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*Understanding influences in policy-making: Whole-school Evaluation and Discourse – A critique*

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**A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy**

**FACULTY OF THE HUMANITIES**

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**COMPULSORY DECLARATION**

**This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.**

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this minor dissertation is to undertake a critique of the Whole-school Evaluation (WSE) Policy. The study uses Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to reveal the major influences in the policy and to ask what important issues have been overlooked. The dissertation examines dominant discourses in the policy and the ways in which these discourses have been framed. Through a description of what is present in the policy, CDA offers an analytical tool with which to explore its omissions. A conclusion to which the analysis comes is that diversity management has been overlooked as a key area of Whole-school Evaluation. This suggests, it is argued, that schools are not compelled to integrate the management of diversity in any formalised or structured way and therefore that many schools remain disabled in this critical area. A contiguous question relates to the articulation of the learning subject within the policy and to whether the identity of the subject envisaged by the policy-makers is legitimising of the individual both in terms of attitudes to the self, as well as to the other. It is argued that the absence of diversity from the WSE Policy needs to be examined for two reasons:

1. the policy establishes the framework for school development and improvement in South Africa, and
2. it is the school that exists as a primary site for identity formation and socialisation and as such needs to guide and support young people in managing and engaging in diverse relationships.

The WSE Policy, which is grounded in the School Effectiveness and to some extent the School Improvement traditions, is dominated by an effectiveness discourse. Both these paradigms, it is argued, are extricated conceptually and methodologically from the social, historical and political context of South Africa. The consequence is that the WSE Policy fails to articulate with the lived dynamics of the local context. This is evident in the epistemological notions and nuances of the policy. The emphasis on concepts such as efficiency, performance, success, effectiveness and evaluation epitomises the ideological orientation of the policy-makers, the intention being primarily to prepare young South Africans for effective participation in the global economic market. The normative assumptions embedded in school effectiveness discourse result in a narrowing of the discursive space, precluding possibilities for alternative discourses representing

'other' realities. In addition to a constricted discursive space within the policy, the existence of competing discourses highlights contradictions and ambiguities which serve to obscure the policy's meaning. Emerging from this is the need first, to open and clear the space for the inclusion of discourses pertaining to difference and diversity. Underscoring this is the need, secondly, for a paradigmatic re-shaping, amplifying a reconceptualised 'whole-school' approach in addressing diversity and difference within the South African context. The urgent need for effective diversity management strategies necessitates at the outset an explicit articulation of the learning subject within a specific social, cultural, historical and political context. This perspective is currently obfuscated by imported ideologies and international policy borrowing. It is suggested that the overlooking of difference and diversity in education and its absence in systemic school development has profound implications which may be linked to continued patterns of racism, prejudice and discrimination in South Africa, exemplified by the recent xenophobic violence throughout the country. The argument presented is that diversity management needs to be explicitly activated in the WSE Policy as one of the primary reconstructionist education policies and that it should underpin and foreground every facet of the school, both epistemologically and operationally. It is argued that the need to provide a reconceptualised educational model for a society in transformation demands that the WSE Policy, as well as all other National Education Policies prioritise both diversity management as well as the preparation of South Africans for entry into a competitive global world.

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## TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

The following information is intended to assist in the reading of this minor dissertation.

### Abbreviations

WSE	Whole-school Evaluation
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
SIP	School Improvement Plan
SDT	School Development Team
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
WB	World Bank
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ERA	Education Reform Act
GET	General Education and Training
FET	Further Education and Training
LEA	Local Education Authorities
SMT	School Management Team
WCED	Western Cape Education Department
NGO'S	Non-Governmental