notice to the responsible authority of the school concerned, revoke any permission granted in terms of subsection (3) or declaration made by him in terms of subsection (4).

The statute (p 616-622) goes further to stipulate that persons declared insolvent or bankrupt and have not been rehabilitated and those with a criminal record shall not stand office. Even a spouse of the person elected to handle finances of the committee is not eligible for any post. The office

bearers are supposed to hold office for a year and thereafter be eligible to stand for re-election. In all cases the head of the school shall remain an ex-officio member of the committee as long as s/he continues to be head of such a school and is regarded as the accounting officer who should superintend the financial books of the committee. In cases of rural schools where the level of literacy may militate against the appointment of a treasurer, the schools through this statute instrument are mandated to choose an honorary treasurer with the concurrence of the Secretary for Education who will also be answerable to the head of the station. Consistent with that view is the establishment of the financial committee which has the jurisdiction of authorising the purchasing of materials for both curricula and capital projects.

For checks and balances, although there are four signatories, any two, one from each party, that is to say, the head/deputy or chairman/treasurer or secretary may sign. This is meant to prevent any act of conspiracy between the separate two parties. The same committee authorises the generation of income at schools be it in the form of civvies, levies, school fees and any other fund raising activities the school may think of. It goes further to authorise monthly payments of purchase vouchers and utilities. In the case of an increase in whatever fees chargeable at the school, if it exceeds ten percent of the fees charged, permission to do so must be sought from the Secretary for Education. The letter motivating the increase must include the following statistics: the budget to justify it, the number of parents present and an explanation on how they voted, those who voted for, against and those who abstained. Moreover, the SDAs/SDCs are expected to submit their audited books of accounts to the Secretary for Education annually for scrutiny before they terminate office. According to that view, it is their legal responsibility to present a financial report to the parent body before any election of new office bearers is done.

However, in the event that the committee or the treasurer or whoever is in charge of finances is suspected to have misappropriated funds payable to the school or its fund or is found to have incurred debt recklessly or without proper regard for the financial resources of the school, is liable to prosecution (p625). The same statute gives the Secretary for Education powers to suspend the committee while investigations are underway and abolish it if it is deemed that funds were misappropriated. Thereafter, the law can be left to take its course.

3.13 CONCLUSION

The legal statutes reviewed are very clear on parental involvement. What this implies is that for any education manager to be effective, s/he must have a clear understanding of the legal framework that governs the parental involvement programme in any given school. Section 29A (1), (2), (3) of the Education Amendment Act of 1991, 1996 and 2006 as manifested in statutory instruments 87 of 1992 and 70 of 1993 on SDCs and SDAs respectively offer these challenges. The conceptual understanding of the legal framework under which schools operate, in relation to community relationships is pertinent because no matter how perfect these legal instruments may be, their implementation in schools, revolve around the education manager. S/He plays a key role in the policy implementation process. In that vein, it is incumbent upon the office bearer to be informed first in the area of PI and secondly in TQM before s/he can go on a crusade of educating the parental bodies which would have been elected for this purpose through workshops and seminars as suggested by Epstein (cf par 2.6.1.7) and Kruger (cf par 2.6.4.8). Such workshops must not be directional but must be characterised by well-planned feedback loops if the views of parents are to be tapped profitably (Fitzgerald, 2004:36). Thereafter, the views of the workshop may be reinforced by giving parents ‘home packs’ on how they could be involved in the education of their children if voluntary acts from them are to be triggered (Fitzgerald, 2004:46). In that manner, perhaps, antagonistic feelings which usually characterise teacher-parent relationships in schools may be minimised or averted.

The “home packs” approach is supported by research findings which were conducted in the UK which lead to the formation of a programme called the “Parent Plus”, for the purpose of involving parents. Such programmes were meant to catch up with the fathers who were often uninvolved due to their busy work schedules (Fitzgerald, 2004:46). The assumption was that when fathers are involved, by virtue of them being breadwinners, everybody else along the line would be involved (Fitzgerald, 2004:57). However, children may need to be guarded against anti-social behaviours of some fathers (Fitzgerald, 2004:57). This kind of thrust was meant to counter the fact that often parents were appointed to such offices and were left to their own devices to run them without the informed interference of a professional hand. In the end, there is usually discord between the values and aspirations which the committee or association was

established for and what obtains on the ground. Instead of parents and education managers spending most of their energies on developing the school, they spent most of it taking each other to court as has been the trend in other institutions (cf Baloyi, 2003:5). What this boils down to is that PI in the educative enterprise is juridical and must be supported at all costs if it is to reap the dividends it is intended for. Thus, an ideal education manager with a TQM orientation would need to adopt an appropriate model (s) (cf par 2.6) to suit the legal framework for the purpose of achieving organisational goals. Flexibility and solace must be derived from the painful truth which states that there is no one prescribed model which is gospel given or foolproof as observed by the gurus of transformational leadership (cf Kanji, 1996:96).

In, conclusion, although PI has been viewed as being meddlesome in some quarters as both education managers and teachers try to protect their professional integrity and sovereignty (cf Lareau, 2000:30), literature reviewed suggests otherwise. It has been acknowledged that parents, due to their parenting role at home have an ocean of experience (cf Springate & Slegelin, 1999:5) which can be used by teachers in their pedagogical practice. Since this century calls for participative styles of management through TQM (Kanji, 1996:73) which seeks to bring all stakeholders on board as quality is sought, there is no way schools can be immune to these global competitive challenges (Nziramasa, 1999:21) if change is part of their vision. Above all, the devolution of power to communities as a form of empowerment as the process of decentralisation takes its toll makes TQM an inevitable tool for school management. Motivated by these revelations and the benefits (cf par 2.5.3) which accrue to the institution, teacher, parent and child when all stakeholders are brought on board, the researcher decided to investigate the management of PI programmes within a TQM framework in state-sponsored schools using a quantitative research design method. The latter is the concern of Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RESEARCH METHODS, PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION, PROCESSING AND THE FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the research methods, procedures of data collection, processing and framework of analysis which were used to conduct the empirical research that investigated the management of PI programmes in Zimbabwean government primary schools with specific reference to Bulawayo Metropolitan Province. Prior to that, the specific research problem and its hypotheses are highlighted (cf par 4.2). Thereafter, the quantitative research design paradigm employed in the search for the truth on the subject is discussed (Best & Khan, 2008:3; Muijs, 2004:5). This design was deemed as appropriate for this study as it has the capacity of collecting large amounts of data and is also flexible in the sense that a number of topics can be studied at anyone given time (Muijs, 2004:60). In that regard, the data of this thesis was collected using the Descriptive-Survey-Method involving pencil-and-paper questionnaires (Greenfield, 2002:172). Similarly, the way the questionnaire items were constructed (cf par 4.4.1) and pilot tested so as to ensure validity and reliability (cf par 4.4.) of the data collected (cf par 4.4.6) is discussed within this context. In the process, the overview of the population (cf par 4.4.6) from which the respondents were drawn is given and the manner in which the research was conducted (cf par 4.4.6) and data processed (cf par 4.4.7) is delineated as well.

4.2 SPECIFIC RESEARCH PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

The inquiry intended to investigate the management of PI programmes in Zimbabwean government primary schools with special reference to Bulawayo Metropolitan Province. From the literature reviewed, it emerged that increasing parental and community participation in the running of local schools and in particular giving more responsibilities has a positive impact on the delivery of educational service (Koross, Ngwane, Sang, 2009:66). Therefore, attempts were made to examine the roles of both parents and education managers within the legal framework of

involvement. Attitudes of participants, which usually emanate from such kind of interaction in the implementation process were ascertained, with the hope of eliminating the negative ones so as to enhance the educative process. To answer the research question empirically, the following guiding questions were asked (cf par 1.4.2; 1.6.2).

- Do education managers view PI programmes as being meddlesome in their professional job?
- Do SDC/A chairpersons and education managers have the technical and juridical expertise of how PI programmes should operate in a partnership manner?
- Do the attitudes of SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers towards PI affect the management process of involvement programmes in operation?
- Do PI programmes enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the educative process?
- Do PI programmes in operation measure up to the historical developments which obtained in other countries?

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study adopted a quantitative approach because it was viewed as an effective way of collecting large amounts of data and is flexible in the sense that a large number of topics can be studied at any given time (cf Muijs, 2004:60). Commonly, quantitative research entails explaining phenomenon by collecting numerical data which are analysed using mathematically based methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:172; Muijs, 2004:11; Wilkinson, 2000:8; Wisker, 2001:135). Furthermore, survey methods involving questionnaires by their nature, attempt to describe the phenomenon under observation precisely using words as viewed at that particular moment (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:4; Wisker, 2001:136). The assumption, according to Muijs (2004:1), is that the “truth is out there and is the job of the researcher to use objective research methods to uncover it.” In that way, objectivity is maximised and the direct involvement of the researcher is minimised, thus reducing biases in the process.

Similarly, a quantitative approach has been adopted here on the assumption that, from a positivist perception, the world works according to the fixed laws of cause and effect (Muijs, 2004:5).

According to that view, scientific thinking is used to test the theories about these laws so as to either reject or provisionally accept them (Muijs, 2004:5). What this means to the researcher is that reliable measurement instruments should be developed so as to objectively study the physical world, hence the use of the pencil-and-answer questionnaire. Moreover, the use of a quantitative paradigm in research is supported by Brannen (1992:7) who found it to be typically associated with enumeration induction. Enumeration induction in this view looks in many cases for characters that are similar and abstracts them conceptually because of their generality, presuming that quantitative research seeks to test hypotheses and its goals are often descriptive (Brannen, 1992:7).

Consistent with the above, the quantitative research design takes cognisance of the representativeness of the sample before any generalisations are made to the parent population in similar conditions on the same variables (Schulze, 2002:11). The authenticity of the sample lies in the use of the probability theory in the selection process as attempts are made to eliminate bias. Findings such as these, which are based on numerous respondents, may be used to draw authentic conclusions that would be applicable to the larger targeted population (Best & Khan, 2008:115; Schulze, 2002:11). Thereafter, statistical calculations with figures and narratives are used in analysing and interpreting results (Wilkinson, 2000:81). From such calculations, statistical inferences are made based on the theoretical assumption that whatever exists in the sample coexists in the parent population (Brannen, 1992:9).

4.4 RESEARCH METHODS

The main data of this research was gathered using the Descriptive Survey-Method alias the Normative Survey-Method, because it seeks to observe a phenomenon in its natural setting for examination and analysis purposes; moreover, it deals with relationships between variables, testing hypotheses and the development of generalisations, principles, or theories that have a universal validity (Grix, 2004: 116; Wisker, 2001:11). Similarly, a survey was found to be ideal in this study because it was easier and quicker for respondents to answer the respective questions and for the statistician to analyse the precoded questionnaires within the specified period. This view is concurred by Chiang (2003:44) who advance that survey research typically provides data

useful for quantitative analysis – analysis that is readily translated into numbers. Therefore, this calls for disciplined inquiry, expertise, objectivity and careful execution of the variables under control, attributes the researcher intends to employ in the quest to develop knowledge and add to existing knowledge (Best & Khan, 2008:114). Since the phenomenon under observation is national, the researcher is convinced that descriptive research studies can lead to generalisations beyond the given sample and situation (Best & Khan, 2008:115; Muijs, 2004:75; Schulze, 2002:11). The appropriateness of this method does not lie in the control it entails so as to permit inferences on the phenomenon under observation, but in the fact that the bulk of the respondents (education managers and Chairpersons included) are literate. Most importantly, surveys are extremely useful techniques for gathering large volumes of information from large numbers of people (Chiang, 2003:111). Thus, two sets of questionnaires were constructed to solicit information from the respondents. The assumption was that since most government primary schools are in the urban areas, the SDC/SDA chairpersons who populate them are literate as alluded to earlier. Above all, both groups of respondents are considered knowledgeable on the issues being addressed in this research (Hoberg, 1999:152).

Armed with these two research tools, the researcher proceeded to gather information using standardised survey questionnaires (Giddens, 1997:544). The pencil-and-answer questionnaires consisting of precoded responses were administered to all education managers and Chairpersons in Zimbabwean government primary schools in the Bulawayo Metropolitan Province. Since both instruments are predetermined and finely tuned technological tools which allow for less flexibility (Brannen, 1992:5), a Likert scale-type of varying responses and a rating scale were employed (Best & Khan, 2008:315). In this context, the researcher was convinced that the use of a standardised questionnaire would make replication of the survey easier at a later date in the same province or others as well.

4.4.1 The questionnaires

There were two sets of questionnaires: for education managers and for SDC/SDA Chairpersons.

4.4.1.1 The questionnaire format for Education Managers

The questionnaire was divided into four sections:

Section A (q1-6) was designed to capture data of a biographical nature from the respondents. This information was of importance to the later responses which were made by the respondents. The items determined the designation of the respondents, experience in that capacity, academic and professional qualifications. Mostly, the nominal scale was applicable in this context.

Section B consisted of items from 7 to 17. It concentrated on the wider definition of the concept of PI and tried to expose the education managers' awareness of it and how they tried to implement it within the legal framework (cf par 1.4.2; 1.5; 1.6.2). Their responses to such questions revealed the management thought they subscribed to as the research sought to either confirm or reject the second hypothesis of this thesis (cf par 1.6.2). In that light, attempts were also made to establish how PI programmes dovetail with the TQM philosophy (cf par 1.4.2). The five-point Likert and ordinal scale were employed in this respect.

Section C comprised items from 18 to 35. It was meant to establish whether education managers who are in pursuit of PI programmes are aware of the benefits which accrue to the learner, parent and school when it is properly implemented (cf par 1.5; 2.5.3). The possible benefits which accrue to the learners, parent and school cited here were meant to synergise both the education manager and parent in the involvement process and synchronise their efforts to achieve that aim. Both scales referred to above were employed here as well.

Section D was made up of three parts. Items 36 to 55 were meant to establish the extent of PI in the educative process with particular reference to decisional, curricula, non-curricula and policy issues (cf par 2.6.1.5; 2.6.3.1; 2.6.4.3) as suggested by various models (cf par 2.6.1; 2.6.2; 2.6.3; 2.6.4) highlighted in this thesis. Responses elicited in this manner established the effectiveness and efficiency of PI programmes in place as they were compared and contrasted to the benchmarks cited in literature reviewed (cf par 1.5). In the process, the model of involvement in place was revealed. Similarly, the section was also meant to find out whether parent

representatives when elected are inducted into the practicalities of the PI programmes (cf par 2.6.1.1; 2.6.3.2; 2.6.4.3) or not. Furthermore, attempts were made to establish the mode of communication (cf par 2.6.1.2) education managers frequently use when relating to parents through item 56 and 64 which Kruger regards as paramount (cf par 2.6.4.4). The crucial issues they discuss with them either formally or informally were also sought through item 65 to 69. Both the Likert-scale and ranking one were employed in this case.

Section E through items 70 to 87 aimed to expose the attitudes of education managers towards the involvement phenomenon (cf par 1.4.2; 1.5; 1.6.2) through the five-point Likert-scale. Since these are considered to be paramount in this research as they either promote or break any innovation in place, education manager's sentiments in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province had to be captured so that they would be measured against those postulated by the literature reviewed on the subject (cf par 2.7.3). The thrust here was to uncover those which were negative with the hope of improving the relationship between the education managers and the parents for the purposes of enhancing the educative process and achieving educational goals. It is at this stage of the thesis that the hypothesis on attitudinal variables were either confirmed or rejected. Where discrepancies were noticed, possible solutions were given based on such findings.

Section F consisted of items 88 to 112. It aimed to ascertain the management style education managers employ in their attempt to implement PI programmes in their areas of jurisdiction (cf par 1.5) using the Likert-scale. The education managers' responses to the statements given enabled the researcher to infer their *modus operandi* on the subject.

Section G was made up of two parts. Items 113 to 120 were meant to measure the extent of the education manager's knowledge of the juridical requirements of the statutes (cf par 1.4.2; 1.5) which have to do with PI programmes in Zimbabwean government primary schools in general and Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in particular. From these responses the researcher was able to ascertain whether education managers are well informed of the legal framework (cf par 3.6; 3.8; 3.9; 3.10.1; 3.10.2) under which PI programmes should be operational or not. Items 121 to 135 were meant to cross check their knowledge and expertise of the statutes by citing operational situations in the educational arena as the decentralisation takes place. In that way, the idea that

non-professionals are meddlesome as hypothesised earlier on would either be confirmed or rejected by the empirical research (cf par 1.6.2).

4.4.1.2 The questionnaire format for SDC/A Chairpersons

Section A (q1-6), like that of the questionnaire for education managers, captured information of a biographical nature so as to ascertain the gender and level of education of Chairpersons using the nominal scale. This revealed whether a follow up interview was required or not since most parents were elected to such posts on the assumption that they had a child at that school regardless of their educational background (cf par 3.10a). Critical to this section is the spouse's educational and employment status. This was compared with that of the respondent to ascertain whether the completion of the questionnaire was an independent or collaborative exercise. Also, information on the type of job respondents were engaged in was sought so as to find out whether it was the employed or retired or unemployed that were mostly involved or uninvolved.

Section B, like that of the questionnaire for education managers, consisted of items 7 to 17. It aimed to ascertain whether parents understood the concept of PI within the legal framework (cf par 1.4.2; 1.5) using the Likert-scale and ordinal one. Parents were being prompted to indicate those areas within the school system they are directly involved in so as to find out whether their area of involvement complies with the conventional definition of PI cited in this thesis (cf par 2.5; 2.5.1) or not. By any standards, the Chairpersons' conceptual understanding of PI would reveal the education managers' *modus operandi*.

Section C was made up of items 18 and 36 similar to the questionnaire completed by education managers. It was meant to ascertain whether parents as genuine allies in the education process had the same perceptions as education managers on the subject (cf par 2.5.3) In that way, the researcher was convinced that knowledgeable parents would constitute a partnership relationship in the educative enterprise as they make positive contributions to the PI phenomenon, thus improving the service delivery on offer. Both the Likert and ordinal scale were employed in either case.

Section D as was the case of the earlier questionnaire was made up of three parts. Items 37 to 56 served as checks and balances to the responses given by education managers on the management of PI programmes under the same section in their questionnaires. The responses of SDC/SDA Chairpersons were crucial here as they were compared to the responses of education managers on the subject and that of literature reviewed. In that manner, their extent of involvement was quantified and the management philosophy of the education manager and model of PI at play were established. Items 57 and 65 aimed to reveal the most frequent modes of communication (cf par 2.6.1.2; 2.6.4.4) education managers employed not as claimed by them but as perceived by Chairpersons. Similarly, items 66 and 70 exposed the major issues discussed between them and parents when they interact either formally or informally. The Likert, ordinal and ranking scales were employed here.

Section E consisted of items 71 to 102. This was intended to establish the attitudes of SDC/SDA Chairpersons (cf par 2.7.2) towards the school, education manager and children's schoolwork using the five-point Likert scale. The attitudes captured here were considered to be crucial as they would reveal whether the school practices were in consonant or at cross purposes with the hopes and aspirations of the parents. The parental attitudes were further compared and contrasted with those of education managers (cf par 2.7.3) against the backdrop of literature reviewed. This was meant to capitalise on the positives as efforts were sought to either eliminate or minimise the negatives. Dealing with the negatives could indicate how the educative process could be improved.

Section F comprised items 103 to 127. It solicited opinions from those who are managed on the subject with the hope of establishing the management philosophy at play. It also served as a comparison with the responses on the subject made by the education managers in their questionnaire.

Section G was made up of two parts. Items 128 to 135 were meant to measure the knowledge and expertise the parent body has in as far as the statutes which legalise PI programmes are concerned (cf par 3.6; 3.8; 3.9; 3.10.1; 3.10.2). Items 136 to 149 were intended to assess the

knowledge they claim to possess on the subject with the hope of confirming or rejecting the hypothesis stated earlier (par 1.6.2).

4.4.2 Scale for scoring of responses

The traditional Likert scale was used and the responses ranged from 1 for strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree (Best & Khan, 2008:315; Greenfield, 2002:176). An escape option “undecided” was included so as to allow respondents to indicate where they were not sure (Hoberg, 1999:153; Greenfield, 2002:176; Schulze, 2002:40). In such cases, it was meant to protect the respondents if they were not sure of what was happening rather than committing them to untruths which might have misled the research (Hoberg, 1999:153; Greenfield, 2002:176). In other cases, both the inverse and ordinary ranking scales were employed ranging from 5 to 1 and 1 to 9 respectively (Best & Khan, 2008:315).

4.4.3 Distribution of questionnaires

Zimbabwean government primary schools are concentrated in the urban areas. In this case attempts were made to reach all education managers and Chairpersons practising in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province through the questionnaires. Two sets of a total of 110 questionnaires were dispatched to 55 schools in self-addressed return envelopes. The number was assumed to be within workable limits. In either case, the letter permitting the researcher to conduct the research in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province was used to introduce both the subject and researcher. Since the empirical research was conducted in Zimbabwe and the researcher is based in Botswana, respondents were given the month of July to respond to the questionnaires before forwarding them to their respective District Education Officers for onward transmission to the Deputy Provincial Director for Education for Matabeleland North, who was appointed as the Assistant Researcher.

4.4.4 Measures to ensure validity and reliability

Pencil-and-answer questionnaires consisting of “closed” and “open-ended” questions were designed for both instruments. The latter were used to strengthen the former during the trial run.

The closed question-type was preferred because the sample was relatively large and the results needed to be available within the stipulated time. The test-retest and interview methods were used to ascertain the validity and reliability of the research instruments (Best & Khan, 2008:322; Schulze, 2002:54; Muijs, 2004:74). The repeat test was conducted at least after two weeks before attitudinal variables had changed. This was also meant to avoid respondents repeating the same answers (Muijs, 2004:72). These methods which were used in the trial runs were meant to test the wording of the questionnaire items, sequencing, layout, analysis procedure and to estimate the response rate of the respondents (Schulze, 2002: 39; Veal, 1997:195). The responses elicited in this manner were used to construct statements with precoded responses using the Likert-type of scale (cf par 4.4.3). To further authenticate the questionnaire items, a focus group was used in the pilot studies conducted before the construction of the final one (Hoberg, 1999:179; Muijs, 2004:51). Such trial runs were meant to eliminate boredom, and the possibility of the respondents regurgitating responses given during the trial run. Where discrepancies were observed, both questionnaire items were edited and modified so as to get rid of biases, inaccuracies and ambiguities (Grix, 2004:129; Muijs, 2004:51). Thereafter, a post-test was conducted with yet another focus group at the researcher's school (Schulze, 2002:54). The results obtained were compared with those of the initial testing exercise (Schulze, 2002:54). In that way, issues of internal and content validity of the instrument coupled with reliability were dealt with at this point. After that the questionnaire items were posted to the statistician of the Research Support Unit of the Information and Communication Technology Centre (ICU) at UNISA for further scrutiny and modification before they were dispatched to education managers and Chairpersons who were going to participate in this research.

4.4.5 Data collection

As alluded to earlier on (cf par 4.4), the primary data of this thesis were captured using a pencil-and-paper questionnaire with fixed responses of a Likert-type (cf par 4.4.3). The basic objective in this respect was to obtain facts and opinions about the phenomenon under observation from education managers and Chairpersons of government primary schools located in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province who were considered to be information rich, on the subject. Each item on the questionnaire was designated a category to facilitate processing. This research instrument

was deemed an appropriate vehicle for data collection in this thesis above that of an interview for the following reasons:

The research issue is clearly defined and questions put to respondents require unambiguous responses (Grix, 2004:129; Hoberg, 1999:154). Moreover, 'closed-questions' enhance the response rate of respondents (Veal, 1997:147). Apart from that, the users seemed to be familiar with the questionnaire method, and this allowed them to complete the questionnaires at their own convenient time without interfering with their work schedules (Muijs, 2004:42). In that way, they had ample time to think about their responses (Muijs, 2004:42).

The usual constraints of finance and resources would have been too large for a self-sponsored research of this magnitude. Similarly, the current political unrest prevailing in Zimbabwe did not augur well for face-to-face in-depth interviews to be conducted as these could have been misconstrued. Thus, the quantitative research design was found to be more practical than the interview method due to time and financial constraints (Schulze, 2002:28).

In addition, work related pressure, frustration and fatigue would have worked against the researcher since he would not have time to interview the entire or part of the sample as the respondents were geographically scattered and the researcher is currently teaching in another country. In that regard, a face-to-face interview, although ideal, would have been expensive, more so, as it would have been conducted during the school holidays. This would have meant invading the privacy of the respondents' homes.

Data collected was processed statistically by the statistician referred to earlier using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS, Version 9.1) computer package, hence the exclusion of 'open-ended' questions which would have been a vital component of this research. To avoid trivialising the inquiry, the trial runs which were conducted on the focus group had included both 'open' and 'closed-ended' questions (Wilkinson, 2000:21). Responses from the former type of questions were used to refine the coded responses as attempts were made to capture the opinions of the respondents without surprises using the Likert-type scale to which a fixed range of responses was possible (Wilkinson, 2000:21). The data collected in that way, was easily quantified, compared

statistically and analysed than materials which would have been generated by other research methods (Giddens, 1997:545). Standardised questions, unlike the ‘open-ended ones’ which are labour intensive when it comes to analysis (Wilkinson, 2000:9) were found to be easier to generalise findings to real-world settings where the research takes place. They also allowed easy comparability between respondents and groups of respondents (Muijs, 2004: 45). In that way, large amounts of data were gathered anonymously at low costs from the conveniently sampled subjects on specific issues pertinent to this thesis (Best & Khan, 2008:299; Grix, 2004:142; Schulze, 2002:37).

An interview method could have misled the researcher through exaggerations which might have been made by the respondents in their attempt to be helpful and friendly (Best & Khan, 2008:116; Hoberg, 1999:154; Veal, 1997:145). The ‘immersion’ concept involved in this method sometimes makes the research lose ‘objectivity’ as the researcher ends up relying on personal opinion instead of evidence to support arguments (Grix, 2004:121). Moreover, the ethical values of anonymity and confidentiality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:745; Grix, 2004:142) were enhanced and information gathered this way was much quicker through a questionnaire within the given time and financial constraints as compared to the interview method which would have required additional Research Assistants (Best & Khan, 2008:299; Wilkinson, 2000:9).

- **Sample**

It was decided that the field of research be limited to the government primary schools under the direct jurisdiction of Bulawayo Metropolitan Province. The latter was chosen because the schools were accessible and the current political climate did not allow inter-provincial travels. Besides, Municipality and Independent schools are believed to have viable PI programmes in place. Furthermore, the research is not intended to make generalisations which are applicable to other places but to evaluate how education managers relate to SDC/SDA Chairpersons within the juridical requirements of the new dispensation and the TQM philosophy. However, because of the relatively large target population of schools involved (55) and because Bulawayo is the second largest city in Zimbabwe, it therefore follows that generalisations may be made with some degree of confidence as Harare (the largest city) is estimated to have 71 government

primary schools. In that light, the non probability sampling technique (Trochim, 2006:1) was found to be applicable in selecting the targeted population for this study and the researcher was convinced that chance sampling errors associated with such techniques would be eliminated (Trochim, 2006:3).

A combination of the convenient and purposeful non probability sampling technique were employed (Muijs, 2004:38; Patton, 1990:25) since the targeted population was regarded as inadequate to allow probability sampling techniques which are considered to be more accurate and vigorous (Trochim, 2006:2). Convenience sampling was employed because the researcher wanted to include the entire population in the study and collect data from the targeted respondents (Muijs, 2004:40; Patton, 1990:25; Schulze, 2002:35; Trochim, 2006:2; Wisker, 2001:139) and purposeful in the sense that the researcher had two specific predefined groups in mind (Schulze, 2002: 35; Trochim, 2006:2; Wisker, 2001:139). The two groups were considered information rich for an in-depth study of this nature and their opinions were taken seriously as both are at the helm of the decision making process either in issues of school governance or professional administration as decentralisation is in motion. According to that view, the researcher felt that the size of the sample and the information richness of the respondents would yield valid and reliable information on the subject (Schulze, 2002: 35; Trochim, 2006:2). This view brings the concept of expert sampling into the picture as well. Expert sampling, according to Trochim (2006:3), involves assembling of a sample of persons with known or demonstrable experience and expertise in some area. In this regard, the researcher was convinced that the education managers and Chairpersons who populate the Bulawayo Metropolitan Province had the data needed by the researcher for this empirical research. However, the researcher was aware of the dangers of taking such information from such experts as gospel truth.

- **Method**

The first port of call was the Provincial Director for Education for Bulawayo Metropolitan Province where permission was sought to conduct this research in government primary schools within his jurisdiction (Appendix C). The Proforma (Appendix D) issued by this office was used to introduce the researcher to the five District Education Officers of the following districts:

Bulawayo Central, Khami, Mbizo, Mzilikazi and Reigate, to which the questionnaires were dispatched. All the Officers agreed to be used as collection points. The questionnaires were coded (0011, 0012...0155) for education managers (Appendix A) and (0021, 0022...0255) for SDC/SDA Chairpersons (Appendix B). The coding was meant for distribution and follow up purposes only and these were entered in the dispatch register as well.

As soon as the questionnaires were ready, they were dispatched to respective schools by the researcher. Each set of questionnaire was prefaced with a brief letter which courteously and carefully explained the purpose of the study and how useful the results would be to the Metropolitan Province of Bulawayo with the hope of improving the standard of teaching in government primary schools. The letter also requested the respondents to participate in this research and assured them that their responses would remain confidential and anonymous. The participants were asked to respond by circling the appropriate response from the given precoded ones which were of the Likert-type (cf par 4.4.3) except in Section D items 57 to 65 and 66 to 70 where they were required to use the ranking scale. The instructions were carefully worded so that they would sufficiently cater for the level of understanding of the SDA/SDC Chairpersons used (Schulze, 2002:37).

Two self-addressed return envelopes containing the separate questionnaires (for education managers and Chairpersons) were given to the education manager. The education manager was tasked with the responsibility of forwarding the second questionnaire to the SDC/A Chairperson and collecting it. Thereafter, it was the duty of the education manager to forward these to the District Education Officers on any of his or her official visits to their offices for onward transmission to the Deputy Provincial Director for Education (DPDE) for Matabeleland North who had agreed to be the Assistant Researcher. The DPDE periodically checked with the District Offices for any mail which needed collection and made follow ups with schools which had not yet submitted their questionnaires. As soon as the questionnaires were collected a letter of thanks (Appendix E) was sent to respective officers for onward transmission to the respondents. After that, to ensure confidentiality and anonymity which was promised earlier on, the dispatch register and any other information which either identified the respondents or schools was destroyed as a way of abiding to the research ethics alluded to (cf par 1.4.1).

4.4.6 Data processing procedures

The received questionnaires were screened and edited by the researcher so as to ascertain whether the respondents had responded in the appropriate way or not. Only questionnaires fully completed by the respondents were used for data analysis in this study. Incomplete ones although with some valuable information, were discarded as completing them on behalf of the respondents would have been by speculation or viewed as biasing the research. As soon as they were ready, they were dispatched to Unisa for processing by the ICT computer expert (cf par 4.4.6) as alluded to earlier. Since information gathered was of a descriptive nature, frequencies, means and any other statistical measures were used to analyse the surveyed data. Thereafter, data was edited using the word processor for presentation in the thesis as tables, graphs and percentages. It is from this kind of data that attempts were made to either confirm or reject the hypotheses and literature reviewed on this research.

- **Statistical methods**

The discrete data gathered was entered on frequency tables. From the frequencies, the percentages were expressed and measures of central tendencies were calculated as well. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to estimate the reliability of the questionnaire constructs on the variables under investigation.

4.4.7 Conclusion

This subsection of the study has demonstrated how a quantitative research paradigm was used to gather the primary data of this research using the survey method. The researcher has also tried to describe how both the convenient and purposeful sampling technique was used to select the education managers and Chairpersons of Bulawayo Metropolitan Province who participated in this study. Attempts were made to make use of all the government primary schools in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province and the sample used was considered to be large enough, information rich and representative of the parent population although the latter view is not the intention of this research. This portion of the parent population will be used for enumeration induction. It is the

use of such a limited population which makes the survey method the most ideal one as it gives the researcher an in-depth analysis of the collected data, hence the conceptual understanding of the phenomenon under observation. In that manner, the results which emanated from this research were considered as representative enough for generalisations to be made on the parent population. The main data of this research were gathered using the pencil and paper questionnaire. Data collected was subjected to statistical treatment for analysis purposes. In that light, Chapter Five used the data analysis procedures highlighted in this Chapter to discuss the findings of data collected. In that way, the hypotheses which prefaced this section of the study would either be confirmed or rejected.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS OF DATA GATHERED

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the major findings of the empirical research (cf par 1.4.2). Its major aim was to investigate the management of PI programmes in the provision of education in Zimbabwean government primary schools in general and Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in particular. This was achieved by tracing the historical developments which gave birth to PI programmes in the US, China and South Africa, defining the concept of PI within this context, comparing the perceptions of education managers with those of Chairpersons of SDCs/As (representatives of parental boards) in school governance on the phenomenon under investigation and establishing whether both groups of respondents were aware that their roles were regulated by the law (cf par 1.4.2). In the process, the perceptions of both respondents which were believed to be representative of the experiences on the ground were benchmarked against literature reviewed on PI and TQM with the intention of either rejecting or confirming the hypotheses advanced in this thesis (Chap 1 & Chap 2). The gap established between the perceptions of both respondents and the findings in the literature on both PI and TQM is the foundation on which future planners of home-school relationships (cf par 2.1.6) should consider. Thus, non-profit organisations, such as schools, should be staffed with education managers and School Boards who possess the appropriate PI and TQM orientation (cf par 1.4.1;2.1.5) if the legal partnership approach (cf par 3.10.1;3.10.2) and decentralisation of school management (cf par 3.3) is to be realised.

The assumption is that when a genuine partnership through the process of decentralisation is achieved, the service delivery of the educative process in public schools should improve. Schools in this category will be compelled to be accountable, not to the parent ministry only but to all stakeholders in their communities for the purpose of realising their vision and mission. Such a collective approach would enable institutions to be better resourced and managed as schools move away from the syndrome of dependence on the national purse against the background of

scarce resources (cf Kanji, 1996:113). On one hand, parents demand value for their money from the educational package on offer and on the other, education managers endeavour to offer the learners (customers) the best they can amid scarce resources in a globally competitive environment (cf par 3.2). To achieve this feat, education managers, as part of their turnaround strategies need to adopt a holistic approach to school governance (cf par 3.4) which should begin with an organisational audit (cf par 3.2). In that way, schools will be engaged in a cycle of continuous improvement by establishing a system of innovative management (cf Mendez, Casadesus & Gurana, 2006:317) within a TQM initiative. Against this background, the quantitative data collected by the survey questionnaires used in this thesis (cf Chap 4) under the identified themes are presented.

5.1.1 Sample size and response

The survey questionnaires designed were used to gather desired data from the target population. The data sought was of a quantitative nature only, using pencil and paper questionnaires consisting of precoded responses so as to facilitate the processing of data gathered using the SAS Version 9.1 computer package. The questionnaire for education managers and SDC/A chairpersons comprised 135 and 149 items respectively. Of the fifty-five questionnaires which solicited quantitative data from the former and latter respondents, a fifty-one (93%) and a forty-seven (85%) response rate respectively was achieved. Four education managers and seven chairpersons did not return the questionnaire and one chairperson did not fully complete it, despite follow up attempts. Thus, the researcher concluded that the respondents who had not returned the questionnaires by the due dates had indirectly declined participation although some cited time as a constraint. The respondent who did not complete the questionnaire may have done so due to a low level of education which did not go beyond the primary level. Parent representatives in Zimbabwean public schools, similar to the South African experience (cf par 2.4.2), are chosen by virtue of having a child enrolled in a particular institution not qualifications, hence, this observation (cf par 3.10.1:3.10.2). Despite these shortcomings, the researcher decided to proceed with the analysis of this thesis as both response rates of fifty-one (93%) from education managers and forty-seven (85%) from SDC/A Chairpersons out of a target

population of fifty-five schools were considered to be acceptable. In that light, only the returned questionnaires which were completed by the respondents were used for this research.

5.1.2 Respondents

Questions 1-6 were meant to capture the biographical attributes of the respondents (see appendix A and B). The data revealed that education managers and parent representatives of different gender, designations and academic qualifications participated in this research. Out of the combined total of ninety-eight respondents, fifty-nine (60%) were males and the remaining thirty-nine (40%) were females. This statistics means that school governance in Zimbabwean schools is dominated by male appointees (education managers) and elected ones on the ratio of 3 to 2. This observation was further strengthened by data which revealed that education managers were approximately equally represented in the management of schools with a slight dominance of women (53%) because of the affirmation action policies adopted at independence on administrative appointments which were skewed towards females. Male Chairpersons (76%) were more than their female counterparts by far, in contrast with literature reviewed on gender participation (cf par 2.2.1). Of interest to note here is that thirty-seven (79%) and forty-one (80%) of the respondents in either case were none other than the SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers of the targeted schools respectively, giving a combined representation of seventy-eight (80%). Similarly, regarding the combined academic qualifications of the respondents, (54%) and (38 %) of these were either holders of “O” levels or a degree/diploma respectively giving a combined representation of (92%).

The above statistic was further buttressed by the academic and professional qualification of the education managers when viewed separately. Of the fifty-one education managers who responded to the questionnaire, all had the prerequisite academic qualifications and forty-eight (94%) of these possessed the required professional qualifications: a diploma/certificate and a degree with the latter group constituting thirty-seven (73%) of the population. In addition, their teaching and administrative experiences were a force to reckon with. Forty-six (90%) and thirty-nine (76%) of the population had either taught or administered in schools for more than fifteen years. Judging by the designations, qualifications and experiences of the participants, the

researcher was convinced that the respondents were information rich, adequately qualified and experienced to make substantial inputs which are valid and reliable on the phenomenon as highlighted by the Cronbach alpha coefficient which proved to be in the region of 0.7 or greater and the grand mean perception score which ranged from 2.57 to 4.22 (see appendix G, Table 5.11)

To further ascertain whether the chairpersons were not of dubious qualifications and that they were not the passive members of society as reviewed in the literature section (cf par 2.7.1 & 2.7.2), their academic and professional qualifications and those of their spouses were investigated as well. The findings revealed that forty-four (94%) were of sound education and only thirteen (28%) of the incumbents were retired and unemployed. Moreover, thirty-five (74%) of their spouses were highly educated as well with twenty (43%) retired and unemployed. What these findings reveal is that the bulk of the SDC/A Chairpersons are active and literate members of the society, hence refuting the literature which asserts that many a time it is the retired, illiterates and unemployed who participate in school governance (cf par 2.7.2; 2.7.3). Even the three (6%) of them who might have been puzzled by the intricacies of the questionnaire due to their level of education might have been given the appropriate assistance in the completion of it by their equally literate spouses. Therefore, these were considered to be insignificant. What these findings reveal is that school governance in Zimbabwe is administered by highly qualified parents, hence authenticating the conclusions derived from their observations.

5.2 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUE

Since this was descriptive research which involved quantitative variables of a complex nature, the presentation of the data gathered is fairly sophisticated. Of the SAS (Version 9.1) procedure used here, the frequencies, the Cronbach alpha coefficient and the mean have been adopted for this thesis. Frequencies present counts and percentages for single variables; whereas means present averages for those numerical variables (Veal, 1997:227). In this context the mean was favoured as a measure of central tendency because it makes use of all values under observation into consideration and becomes the fulcrum or balance of all variables in the distribution (Muijs, 2004:104). The effects of outliers were equally born in mind and in that regard, the extent to

which the values in the distribution clustered around the mean was established using the standard deviation (Muijs, 2004: 105). Finally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient scale was also used to test the reliability of the perceptual constructs of the questionnaire items (Muijs, 2004:151). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to establish internal consistency reliability of each PI construct examined with the hope of determining whether the responses to subsets of questionnaire items, which had been grouped together to describe a construct or aspect of the topic under investigation, truly contributed towards explaining that aspect (Muijs, 2004:151). In this case the values of the Cronbach alpha coefficient all proved to be in the region of 0.7 or greater implying that the perceptual scores of each respondent were reliable indicators of each attribute investigated (see Appendix G, Table 5.11).

5.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.3.1 Respondents' perceptions of the concept of parental involvement

At attainment of independence, the Zimbabwean government embarked on sweeping reforms in education as attempts were made to democratise the provision of education as propounded by the ZANU (PF) Manifesto of 1980 (cf par 1.2; 2.1.1; 3.6) and the Education Act of 1987 (cf par 3.8). The ballooning of school enrolments due to the universalisation of the education system (cf par 2.1.2) was a serious challenge to Zimbabwe's infancy democracy. In that light, school governance had to be decentralised to local communities (cf par 3.3) as a new paradigm shift in education management was envisaged. The government was compelled to adopt PI as an element of school management for three paramount reasons. Firstly, the assumption was that parents by virtue of their parenthood were both natural and primary educators of their children (cf Berger, 2007:124); secondly, it was meant to improve the quality of education in low-performing schools (cf Hess & Gift, 2008:31); and, thirdly, government realised that the universalisation of the education system demanded that other players be included if this aim was to be realised with due consideration of financial, physical, material and human resources constraints (Zvobgo, 1996:30; 2004:168).

On the other hand, teachers and education managers as both secondary and *in loco-parentis* (cf Van Wyk, 2000:50) were unsettled with this empowerment of non-professionals (cf Fitzgerald, 2004:6) which they viewed as “unsolicited interventions” (cf Lareau, 2000:161) that would threaten their professional and territorial integrity. Since the school, family and community relationships are meant to enable all players to work collaboratively towards the achievement of shared goals (cf Epstein, 2001:2), it was imperative for the researcher to question respondents on their conceptual understanding of the PI phenomenon as part of a quality audit (cf par 3.2) before a TQM framework is put in place. Questions 7-17 on both questionnaires were meant to establish their knowledge on the subject under discussion (Table 5.1). However, different views on some constructs will be discussed separately.

Table 5.1 Respondents’ perceptions of the concept of parental involvement programmes				
Conceptualisation	Perception rating			Total/%
Frequency Table	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Parents, major role, child education	0 0.00	1 1.02	97 98.98	98 100
Parents involved in school governance	9 9.57	6 6.38	79 84.05	94 100
Parents contribute academic issues	85 88.54	4 4.17*	7 7.29	96 100
Parents contribute non-academic issues	73 75.25	9 9.29*	15 15.46	97 100
Parents contribute to both issues	9 9.28	2 2.06	86 88.66	97 100
SDC/SDA, programmes well planned	10 10.20	9 9.19	79 80.61	98 100
SDC/SDA, programmes well organised	12 12.24	15 15.31	71 72.45	98 100
Total	198 29.20	46 6.79*	434 64.01	678 100

***Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of results.**

*** Adjusted to give a summation of 100 percent**

A look at Table 5.1 which depicts a composite frequency table on the concept of PI, reveals that both parents and education managers play a major role in the education of the learners and

school governance issues as indicated by the ninety-seven (98.98%) and seventy-nine (84.05%) respectively. This was further confirmed by the perceptions of education managers who claimed that they were in partnership with the parents (91.49%) in the educative process (see Appendix F, Table qq7) and parents were considered as primary educators (96.08%) of their children (see Appendix F, Table qq8). Little wonder that when parents were asked whether they disliked being involved in the teaching of their children, 82.98% negated the statement (see Appendix F, Table q7). However, when their extent of involvement in curricular issues was questioned, (88.55%) disagreed that their participation was limited to academic issues only. They equally contradicted that their involvement was in non-academic issues only as well as indicated by the (75.25%) of the respondents. When they were further queried whether they were involved in both issues, (88.66%) answered in the affirmative. The high rating on this attribute might probably have been influenced by their reinforcement of learning at home through homework (97.87%) (see Appendix F, Table q15). This is perhaps what made them claim that they were involved in the teaching of their children at home (93.62%) as well (see Appendix F, Table q14) a situation which was denied by education managers (see Appendix F, Table qq14: 98.04%). This contradictory situation needed further verification.

On whether the PI programmes in place were well planned and organised, seventy-nine (80.61%) and seventy-one (72.45%) concurred respectively. However, when the number of denials and those in doubt on the latter attribute is aggregated, it gives a summation of twenty-five (27.55%), a rating which cannot be easily ignored. In the absence of a probe in a form of an interview, one would surmise that the bulk of the positives might probably have come from the education managers who were trying either to justify their *modus operandi* or please the researcher. In that view one might safely conclude that some PI programmes are organised in some schools while in others they are not.

The statistics cited here on the involvement of parents in both academic and non-academic issues seem to be contradicting the literature reviewed which asserted that earlier traditional forms of engagement were marginalised to peripheral and non-academic issues only such as preparing cookies, photocopying, classroom parties, chaperoning field trips (cf par 2.6.1.3), infrastructural development, sporting and fund raising activities (cf par 1.2; 2.6.1.3) as they were viewed as

being compensatory and meant to address deficiencies in deprived environments (cf Fitzgerald, 2004:4). What the bulk of respondents (88.66%) desire is to be active and supportive participants in the primary aspects of formal and informal education of their children as individuals or collectively as long as these are organised in an orderly fashion (cf par 2.2.4). This kind of involvement could be likened to the Head Start programmes (cf par 2.2.4) and the Chinese Home-based involvement phenomenon (cf par 2.3.3). However, if this latter view is incorporated in the perceptions of education managers, there would be a need to guard children against overzealous parents who would exert too much pressure on the learners to the detriment of their educational pursuits (cf Ming & Abbot, 1992:53). On a positive note, for PI programmes to trigger voluntary actions from parents as anticipated (not only in decision making or as classroom practitioners) education managers would need to mount coaching workshops and seminars (cf par 2.6.1.2) which would adopt comprehensive school wide community partnership programmes and policies (cf Burke & Picus, 2001:52) that would make parents "...productive partners in the children's success" (cf Glanz, 2006:40). In that way, their role in their children's education would be vital and appreciated (89.36%) (see Appendix F, Table q8).

Such an approach would culminate in the accumulation of the desired knowledge, skills and resources that would produce an outcome which is more than the sum of the individual partner (cf Street, 1997:11) if the decentralisation of school management to the grass-roots is to take place within a TQM philosophy (cf par 2.1). The petty 'wars' (cf Baloyi, 2003:7; Lewis & Naidoo, 2004:416) and 'witch hunt' suspicions reported by teachers in Van Wyk's study (2000:52) which may characterise some PI programmes in certain schools would be averted if the TQM principle of 'getting things right the first time every time' is adopted (cf par 3.1) and schools attempted to move towards the phenomenon of 'zero defects' (cf par 1.4.1) at operational level. In the process, both parties through this kind of interaction, would be armed with the ideal technical knowhow of what the phenomenon entails before a new paradigm shift in the management of schools is adopted (cf par 1.6.2).

This evidence derived from the respondents' revealed that both parents and education managers perceived PI programmes positively as the negative ratings were overwhelmed by the positive ones by far. The negations registered revealed that respondents were no longer eager to have

their involvement restricted either to academic issues or non-academic ones only. Thus, the researcher concluded that both parents and education managers want to be involved in both formal and informal academic issues of the school business (cf par 2.6.1.5; 2.6.2.4; 2.6.3.2) as mandated by statutes on involvement (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2) although literature on PI portrays education managers as being skeptical (cf Vong, 2008:312) of this kind of home-school relationship as hypothesised in this thesis (cf par 1.6.2). The Cronbach alpha coefficient ratings and mean scores depicted on Table 5.11 validate these findings (see Appendix G).

5.3.2 Respondents' perceptions of the benefits of parental involvement programmes

With PI not limited to mundane activities as highlighted by this thesis, there was a need, therefore, to investigate whether both groups of respondents were aware of the benefits which accrue to the institution, school and the learner when a genuine partnership model is operational (cf par 2.5.3). Questions 18-36 (SDC/A Chairpersons) and 18-35 (education managers) of the questionnaire items were meant to establish the perceptions of the respondents on the attribute and the results are displayed in Table 5.2.

What should be noted here is that the subsets of the questionnaire items were combined as those which described the listed constructs in the two corresponded on a one-to-one basis except (Q21 and 35 on the questionnaire item for SDC/A Chairpersons and Q34 for education managers) which was removed so as to facilitate the computer analysis of the data. These and any other in the subsequent analysis will be discussed within the context with the relevant tables in the appendix section. The results discussed below should be read with that in mind.

Table 5.2 Perceived benefits of parental involvement programmes				
Benefits	Agreement rating frequencies			Total/%
Frequency Table	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Motivate children to learn	1 1.02	1 1.02	96 97.96	98 100
Improves children's academic performance	1 1.02	3 3.06	94 95.92	98 100
Increase school resources	1 1.02	4 4.09*	93 94.89	98 100
Improves child's learning attitude	1 1.03	1 1.03	95 97.94	97 100
Parental homework supervision	2 2.04	2 2.04	94 95.92	98 100
Parental internet supervision	20 20.40	30 30.61	48 48.99*	98 100
Parental television supervision	14 14.28	10 10.21*	74 75.51	98 100
Improve school-home relationship	0 0.00	2 2.04	96 97.96	98 100
Parental insight, school programmes	2 2.04	1 1.02	95 96.94	98 100
Improve child's school attendance	2 2.04	4 4.08	92 93.88	98 100
Improve child's behaviour at school	2 2.04	4 4.08	92 93.88	98 100
Improve school-home communication	0 0.00	2 2.04	96 97.96	98 100
Increase parental participation	0 0.00	2 2.08	94 97.92	96 100
Increase management skills of Head	13 13.54	14 14.58	69 71.88	96 100
Enables Head of school know background	6 6.12	5 5.10	87 88.78	98 100
Improve reading skills of children	17 17.35	7 7.14	74 75.51	98 100
Provide role models to pupils	12 12.24	15 15.31	71 72.45	98 100
Total	94 5.66	107 6.44	1460 87.90	1661 100

*Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of results.

* Adjusted to give a summation of 100 percent

Table 5.2 on the perceptions of the perceived benefits which accrue to the learner, educator, school and society in general, when PI programmes are fully operational reveal that respondents are agreed that the motivation of learners (97.96%), the two-way communication system from home to school (97.96%), the home-school relationship (97.96%), the attitudes of learners (97.94%), the participation of parents (97.92%) which both parents and education managers (69.39%) view as a form of empowerment in itself (see Appendix F, Table qq34 & q35), parents' insight in school programmes and innovations (96.94%) (cf par 2.5.3), the academic performance of learners (95.92%), the supervision of homework (95.92%) which no doubt enables parents (95.65%) to reinforce learning at home (see Appendix F, Table q21), school resources (94.89%), the learners' attendance at school (93.88%) and their behavior (93.88%) improve dramatically as noted by the high scores on these attributes.

Educators at the elementary level are required to know the cultural home backgrounds of their learners (cf par 2.6.2.2) if they are to execute their duties in a professional manner, eighty-seven (88.78%) of the respondents agreed that PI enabled them (education managers) to know the learners better. In the same light, early-learners in the primary school are usually given some reading assignments to read to their parents at home. When they were questioned on how this approach reinforces learning, seventy-four (75.51%) of these indicated that children's reading skills improved both at home and school due to parental intervention (cf par 2.5.2) together with the monitoring of television programmes (75.51%). These two attributes may be tied with the supervision of homework already alluded to above which perhaps answers the question why children's academic performance improves, when children are monitored in that manner both at home and school.

Equally encouraging in this scenario is the fact that when parents are engaged in personal academic pursuits as they try to realise their potential, this serves as a model of emulation (cf par 2.5.2) to the young learners as revealed by the seventy-one (72.45%) of the sampled population. This is what Swap (cf par 2.6.2.2) refers to as the transfer of cultural capital to the learners in his School-to-Home Transmission Model as observed by Epstein (2001:21). Springate and Slegelin's (1999:40) and Fitzgerald's (2004:11) research cited in this thesis confirm this

assertion as well (cf par 2.5.2). Solace can also be derived from the fact that the positive participation of parents in the education of their children does not save to empower them only (cf Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114), but seems to enhance the management skills of the education managers as noted by the sixty-nine (71.88%) of the respondents. This kind of interaction between parents and education managers in the amelioration of management skills as demanded by the TQM in its cycle of continuous improvement is what needs 'the collaboration of minds, hearts and hands' for schools to register success in school governance as advocated by Burke and Picus (2001:48). When parents and education managers are in a genuine partnership such as that delineated above, it serves as a check to both partners, as they work together towards the realisation of institutional goals, a fertile ground for the democratisation of the school management system through the process of decentralisation (cf Nziramasanga, 1999:1) when viewed from the South African perception (cf par 2.4.1).

However, contrary to the above observations, when both groups of respondents were queried on whether PI programmes enabled them to monitor the learners when using the internet, the results of the investigation were a cause of concern. Forty-eight (48.99%) responded in the affirmative, thirty (30.61%) were undecided and twenty (20.40%) disagreed. When those who disagreed are added to those who doubted whether this attribute could be monitored, it gives a total of fifty-one (51.01%). This is a scenario which needs checking in schools. Learners are becoming computer and internet literate due to the exposure of this kind of technology and new developments such as 'Facebook' which has changed the lives of the youth of late. Little wonder that cases of pornographic materials being peddled in schools have been reported. However, the negative responses could be due to the unavailability of the internet service in many homes and schools. In that regard, parents and education managers could have considered the monitoring of the internet service of little consequence in this context. However, this suspicion could have been clarified by a face-to-face interaction with the respondents if the interview technique had been employed. That set aside, the overall evaluation of perceptions regarding the value of PI programmes in operation in schools were thus rated as positive as confirmed by the mean PI-value score of 4.22 (see Appendix G, Table: 5.11), hence authenticating the above made observations on this attribute.

To conclude on this aspect of PI, both parties seem to be agreed that participation of parents in school governance and their synergistic relationships with the school authorities enhance the management of schools and its production systems as well (Crawford & Shutler, 1999:67) when talents and experiences of individuals are pooled in a collaborative manner (Algozzine et al, 2005:176). The reliability of this conclusion is confirmed by the Cronbach alpha coefficient of (0.90) on the attributes probed (see Appendix G, Table 5.11). What perhaps would be needed in this kind of a scenario is a proactive education manager who would adopt 'teamwork and collaborative effort which is necessary in creating a community-oriented school where all members are guided by a common vision and purpose' as observed by (cf Heystek, 2003:332), if the benefits which accrue to the learner, educator and school are to be realised within this context. This coordinated effort by the education manager would no doubt make the school an extension of the home as viewed by Heystek (2003:328).

5.3.3 THE MANAGEMENT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES

With the parents eager to participate in both curricular and non-curricular issues as alluded to earlier, not in mundane activities (cf par 2.6) and their visibility in school events certain, there was need to seek the opinions of both parents and education managers on how PI programmes were managed in schools. The assumption here was that PI programmes when properly managed enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the production system of the school as hypothesised in this thesis (cf par 1.6.2), thus dismissing the notion that parents sometimes meddle in the professional job of the educator (cf 1.6.2). Questions 37-55 (SDC/A Chairpersons) and 36-55 (education managers) were meant to interrogate respondents on how PI programmes are managed in schools. Table 5.3 presents the findings on this attribute. To facilitate the processing of this data, related issues were combined under the broad headings suggested without them losing their relevance.

Table 5.3 Perceptions on management of parental involvement programmes				
Management aspects	Perception rating			Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Frequency Table				
Training homework supervision provided	53 54.08	15 15.31	30 30.61	98 100
Workshops policy, circulars, statutory issues	31 31.63	15 15.31	52 53.06	98 100
Involved in planning of workshops	60 61.22	17 17.35	21 21.43	98 100
Involved in design, school curriculum	75 77.32	14 14.43	8 8.25	97 100
Involved in decision making school matters	14 14.29	11 11.22	73 74.49	98 100
Parents involved as volunteer tutors	68 69.39	14 14.29	16 16.33	98 100
Parents involved as volunteer workers	43 43.88	11 11.22	44 44.90	98 100
Communication committee exists	41 41.84	8 8.16	49 50.00	98 100
School involves busiest parents	16 16.49	15 15.46	66 68.04	97 100
School visits by appointment	88 89.80	4 4.08	6 6.12	98 100
Parents included in subject committees	82 83.67	3 3.06	13 13.27	98 100
Parents resp democratically elected	5 5.15	1 1.03	91 93.81	97 100
Cultural values included in school	25 25.77	15 15.46	57 58.76	97 100
Parents regarded as assets in school	2 2.04	3 3.06	93 94.90	98 100
Total	603 44.08	146 10.67	619 45.25	1368 100

***Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of results.**

*** Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of the results.**

Table 5.3 above on the perceptions of respondents on the management of PI programmes makes intriguing revelations. Respondents agreed on the fact that parents are viewed as assets (94.90%) akin to Swap's Partnership Model (cf par 2.6.2.4) in the education of their children as they are

regarded as primary educators in this thesis (see Appendix F, Table qq8), thus confirming the assertion which claims that when parents are valued by practitioners, children in the early years of their education will see less of divide between home and school (cf Fitzgerald, 2004:11). Despite this observation, the researcher failed to understand why the same parents could not be involved as voluntary tutors (69.39%) at school not at home if the school regarded them as valuable assets (94.90%) in an environment where they were welcomed wholeheartedly (cf par 2.6.4.2) without an appointment (89.80%). Equally disturbing as well, is when respondents were undecided on whether parents were involved as volunteer workers. Forty-four (44.90%) further agreed and forty-three (43.88%) disagreed, issues which needed probing further. Perhaps, the failure by education managers to involve parents in the planning of workshops (61.22%) where concerns of parents as suggested by Kruger (2002:59) would be discussed defeats this notion on involvement. Equally true in this context would be the harsh realities of the Zimbabwean economy. This could have detracted parents from spending time in voluntary unpaid work.

Noteworthy though was the notion that parent representatives were democratically elected (93.81%) as demanded by literature reviewed (cf par 2.6.1.5; 2.6.4.5) and they further claimed that they were also involved in decision making (74.49%). However, when this latter positive result is cross checked with their lack of involvement in subject committees (83.67%) and curriculum planning (77.32%), it raises more questions than answers. According to Berger's (2007:169) observation, if parents are to be respected, they must be involved in the planning processes of any given educative enterprise (cf par 2.6.1.2). In the absence of an interview, one even wonders as to what they really meant by claiming that they were involved in decisional issues, more so, with a low rating of those who claimed to be involved in workshops on policy, circulars and statutory instruments (53.06%) and in a Communication committee (50%). These two attributes are considered to be of paramount importance in this thesis as they lead to the empowerment of teams established and ownership of whatever school programmes are in place (cf Giles, 2006:259; Seyfried & Chung, 2002:114).

The situation is made worse by their earlier claim that they were involved in the supervision of homework (95.65%) (see Appendix F, Table q15) and (cf Table: 5.2). The high rating on this attribute is contradicted by their negative response on being involved in the planning of

workshops (61.22%) in which they are trained to supervise homework (54.08%) and parenting skills (52.04%) (see Appendix F, Table q38) although low. PI workshops are meant to establish the needs, desires, real and imagined fears of both parents and education managers before tailor-made and customer focused packages of involvement in parental skills (cf par 2.6.1.1) are designed within a TQM framework (cf Sallis, 1996:127). Parents, whether literate or not, need to know the rate of involvement in home-based reinforcement (cf par 2.6.1.4) if homework is not to be divisive in the home and resented (cf Seyfried & Chung, 2004:25). Orientation, ideal communication strategies and developmental issues cannot be ruled out from such undertakings if a supportive environment is to be envisaged (cf par 2.6.1.2). Thus, the researcher concluded that PI in the listed attributes is by chance and the respondents' claim that they were involved in decisional issues may not be entirely true. Perhaps, this answers why their involvement in cultural values was as low as (58.76%), a situation which also needs further consideration.

Relief in this regard can be derived from the fact that the busiest parents as advocated for by Kruger's model (cf par 2.6.4.4) are equally involved as registered by 68.04% of the respondents. Perhaps, this could be through parents evening conferences (cf par 2.6.4.6) as most of the parents engaged are working or other means of communication such as circulars (cf par 2.6.4.4). Maybe the latter could have been used in this context as most of the parents seemed to be literate as exposed by the SDC/A Chairpersons' and spouses' biographic and demographic data (cf par 5.1.2). Table 5.4 confirms this observation. All things being equal, the generality of parents seem to be eager to attend to school functions despite the odds as observed by 69.79% of the respondents (see Appendix F, Table q48). A healthy scenario which needs to be exploited at all cost in this thesis. Equally encouraging too was the fact that education managers, despite their busy schedules, do make attempts to attend to community activities such as funerals as noted by 90% of the respondents (see Appendix F, Table q56) although they shun home visits (53.06%) (see Appendix F, Table q47). Little wonder that, education managers were undecided on this attribute. Twenty-five (49.02%) preferred to stay aloof while a paltry twelve (23.53%) concurred and fourteen (27.45%) doubted the practice (see appendix F, Table: q46). This is another grey area which would be worthwhile pursuing as Springate and Slegelin (1999:6) highly recommend such an interaction (cf par 2.6.4.4). At this point, the most preferred mode of communication used by education managers when communicating with parents was investigated.

5.3.4 Communication

Communication between the home and school is the foundation of a school partnership (cf Barrera & Warner, 2006:124), a notion both Epstein (cf par 2.6.1.2) and Kruger (cf par 2.6.4.4) endorse. Such kind of communication should accommodate a two-way feedback loop if the desires, interests, expectations and needs of parents are to be identified. In that way, the internal and external needs and expectations of customers would be satisfied or approximated as demanded by the TQM initiative (cf Sallis, 196:124). Moreover, curriculum events, schedules, policies and pedagogic/parenting data can be disseminated in that manner as well (cf par 2.6.1.2). With that in mind, there was need therefore to establish the preferred means of communication in the schools investigated. Questions 57-65 (SDA/C Chairpersons) and 56-64 (education managers) sought to do that and the findings are displayed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Preference-ranked PI communication methods											
Means of Communication	Preference ranking frequency (ranks 1-9). Mean rank for each method and (overall rank).										Total N=98
Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	mean rank	
Newsletters	31 31.6 9	19 19.3 9	22 22.4 5	8 8.16	6 6.12	5 5.10	3 3.06	4 4.08	0 0.00	2.86 (2)	100
Circulars	35 35.7 1	31 31.6 3	12 12.2 4	7 7.14	6 6.12	5 5.10	1 1.02	1 1.02	0 0.00	2.41 (1)	100
Telephone calls	22 22.4 5	24 24.4 9	25 25.5 1	7 7.14	8 8.16	3 3.06	7 7.14	0 0.00	2 2.04	2.86 (2)	100

Table 5.4 Preference-ranked PI communication methods											
Means of Communication	Preference ranking frequency (ranks 1-9). Mean rank for each method and (overall rank).										Total N=98
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Mean rank	
Conferences / Workshops	3 3.06	5 5.10	9 9.18	20 20.41	19 19.39	12 12.24	12 12.24	16 16.33	2 2.04	5.46 (5)	100
Brochures	1 1.02	1 1.02	2 2.04	5 5.10	8 8.16	16 16.33	20 20.41	34 34.69	11 11.22	6.97 (8)	100
E-mail	1 1.02	1 1.02	1 1.02	0 0.00	1 1.02	4 4.08	8 8.16	11 11.22	71 72.45	8.35 (9)	100
Suggestion boxes	1 1.02	1 1.02	6 6.12	19 19.39	16 16.33	14 14.29	24 24.49	10 10.20	7 7.14	6.17 (7)	100
Interviews	2 2.04	10 10.20	11 11.22	21 21.43	23 23.47	15 15.31	7 7.14	8 8.16	1 1.02	4.76 (4)	100
Social activities	2 2.04	6 6.12	11 11.22	11 11.22	11 11.22	24 24.49	16 16.33	13 13.27	4 4.08	5.53 (6)	100

C*=-Communication M*=-mean rank

Table 5.4 reveals that circulars (2.41), newsletters (2.86) and telephone calls (2.86) are the most preferred PI communication methods as indicated by the mean preference rankings. This could have been necessitated by the availability of resources. Contrary to Springate and Slegelin's (1999:70) observation which rated conferences and face-to-face interactions highly (cf par 2.6.1.2), interviews (4.76), conferences/workshops (5.46) and social gatherings (5.53) such as 'Family Fun Days' followed. The least preferred were suggestion boxes (6.17), brochures (6.97) and emails (8.35).

Judging by the way interviews and conferences/workshops are preferred fourth and fifth respectively to circulars, newsletters and telephone calls, demonstrates that education managers are not interested in the means of communication which offer two-way feedback loops in a face-

to-face contact. In the absence of the interview, one wonders as to how they reach the illiterate parents. This could be one of the reasons why conferences/workshops (53.06%) had such a low rating in the previous discussion (see Table 5.3). The absence of such live conferences appears to be a need whereby the desires, interests and expectations of parents could be incorporated in school endeavours (cf par 2.6.1.2). This lack of it may make parents hesitate to participate in subject committees (83.67%) and communication committees (50%) as discussed earlier on. Although telephones, which were ranked third in this discussion, do offer such interactions, one wonders how often such a facility may be used when one considers the cost involved. However, if used together with circulars and newsletters, they would be the best means of communication for the busiest of the parents (68.05%) as revealed earlier on (see Table 5.3). At this juncture, there was need therefore to ascertain the issues parents and education managers prefer to discuss when they interact.

5.3.4.1 Issues parents and education managers discuss

Discussion issues	Preference ranking frequencies (1-5)						Total N=98
	1	2	3	4	5	mean rank	
Positive child issues	15 15.31	26 26.53	14 14.29	31 31.63	12 12.24	2.99 (3)	100
Negative child issues	5 5.10	8 8.16	12 12.24	24 24.49	49 50.00	4.06 (5)	100
Positive & negative issues	19 19.39	22 22.45	33 33.67	17 17.35	7 7.14	2.70 (2)	100
Parent expectations	5 5.10	20 20.41	32 32.65	16 16.33	25 25.51	3.38 (4)	100
Needs of the child	54 55.10	22 22.45	7 7.14	10 10.20	5 5.10	1.88 (1)	100

The mean preference rankings and overall rankings derived from Table 5.5 indicate that the needs of the child (1.88) are the most preferred discussion topic when parents and education managers interact at whatever level. This is counter balanced by discussing both the positive and negative issues about the child (2.70). Thereafter, positive child issues (2.98), parental expectations (3.38) and negative child issues (4.06) follow respectively.

The findings above are a confirmation of literature reviewed on this attribute. Focusing on the learner's needs (cf par 1.1) constitutes a child-centered approach in the delivery of the education service, although the Chinese prefer a Teacher-centred one (cf Vong, 2008:155) in their pursuit of the non-involvement phenomenon (cf par 2.3.2). From a TQM perception, this focus would enable education managers to attend to the real needs of learners (1.88) not the parents' expectations (3.38) who are regarded as external customers in this thesis (cf par 1.2.1; Algozzine et al 2005:178). Similarly, a discussion of both positive and negative concerns would enable both parents and education managers through a SWOT analysis (cf par 2.1.5), establish needs. This would enable a continuous process of improvement beginning by prioritising the needs of the learner and pilot testing before adoption for the purpose of improving organisational processes (cf Algozzine et al 2005:178) that are linked to accountability (cf Hofman, Dijkstra & Hofman, 2008:282). In that way, the child's academic, social, cultural, moral, physical and emotional development (cf Gelsthorpe & West-Burnham, 2003:142; Nziramasanga, 1999:61) would be enhanced as schools move towards the provision of holistic education (cf par 3.4). What also is well articulated in these findings is that parents are interested to hear more positive comments (2.98) about their children which may end up boosting their children's self-esteem (cf Berger, 2007:169) in a one-to-one contact with school personnel (cf par 2.6.1.2) as opposed to negative ones (4.06). The latter situation should be avoided at all cost if the home and school are to be regarded as life-long institutions (cf par 3.4) instead of political arenas which would be 'alive and screaming', as observed by Chikoko (2008:247). With the most preferred mode of communication having been established and the issues both parents and education managers engage in identified, there was need to investigate the attitudes of the respondents on PI programmes.

5.3.5 Attitudes towards Parental Involvement programmes

Since change of any magnitude destabilises the status quo of any given institution (cf par 1.5), there was need therefore to investigate the prevailing attitudinal variables in schools (cf par 1.6.2) where PI programmes are in operation so as to establish the mental and emotional readiness of parents through their representatives and education managers as school governance was being decentralised to the grass roots through the philosophy of TQM. TQM akin to PI demands that all players be brought on board. For the purposes of clarity the attributes will be discussed separately. Questions 71-102 (SDC/A Chairpersons, Table: 5.6) and 70-87 (education managers, Table: 5.7) of the questionnaire items were meant to find out how the attitudes of parents and education managers towards PI programmes affect the management process (cf par 1.4.2).

5.3.5.1 Attitudes of sdc/a chairpersons towards Parental Involvement

Table 5.6 SDA/C Chairpersons' attitudes towards parental involvement programmes				
Parental involvement attitude	Agreement rating			Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Frequency Table				
School participation a waste of time	31 67.39	1 2.17	14 *30.44	46 100
Participates because child performs	34 72.34	5 10.64	8 17.02	47 100
Working parents not time restricted	29 61.70	4 8.51	14 29.79	47 100
Unemployed parents attend events	22 46.81	4 8.51	21 44.68	47 100
School system favours rich children	41 *87.24	3 6.38	3 6.38	47 100
Caring parents attend school events	13 27.66	4 8.51	30 63.83	47 100
Education level affects parental involvement	8 17.02	3 6.38	36 76.60	47 100
Bad experiences discourage involvement	10 21.28	6 *12.76	31 65.96	47 100
Parents who performed well visit school	16 34.04	0 0.00	31 65.96	47 100
Illiterate parents partake in meetings	21 45.65	11 *23.92	14 30.43	46 100

Table 5.6 SDA/C Chairpersons' attitudes towards parental involvement programmes				
Parental involvement attitude	Agreement rating			Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Frequency Table				
Head speaks English regardless of literacy	42 89.36	1 2.13	4 8.51	47 100
Uneducated parents mix well with management	13 27.66	10 21.28	24 51.06	47 100
Head tries to involve parents	2 4.35	0 0.00	44 95.65	46 100
Parents deal with disciplinary problems at home	2 4.44	4 8.89	39 86.67	45 100
Opposed to be called to disciplinary meetings	34 72.34	2 2.26	11 23.40	47 100
Parents pay teachers to teach children	17 36.17	3 6.38	27 57.45	47 100
My duty ends when I drop my child	40 *85.10	1 2.13	6 12.77	47 100
Most parents know the class teacher	9 19.15	6 12.77	32 *68.08	47 100
Parents visit schools due to an incompetent teacher	41 *91.12	2 4.44	2 4.44	45 100
Input in the child's education is parents' right	1 2.13	0 0.00	46 97.87	47 100
Parents prefer teachers to teach children	43 93.48	1 2.17	2 4.35	46 100
Parents' expectations is taken seriously	2 4.26	6 12.77	39 *82.97	47 100
Parents choose tests written by children	43 95.56	1 2.22	1 2.22	45 100
Parents quarrel with authorities	36 78.26	3 6.52	7 15.22	46 100
Parents and head have a good rapport	4 8.51	5 10.64	38 80.85	47 100
Head treats parents as partners	2 4.26	3 6.38	42 89.36	47 100
Parents choose teaching method	41 87.23	5 10.64	1 2.13	47 100
Parents choose subjects taught to children	44 93.62	3 6.38	0 0.00	47 100
Parents have a say in the staffing of teachers	42 89.36	4 8.51	1 2.13	47 100

Table 5.6 SDA/C Chairpersons' attitudes towards parental involvement programmes				
Parental involvement attitude	Agreement rating			Total/%
Frequency Table	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Parents have a say in the recruitment of teachers	38 80.85	6 12.77	3 6.38	47 100
Children are treated according to backgrounds	33 *70.22	7 14.89	7 14.89	47 100
Total	776 52.01	121 8.11	595 39.88	1492 100

***Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of results.**

***Adjusted to give a summation of 100 percent**

Table 5.6 seems to reveal that parents regard their participation in the education of their children as their constitutional right (97.87%) and social responsibility as confirmed by literature reviewed on the attribute (cf Lareau: 2001:114) not that their children excel at school (72.34%) as observed by Dun & Booth (1996:10). They also admitted that education managers in the Bulawayo Metropolitan Province try by all means to involve parents in parenting skills and reinforcement of the curriculum at home in a supportive way (95.65%). In the absence of an interview, it is difficult to estimate the education managers' degree of wanting to involve parents in those attributes as workshops meant for this purpose were averagely rated earlier on (cf par 5.3.3). Interesting to note though is that education managers in the investigated schools treat parents as equal partners in the educative enterprise (89.36%). Despite that kind of treatment, parents prefer to deal with their children's disruptive behavior at home (86.67%) although they do not object being summoned to the school by the school authorities to account for their children's disciplinary issues (72.34%). The parents' attitude seem to acknowledge that while their influence is mostly felt at home, they would not mind being held accountable for what their children do at school, contrary to literature reviewed on the attribute (cf par 2.7.2). A scenario which education managers need to capitalise on if home-school-relationships are to lead to genuine partnerships as envisaged earlier on.

Since at the centre of the TQM organisational activity is meeting or exceeding the expectations, needs, requirements and desires of the customers (cf par 2.1.5) as schools try to empower

communities they operate in (cf par 2.1.4), there was need therefore to find out to what an extent the parents' expectations were met in the provision of education as they are the funders (57.45%). The majority of the respondents (82.97%) claimed that their expectations were taken seriously at their schools by education managers. The high rating on this attribute is misleading when it is cross-checked with their earlier observations on issues commonly discussed when the two parties converse. Parental expectations were ranked fourth by both parents and education managers (see Table 5.5). Perhaps education managers, knowing how pedagogically damaging parents' egos can be (cf par 1.1), tactfully listen to parents when parental issues are being discussed, although implementation and prioritisation is something else, hence, giving parents a false impression that their concerns are taken seriously. A scenario which could have been verified by an interview if the current alliance between parents and education managers is not to be viewed as cosmetic and superficial (cf Baloyi, 2003:16; par 2.1.6). Moreover, parents went further to claim that they had excellent working relations with the education managers (80.85%) and disputes of whatever kind were unknown and unheard of (78.26%) confirming the positive home-school relationship which exists between the two entities.

Although most parents were in league with the opinions that their level of education influences their involvement (76.60%), bad experiences with the school traumatized them (65.96%) and those who performed well at school would always visit it (65.96%). These claims were dismissed with all the scorn they deserve as education managers in this Province seem to tolerate and accommodate illiterate parents as they do not address them in English punctuated with professional jargon (89.36%). This could be one of the reasons why there is a good rapport between uneducated parents and management in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province (51.06%) although the score is low (cf Long, 2007:30; Heystek, 2006:476). On whether illiterate parents contribute a lot at meetings, parents were divided. Twenty-one (45.65%) disagreed, eleven (23.91%) were not sure and fourteen (30.43%) agreed. Although this statistic on illiterate parents may suggest that they are generally marginalised at meetings, it is difficult to measure this construct where English is not a dominant *lingua franca* and meetings are not ranked highly as observed earlier on. What therefore this means is that parents have the freedom to express their opinions in a language agreeable to both parties, those who do not do so could be timid and passive by nature. Their output however is determined by the frequency of such exposures, a

situation which is equally difficult to surmise when circulars (see Table 5.5) take precedence over other modes of communication.

At this point of the investigation, it was necessary to ascertain the attitude of parents towards attending school events. Thirty (63.83%) respondents indicated that those who attended school events were the most caring parents and under performers (36.96%) were mostly absent. Education managers need to handle this piece of mind with care as literature reviewed on this attribute claims that non-attendance by parents could be due to a number of reasons, such as not having transport to go to a parents' evening (cf par 2.7.2). This indeed can be a potential source of organisational conflict if not handled professionally, more so that, parents (67.39%) in these schools do not regard participating in schools as time consuming although they admitted that working-class parents (61.70%) were restricted by time constraints. The education manager informed by this wisdom would need to conduct an opinion survey so as to get to the bottom of these prohibitive circumstances (cf par 2.2.9) if all working-class parents are to be brought on board. To find out whether the majority of those who attended school functions were the unemployed or not, the respondents were divided on this one. Twenty-two (46.81%) denied, four (8.51%) were neutral and twenty-one (44.68%) concurred. This serves to confirm how complex this attribute is, hence, the need for it to be investigated further without making assumptions, more so that the biographic data on parent representatives indicated that (28%) of them were the retired and unemployed. There could be some grain of truth in that some are employed and while others are not as both positives and negatives were at equilibrium.

Literature on Charter Schools in the US (cf par 2.3.14) states that schools have the jurisdiction to fund and develop their own facilities, hire their teachers and design their own curriculum. South Africa has adopted the same practice although teacher selection in racist institutions viewed it as a 'recipe of uniform mediocrity' (cf par 2.4.4.) which led them to heavily contest this piece of legislation in the courts. The Zimbabwean government wanting to create a new school governance landscape based on citizen participation democratised its education system through a process of decentralisation in its attempt to empower communities and tap grass root opinions as well by adopting the American experience (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2). On that note, it was imperative to measure the involvement of parents in academic issues as indicated above.

Although American parents have a say in the tests administered to their children as mandated by their own statutes (cf par 2.2.10), parents (95.56%) in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province do not choose tests written by their children. They neither choose subjects to be taught (93.62%) nor teachers to teach their children (93.48%). They also denied that they selected the methodologies teachers use on their children (87.23%) and that they influenced the recruitment of teachers (80.85%). This latter view was found to be baffling, more so since the statutes mandate them to do so (cf par 3.10.1b; 3.10.2) and the SDC/A Chairpersons were found to be highly educated in this Province (cf par 5.1.2) and could thus handle this practice comfortably. Perhaps their busy schedules (61.70%) and lack of state funded PI workshops as provided in the American model (cf par 2.2.11) could contribute to parents' lack of knowledge on curricular issues (cf par 2.2.4) within their jurisdiction, hence, this passive support to the educative process (Li, Chen & Sun, 2002:9).

Since Table 5.6 highlighted that parents want to be visible in the school for whatever reasons. According to that view, parents denied that their visits to the school were due to lack of confidence in their teachers (91.12%). Instead, they demonstrated their confidence in what the school authorities do by not interfering with the staffing of teachers (89.36%). In that light, the researcher concluded that parents in this province are not meddlesome as hypothesised (cf par 1.6.2) and respect the way things are done in their schools, as their involvement in curriculum issues is peripheral and marginalised, thus averting organisational conflicts highlighted in the literature reviewed. Similarly, their earlier claim that they were treated as equal partners (89.36%) can be questioned further as they are not involved in the core business of the educative enterprise. However, they are not 'dry-cleaner type of parents' (85.10%) "who drop off their children expecting them to be 'cleaned up' by the time they are picked up" (cf Galloway, 2006:257). Most of them know the teachers who teach their children (68.08%) which is an indicator that they really want to be involved in the education of their children as long as they are armed with the appropriate technology in PI.

What is equally comforting in this scenario is that the school environment does not seem to discriminate interactions according to 'social class' as rich families are not favoured (87.24%) contrary to what literature claims (cf Lareau, 2000:24). However, when the same parents went

further to deny that teachers at their schools treated children according to their backgrounds (70.21%), it became a bone of contention. This is the customer focus which the TQM philosophy calls for (cf par 2.1.5) which pedagogues would refer to as the child-centred approach. It is akin to “Bush’s administration 2002 No Child Left Behind Act” (cf par 2.2.10) and the Chinese educational notion of “Students are not allowed to fail, but only allowed to succeed”. Perhaps the respondents may have been confused by the professional jargon used in the wording of the question. A face-to-face interaction would have clarified this confusion. With the attitudes of Chairpersons being reliably rated 0.84 on the Cronbach alpha coefficient scale (see Appendix G, Table 5.11) in as far as this attribute was concerned, there was need therefore to cross-check these against those of education managers under investigation.

5.3.5.2 Attitudes of education managers towards Parental Involvement programmes

Table 5.7 School managers’ attitudes towards parental involvement programmes				
Parental involvement attitude	Agreement rating			Total/%
Frequency Table	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
SDC/A are time consuming	43 *84.32	2 3.92	6 11.76	51 100
Parents are involved in the academic performance of the child	6 12.24	2 4.08	41 *83.68	49 100
Parents assist with homework	2 3.92	6 11.76	43 *84.32	51 100
Parents interfere with the running of the school	31 *60.79	2 3.92	18 35.29	51 100
SDC/A cause conflict	36 72.00	4 8.00	10 20.00	50 100
Parents prepare children before taking them to school	12 23.53	6 11.76	33 64.71	51 100
Parents attend school events	9 17.65	4 7.84	38 74.51	51 100
Parents lack the expertise in instructional issues	13 25.49	10 19.61	28 54.90	51 100
Parents conduct lessons at home & school	28 54.90	13 25.49	10 19.61	51 100
Parents do duties assigned to them by the Head	19 38.00	4 8.00	27 54.00	50 100

Table 5.7 School managers' attitudes towards parental involvement programmes				
Parental involvement attitude	Agreement rating			Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Frequency Table				
Parents status affects methodology	20 *39.21	9 17.65	22 43.14	51 100
Parents status affects choice of subject matter	31 60.78	7 13.73	13 25.49	51 100
Parents treat school as a social welfare institution	21 42.00	6 12.00	23 46.00	50 100
Parents are opposed to teaching after hours	27 52.94	8 15.69	16 31.37	51 100
Parents view teaching as a teacher's job	16 31.37	10 19.61	25 49.02	51 100
Parents are intimidated by the heads' qualifications	34 66.67	14 27.45	3 5.88	51 100
Successful parents participate fully	5 9.80	6 11.76	40 *78.44	51 100
Parents who once failures avoid school	19 *37.26	15 29.41	17 33.33	51 100
Total	372 40.74	128 14.02	413 45.24	913 100

* Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of the results.

* Adjusted to give a summation of 100%

A scrutiny of Table 5.7 on attitudes of education managers towards PI makes intriguing revelations. Literature reviewed claims that education managers view parents as paraprofessionals who, due to their limited educational background, do not have the capacity to assist children in homework and skill acquisition (cf Burke & Picus, 2001:11). However, when their perceptions were sought in relation to this attribute, 84.32% responded in the positive contrary to this opinion highlighted here. They went further to claim that the majority of parents were involved in academic issues of their children (83.68%), a situation which both parent representatives and education managers had confirmed earlier on (see Table 5.1). Perhaps the bulk of those who did so were those who were once successful during their school days (78.44%). However, when the above referred to views are cross checked with q77 and q78, the results seem to be misleading. Education managers indicated that parents do not have the

expertise to conduct instructional issues (54.90%) in the manner they claimed to do so, thus confirming the literature reviewed on this attribute (cf par 2.7.3) and they were not volunteer tutors (69.39%) at school either (see Table 5.3). Little wonder that when they were asked whether parents considered teaching as a job done by teachers only, they were not sure. Twenty-five (49.02%) agreed, sixteen (31.37%) denied and ten (19.61%) preferred to be neutral. Perhaps those who denied and those in doubt could be implying that parents to a certain extent are involved in that manner as evidenced in their involvement in coaching homework at home (see appendix F, Table q15). However, workshops of this nature were found to be wanting (see Table 5.3). Thus, the researcher could not perceive how parents who lacked the expertise to conduct instructional issues either at home or school would be able to reinforce the curriculum at home in the way it is advocated for in this thesis.

Despite that, it is encouraging to note that parents attend school events regularly (74.51%) and their parenting skills are positive as well (64.71%). They also perform duties assigned to them by the education manager (54%), they are not opposed to teaching which takes place after hours (52.94%), neither are they intimidated by the educational qualifications of the education managers (66.67%) who by right are supposed to be their genuine partners, thus contradicting literature reviewed on this attribute (cf Heystek, 2006:478). Akin to the perception of the parent representatives (67.39%), education managers in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province denied that SDC/A programmes are time consuming (84.32%) which is contrary to what Deplanty and Coutle-Ken Duchane (2007:362) observed on the attribute. They further confirmed that these programmes were neither problematic nor did they cause any organisational conflict (72%) at all. Moreover, parents never used their economic status to influence subject matter (60.78%) as indicated in the literature section (cf par 2.7.1) nor did they interfere with the professional running of the school (60.79%), thus making them less meddlesome in the professional governance of the school system (cf par 1.6.2). Coincidentally, parent representatives had equally confirmed this view in the positive earlier on (see Table 5.6).

Although education managers could not take a position on the following: schools are treated as social welfare institutions (46%), the status of parents influenced the methodology used (43.14%) and parents who were once failures disliked visiting the school (33.33%). The last two

may be clarified by cross checking them with the views of SDC/A Chairpersons on the similar attributes. Since parents had earlier on refuted that the social status of individuals is favoured in schools (87.24%) (see Table 5.6), this high rating coming from recipients of the education service themselves could render the sentiments of education managers futile. Similarly, on parents who were once failures, equilibrium may be achieved by referring to the perceptions of parents (see Table 5.6) on the same attribute.

What the evidence on the attitudes of both SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers is suggesting here is that parents regard their involvement in the education of their children as their constitutional right and social responsibility as they do not object being summoned to the school to account for their (children's) unruly behaviour (cf par 2.7.2). However, the claim that parents have the capacity to reinforce curriculum issues (cf par 2.7.3) when workshops of this nature are wanting made the researcher surmise that whatever transpires is haphazardly done. Training of participants is equally crucial from a TQM perspective if both partners are to be knowledgeable participants and on equal terms (cf par 2.1.5). Even when they claimed that their expectations were met (cf par 2.1.5), the researcher found no evidence for this as it was ranked fourth on the priority list (see Table 5.5).

All things being equal, solace may be derived from the assertion that the home and school have an excellent working rapport (cf par 2.1.6) despite the claim that some parents were traumatized by their previous bad experiences with the school (cf par 2.7.2). The claim by some parents that they were traumatized by their past bad experiences at school (cf Table 5.6) should not go unchecked, although counteracted by the illiterate parents who made positive contributions to meetings unequivocally. Of concern from a TQM philosophy is that parents are eager to attend to school events and academic issues of the school unhindered by time constraints (cf par 2.7.2) although measures should be put in place to accommodate working-class parents (cf par 2.7.2). They were also found to be ambitious to participate in whatever duties they were assigned by the school authorities wholeheartedly. In addition, they were found to be not meddlesome (cf par 2.7.2) at all as noted by the manner they were divorced from curriculum issues such as recruitment of teachers, hence averting organisational conflict (cf par 2.7.3) which comes with such type of involvement. Such findings save to further reject both the literature reviewed on the

attribute and the hypothesis which states that education managers view PI programmes as meddlesome in their professional job (cf par 1.6.2). What is disturbing though is the failure of education managers to acknowledge that parents have the expertise which can be tapped as demanded by the TQM philosophy (cf par 2.1.5). Thus, the attitudes of parents (0.87) and those of education managers (0.71) (see Appendix G, Table 5.11) to successful implementation of PI programmes in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province as hypothesised (cf par 1.6.2) were positively confirmed. There was need therefore, to ascertain how education managers manage their institutions within this new dispensation and paradigm shift.

5.3.6 Respondents' perceptions of the management style associated with PI programmes

There is a growing concern in schools which calls upon both parents and education managers of the 21st century to work together as they explore ways of redesigning education systems (cf De Jager & Nieuwenhuis, 2005:252), hence the adoption of the TQM philosophy by the Zimbabwean government in school governance as part of its turnaround strategy (cf par 2.1.5). Thus, it was necessary therefore to ascertain the extent of paradigm shift in the running of schools as PI in governance was implemented. Questions 103 -127 (SDC/A Chairpersons) and 88-112 (education managers) were meant to interrogate the education managers' *modus operandi*. The findings are displayed in Table 5.8 below.

Table 5.8 Perceptions on the management style associated with PI programmes				
Label (Aspects of management styles)	Style (Perception ratings)			Total/%
Frequency Table	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Parents ideas incorporated in school plans	13 13.27	10 10.20	75 76.53	98 100
Parents opinions accommodated in school plans	10 10.31	7 7.22	80 82.47	97 100
Views of stakeholders considered in decisions	7 7.14	6 6.12	85 *86.74	98 100
Get value for money	17 17.53	13 13.40	67 69.07	97 100
SDC/A project failure is a learning process	26 26.80	16 16.49	55 *56.71	97 100
SDC/A & Head monitor parental programmes	13 13.40	7 7.22	77 79.38	97 100
Parental feedback is used to modify existing programmes	4 4.08	6 6.12	88 89.80	98 100

Table 5.8 Perceptions on the management style associated with PI programmes				
Label (Aspects of management styles)	Style (Perception ratings)			Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Frequency Table				
Parents viewed as forces of change	9 9.28	14 14.43	74 76.29	97 100
Parents/Heads evaluate SDC/A programmes	8 8.25	6 6.19	83 *85.56	97 100
Head consults SDC/A first	45 45.92	5 5.10	48 48.98	98 100
Parents consulted on non-academic issues	31 31.61	9 9.18	58 *59.19	98 100
Excellence is our guiding principle	3 3.16	4 4.21	88 92.63	95 100
Success is a collective responsibility	3 3.06	2 2.04	93 94.90	98 100
Parents fund educational resources needed	9 9.28	3 3.09	85 87.63	97 100
Parents body is monitored by the Head	10 10.20	8 8.16	80 *81.64	98 100
Head views parents visits as fault-finding	82 *83.68	9 9.18	7 7.14	98 100
Parents are involved in formulation of vision and mission statement	36 37.50	27 28.13	33 *34.37	96 100
Parents viewed as interested parties	4 4.08	5 5.10	89 90.82	98 100
Measure performance against other school	2 2.06	2 2.06	93 95.88	97 100
No parent interference in school management	17 17.35	9 9.18	72 73.47	98 100
Total	349 17.93	168 8.63	1430 *73.44	1947 100

* Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of the results.

* Adjusted to give a summation of 100%

Table 5.8 reveals that the educative process of the school system is guided by the principle of excellence (92.63%) and schools are also quality conscious organisations as indicated by education managers (88.24%) (see Appendix F, qq93) and SDC/A Chairpersons (95.75%) (see appendix F, Table q108). This is one of the reasons why they go to an extent of measuring their

performance against other schools (95.88%), an aspect of benchmarking, as they engage in comprehensive reforms since the world has become a global village. (cf par 2.1.5). To such schools, success is viewed as a collective responsibility (94.90%) as views of various stakeholders are taken seriously in making decisions (86.74%) and expectations (76.53%) as well, although the latter opinion was refuted earlier on (cf par 5.3.5). In this context, respondents claimed that the opinions of parents are always accommodated in the conceiving of school plans (82.47%). An indicator that every player in the process is valued as an asset (94.90%) (see Table 5.3) and as interested parties (90.82%) as well. Even parents corroborated this view when they asserted that education managers consult them (85.11%) about everything they do (see Appendix F, Table: q127), although education managers were not sure whether they consulted parents first for what they did as only (48.98%) of the respondents responded in the affirmative.

However, what was found disturbing within this scenario is that respondents, contrary to Swap's Partnership Model (cf par 2.6.2.4), were not sure whether parents were involved in the design of the vision and mission statement of the school although both respondents were academically and professionally qualified in one way or another (cf par 5.1.2). Thirty-three (34.37%) agreed, 36 (37.50%) denied and 27 (28.13%) preferred to be neutral. A vision and mission statement is crucial here as they spell out the main purpose of the school and how the goals can be translated into reality (Kruger, 2002:32). This main business of the school is at the centre of the TQM philosophy (cf De Jager & Nieuwenhuis, 2005:252), which also calls the earlier claim that parents were regularly accommodated in the conceiving of school plans (82.47%) into question.

Equally noteworthy here is that the financial input parents make in the procurement of educational resources is respected (87.63%), both parents and education managers evaluate SDC/A programmes (85.56%) and monitor their implementation (79.38%) jointly, although for accountability sake, the education managers further monitor the parental body constantly (81.64%) as individuals. Feedback from parents on how the programmes fare is used to modify existing programmes (89.80%). This thrust is in line with the concept of 'never-ending improvement' as attempts are made to meet both the external and internal needs of customers as schools move towards academic excellence (cf par 2.1.5). Perhaps the joint cooperation referred

to above is what made education managers later claim that there is a harmonious relationship (76%) between the parent body and the school administration (see Appendix F, Table qq107), as observed earlier on (see Table 5.7). Little wonder that conflicts are mitigated by the fact that parents' visits are not viewed as fault-finding (83.68%) and rumour-mongering (82.98%) (see Appendix F, Table q122). Instead parents are viewed as change agents (76.29%) in the manner Comer views them (cf par 2.6.3.3) and did not wish to interfere with the professional running of the school (73.47%), thus, further rejecting the first hypothesis of this thesis (cf par 1.6.2). This sentiment is in league with that expressed by education managers (60.79%) earlier (see Table 5.7). The corroboration as noted in this context could be one of the reasons why failure of projects is taken as part of the learning process (56.71%) and parents were happy that schools in this Province were not short-changing them at all (69.07%). Despite the mutual relationship which exists in Bulawayo Metropolitan Primary Schools, it was disappointing to note that parents are only consulted in non-academic issues (59.19%) although parents had indicated that they wanted to be involved in both, implying that to some extent some education managers were resisting change.

What the above findings imply here is that Bulawayo Metropolitan government primary schools are quality conscious and are operating within the dictates of the TQM initiative as noted by the high ratings achieved in all the attributes which were positively responded to (0.84) (see Appendix G, Table 5.11). The teamwork registered in evaluation and monitoring of PI programmes is equally a clear testimony that TQM tenets are alive and at play in institutions investigated as continuous change is sought to cater for the dynamic nature of schools. In that light, the 'naming and shaming', which are characteristics of previous regimes of management are things of the past as schools realise their collective efforts even in failure (cf Hoy, Bayne-Jordini & Wood, 2000:32; Parson, 1994:19). This could be a reason which makes schools 'conflict-free-zones' as revealed by the findings. However, there is need for education managers to consult parents on academic issues as well and workshop parents on the need for teamwork when it comes to the vision and mission of the institution.

5.3.7 The legal documents for parental involvement

Any innovation of whatever magnitude, for it to be acceptable and respected by all those who are supposed to benefit from it, must take place within the law. School governance in Zimbabwe takes place within the law. There are Acts of Parliament and statutory instruments which regulate behaviours and activities in educational institutions and it is incumbent upon those who are privileged to manage such institutions to be acquainted with. The aim of this part of the study therefore was to explore the legal documents under which PI programmes operate in within the TQM framework. Questions 113-120 (SDC/A Chairpersons) and 128-135 (education managers) were exactly meant for that purpose as portrayed in Table 5.9

Table 5.9 Legal PI documents that respondents are most familiar with/have read					
Legal parental involvement documents	Familiar with				Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	
Frequency Table					
Education Act of 1979	25 25.51	18 18.37	55 56.12	3.37 (5)	98 100
ZANU PF manifesto 1980	44 44.90	15 15.31	39 39.79	2.74 (1)	98 100
Education act 1987	23 23.47	14 14.29	61 62.24	3.53 (6)	98 100
Amended Education Act 1991	29 29.59	16 16.33	53 *54.08	3.35 (4)	98 100
Education Act 1996	27 27.55	22 22.45	49 50.00	3.30 (3)	98 100
Education Act 2006	36 *37.12	25 25.77	36 37.11	2.98 (2)	97 100
SDC Statutory Instrument 87, 1992	8 8.16	9 9.18	81 82.66	4.00 (8)	98 100
SDA Statutory Instrument 70, 1993	9 9.18	10 10.20	79 80.62	3.93 (7)	98 100
Total	201 25.67	129 16.48	453 57.85		783 100

* Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree have been collocated to facilitate discussion of the results.

Adjusted to give a summation of 100%

A closer examination of Table 5.9 reveals that SDC Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 is the most read legal document giving a combined positive response of (82.66%) followed by the SDA Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993 (80.62%) and the Education Act of 1987 (62.24%). Thereafter, the Education Act of 1979 (56.12%), the Amended Education Act of 1991(54.08%) and the Education Act of 1996 (50%) follow also in that order. However, there was a mixed reaction when it came to the ZANU PF Manifesto of 1980 and the Education Act of 2006. In the former, 44.90% had no access to the document, 15.31% were not sure whether they had read it or not, giving a combined total of 60.21% of those who claim that they had not read the document. The 39.79%, who claim to have read this document, do not give more weight to the discussion, particularly as this was the policy document which gave birth to most educational reforms introduced by the Zimbabwean government at independence. There could be three possible answers to this low rating on this statute. Civil servants who do not want to align themselves to the ruling political party may have deliberately avoided this important document, especially as at post-independence civil servants are supposed to be apolitical. Secondly, it could be due to the unavailability of this kind of literature in schools or thirdly to passive resistance, especially as Matabeleland North Province in general and Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in particular, have been in the hands of the opposition parties. First it was PF ZAPU, before the two revolutionary parties amalgamated (ZANU PF and PF ZAPU) and now is the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC). When it came to the current document, the Education Act of 2006, there was equilibrium. Thirty-six (37.11%) responded in the affirmative while (37.12%) indicated that they had not read it.

Despite these controversies, it was encouraging to note that parents and education managers in Bulawayo are operating within the law as noted by the majority of those who have had access to the SDC/A statutes or read them (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2). These two are the operational documents which every school must have before the formation of the parent body. In that light, the researcher concluded that both Chairpersons and education managers have the juridical expertise and knowledge of the operational legal documents which set the parameters of parental engagement, thus rejecting the hypothesis surmised earlier on this attribute (cf par 1.6.2). The education manager who has a TQM philosophy should procure the non-available legal documents, and thereafter, orient the elected parents so that they understand what it entails to be

part of the school management team. The situation could have been made worse by the fact that Government Printers which used to publish and distribute these documents freely has of late adopted cost saving measures by charging schools. In that light, the already cash-stripped schools cannot afford to purchase such documents.

With parents and education managers aware of the legal framework under which they operate in, there was need to ascertain their understanding of these statutes when school governance is operational through Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Respondents perceptions/understanding of legal framework governing PI programmes				
Legal aspects	Agreement rating			Total/%
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	
Frequency Table				
SDC/As are legal	2 2.06	1 1.03	94 96.91	97 100
SDC/As are familiar with legal statutes	3 3.09	2 2.06	92 94.85	97 100
Functions of SDC/As are clearly defined	2 2.04	6 6.12	90 91.84	98 100
SDC/As hire and fire teachers	91 95.79	3 3.16	1 1.05	95 100
Statutes give parent bodies much power	61 64.21	13 13.68	21 22.11	95 100
Legal statutes empower parents to provide resources	11 11.22	9 9.18	78 *79.60	98 100
Decentralisation improves school resources	17 17.35	6 6.12	75 76.53	98 100
Government to continue providing educational resources	63 64.29	11 11.22	24 24.49	98 100
Parents in management monitor Heads	77 *78.58	10 10.20	11 11.22	98 100
Schools with SDC/As are well resourced	10 10.20	4 4.08	84 *85.72	98 100
Decentralisation improves the effectiveness of the school system	14 14.43	10 10.31	73 75.26	98 100
SDC/As are involved in financial decisions	8 8.16	5 5.10	85 *86.74	98 100
Head is an ex-officio member of SDC/A	4 4.08	0 0.00	94 95.92	97 100
Total	363 28.70	80 6.32	822 64.98	98 100

Positives and negatives have been combined for clarity purposes.

***Adjusted to give a summation of 100%.**

A closer look at Table 5.10 reveals that both groups of respondents are aware that the formation of SDCs/As is legal: (96.91%) in government schools and the education manager (95.92%) is also legally an ex-officio member of the committee, thus confirming an earlier claim that they were involved in workshops on policy, circulars and statutory instruments (see Table 5.3). This is true in the sense that parents (94.85%) are equally conversant with the legal statutes which govern their involvement. This could be due to the fact that the function of the School Governing Board is clearly delineated (91.84%), hence, averting squabbles.

According to the statutes (cf par 3.10.1: 3.10.2) parents are supposed to be members of the Finance Committee which superintend all financial obligations of the school within their jurisdiction for accountability purposes and as part of the decentralisation process. In that light, eighty-five (86.74%) of the respondents claimed that parents were involved in financial decisions. It is perhaps from this kind of involvement that such schools become well-resourced (85.72%) in the long run, thus confirming an observation they made earlier on (see Table 5.2).

This can only be made possible if parent representatives know that the legal statutes (74.51%) (see Appendix F, Table: q123) which they must have access to (72.34%) (see appendix F, Table q143) empower them to do so (79.60%). Little wonder that both groups of respondents view decentralisation as a way of improving the performance of the school (76.53%) as well as its effectiveness and efficiency (75.26%) as hypothesised earlier (cf par 1.6.2) and confirmed by literature reviewed on the attribute (cf Zvobgo, 2004:110). Education managers need to pursue this line of thought as they adapt quality initiatives.

Encouraging in this context is the observation that the legal statutes (64.21%) do not give the parent body too much power. On the contrary, education managers (52.94%) seem to be subscribing to Swap's Protective Model in defence of their territory (cf par 2.6.2.1) when they assert that PI has brought about non-professionals on the management arena who need to be managed (see Appendix F, Table qq129), although the rating is low. However, the management

field is levelled by the fact that parents denied that their involvement is a way of monitoring the powers of the education manager (78.58%) and that government (64.29%) should continue to provide educational resources single-handedly. This is an indicator that parents really want to be engaged in a genuine partnership with the school authorities. Despite parents' knowledge of the statutes, their level of education and the welcoming nature of the school climate and culture as observed in the above findings, parents do not want to be involved in the hiring and firing of teachers (95.79%), another grey area for investigation on PI.

The evidence cited above indicates that parental involvement in Bulawayo Metropolitan Primary Government Schools is juridical as noted by the positive responses on this attribute (see Table 5.10) and both education managers and parents are aware of their obligations within this jurisdiction, thus contradicting the second hypothesis on the subject (cf par 1.6.2). The assertion is further buttressed by the Cronbach alpha coefficient rating of (0.72) and the mean score of (3.97), indicating the reliability of the responses given on this variable by the respondents (see Appendix G, Table 5.11). Educational resources improve immensely as a result of this partnership leading to the improvement of the academic performance of the school as institutions move towards achieving efficiency and effectiveness. This observation serves to confirm that PI as an element of TQM enhances the effectiveness and efficiency of the educative process, thus, confirming the third hypothesis of this study (cf par 1.6.2).

The claim of some education managers that PI has brought about non-professionals who need to be managed is not significant as parents do not engage in power games. If the TQM philosophy of 'ever-improving' in order to meet the needs of the customer is to bear fruit in this context, workshops and training (cf par 3.4) should be adopted. In that view, negative sentiments, such as those referred to above, may be eliminated or minimised. Perhaps at such workshops, the empowering of parents in the recruitment and firing of teachers which they so much shun can be discussed as well. Parents admitted that the government purse has been overtaxed and it was necessary to include other stakeholders (cf par 1.2: 2.1.2).

5.3.8 Summary

The chapter set out to determine how PI programmes are managed as decentralisation takes place in school governance in Zimbabwean Government Schools, whether attitudes of both parents and education managers towards PI affects the adoption of the TQM philosophy in the management of government schools within the jurisdiction of Bulawayo Metropolitan Province and whether parents and education managers were aware that their roles in matters of school governance should operate within a legal framework as schools move towards academic excellence. To achieve this, an empirical research of a quantitative nature was conducted using survey questionnaires with precoded responses designed to establish whether the aforesaid stakeholders were involved in the management of the educative process as influenced by their conceptual understanding of the concept of PI. Data gathered was displayed in tabular form and the major findings have been discussed and analysed. Within the discussions, studies carried out elsewhere and hypotheses of the thesis were either confirmed or rejected.

Section A revealed that the bulk of participants who participated in this research were the Chairpersons of the parent body and the education managers of the schools under investigation. These were found to be highly educated with the relevant administrative experience which goes with such responsibilities (cf par 5.1.2). With that in mind, the researcher was convinced that the population used was information rich and that authentic conclusions concerning public schools in this province could be derived from them.

Section B confirmed that parents want to be active and supportive participants in the primary aspects of the formal and informal education of their children as individuals or collectively as long as these are done in an orderly fashion (cf par 2.2.4: 5.3.1). This puts to rest the idea of traditional PI (i.e., mundane activities) (cf par 2.6). What is a cause of concern in this scenario is the failure of PI programmes to trigger voluntary participation in tutorials and work related tasks (cf par 5.3.3) as reflected by their conceptual understanding of the concept of PI. Perhaps the introduction of a decent remuneration regime meant to cater for volunteering participants, whether as tutors or workers, would trigger such actions in the future.

Section C revealed that when talents and experiences of various stakeholders are pooled together in a collaborative manner (Algozzine et al 2005:176), parents are empowered in the process and most benefits enumerated in this thesis accrue to the school, individual and community (cf par 5.3.2). This in turn enhances the management skills of education managers and the school's production processes with the ultimate aim of achieving academic excellence (cf Crawford & Shutler, 1999:67). However, their failure to monitor internet facilities although a cause of concern in this thesis is downplayed by its unavailability in some schools.

Section D confirmed that parents by virtue of their biological status, are not only valuable assets in the educative enterprise, but primary educators as well (cf Fitzgerald, 2004:11). This section also revealed that the organisational structures, culture and climate in place are within a TQM framework as noted in the manner parent representatives are democratically elected and go about their school business (cf par 5.3.3). Their claim that they are involved in decisions is defeated by their failure to participate in related activities of this nature such as subject committees and curriculum planning. Perhaps the absence of jointly planned workshops is what mitigates this kind of participation. Interesting to note in this case, is parents' involvement in policy, circular and statutory workshops, the engagement of the busiest parents, parents' eagerness to attend to school functions and the education managers' keenness to attend to community activities. However, contrary to literature, education managers shun home visits (cf par 2.6.4.4).

On the communication channels used to interact with parents or to disseminate crucial information about the school as demanded by the TQM movement, education managers were found to prefer circulars, newsletters and telephone calls (cf par 5.3.4.1). This must have been necessitated by the fact that most of the parents in their catchment areas are literate (cf par 5.1.2). It is contrary to the preferred mode of communication as revealed by literature reviewed, that is to say: social gatherings which are less cumbersome and allow immediate feedback at minimum costs. When quizzed on issues they deliberate on, the needs of the child took precedence over the parents' expectations (see Table 5.5), confirming that their approach is customer focused.

Section E revealed that the current attitudes of both parents and education managers towards PI within a TQM framework are positive (see Table 5.6; 5.7), thus making Bulawayo Metropolitan

Schools fertile ground for successful implementation of an innovation such as that suggested in this thesis (cf par 1.6.2). Parents have a good working rapport with their education managers as noted in the manner they interact with education managers and attend to school business. Their failure to attend to sensitive issues such as recruitment of teachers and choice of subjects makes schools “conflict free zones”. Participation of parents in school governance, although their constitutional right was found to be peripheral and marginal as their involvement does not address crucial curriculum issues of the school business aggressively. Parents were not found to be meddlesome in the professional running of the school (see Table 5.6), thus rejecting the hypothesis of this thesis on this attribute. Interesting to note here is how illiterate parents are accommodated within this organisational structure although some claimed that their past bad experiences with the school traumatized them, an issue which would need verification (see Table 5.7). Of noteworthy though, is their eagerness to be engaged in academic issues of the school despite their educational backgrounds of varying degrees.

Section F confirmed that the TQM initiative is “alive and screaming” in schools whether consciously or unconsciously. Its guiding principle in schools is ‘academic excellence’ an indicator that they are quality conscious as they want to gain a competitive edge over other schools (see Table 5.8). There is a corroboration of minds in the implementation of PI programmes as both parties pursue organisational change followed by collective and constant monitoring and evaluation of programmes in place for modification purposes. This thrust is what brings all the stakeholders on board in a harmonious way. Contrary to the Scientific Management School of thought, success is viewed jointly and failure collectively without apportioning blame to an individual. Disturbing though is the failure by education managers to involve parents in the conceiving of the vision and mission statement of the school. This issue needs serious scrutiny if education managers are not to be auto-pilots in the running of the schools.

Section G revealed that parents and education managers are only acquainted with the subsidiary documents (Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 & Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993) not the actual blue print (ZANU PF Manifesto of 1980) which gave birth to these documents (see Table 5.9). Perhaps this is because the former documents are operational documents which are mandatory in

schools before the establishment of SDCs/As committees. In that view, PI programmes seem to be operating within the dictates of the law, thus rejecting the second hypothesis on this attribute (cf par 1.6.2). The failure by schools to access some of these policy documents also needs further verification.

Section H confirmed that the legal framework in which schools operate have made them efficient and effective (cf par 1.6.2) as they are well-resourced, hence, reducing the financial burden on the national purse (see Table 5.10). Interesting to note is that the tone contradictions which usually arise when PI programmes are introduced in schools are non-existent in this Province (cf par 1.2; 2.4.4). However, the notion that education managers who are still living in the past and regard parents as a spent force when it comes to school business would need re-orientation if they are to adopt TQM as their management philosophy in its totality.

This chapter has presented and analysed data. The major findings have been discussed. Chapter Six will draw conclusions and recommendations based on these findings.

CHAPTER SIX

FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents a discussion and summary of findings and draws final conclusions on which recommendations are made. School governance in Zimbabwean government primary schools has been decentralised to grass root level and community participation is paramount. The original question which therefore initiated this study in that respect was to investigate the management of PI programmes in Zimbabwean Primary Government Schools with special reference to Bulawayo Metropolitan Province. Further questions meant to clarify this issue which arose were how the conceptual understanding of the phenomenon under discussion (Table 5.1), how the benefits that accrue to the learners, education managers, institution and community (Table 5.2), how the perceptions of both school governors (Table 5.6) and education managers (Table 5.7) towards the management of PI programmes, and how the legal statutes (Chap 3) that dictate the involvement phenomenon would enhance the academic performance of schools investigated (cf par 1.4.2). An ideal education manager in this case would be one who capitalises on the positive findings of this thesis as attempts are being made in schools to bring all stakeholders on board with the sole aim of meeting the needs of customers (learners) and tapping the skills, knowledge and expertise of parents for the purposes of achieving academic excellence. (cf par 1.4.2).

To achieve the research aims of this thesis (cf par 1.5), a thorough literature study was conducted successfully and effectively. It is this historical background of the study which served as benchmarks to what obtained on the ground (Chap 5). Similarly, the legal statutes (Chap 3) which gave birth to the operational documents which regulate PI programmes in schools were extensively and intensively explored as well. This was followed by an empirical research of a quantitative nature (Chap 5) which sought to establish the adoption of the concept of PI and TQM initiative in the management of PI in education (Table 5.3) in Bulawayo Metropolitan government primary schools in the realisation of academic excellence using a questionnaire survey (Chap 4). It is against this background of events that the research aims of this study were

adequately and effectively achieved through the empirical investigation conducted as attempts were made to identify discrepancies which needed to be addressed if the TQM philosophy advocated for in this thesis would be put in place for the purposes of reaping the dividends the model was meant to do so. In that light, the tentative hypotheses underlying this research were answered as well. Below is a summary of such findings on which conclusions were drawn from and recommendations suggested.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

6.2.1 Conclusions from the literature study

The aim of describing the concept of PI was achieved in the initial stages of Chapter Two, where it was demonstrated that it is a vital component in the area of school governance with its different functions. From the literature reviewed on this subject, it was concluded that PI:

- is a collaborative enterprise as both parents and educators are involved in the teaching of the same child (cf par 2.5).
- should be based on the premise that parents are primary socialisers of the child first, and most importantly ,caregivers, nurturers and natural educators of their children if a true alliance is to be achieved (cf par 1.1; 2.1;2.1.2; 2.2; Glanz,2006:75).
- should involve all stakeholders in the governance of schools, programme delivery and in both statutory and non-statutory activities if communities are to be empowered (cf Burke & Picus, 2001:11).
- is a strategy for increasing the educational effectiveness of the time that parents and children spend with one another at home (cf Epstein, 2001:101).
- can influence the achievement and social development of children if parents provide a conducive home-environment as the success of the child is their co-responsibility (cf Kruger, 2002:51).
- improves the pedagogical capabilities of the education manager and management style as well as both parties focus on the child as they strive to achieve academic excellence. In that way, organisational conflict is abated (cf par 2.5.1; 2.5.2).

- improves the relationship between the home and the school and both parties will be aware of their expectations in the educational business of the children (cf par 2.5).

According to that view, PI demands community based strategies in achieving organisational goals as attempts are being made to make schools be quality conscious (cf par 2.1.5). As part of its turnaround strategy, education managers with the appropriate PI orientation need to create carefully selected procedures and policies that will provide adequate balance of structures and freedom for developing comprehensive school wide community partnership programmes (cf Burke & Picus, 2002:15). In that light, PI programmes can be enhanced by way of coaching, mentoring, capacity building and best practices (cf Hess & Gift, 2008:31), if all its ideals are to be realised (cf par 1.1).

In order to give this empirical research a historical perspective, the historical developments of PI programmes tailored in the US which partly influenced those approaches of PI practised in China and how these influenced those attempted in South Africa in general and Zimbabwe in particular were reviewed successfully and completely (cf par 2.2; 2.3; 2.4). From this subsection of literature, the following conclusions were drawn.

Parents as primary socialisers of children in their gender roles, nurturers, care givers and natural educators were being called upon to develop an ideal character in them (children) through appropriate parenting skills (cf par 2.2.15). Their engagement was supposed to be visible in both formal and informal curriculum issues in the Head Start fashion as volunteer workers or paid staff (cf par 2.2.4). To facilitate such kind of involvement, women yearned for user-friendly legislation which would lessen their work-related pressures as they too wanted to be productive educators both at home and school (cf par 2.2.15). Towards that direction, willing parents were inducted as attempts were being made to convert parent engagement to ‘family involvement’. Pertinent at that time were the decrees issued by the ruling Presidents which authenticated and mandated programmes in place and state funds were released for that purpose. These decrees culminated in formalised PI programmes, namely: the NCLB Act, the Improving American School Act of 1991 and the Anti-Drug Media Campaign of 2004. In the former, parents were being initiated in the participation of state funded reading programmes and Maths tests as well

(cf par 2.2.10). The resultant tests were meant for public consumption and it was mandatory that they be accessible to parents at all cost so that they could use them to choose their preferred institutions of learning.

Moreover, parents also hired their own teachers, chose and designed the type of curriculum which was to be pursued by their children (cf par 2.2.8; 2.2.14), hence, viewing them as external customers of the educative enterprise in this context. The primary concern here was to make all children succeed regardless of their backgrounds as attempts were being made in the process to improve the quality of teachers so as to realise quality education. To prevent failure in this regard, 'school parent pacts' meant for homework were designed with the corroboration and active participation of the beneficiaries themselves. Success was celebrated collectively and failure was condemned in the same vein. Remediation programmes in place which were state funded as well were implemented with the full consent of the parents. The consultation was meant to approximate the wants, desires and expectations of learners and parents in the TQM fashion (cf par 2.2.15).

The adoption of PI programmes in China was partly influenced by the American literature on the subject and their Confucian doctrines. This led to the emergence of two contradicting approaches of parental engagement: Non-Involvement (cf par 2.3.2) and Home-Based Involvement (cf par 2.3.3). In the former education was used to determine one's future social hierarchy in society instead of class. Teachers were revered as the chief fountains of wisdom, were supposed to impart it to learners passionately (cf Li, Chen & Sun, 2002:9) and expected to be paragons of emulation in the process. According to that view, because of the Chinese's highly centralised education system which was universally applied to all schools across the board, parents were technically excluded from participation (cf Cao, Bishop & Forgasz, 2006:36; Wang et al, 1996:204). This marked a clear line of divide between the home and the school.

On the contrary, the Home-Based-Involvement phenomenon implied that parents make sacrifices even if it meant being impoverished by the attempt. They were supposed to engage their children in enrichment programmes. On the other hand, children were supposed to pass at whatever cost as a way of showing gratitude to their parents' efforts. This kind of relationship between the

parent and child was triggered by the Chinese filial piety system which is equally embedded in the Confucian philosophy as well and their one-child policy. The success of the child in any given educational enterprise to the Chinese family brought honour and was therefore unquestionable and nonnegotiable. To them all children had the capacity to succeed as long as they committed themselves fully to whatever they would be doing. These are some of the parental expectations education managers need to contend with as they interact with Chinese children.

Democracy in South Africa necessitated the eradication of the racially oriented education policies and legislation as attempts were being made to involve the marginalised Black majority (cf par 2.4.1). The major thrust here was to usher in non-racial policies which would be based on the principles of equity although resisted by the White dominated schools which preferred the status quo. However, the introduction of the new South African constitution relegated all the discriminatory policies to the archives as it advocated for a new system of school governance which would be accountable, transparent and evoke public participation (cf par 2.4.1). This stance ridiculed PI programmes which existed before as they were made up of a few elected members while the majority were government appointees. The South African Schools Act which was born out of this democratic process ushered in sweeping reforms in the educational arena. It advocated for citizen participation and partnerships between the state, parents, learners, school staff and communities as part of its decentralisation process and devolution of power. All schools were compelled by this statute to have democratically elected School Governing Boards (cf Heystek, 2006:474). The mandates, terms of reference, the constituency, office bearers and duration of their term of office are clearly stated in this document. Of noteworthy is the power to recruit teachers and the involvement of learners at a higher level.

Chapter Two went further to explore the benefits which accrue to the learner, institution and community when a full-fledged PI programme is operational which this thesis attempts to achieve as well. Well planned, organised and resourced PI programmes (cf par 2.5.3) improve the following:

- Academic achievement and the motivation of learners.

- Parenting skills
- Attitudes of learners and parents in the process towards education.
- Reinforcement of the curriculum and home-based tutorials.
- Monitoring of television watching, internet access and playing of various video games at home.
- Home-school-relationships and the understanding of both formal and informal curriculum issues.
- The pedagogical skills of educators through knowing the various backgrounds of learners if the educative enterprise is to become customer focused.
- Behavioural problems of learners such as attendances, drop out and suspension rates.
- Communication networks and voluntary participation.
- Interpersonal skills which result in more responsible decisions.

Apart from that, the following benefits would be reaped as well:

- Schools would be well-resourced.
- New innovations would easily be understood and implemented by parents.
- Parental expectations are reconciled with those of the school and in that way goal accomplishment and commitment are enhanced.
- Reading skills are enhanced by role modelling.
- Parents become powerful forces of change in their localities.
- Empowerment and participation are enhanced.

However, within this scenario, education managers need to be aware of the fact that contemporary researches claim that such benefits obtain in elementary schools only not the junior ones, another grey area for exploration on the phenomenon. Similarly, other findings also refute the assertion that all PI programmes are associated with educational outcomes (cf Seyfried & Chung, 2002:110; Domina, 2005:234; Patrikakou et al 2005:135) a situation which can be counteracted by the perceived benefits which have already been cited in this thesis (cf par 1.2; 2.5.3). Epstein's (1991) finding which asserts that PI programmes result in higher grades on some achievement tests, but not mathematics tests corroborates this view (Mncube, 2009:1). In

her view, progress in either situations is determined by the confidence level parents have on the subject.

Theoretical frameworks under which PI programmes are designed so that they would reap the dividends enumerated above were reviewed and these are also considered as pivotal as well as they become the conceptual framework of reference in the conceiving of the ideal engagement programme.

Epstein's model borders on parenting skills which are conducive to learning (cf par 2.1.6.1; Glanz, 2006:40) and acknowledges that parents are the primary educators of children and transmitters of an ideal culture. The potentials they are endowed with can be tapped through the home-to-school and school-to-home type of communication on school programmes and learner progress (cf par 2.1.6.2), which should be characterised with double feedback loops. For parents to be able to donate their expertise to the educative process as volunteer workers or tutors (cf par 2.6.1.3), workshops which are meant to educate parents on how to reinforce learning at home (cf par 2.6.1.4) should be manned. The involvement of parents in decisional issues of the school system such as class committees, councils, advocate groups, establishment of relevant governance structures (cf par 2.6.1.5; Burke & Picus, 2001:4) and engaging communities in the activities of the school as parents have both the social and cultural responsibility of socialising and caring for learners (cf par 2.6.1.6) becomes of paramount importance.

Swap's Model of PI centres on the protective phenomenon which portrays the traditional view of involvement as it relegates parents and educators to their presumed territories. It tries to avoid organisational conflict by delegating the responsibility of educating learners to the school while parents play their parenting role. This is followed by the School-to-Home Transmission Model (cf par 2.6.2.2) which asserts that schools identify positive cultural values which exist outside the school in which they can be socialised into as they pursue their educative enterprise. The benefit of this Model is that the cultural baggage learners inherit from the home aids their learning experiences at school through the Curriculum Enrichment Model (cf par 2.6.2.3). In this respect, parents and culturally oriented educators work together towards the development of learning objectives which are cultural binding. The focus here is how such a curriculum and instructions

undertaken at school link the home and school. Finally, the Partnership Model (cf par 2.6.2.4) views parent-school partnerships as fundamental components of learner success and welcomes parents as assets and resources in the search for strategies that would achieve success for all learners. Mission statements are conceived jointly with parents, problems are solved as a team and two-way communication systems are encouraged. In this context, attempts are made to reconcile parental expectations and those of the school. In the process other stakeholders of varying skills are brought on board as well.

In Comer's view all stakeholders with various potentials should be brought together to constitute the think tank of the school (cf par 2.6.3.1; 2.6.3.2). This body designs the blueprint of the school system which should be modified to suit the prevailing circumstances. The school becomes revolutionary in the sense that change becomes its guiding principle and organisational structures should be structured and adjusted in the process so as to accommodate such change-agents (cf par 2.6.3.3). At the worst, aggressive strategies of bringing about change such as overhauling the whole institution are advocated for. The role of the education manager as 'social architects' in this case, is to facilitate the generation of ideas through brainstorming if each player is to contribute to the quality movement process.

Finally Kruger's Model is a combination of borrowed ideas from other scholars of the PI movement (cf par 2.6.4). He advocates for a well-constituted management team consisting of various democratically elected experts whose sole responsibility is to draw up a programme of action for the term or year and for the purposes of it being continuously relevant should be subjected to evaluation (cf par 2.6.4.1; 2.6.4.5; 2.6.4.7). For institutions to operate that way, bureaucratic structures which stifle interactions and a good rapport between parents and educators should be done away with (cf par 2.6.4.2). In that direction workshops and seminars meant to make all participants knowledgeable in what PI programmes entails as school visions and mission statements are implemented should be manned if motivation and commitment of stakeholders is to be enhanced (cf par 2.6.4.3). To facilitate this interaction all communication channels and networks available should be exploited at all cost, consist of feedback loops and attempts in the process should be made to involve the busiest parents (cf par 2.6.4.4).

Chapter Two further explored the aim of adopting the TQM philosophy by demonstrating how it dovetails with the concept of PI as school governance is decentralised to communities with the sole purpose of bringing all players endowed with various skills on board. The assumption in this context was that traditional management systems are outdated and not helpful at all in pursuance of excellence which schools so much yearned for nowadays (cf par 2.1.5). The new dispensation calls for a partnership type of management that would transform schools to match with the accelerated growth of economies and technological advancement (cf par 2.1.5) as a holistic type of education (cf par 3.4) is sought. In that light the thesis advocated for the adoption of the TQM philosophy (cf par 1.4.1; 2.1.4; 2.1.5; 3.2) as a way of reaping the dividends associated with the PI School of Thought

The literature reviewed on the TQM model of school governance as piloted elsewhere revealed that:

- Its core business is to satisfy the needs, expectations, interests and desires of the customer and makes it akin to the principles of child-centered approaches in pedagogical terms.
- It demands that a needs analysis in a form of a quality audit before the education service is customised be conducted. This is what makes it an effective management system which sets technocrats and defines fitness for purpose.
- It is a pragmatic instrument of managing change in a flexible and adaptable way with its ‘never-ending cycle of improvement’ which culminates in quality products. This may be achieved by systematically and collectively evaluating and refining the system, practices and culture of education within the institution.
- It brings all stakeholders of different potentials, knowledge and skills on board, thus, making schools ‘conflict free’ as they zero on defects without fear of blame. Success and failure are jointly celebrated and mourned respectively.
- It recognises individual effort and encourages teamwork in the achievement of a quality product which in turn enhances accountability, empowerment, ownership of goals, commitment and motivation.
- It believes that for an action to recur, it must be positively reinforced

- It centres on self-evaluation as a team based on carefully chosen and achievable targets as opposed to inspection which it considers as a disgrace as it borders on inspection together with its culture of 'naming and shaming'.
- Its in-built mechanisms of evaluation are meant to modify flawed processes. This is what makes it an autonomous system of management as it discourages the evaluation of a human being by another.
- It is human resource oriented, holistic in approach and democratic in nature, hence making participants fit in this rapidly changing world.
- It restores international competitiveness in schools in their pursuit of academic excellence.
- It involves all stakeholders in the coming up of the vision and mission statement of the school. This is what links the home -to- the school and vice versa.
- It is a tool used in strategic planning and has the capacity of anticipating future trends if well thought.
- It is transformational in nature and quality conscious in content.
- It advocates for staff development and training as a way of developing the present and future manpower needs of the institution.
- It demands constant internal cultural and organisational changes with the focus on changing the attitudes and skills of participants so as to prevent failure and ensure continuous improvement of the educative service.
- It demands that the management hierarchy be invented so that top management can be closer to the point of service delivery, hence, exposing them to the teething problems of the institution without being told.
- It flattens and decentralises organisational structures which are bureaucratic in orientation.

It is the adoption of teamwork and collaborative effort through PI programmes which are meant to create a community oriented school where all members would be guided by a common vision and purpose (cf Heystek, 2003:332) which makes TQM the ideal management philosophy in this context.

Attitudes of either parents or education managers towards the implementation of the PI programmes within the TQM framework were identified and described from the literature study reviewed. Conclusions drawn from the analysis of parental attitudes (cf par 2.7.1) were that:

- Those whose children perform well are likely to disengage.
- Those who work are less likely to attend school events due to time constraints.
- The economically empowered parents are more preferred to the marginalised ones.
- Parents dislike being considered as negligent and uncaring.
- Their educational backgrounds and school experiences determine their involvement in school matters.
- They dislike being called to school so solve disciplinary problems involving their children.
- They feel that education managers intimidate them with their superior educational qualifications.
- Educators discriminate children according to their economic background.
- Some parents believe that teaching should be timetabled and therefore it should not interfere with their private business at home.
- Some parents are aloof and do not bother to know their children's teachers.
- Some parents consider involvement as their social responsibility and constitutional right.
- Some parents are meddlesome in the professional running of the school.
- Some enlightened parents influence important decisional, recruitment, staffing and curriculum issues of the school.

Conclusions drawn from the analysis of the education managers' attitudes (cf par 2.7.3) were that:

- PI programmes are time consuming.
- Parents are paraprofessionals who should not be involved in school business as they are limited by their educational background.
- Parents are excess baggage schools can do without.
- Parents are the main source of gossip and conflicts in the school.

- Education is a domain for educators and parents should be concerned with the parenting skills, reinforcement of learning at home and attending school events.
- Parents do not have the appropriated knowledge and skill to tutor their own children.
- Parents consider them as social workers and schools as dumping grounds of their children while they proceed with their business of work.

Finally, Chapter Three reviewed the statutes which gave birth to the concept of PI in education. The legal framework which demarcated the limits under which the new management paradigm operates in was identified and described (cf par 3.8; 3.9; 3.10; 3.10.1; 3.10.2).

- The Education Act of 1979 was elitist and discriminatory.
- The ZANU PF Manifesto and the Education Act of 1987 democratised the Zimbabwean education system by abolishing all forms of discrimination, placing education in the category of fundamental rights and making it free and compulsory in the primary school. The former legal document is the blueprint whereas the latter is the operational one.
- The Amended Act of 1991 established the formation of SDCs and SDAs.
- The Education Act of 1996 and 2006 mandated SDCs/SDAs to control the financial affairs of the schools within their jurisdiction.
- The statutory instruments 87 of 1992 and 70 of 1993 spell out the duties of SDCs/SDAs respectively and the members who constitute it. Some of the duties among many are to develop the infrastructure of the school, be involved in secular and non-academic issues of the school, fund raising, hiring and firing of additional staff.

6.2.2 Conclusions from the empirical investigation

The aim of Chapter four was to conduct an empirical investigation using a questionnaire survey (cf par 4.4) so as to ascertain whether the generality of parents and education managers in Zimbabwean government primary schools with special reference to Bulawayo Metropolitan Province understood the concept of PI if they were to appreciate the adoption of the TQM philosophy. The chapter further established the benefits which accrue to the individual, education manager, institution and community when a partnership type of management is put in place. In

the process attitudes of both parents and education managers towards the corroborated effort desired by this thesis were ascertained.

6.2.2.1 The concept of PI

From the definition of PI, it was discovered that (cf Table 5.1):

- Both parents and education managers play a crucial role in the education of learners and matters of school governance.
- There is a genuine partnership between the parent and education managers with the latter acknowledging that the former are primary educators.
- Some parents were involved in both academic and non-academic issues of the school.
- Some PI programmes are well planned and organised while others are not.

6.2.2.2 Benefits of PI programmes

The empirical research revealed that the following improve when a fully-fledged PI programme is operational (cf Table 5.2):

- The motivation of learners.
- The communication network.
- The attitudes of learners.
- The perceptions of parents toward PI programmes and innovations.
- The academic performance of learners.
- The reinforcement of learning at home.
- The school resources.
- The participation and empowerment of parents.
- The attendance and behaviour of learners.
- The pedagogical skills of the education managers.
- The reading skills of learners.

- The monitoring of television watching although the unavailability of the internet service in some other schools made the monitoring of it of little consequence.
- The role of parents as models.
- The management skills of the education managers.

6.2.2.3 The management of PI programmes

From the experience on the ground in the manner in which PI programmes are managed the following findings were revealed (cf Table 5.3):

- Parents were viewed as assets.
- Parents were not involved as volunteer tutors at home and school.
- The organisation climate and culture of the school was receptive and welcoming.
- Parents and education managers were uncertain whether the former participated as volunteer workers at schools.
- Parents were not involved in the planning of workshops.
- Parental bodies were democratically elected.
- Parents were involved in decisional issues although not visible in subject committees and curriculum planning.
- Parents were involved in workshops dealing with policy documents, circulars and statutes.
- Parents were trained in parenting skills.
- Cultural values were incorporated in school goals.
- Busiest parents were engaged.
- Parents were eager to attend to school functions.
- Education managers attended community activities such as funerals although they shunned home visits.

6.2.2.4 Communication

From all the means of communication at the education manager's disposal, it was concluded that the following means of disseminating information were used in the order of priority enumerated below (cf Table 5.4):

- Circulars.
- Newsletter/telephone calls.
- Conferences and workshops.
- Social gatherings.
- Suggestion boxes.
- Brochures.
- Emails.

6.2.2.5 Issues parents and education managers discuss

The empirical research (Chap 5) revealed that when parents and education managers interact at whatever level, the following issues are discussed in the preference order tabulated below (cf Table 5.5):

- The needs of the child.
- The positive and negative issues about the child.
- The positive issues about the child.
- The parents' expectation.
- The negative issues about the child.

6.2.2.6 The attitudes of SDC/A chairpersons and education managers towards PI programmes

The empirical investigation (Chapter 5) further identified the perceptions of both SDC/SDA Chairpersons and education managers towards the involvement of parents in the governance of public schools.

The conclusions derived from the Chairpersons' perceptions towards PI programmes (cf Table 5.6) were that:

- Parental participation was regarded as their constitutional right and social responsibility.
- Their participation in school governance issues was not that their children were high fliers.
- Their involvement was limited to parenting skills and reinforcement of the curriculum at home.
- They were being treated as equal partners in the educative enterprise.
- They preferred to deal with disruptive behaviour at home and did not mind being called to school to account for their children's misdemeanor.
- They funded the educative service.
- Their expectations were taken seriously although rated fourthly on the mean preference table (cf Table 5.5).
- They had an excellent working rapport with the school authorities.
- Although disadvantaged by their educational backgrounds and the past bad experiences with the school system, education managers were found to be accommodative.

The conclusions drawn from the education managers' perceptions of PI programmes (cf Table 5.7) were that:

- Parents assist their children in homework and academic issues as well although their expertise in instructional issues is doubtful.
- Parents were not volunteer tutors at school.

- They were not sure whether tutorials should be given by both parents and educators.
- Parental attendance to school functions and parenting skills were positive.
- Parents performed delegated duties to the letter.
- Parents were not intimidated by the qualifications of the education managers.
- PI programmes were not time consuming.
- They claimed that they had excellent working relationships with the parents.
- Parents were not meddlesome in the professional business of the school.
- They were undivided on whether schools were treated as social welfare institutions, the social status of parents influenced methodology and that bad experiences with the school affected parental interactions.

6.2.2.7 Respondents' perceptions of the management style associated with PI programmes

From the findings on how PI programmes are managed in Bulawayo Metropolitan government primary schools (cf Table 5.8), it was concluded that:

- Schools are quality conscious and their activities are guided by the principles of excellence.
- Benchmarking is employed in their pursuit of excellence so as to have a competitive edge on other schools.
- Success is celebrated collectively.
- Expectations and opinions of interested stakeholders are taken into consideration when making decisions.
- Education managers were undivided on whether they consulted parents first when coming up with the vision and mission of the school.
- Schools with flourishing PI programmes are well-resourced.
- Evaluation and monitoring of PI programmes was done jointly although for accountability sake, education managers further monitored the parent body separately.
- Feedback from parents is used to modify existing PI programmes.
- Parents are viewed as change agents not as faulty-finders or meddlesome.

- Failure is viewed as a learning process.
- Parents are consulted in non-academic issues only.

6.2.2.8 The legal documents under which PI programmes operate

The empirical research conducted revealed that both parents and education managers were familiar with the following legal documents in the rank order (cf Table 5.9) given below:

- SDC Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992.
- SDA Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993.
- The Education Act of 1987.
- The Education Act of 1979
- The Amended Education Act of 1991.
- The Education Act of 1996.
- The Education Act of 2006.
- The ZANU PF Manifesto of 1980.

6.2.2.9 Implementation of the legal statutes in PI programmes

From the findings on which legal documents they were conversant with, the experience on the ground revealed that both parents and education managers (cf Table 5.10) were aware that:

- Parental bodies were juridical.
- Education managers were ex-officio members of the parental body.
- Functions of parents and education managers were clearly delineated in the legal statutes.
- The legal involvement of parents in financial issues results in well-resourced schools.
- The decentralisation of school governance was legal and was meant to empower communities.
- Decentralisation improved the effectiveness and efficiency of the school system.
- Legal statutes do not make parents wield more powers than the education manager.

- PI was not meant to check the powers of education managers.
- Parents were not keen to be involved in the hiring and firing of teachers.

6.2.3 Conclusions from the literature study and empirical investigation

A consideration of literature and the empirical research (cf par 6.1) done in this thesis makes it possible to draw justifiable conclusions in respect of the management of PI programmes in Bulawayo Metropolitan government primary institutions in school governance as management and power are decentralised and devolved respectively with the ultimate goal of bringing all stakeholders on board. In the process shortcomings which hindered the successful engagement of parents within the TQM philosophy were identified and addressed later (cf 6.3). After a careful analysis of data collected for this study, it can be concluded that the findings suggest that:

Parents and education managers in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province have an excellent grasp of what PI entails as noted by the high positive ratings on the phenomenon (cf par 5.3.1; Table 5.1). This is a fertile ground for the adoption of a partnership model in the management of PI programmes in Zimbabwean institutions as schools embark on a quality conscious journey (cf par 6.2.2.7). Both groups of respondents acknowledged the hegemonic role they play in the educative process (cf Table 5.1). Parents made it clear that as primary educators, nurturers and caregivers (cf Burke & Picus, 2001:15), do not want to be relegated to mundane functions of the school (cf Table 5.1) like in the traditional past (cf par 1.2; 2.6.1.3). They wanted a genuine alliance with the school authorities which would involve them in both academic and non-academic issues of the institution (cf Table 5.1) which they consider to be their natural (cf Koross, Ngwane & Sang, 2009: 67) and constitutional right (cf Table 5.1; par 6.2.2.6) as mandated by the statutes on PI (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2). Education managers need to institute (cf Street, 1997:11) well-planned and organised PI programmes in the fashion of Head Start ones (cf par 2.2.4) if the benefits enumerated in this thesis are to accrue to the learners, education manager, school and community (cf par 2.5.3; 6.2.2.2).

The home-school relationship between parents and education managers is positive (cf par 2.1.6; cf Table 5.6). This augurs very well for the adoption of a partnership type of management style

(cf par 2.1.5) as school governance is being decentralised to the grass roots level with the purpose of empowering parents and democratising the delivery of the educational service (cf par 3.3; Chikoko, 2008:246). Parents in Bulawayo government primary schools have an excellent working rapport with the school authorities (cf par 6.2.2.2). In this view, parents are perceived as assets (cf par 2.6.2.4), change agents (cf Table 5.8) and equal partners in the educative enterprise, not as fault finders bent on weeding out educators they dislike (cf Table 5.6). The organisational structures in place at schools were found to be porous to the concerns of parents (cf par 2.6.3.3) and this could be one of the reasons why the generality of parents attend school functions and perform delegated responsibilities to the letter (cf Table 5.6).

However, of concern in this context is the failure of PI programmes in place to trigger voluntary participation from parents (cf par 2.6.1.3) while the organisational structures in place are flexible and accommodative (cf Table 5.6; 5.7).

Parental bodies in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province are regulated by the law (cf par 3.10.1; 3.10.2; Table 5.10) and are democratically constituted (cf par 2.6.4.5; Heystek, 2006:474). Despite the sound educational background parental representatives possess (cf par 5.1.2), they were found not to be meddlesome in the professional affairs of the school system (cf Table 5.7). This is evidenced by their non-involvement in the recruitment of teachers (cf Table 5.10 par 6.2.2.9) although the statutes mandate them to do so (Chap 3). They further denied that they were involved in subject committees, curriculum planning (cf Table 5.3), choosing of tests to be written by their children, deciding on subjects to be taught nor its subject matter, selecting of teachers to teach their children and methodologies used, hence, averting organisational conflicts (cf Table 5.6). Above all, they never wield more power than the education manager.

However, there is need to check the education managers' sentiments which assert that PI programmes have brought about non-professionals who need to be managed (cf Table q129).

PI programmes enable educators to be familiar with the different cultural backgrounds of learners (cf par 2.6.2.2; Table 5.2) in an attempt to offer holistic education (cf par 3.4). Such knowledge enhances the pedagogical skills of the educators resulting in the improvement of the

learners' academic performance, more so, when parents are role models as well. In the process, the managerial skills of the education manager (cf Table 5.2) are enhanced. In this context, the educator with a TQM orientation would capitalise on such a scenario and tailor-make the educational menu in such a way that it meets or approximates the needs, desires and expectations of both learners (cf Table 5.5) who are internal customers, and parents (cf par 2.1.4; 2.1.5) who are regarded as (external customers). This is what educationists refer to as child-centered education in professional jargon (cf Vong, 2008:155) customer focused in business practice (cf par 2.1.5).

However, there is need to guard children against overzealous parents who might exert a lot of pressure on their children as they want to satisfy their egos at the expense of the child's capabilities (cf par 2.3.3; Winter, 2001:312).

Parents in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province reinforce learning at home by supervising homework and monitoring the watching of television (cf Table 5.2). However, their failure to monitor the internet in this technologically advanced world is a cause of concern although such a facility may not be available in the majority of schools investigated (cf Table 5.2).

Education managers in government primary schools which are situated in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province disseminate information of whatever magnitude through circulars, newsletters and telephone calls (Table 5.4). This is due to the availability of such facilities and the fact that the majority of parents in such catchment areas are literate (cf par 5.1.2). In that way they are able to involve the busiest parents (cf par 2.6.4.4).

However, the thesis prefers the means of communication which afford parents a one-to-one contact with the school personnel. This kind of communication network should be a two-way system so as to allow immediate feedback from the participating parents at minimal costs (cf par 2.5.3; 2.1.6.1; 2.6.4.4).

Generally, the attitudes of both parents and education managers in this province towards a partnership approach of management are positive (cf Tables 5.6: 5.7) as schools adopt a revolutionary stance in school management. The principles of the TQM philosophy are

consciously alive in these institutions as attempts are being made to bring all stakeholders on board (cf par 1.4.1; 2.1.4; 2.1.5; 3.2). Education delivery is customised after a quality audit has been conducted (cf Table 5.5), quality is their guiding philosophy (cf Table 5.8) and benchmarking is employed as well as they want to achieve the global competitive advantage over other schools (cf Davies & Ellison, 1997:15). Decisions are by consensus, and responsibilities are taken collectively (cf Table 5.8). Both summative and formative evaluations are incorporated in the system as they monitor PI programmes jointly guided by the set goals (cf Table 5.8). The result of such an exercise is used to modify existing programmes as the never-ending improvement cycle embraced in the TQM movement (cf De Jager & Nieuwenhuis, 2005:253) is adopted. It is this corroboration of minds and the pooling of human and material resources through the concept of PI within the TQM framework which makes schools be efficient and effective (cf Table 5.10) in goal attainment. In that manner the introspection enshrined in the TQM management tool makes it an autonomous, democratic, accountable and motivational (cf par 2.1.5) model which is human resource oriented.

However, what is disheartening within this scenario is that both respondents could not acknowledge their involvement in the formulation of the vision and mission statement of the school. Equally so, is the presence of education managers who seem to be resisting change by committing parental involvement to mundane activities (cf Table 5.8) only which parents shun (cf Table 5.1).

Both respondents had sound knowledge of the statutes which regulate PI programmes: SDC Statutory 87 of 1992 (cf par 3.10.1) and SDA Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993 (cf par 3.10.2) as noted by the high scores on these attributes (cf Table 5.9). This was further justified by their claim that they had attended workshops on policy, circulars and statutory instruments (cf Table 5.3). These are operational legal documents which schools cannot do without.

However, the failure by schools to access the ZANU PF Manifesto of 1980 which is regarded as the blue print of some educational reforms which swept across the educational arena at post independence (cf 1.2; 3.6; Table 5.9) when the provision of education was universalised and democratised (cf par 2.1.2) is a cause of concern here.

Both parents and education managers in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province seem to be aware of the mammoth task brought about by the placing of education in the category of human rights by the Zimbabwean government (cf par 3.8). In that light parents claimed that they funded the education system (cf Table 5.6) and were actively involved in the financial decisions of the school (cf Table 5.7).

The abundance of PI models suggests that there is no one model which is the be all and end all in practice (cf par 2.6). Knowledge of several models augurs well for the education manager. In that way s/he is able to borrow from all so as to strengthen the weaknesses of the other in an eclectic approach.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

An ideal education manager must capitalise on the positive attitudes of parents and education managers highlighted in this study, towards the management of PI programmes if the benefits that accrue to the learners, education manager, institution and community are to be realised (cf par 2.5.3). The primary focus of this thesis was to adopt a partnership management model (cf par 2.1.5) in line with the concept of PI (cf par 2.5) which would evoke active and supportive participation of parents as partners and allies of the teacher in the primary aspects of formal and informal education of their children (cf Unisa Metropolitan Life Project, 1994:2) in the school's attempt to provide holistic education in a collective way (cf par 3.4) to the marginalised populace as school governance was being decentralised (cf par 3.3). The corroboration of minds and efforts and democratic process would enable schools to achieve what they would not do so alone (cf Street, 1997:80) as confirmed by Glanz (2006:36) who asserts that "Schools cannot do it alone and cannot be all things to students". The ultimate aim of this partnership approach in the provision of education therefore, would be the attainment of academic excellence (cf par 1.4.2; 6.1). To ensure such success, shortcomings raised in this thesis through the empirical investigation must be addressed forthwith. With those views in mind, the following recommendations are made based on the findings of this research and the literature study.

Since the implementation of PI programmes demands a partnership style of management as opposed to the Scientific Management Thought which bordered on maximisation of production at all costs (cf par 2.1.5), the TQM framework advocated for in this thesis seems to be a new phenomenon in the Zimbabwean educational field in general and Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in particular. TQM philosophy has its origins in the industry and the potential benefits which accrue to the learner, education manager, institution and community (cf par 2.5.3) are little known. In that light, training workshops, seminars and debates (cf par 2.6.4.3) at both conceptual and operational level should be held so as to enable both parents and education managers be aware of their legal roles at either level and the perceived benefits which can be reaped if PI programmes are well-managed and organised (cf 2.5.1). Conferences on how PI programmes should be implemented may be held at both macro (National or Provincial) and micro (District, Circuit or School) level so as to enable participants know that PI is regulated by Acts of Parliament/ statutes (Chap 3) and TQM seeks to bring on board all those people who have a stake in the business of the school (cf par 2.1.5). Resource persons at either level could be the policy-makers, so as to avoid distortions and education managers who are experienced, competent, knowledgeable in statutes and have flourishing PI programmes in their schools. The target population could be experienced and novice education managers, SDCs/SDAs in both high/ low-performing schools and those engaged in organisational conflicts as a result of PI programmes (cf par 1.1).

School-based staff development programmes meant to address the shortcomings of Chairpersons and education managers in management of PI programmes within a TQM framework should be held periodically. These should be locally-tailored and community oriented as institutions are unique as well as the people who populate them. For such programmes to be meaningful to the participants, a quality audit (cf par 3.2) which seeks to identify the needs of each institution should be conducted. The identified needs become the blueprint and road map for that particular organisation. Through a process of introspection and benchmarking (cf par 1.5), parents and education managers can monitor their progress in an autonomous manner. The role of the education manager in this respect would be to commit adequate resources to such ventures, create time for parents particularly the busiest of them and be supportive to their cause (cf par 3.2). Perhaps, occasionally, staff development programmes and orientation sessions could be

held at either district or circuit level to allow both parents and education managers to share information on their successes and failures on the management of PI programmes within the TQM framework. This human oriented aspect of TQM is what makes it developmental in thrust. Facilitators in either case should be Chairpersons and education managers who are native to the district or circuit. Experts from elsewhere may be hired on exceptional cases (Ngwenya, 2006:103).

Funds permitting, each circuit must have an Information Research Centre (IRC) established (Ngwenya, 2006:103) and state funded like in the American fashion (cf par 2.2.15). The experts to staff such a centre must be from within and should constitute a committee which would become the change-agency in the adoption and implementation of PI programmes within a TQM framework. The primary function of such a committee (think tank) would be to devise management packages of models of PI applicable to their environments for dissemination to respective schools for implementation. The IRC would then play the consultancy advisory and monitoring role to the SDC/A bodies prevalent in the circuit. During implementation, the agency must be porous to reason and experience on the ground so as to enrich or modify existing programmes. They must operate in liaison with national, provincial and district policy makers in the educational field for possible direction and guidance. SDC/A members, teachers and education managers should be allowed to meet periodically at such centres for information gathering, sharing or jump starting new programmes.

There is need to call an all stakeholders' conference at both Provincial and district level in Bulawayo Metropolitan government primary schools which would seek to dovetail the ideas mooted in this empirical study with those of the literature study so as to come up with an appropriate way of managing PI programmes in as far as the reinforcement of curriculum instruction (cf par 2.6.1.4) at home and school is concerned, the hiring and firing of teachers as mandated by the statutes (cf par 3.10.1:3.10.2), the voluntary participation of parents as tutors and workers at schools within their jurisdiction (cf 2.6.1.3; Table 5.3), the ideal communication network to be employed (cf par 2.1.6.1:2.6.4.4), monitoring of the internet (cf par 2.5.3), the joint formulation of the vision and mission statement (cf par 2.6.1.4), the ideal management style

to be employed (cf par 2.1.5) and what is enshrined in the ZANU PF Manifesto of 1980 (cf Table 5.9) if the potentials of participants in the Province are to be tapped to the fullest.

At all cost, the industrial notion of “Get it right the first time every time” enshrined in the TQM philosophy (Algozzine et al, 2005:198) meant to abate the majority of avoidable costs as a quality product is sought with ‘zero effects’ must be made use of in the educational industry if the quality of education is not to be compromised. What this means is that appropriate Chairpersons, teachers and education managers “fit for the purpose” (Davies & Ellison, 1997:12) should be recruited at whatever level so as to spearhead this aggressive quality crusade as demanded by this thesis. Where knowledge is lacking, mandatory training and coaching programmes which should be constant, must be put in place (cf par 2.1.5). On the other hand, the leadership must also be prepared to overhaul their management structures (cf par 2.6.3.3) in such a way that they allow flexibility and greater freedom in problem solving (cf Gill, 2008:35), if change is to be accommodated. Ordering subordinates to match to orders from administrators is inappropriate in this context (cf Gill, 2008:35).

TQM oriented education managers should adopt teamwork and collaborative effort in creating a community-oriented school with all members guided by a common vision and mission statement jointly conceived for accountability sake (Heystek, 2003:332). In such a scenario, there is no need of having an army of inspectors descending on the school for inspection which is usually enveloped in the “culture of naming and shaming” (Hoy, Bayne-Jordini & Wood, 2000:32). Instead, all stakeholders must be trained in self-evaluation based on the achievable goals set either individually or collectively if they are to improve the production processes of the school continuously (Mehrotra, 2009:1). The joint formulation (cf par 2.6.2.4) and team evaluation of the institutional goals (cf par 2.6.4.1; 2.6.4.5; 2.6.4.7) enhances motivation, ownership and commitment (cf par 2.5.3). In that manner, success will be celebrated jointly and failure will be viewed as a learning process. In-built mechanisms to monitor flawed processes should be put in place (Algozzine, et al, 2005:176) as well.

To keep institutions anxious towards embracing the concept of PI within the TQM framework, there is need to reform the tenure of office for SDC/A committee members and education

managers as part of the turnaround strategy. The former are supposed to be in office for a year (cf par 3.12) whereas the latter can be there up to retirement or whatever is the case. To allow strategic planning to take place, SDC/A members could be allowed to hold office for a period of three years at least with a provision of allowing two of such members to be co-opted in the new committee for continuity. On the other hand, education managers could be allowed to head schools of any kind for a period not exceeding five years. This is meant to get rid of the traditional baggage which usually insulates organisations against change when education managers have overstayed at a school. In that way education managers become life learners, innovative, pragmatic and dynamic as they move from one institution to another as these differ in their orientation.

The unavailability of certain legal documents which democratised the education system in Zimbabwe and placed it in the category of fundamental rights (cf par 3.8; 3.9; 3.10; 3.10.1; 3.10.2) in schools is equally a cause of concern. Many government primary schools do not have adequate resources. The selling of legal documents to cash stripped schools does not augur well for this innovation to gather momentum as required (cf par 5.3.7). Funds permitting, the department which used to distribute these documents to schools needs to be resuscitated. Follow up workshops should be conducted to ascertain whether parent bodies and education managers have full knowledge of these documents. Failure to do so, the documents may gather dust on the shelves.

The TQM philosophy as a model for managing PI programmes demands that the hierarchical pyramid be inverted so that top management is closer to the point of service delivery (Davies & Ellison, 1997:38), as part of the restructuring process of the organisation (cf par 2.6.3.3). Bureaucracy with its insulating tapes is not tolerated in this scenario. In the manner delineated above, leaders would promptly attend to operational and teething problems subordinates would be encountering as they implement PI programmes.

There is need for the Zimbabwean government to introduce a remuneration regime even if it is nominal so that it may entice voluntary workers and tutors in schools at least. To rely continuously on voluntary time and labour by individuals does not augur well in the prevailing

socio-economic conditions. Funds permitting too, sitting allowances for SDC/A members could be availed as well so as to energise them.

Finally, for motivational purposes, there is need for the Province to come up with characteristics which would constitute a well managed and organised school in PI programmes in as far as the attainment of excellence is concerned. This checklist could constitute a benchmark which would be used by the Province to assess schools. The best school would need to be rewarded for taking the pain to do so if such actions are to recur. The award could be in a form of a certificate or monetary. The latter could be used for staff development courses for current or future leaders in that school. Failing SDCs/As and education managers would be seconded to such a school periodically. The school could also be used as a centre for staff development courses on the subject in the fashion of the IRC referred to above.

It is hoped therefore that this study and the recommendations enumerated above will no doubt contribute towards the adoption of the TQM philosophy in the management of PI programmes as envisaged in this thesis, not in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province only, but the nation at large.

6.4 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

There is no way such a research of this magnitude could have been conducted successfully without encountering challenges of varying degrees. The major challenge experienced at the initial stages was that of finding current literature which dealt with the classical-traditional models of PI and the TQM philosophy. That is why some of the old works of the scholars of PI and TQM movement have been made use of since they are information rich and to avoid the filtration and distortion of information when secondary sources are used.

Besides, the study needs to be interpreted with caution given that:

- The non-probability sampling technique was employed and it does not allow for sampling error to be calculated. In that way, the degree to which the sample differs from the

population remains unknown, hence making it difficult to make generalisations although in this thesis, since the convenient (cf Muijs, 2004:38), expert (cf Trochim, 2006:2) and purposeful sampling technique (cf Schulze, 2002:32) were employed, gross estimations of the entire population can be confidently made (Muijs, 2004:40).

- Precoded responses used to capture the primary data of this research could not allow respondents to express their independent thoughts on the given subjects within the parameters given.
- Both PI and TQM are at their infancy in the majority of schools investigated. Where they exist it is by accident not design. In that light it becomes difficult to measure the attitudes of both parents and education managers towards the management of PI programmes within the TQM framework as the new dispensation takes its toll. More such studies are needed covering the entire population if challenges encountered at operational level are to be shared across the whole nation and appreciated.
- Lack of resources since this was a self-sponsored project, distance as the researcher had relocated to Botswana, time, the politics of the day and financial constraints could not allow methods such as the in-depth interview techniques to be used for the purpose of clarifying some of the issues which remain unresolved in this study (cf par 4.5.6; 6.4). Despite these limitations, the detailed questionnaires although precoded were administered and generated sufficient information to draw reliable and valid conclusions on.

6.5 SUMMARY

Discussion of the literature study has not only given this research a historical perspective it so much deserves, but illustrated how current management practices and models of PI are influenced by the rich literature derived from classical-traditional models and practices. On the other hand, the empirical investigation conducted in the government primary schools located in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province has demonstrated that an ideal education manager is one who is transactional and revolutionary as s/he advocates for teamwork, a collaboration of minds and effort as well as a process of continuous improvement by systematically and collectively evaluating and refining the systems, practices and culture of organisations in pursuit of academic

excellence in schools. In that regard, the research was undertaken with the belief that the establishment of such practices towards the management of PI programmes within a TQM framework would expose some of the challenges schools are confronted with at an operational level. The empirical research established that the aggregate perceptions of the respondents prefer partnership models of school governance which are human resource oriented, accountable, democratic, autonomous, holistic in approach and developmental as opposed to the culture of “naming and shaming which has characterised schools for time immemorial. Self-evaluation based on jointly set targets with inbuilt mechanism for refining the systems in place need to be encouraged as they enhance the quality of the product to be produced, empowerment, commitment and motivation. In that way, a skilful education manager who is dynamic, sophisticated and informed by the shortcomings highlighted in this research is able to draw from these experiences so as to alleviate the potential challenges associated with the management of PI programmes within the TQM framework.

It is hoped that this study and the recommendations made thereafter will contribute to the academic debate on the management of PI programmes using partnership models in the educational field as appropriate models are sought in the Zimbabwean education field with particular reference to public schools in which the phenomenon is still at its infancy.

6.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on the findings of this thesis, the following suggestions for future research are made:

The study was conducted in government primary schools in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province using the Quantitative Research Design involving self-completion questionnaires (cf par 1.4). From a methodological point of view, it is recommended that a similar investigation involving a larger sample be undertaken at macro level, in other Provinces or the same Province using mixed methods. For instance, if the interview method had been adopted in this empirical research a lot of issues which remained unresolved could have been clarified. Alternatively, a comparative approach of a case study in design could also be conducted with a limited sample in a different

Province using the same number of respondents. In addition, different sampling techniques could also be employed. In that way the validity and reliability of these findings would be established.

The attitudes which were examined in this study are of the SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers towards the management of PI within a TQM framework in government primary schools in the Bulawayo Metropolitan Province. Attitudes of teachers, parents, the entire parent body, and all those in non-governmental schools were not captured at all. Moreover, attitudinal variables are not a constant factor; they change over time with experience. With that in mind, it would be appropriate to conduct a longitudinal study on the attitudes of parents and teachers on the subject through a comparative study as well. Such a replica would be warranted here if the phenomenon under study is to be given a reasonable assessment, more so, if the results are benchmarked with the practices obtaining in private schools where the concept has been alive for time immemorial. The potential topic for replicating this study would be the perceptions of teachers and parents towards the management of PI programmes within the TQM framework. A similar one could be conducted as well involving SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers in different Provinces. The results of either findings could be contrasted and compared with those established in this thesis.

Scholars on PI programmes claim that these obtain in the elementary school only and are absent in junior schools, let alone, secondary ones (cf Seyfried & Chung, 2002:110). Those who denied that PI programmes are linked to educational outcomes (cf Domina, 2005:234; Patrikakou et al, 2005:135) were considered of little consequence as compared to the avalanche of perceived benefits which accrue to the learner, education manager, institution and community cited in this thesis (cf par 2.5.3). However, Epstein's (1991) observation which claims that grades in mathematics were found to be lower as a result of PI (cf Mncube, 2009:1) and the earlier assertions would constitute grey areas on the subject which can be pursued as well either as case studies or comparative ones.

The empirical research conducted in the government primary schools in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province claimed that the bulk of the parents tutor their children at home (93.62%) while education managers denied (98.04%) and further claimed that parents do not have the expertise

to reinforce instructional issues at home (54.90%). This could be one of the reasons why perhaps they are not involved as voluntary tutors (69.39%) as well. In that light their claim that they supervise homework at home (95.92%) is equally suspect. Perhaps the lack of joint planning workshops on curriculum issues is what makes them lack the vigour to do so. Little wonder that they were even undecided on whether they were involved in the formulation of the vision and mission statement (cf Table 5.8). Such sentiments and all those which were in doubt in this thesis could have been clarified if a combination of the questionnaire and interview method were employed, hence the need to undertake the same study using a different approach to either confirm or reject the findings in this thesis.

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APPENDIX A

Confidential

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EDUCATION MANAGERS

Dear Respondent

You have been selected as a respondent to participate in this very important survey by completing the attached questionnaire. Your response to this questionnaire will be considered as **highly confidential**. Your name does not need to appear on the questionnaire, so you will remain anonymous.

The purpose of this survey is to evaluate the effectiveness of Parental Involvement Programmes in Primary Government Schools in the Province of Bulawayo so as to improve the standard of teaching in our schools.

Please answer all the questions as honestly as possible and remember that there is no right or wrong answer. We are only interested in your opinion. It will take you no longer than twenty minutes to complete the questionnaire.

- ❖ Answer by circling the correct number to indicate your response, e.g. 1 (2) 3.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA

1.	Gender	Male	1	V2
		Female	2	
2.	Position Held	Head	1	V3
		Deputy Head	2	
		Senior Teacher	3	
		Other	4	
3.	Highest Academic Qualification	'O' level	1	V4
		'A' Level	2	
		Degree	3	
		Other	4	

4.	Highest Professional Qualification	Diped/CE/T3	1	V5
		BED	2	
		MED	3	
		Doctorate	4	
		Other	5	
5.	Teaching Experience	Less than 10 years	1	V6
		10 years – 15 years	2	
		16 years – 20 years	3	
		21 years and above	4	
6.	Administration experience	0 – 5 years	1	V7
		6 – 10 years	2	
		11 – 15 years	3	
		16 years and above	4	

SECTION B: THE CONCEPT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

Think about how well each statement describes your understanding of Parental Involvement.

There are no right and wrong answers. Circle 1, 2 (3) 4 5 to indicate your answer.

The codes have the following meanings:

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Q.	In my school:	SD	D	U	A	SA
7.	The educative process actively involves both the Head and parents.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I consider parents as the first primary educators of their children.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Parents play a major role in the education of their children.	1	2	3	4	5

10.	Parents are involved in school governance matters.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Parents make contributions in academic issues only.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Parents make contributions in non-academic issues only.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Parents make contributions in both academic and non-academic issues.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Learning takes place at school only.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Learning takes place both at home and school.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	SDCs/SDAs programmes are carefully planned.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	SDCs/SDAs programmes are well organised.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: BENEFITS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES.

State your views on how Parental Involvement programmes can benefit the learners at your school. Show your answer by circling the appropriate responses given, e.g. 1 2 (3) 4 5.

The codes have the following meaning

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5
Q.	Parental Involvement programmes:	SD	D	U	A	SA
18.	Improve the motivation of pupils to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Improve the academic performance of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Increase the resources of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Improve the attitudes of pupils towards learning.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Enable parents to supervise children's homework at home.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Enable parents to monitor the use of the internet at home	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Enable parents to monitor television watching at home.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Improve the relationship between the school and home.	1	2	3	4	5

26.	Enable parents to understand new school programmes easily.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Improve the attendance of pupils at school.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Improve the behaviour of pupils at school.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Improve the communication between the home and school.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Enhance the participation of parents in school events.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Enhance the management skills of education managers.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Enable education managers know the backgrounds of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Improve the reading skills of pupils.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Empower parents.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Provide pupils with ideal models to copy.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: MANAGEMENT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES

This part of the questionnaire contains statements which show how you manage Parental Involvement programmes in your school. There is no right or wrong answer. Your opinion is what is sought.

Think about how each statement describes the way Parental Involvement programmes are managed at your school. Indicate your response by circling the appropriate number which is nearer to your level of agreement, e.g. 1 2 (3) 4 5.

The codes have the following meaning

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Q.	Management of Parental Involvement Programmes	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
36.	In my school training workshops for elected parent representatives are held.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	The number of workshops on child development, health and safety needs held at your school.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	I hold workshops with parents on how to supervise homework at home.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Workshops held at my school involve policies, circulars and statutory instruments.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Parents are involved in the planning of workshops held at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Parents are involved in the designing of the school curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Parents are involved in the decision-making body of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	In my school parents are involved as volunteer tutors.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	In my school parents are involved as volunteer workers.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	In my school I have a communication committee made up of teachers and parents.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	How often do you visit homes of parents of children who learn at your school?	1	2	3	4	5
47.	How would you rate the attendance of parents at your school functions at any given time?	1	2	3	4	5
48.	My school makes all effort within its means to involve the busiest parents.	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Visits to my school by parents are strictly by appointment.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Parents are included in the subject committees.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Parent representatives are democratically elected.	1	2	3	4	5

52.	The school is the extension of the home.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Societal cultural values and norms are incorporated in our school programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	In all my interactions with the parents of my school, I view them as valuable partners.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	Do you attend community activities such as funerals, weddings and community projects?	1	2	3	4	5

Please, rank the following ways of communication in order of importance in the manner your school uses them from first to the ninth. The first one should be the most frequently used means of communication by your school and the ninth should be the less frequently used one.

Q	Means of communication:	Rank
56.	Classroom newsletters	
57.	Circulars	
58.	Telephone calls	
59.	Conferences, workshops and seminars	
60.	Brochures	
61.	Email	
62.	Suggestion boxes	
63.	Interviews	
64.	Social activities such as 'Family Fun Days.'	

Suppose you had an opportunity of having either a formal or informal discussion with any one of your parents, Please, rank the following issues in the manner you would present them to any parent on a scale of one to five. The first one should indicate the most important issue you would discuss with the parent.

Q	Issues for discussion:	Rank
65.	Positive issues about the child only.	
66.	Negative issues about the child only.	
67.	Both positive and negative issues about the child.	
68.	The expectations of the parents	
69.	The needs of the child	

SECTION E: ATTITUDES OF EDUCATION MANAGERS TOWARDS PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES.

From your own understanding of Parental Involvement and the way you implement its programmes in your school; think about how well each statement describes your feelings.

Indicate your response by circling the correct number, e.g. 1 2 (3) 4 5.

The codes have the following meaning

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5

Q	In my school:	SD	D	U	A	SA
70.	SDC/SDA programmes are time consuming.	1	2	3	4	5
71.	Parents are involved in the academic performance of children.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	Parents assist their children in homework.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	Parents interfere with the professional running of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	SDC/SDA programmes cause conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	Parents prepare their children before they take them to school.	1	2	3	4	5

76.	Parents attend school events regularly.	1	2	3	4	5
77.	Parents lack the expertise to conduct instructional issues.	1	2	3	4	5
78.	Parents conduct lessons either at home or school.	1	2	3	4	5
79.	Parents are involved in duties assigned to them by the Head.	1	2	3	4	5
80.	The status of parents influences the methodology used.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	The status of parents influences the subject matter taught.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	Parents treat the school as a social welfare institution.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	Parents dislike teaching which takes place after hours.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	Parents consider teaching as the job done by teachers only.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	Parents are inferiorated by my professional qualifications.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	Parents who were successful at school participate fully.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	Parents who were once failures dislike visiting the school.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: MANAGEMENT STYLE

The following statements describe the manner in which you manage Parental Involvement programmes at your school.

Think about how well each statement describes your interactions with the parent representatives at your school. Since there is no right or wrong answer, please, indicate your answer by circling any one of the responses given as truthfully as possible.

The codes have the following meaning

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Q.	In my school:	SD	D	U	A	SA
88.	Expectations of parents are always incorporated in our plans.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	Parental opinions are always accommodated in school plan.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	Views of stakeholders are taken seriously in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	I view parents as change agents.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	Failure of SDC/SDA projects is part of the learning process.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	All our instructional activities are quality oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	Parents and I constantly monitor the PI process.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	Feedback from parents is used to modify existing programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
96.	I monitor the parent body constantly.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	Parents and I evaluate SDC/SDA programmes jointly.	1	2	3	4	5
98.	I am the only one who evaluates SDC/SDA programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	I make all decisions concerning SDC/SDA programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	I consult parents first for whatever I do.	1	2	3	4	5
101.	I only consult parents on non-academic issues.	1	2	3	4	5
102.	Excellence is our guiding principle.	1	2	3	4	5
103.	Success is viewed as a collective responsibility with parents.	1	2	3	4	5
104.	Parents' financial inputs assist in the funding of educational resources	1	2	3	4	5
105.	Parents get value for their money.	1	2	3	4	5
106.	I view parental visits as faulty-finding missions.	1	2	3	4	5
107.	Parents work harmoniously with the school authorities.	1	2	3	4	5
108.	Parents are involved in the coming up of the vision and mission statement.	1	2	3	4	5
109.	I view parents as interested parties in the delivery of education.	1	2	3	4	5
110.	Our performance is measured against other well performing	1	2	3	4	5

	schools.					
111.	Parents do not interfere with the professional running of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
112.	Parents influence the implementation of the school curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION G: THE LEGAL DOCUMENTS FOR PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

The following are the legal statutes which govern Parental Involvement programmes in government primary schools. Indicate those documents which you have read in your school by ticking (✓) the appropriate box for each statement.

The codes have the following meaning

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Q.	In my school I have read the:	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
113.	Education act of 1979					
114.	ZANU PF manifesto of 1980					
115.	Education Act of 1987					
116.	Amended Education Act of 1991					
117.	Education Act of 1996					
118.	Education Act of 2006					
119.	Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 (SDC)					
120.	Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993 (SDA)					

The rest of the questionnaire contains statements which have got to do with your understanding of the legal framework that governs Parental Involvement programmes in government primary schools. There is no right or wrong answer.

Think about how well each statement describes your understanding of the legal framework under which Parental Involvement programmes are implemented. Please, indicate your response by **ticking** (✓) the appropriate box for each statement

Q.	In my school	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
121.	I know the legal statutes which govern SDCs/SDAs					
122.	SDCs/SDAs are legal in government primary schools.					
123.	Parent representatives in my school are aware of the legal statutes which govern their involvement.					
124.	The functions of the parent bodies are clearly defined in the legal statutes.					
125.	The legal statutes give the parent bodies too much power.					
126.	Parents in my school hire and fire teachers.					
127.	The legal statutes empower parents to provide adequate educational resources in my school.					
128.	The decentralisation of some of the management functions of the school to the SDC/SDA has improved the performance of my school.					
129.	The expansion of the education system has brought about non-professionals in schools who need to be managed.					
130.	Government should continue to provide educational resources single-handedly.					
131.	The involvement of parents in the management of schools is meant to monitor the powers of the Head.					
132.	Schools with well organised SDC/SDA programmes are adequately resourced.					
133.	Decentralisation has improved the effectiveness and					

	efficiency of the school system.					
134.	In my school parent representatives are involved in making financial decisions.					
135.	In my school, I am an ex-officio member of the SDC/SDA committee.					

*****THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS RESEARCH*****

vcn/2009

Confidential

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SDA/SDC CHAIRPERSONS

Dear Respondent

You have been selected as a respondent to participate in this very important survey by completing the attached questionnaire. Your response to this questionnaire will be considered as **highly confidential**. Your name does not need to appear on the questionnaire, so you will remain anonymous.

The purpose of this survey is to evaluate the effectiveness of Parental Involvement Programmes in Primary Government Schools in the Province of Bulawayo so as to improve the standard of teaching in our schools.

Please answer all the questions as honestly as possible and remember that there is no right or wrong answers. We are only interested in your opinion. It will take you no longer than twenty minutes to complete the questionnaire.

❖ Answer by circling the correct number to indicate your response, e.g. 1 (2) 3.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA

1.	Gender	Male	1	V2
		Female	2	
2.	Position Held	Chairperson	1	V3
		Vice Chairperson	2	
		Secretary	3	
		Other	4	

3.	Your level of Education	None	1	V4
		Grade 1-7	2	
		'O' Level	3	
		'A' Level	4	
		Diploma/Degree	5	
4.	Your job	Professional (doctor, nurse...)	1	V5
		Skilled Craftsman (plumber...)	2	
		Manager, Chief Executive ...	3	
		Accounting, Bookkeeping ...	4	
		Self employed	5	
		Retired	6	
		Unemployed	7	
		Other	8	
5.	Your spouse's level of Education	None	1	V6
		Grade 1-7	2	
		'O' Level	3	
		'A' Level	4	
		Diploma/Degree	5	
6.	Your spouse's job	Professional (doctor, nurse...)	1	V7
		Skilled Craftsman (plumber...)	2	
		Manager, Chief Executive ...	3	
		Accounting, Bookkeeping ...	4	
		Self employed	5	
		Retired	6	
		Unemployed	7	
		Other	8	

SECTION B: THE CONCEPT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

Think about how well each statement describes your understanding of Parental Involvement. There are no right and wrong answers. Circle 1, (2) or 3 to indicate your answer.

The codes have the following meanings:

1 = Strongly Disagree.

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5
Q.	The concept of Parental Involvement	SD	D	U	A	SA
7.	I dislike being involved in the teaching of my child.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	My role in my child's education is not considered at all.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I play a major role in the education of my children.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am involved in the governing of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	At my school I contribute in academic issues only.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	At my school I contribute in non-academic issues only.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	At my school I contribute in both academic and non-academic issues.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I teach my child at home	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I assist my child in his/her homework.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	In my school SDC/SDA programmes are carefully planned.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	In my school SDC/SDA programmes are well organised.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: BENEFITS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES.

State your views on how well SDC/SDA programmes can benefit the learners at your school.

Show your answer by circling the appropriate responses given, e.g. 1 2 (3) 4 5.

The codes have the following meaning:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2. = Disagree

3. = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5

Q.	Parental Involvement programmes:	SD	D	U	A	SA
18.	Improve the motivation of children to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Improve the academic performance of children.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Increase the resources of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Enable parents to reinforce learning at home.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Improve the attitudes of children towards learning.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Enable parents to supervise their children's homework at home.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Enable parents to monitor their children when using the internet.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Enable parents to monitor television watching at home.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Improve the relationship between the school and home.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Enable parents to understand new school programmes easily.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Improve the attendance of children at school.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Improve the behaviour of children at school.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Improve the communication between the home and school.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Increase the participation of parents in school events.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Increase the management skills of the Head of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Enable the Head of the school know the backgrounds of the learners.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Improve the reading skills of children.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Enable parents to have control of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Provide pupils with ideal models to copy.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: MANAGEMENT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES

This part of the questionnaire contains statements which show how Parental Involvement programmes are managed in your school. There is no right or wrong answer. Your opinion is what is sought.

Think about how each statement describes the way Parental Involvement programmes are managed at your school. Indicate your response by circling the appropriate number, e.g. 1 2 (3) 4 5.

The codes have the following meaning:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5

Q.	Management of Parental Involvement programmes	SD	D	U	A	SA
37.	At my school I regularly train at workshops for representatives/Chairpersons of SDC/SDA	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Workshops are held in my school on how to look after my children at home.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	At my school the head of the school trained us in workshops on how to supervise my children's homework at home.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	The workshops held at my school involve policies, circulars and statutory instruments.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	I was involved in the planning of workshops held at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	I was involved in the designing of the school curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	I am involved in the decision making body of the school (decisions on school matters).	1	2	3	4	5
44.	At my school parents are involved as volunteer tutors.	1	2	3	4	5

45.	At my school parents are involved as volunteer workers (such as selling in the tuck shop).	1	2	3	4	5
46.	At my school there is a communication committee made up of teachers and parents..	1	2	3	4	5
47.	The Head of my school regularly visits homes of parents whose children learn at his/her school.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	The attendance of parents at school functions at any given time is good.	1	2	3	4	5
49.	My school makes all effort within its means to involve the busiest parents.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	I visit the school, as a parent, by appointment only.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Parents are included in the subject committees.	1	2	3	4	5
52.	Parent representatives are democratically elected at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	In my school, community activities are integrated with the school programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Cultural studies are incorporated in our school programmes with the assistance of parents.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	In interaction with the school, the head views me, and other parents as an asset to the school.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	The Head of the school attends community activities such as funerals, weddings and community projects.	1	2	3	4	5

Questions numbers **57** to **65** are ways of communication which schools may use to communicate with parents. Rate these given on the scale of nine according to the way they are used in your school. 1 represents the first mostly used means of communication and 2 the second one and so forth. 9 represents the least used.

Q	Means of communication	Rank
57.	Classroom newsletters	
58.	Circulars	

59.	Telephone calls	
60.	Conferences, workshops and seminars	
61.	Brochures	
62.	Email	
63.	Suggestion boxes	
64.	Interviews	
65.	Social activities such as “Family Fun Days.”	

The following issues are some of the issues Heads of schools discuss with parents when they have a chance to hold a discussion with them either officially or unofficially. Insert the number (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) which best represents your response in the boxes given.

The numbers have the following meaning:

5 = the fifth discussed issue.

4 = the fourth discussed issue.

3 = the third discussed issue.

2 = the second discussed issue.

1 = the first discussed issue.

Q	Issues for discussion:	Rank
66.	Positive issues about the child only.	
67.	Negative issues about the child only.	
68.	Both positive and negative issues about the child.	
69.	Expectations of the parents	
70.	The needs of the child	

SECTION E: ATTITUDES OF CHAIRPERSONS TOWARDS PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES.

From your own understanding of Parental Involvement and the way its programmes are carried out in your school; think about how well each statement describes your feelings.

Indicate your response by circling the correct number, e.g. 1 2 (3) 4 5.

The codes have the following meanings:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5

Q	Attitudes of Chairpersons towards Parental Involvement Programmes	SD	D	U	A	SA
71.	Participating in school activities is time consuming.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	I participate in school activities because my child does well.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	Working parents have enough time to attend to school events.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	Most parents who attend school events are unemployed.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	The school system favours children from rich families.	1	2	3	4	5
76.	Only caring parents attend school events.	1	2	3	4	5
77.	The level of education influences parents' involvement.	1	2	3	4	5
78.	Bad experiences with the school discourage parental involvement.	1	2	3	4	5
79.	Parents who did well at school will always visit the school.	1	2	3	4	5
80.	Parents who performed badly at school hate school visits.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	The Head speaks in English even if parents are illiterate.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	Illiterate parents contribute a lot at meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	Uneducated parents mix easily with school authorities.	1	2	3	4	5

84.	The Head tries as much as possible to involve all parents.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	I deal with my child's disciplinary problems at home.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	I dislike being invited to school for my child's disciplinary problems.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	I pay fees so that the teacher teaches my child.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	My duty as a parent ends when I drop and pick up my child from school.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	Most parents know their child's class teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	I visit the school because I have no confidence in my child's teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	It is my right to be involved in the education of my child.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	Parents at my school choose the teacher to teach their child.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	Expectations of parents are taken seriously at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	I decide on the test to be written by my child.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	Parents at my school are always quarreling with the school authorities.	1	2	3	4	5
96.	Parents at my school have good working relations with the Head.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	Our school head treats us as equal partners in all school events.	1	2	3	4	5
98.	I choose the method to be used to teach my child in my school.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	I choose subjects to be taught to my child in my school.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	I make contributions in the staffing of teachers at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
101.	I make contributions in the recruitment of teachers in my school.	1	2	3	4	5
102.	Teachers at my school treat children according to their backgrounds.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: MANAGEMENT STYLE

The following statements describe the manner in which Parental Involvement programmes at your school are managed.

Think about how well each statement describes how the Head manages Parental Involvement programmes at your school. Since there is no right or wrong answer, please, indicate your response by **ticking** (✓) the correct box for each statement.

The codes have the following meanings:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Q	In my school:	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
103.	Expectations of parents are always incorporated in the school plans					
104.	Parent opinions are always accommodated in some school plans.					
105.	Views of various stakeholders are taken seriously in making decisions.					
106.	I get what I pay for.					
107.	Failure of SDC/SDA projects is taken as part of the learning process.					
108.	There is emphasis on quality in all what we do.					
109.	The SDC/SDA monitors parent programmes with the Head's help.					
110.	Feedback from parents is used to improve programmes in					

	operation.						
111.	We are viewed as forces of change.						
112.	Both parents and the Head evaluate SDC/SDA programmes.						
113.	Parental Involvement programmes are evaluated by the SDC/SDA only.						
114.	Decisions concerning Parental involvement programmes are made by the SDC/SDA only.						
115.	The Head consults the SDC/SDA first for whatever he/she does.						
116.	We are consulted by the Head on non-academic issues.						
117.	Excellence is our guiding principle.						
118.	Success is viewed as a collective responsibility.						
119.	We provide the bulk of educational resources needed by the school.						
120.	The parent body is constantly monitored by the Head.						
121.	The Head views our visits to the school as faulty-finding missions.						
122.	The Head views us as rumour mongers.						
123.	We were involved in the coming up of the vision and mission statement.						
124.	We are viewed as interested parties in the delivery of education.						
125.	We compare our performance with what happens in other schools.						
126.	We do not interfere with the professional running of the school.						
127.	The Head does everything without consulting the parent body.						

SECTION G: THE LEGAL DOCUMENTS FOR PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

The following are the legal statutes which govern Parental Involvement programmes in government primary schools.

Indicate your response by **ticking** (✓) the appropriate box for each statement

The codes have the following meaning:

1 = Strongly Disagree

4 = Agree

2 = Disagree

5 = Strongly Agree

3 = Undecided

Q.	In my school I have read the:	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
128.	Education act of 1979					
129.	ZANU PF manifesto of 1980					
130.	Education Act of 1987					
131.	Amended Education Act of 1991					
132.	Education Act of 1996					
133.	Education Act of 2006					
134.	Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 (SDC)					
135.	Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993 (SDA)					

The rest of the questionnaire contains statements which have got to do with your understanding of the legal framework that governs Parental Involvement programmes in government primary schools. There is no right or wrong answer.

Think about how well each statement describes your understanding of the legal framework under which Parental Involvement programmes are implemented. Please, indicate your response by **ticking** (✓) the appropriate box for each statement

Q.	In my school:	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
136.	SDCs/SDAs in government primary schools are legal.					

137.	I know the legal statutes which govern SDCs/SDAs.					
138.	The functions of the parent bodies are clearly defined in the legal statutes.					
139.	The SDC/SDA hires and fires teachers.					
140.	The legal statutes give the parent bodies too much power.					
141.	The legal statutes empower parents to provide adequate educational resources in my school.					
142.	The decentralisation of some of the management functions of the school to the SDC/SDA has improved the performance of my school.					
143.	We are given the legal statutes which govern the parent body.					
144.	Government should continue to provide educational resources single-handedly.					
145.	The involvement of parents in the management of schools is meant to monitor the powers of the Head.					
146.	Schools with well organised SDCs/SDAs are adequately resourced.					
147.	Decentralisation has improved the effectiveness and efficiency of the school system.					
148.	In my school the SDC/SDA is involved in making financial decisions.					
149.	In my school, the Head of the school is an ex-officio member of the SDC/SDA committee.					

***** THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS RESEARCH*****

vcn/2009

A LETTER ASKING FOR PERMISSION FROM THE PED.

The University of South Africa
P O Box 392
UNISA

June 2009

The Provincial Education Director
Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture
Bulawayo Region
P O Box 555
Bulawayo
Dear Sir

Re: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH PROJECT IN BULAWAYO REGION.

As part of the Doctorate degree in Education Management programme, students of the University of South Africa are required to carry out a thesis in their area of specialization.

Towards that direction, I cordially request for permission to: ***INVESTIGATE THE MANAGEMENT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES IN ZIMBABWE GOVERNMENT PRIMARY SCHOOLS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO BULAWAYO REGION*** during the months of June and July.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully

Victor C Ngwenya (Student No.: 33660700)

PROFORMA: A LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION

Ref: Ngwenya V C
E C No. 0277561 W

all communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director"
Telephone: 09-69511/69942
Telegraphic: "SCHOLASTIC"
Telex: 50531 MPSEM N ZW
Fax: 09-77027



ZIMBABWE

Ministry of Education, Sport, Art and Culture
Bulawayo Province
P O Box 555
Bulawayo
Zimbabwe

1 July 2009

Mr V Ngwenya
c/o The University of South Africa
P O Box 392
UNISA 0003
RSA

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH ON PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMMES IN ZIMBABWE GOVERNMENT PRIMARY SCHOOLS WITH REFERENCE TO BULAWAYO PROVINCE

With reference to your application to carry out research on the above mentioned topic in the Educational Institutions under the jurisdiction of the Bulawayo Province, it is my pleasure to inform you that permission is hereby granted. However, you should liaise with the Head of the Institution/School for clearance before carrying out your research.

It will also be appreciated if you could supply the Bulawayo Province with a final copy of your research which may contain information useful to the development of education in the province.

For: **PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR – BULAWAYO METROPOLITAN PROVINCE**

/ss

Permission to carryout research on Parental Involvement

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND CULTURE
CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

17 JUL 2009

MAT. NORTH REGION
P.O. Box 555, BULAWAYO

A LETTER FOR GRATITUDE

The University of South Africa
P O Box 392
UNISA
21 August 2009

Dear Principal

Re: A LETTER FOR GRATITUDE

This letter serves to acknowledge receipt of the filled questionnaire which was posted to you.

Let me take this opportunity to thank you for participating in this research and for the timeous completion and return of the questionnaire despite your busy schedules.

It is my sincere hope that the research findings of this thesis will be of benefit to all members of the teaching fraternity as it saves to *evaluate the Perceptions of SDC/A Chairpersons and education managers towards the management of Parental Involvement Programmes in Primary Government Schools in the Metropolitan Province of Bulawayo*. If by chance you would like to have access to the completed project, you should not hesitate to contact the undersigned.

Once again, thank you.

Yours faithfully

Victor C Ngwenya
(Student No.: 33660700)

ADDITIONAL STATISTICAL TABLES

*q refers to sentiments expressed by SDA/C Chairpersons

*qq refers to sentiments expressed by education managers

*Tables have been clustered under the subheading they are discussed to facilitate quick referencing.

1. Concept of Parental involvement

<i>q 7, SDA: Dislike teaching involvement of my child</i>				
q7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	30	63.83	30	63.83
disagree	9	19.15	39	82.98
undecided	1	2.13	40	85.11
agree	4	8.51	44	93.62
agree+	3	6.38	47	100.00

<i>q 7,Head: Educ process involves parents & Head</i>				
qq7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree	3	6.38	3	6.38
undecided	1	2.13	4	8.51
agree	22	46.81	26	55.32
Agree+	21	44.68	47	100.00

<i>q 8,Head:considers parents, primary educators</i>				
qq8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
undecided	2	3.92	2	3.92
agree	9	17.65	11	21.57
agree+	40	78.43	51	100.00

q 8,SDA:My role in child.s education negated				
q8	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	22	46.81	22	46.81
disagree	20	42.55	42	89.36
undecided	1	2.13	43	91.49
agree	3	6.38	46	97.87
agree+	1	2.13	47	100.00

q14,SDA:I teach my child at home				
q14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree	3	6.38	3	6.38
agree	26	55.32	29	61.70
agree+	18	38.30	47	100.00

q14,Head:Learning,at school only				
qq14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	34	66.67	34	66.67
disagree	16	31.37	50	98.04
agree+	1	1.96	51	100.00

q 15,SDA:I assist my child with homework				
q15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
undecided	1	2.13	1	2.13
agree	26	55.32	27	57.45
agree+	20	42.55	47	100.00

2. **Benefits of Parental Involvement Programmes**

q21,SDA:Improve Reinforce learning at home				
q21	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	1	2.17	1	2.17
disagree	1	2.17	2	4.35
agree	28	60.87	30	65.22
agree+	16	34.78	46	100.00

qq34, Head: empower parents				
qq34 &q35	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	2	2.04	2	2.04
disagree	12	12.24	14	14.29
undecided	16	16.33	30	30.61
agree	48	48.98	78	79.59
agree+	20	20.41	98	100.00

Management of Parental Involvement Programmes

q38:parenting skills				
q38	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	19	19.39	19	19.39
disagree	32	32.65	51	52.04
undecided	21	21.43	72	73.47
agree	24	24.49	96	97.96
agree+	2	2.04	98	100.00

Q46:Head visits parents at home				
qq46	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	15	29.41	15	29.41
disagree	10	19.61	25	49.02
undecided	14	27.45	39	76.47
agree	10	19.61	49	96.08
agree+	2	3.92	51	100.00

q47:how often visit parents?				
q47	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	26	26.53	26	26.53
disagree	26	26.53	52	53.06
undecided	27	27.55	79	80.61
agree	16	16.33	95	96.94
agree+	3	3.06	98	100.00

q48:how rate parent attendance?				
q48	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	6	6.25	6	6.25
disagree	8	8.33	14	14.58
undecided	15	15.63	29	30.21
agree	53	55.21	82	85.42
agree+	14	14.58	96	100.00

q56:Head attend community activities such as funerals				
qq56	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	1	2.00	1	2.00
disagree	3	6.00	4	8.00
undecided	1	2.00	5	10.00
agree	26	52.00	31	62.00
agree+	19	38.00	50	100.00

4. Attitudes of education managers towards Parental Involvement Programmes

q 15,SDA:I assist my child with homework				
q15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
undecided	1	1.02	1	1.02
agree	40	40.82	41	41.84
agree+	57	58.16	98	100.00

5. Perceptions on the management style associated with Parental Involvement Programmes

q93,Head:instruction quality orientated				
qq93	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree	4	7.84	4	7.84
undecided	2	3.92	6	11.76
agree	34	66.67	40	78.43
agree+	11	21.57	51	100.00

q107,Head:Parent/school co-op, good				
qq107	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	1	2.00	1	2.00
disagree	7	14.00	8	16.00
undecided	4	8.00	12	24.00
agree	35	70.00	47	94.00
agree+	3	6.00	50	100.00

q108,SDA:All activity quality orientated				
q108	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree	1	2.13	1	2.13
undecided	1	2.13	2	4.26
agree	35	74.47	37	78.72
agree+	10	21.28	47	100.00

q122,SDA:Head view SDA, rumour mongers				
q122	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	18	38.30	18	38.30
disagree	21	44.68	39	82.98
undecided	5	10.64	44	93.62
agree	3	6.38	47	100.00

q127,SDA:Head does not consult parents				
q127	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	22	46.81	22	46.81
disagree	18	38.30	40	85.11
undecided	5	10.64	45	95.74
agree	2	4.26	47	100.00

6. Legal framework

q123,Head:SDA.s know legal statutes				
qq123	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	2	3.92	2	3.92
disagree	3	5.88	5	9.80
undecided	8	15.69	13	25.49
agree	24	47.06	37	72.55
agree+	14	27.45	51	100.00

q129,Head:non-profit schools, managed				
qq129	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	6	11.76	6	11.76
disagree	10	19.61	16	31.37
undecided	8	15.69	24	47.06
agree	19	37.25	43	84.31
agree+	8	15.69	51	100.00

q143,SDA:SDA.s are given legal statutes				
q143	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
disagree+	2	4.26	2	4.26
disagree	6	12.77	8	17.02
undecided	5	10.64	13	27.66
agree	29	61.70	42	89.36
agree+	5	10.64	47	100.00

CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT

Table 5.11 Scale reliability testing						
Summary results of scale reliability conducted on the perception constructs defined. Cronbach alpha coefficients, questionnaire items describing each perception construct mean scores and standard deviations are reported in the body of the table						
Perception dimensions/ constructs	Questionnaire items		Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	Grand mean percepti on score	N	Standar d deviatio n mean score
	included	reversed				
Concept of parental involvement programmes	q9,10,11n, 12n, 13, 16, 17	q11, 12	0.61	4.04	90	0.48
Benefits of parental involvement programmes	q18-20, 22-34, q36		0.90	4.22	93	0.47
Management of PI programmes						
Attitudes of managers towards parental involvement programmes	q7, 72n, 73n, 74-75, 76n-77n, 79,81-87	q72,73, 76,77	0.71	2.62	47	0.48
Attitudes of SDC/A members towards PIprogrammes	q71-82, 84n, 85-91n,92-96, 97n,98-102	q84, 91 97	0.87	2.57	38	0.41
Perceived management style in PI programmes	q103-107, 109-112, 115-120, 121n,q123-126	q121	0.84	3.71	86	2.15
Perceived understanding of legal issues regarding PI programmes	q136-138, 140n, 141-142, 144n-145n, 146-149	q140, 144, 145	0.72	3.97	92	0.43
OA question-item with a 'n' prefix (nb3 for example) indicates that the rating scale for that particular item has been inverted to comply with assumptions of scale reliability testing (To align with other subset questionnaire items which had all been stated either positively or negatively.						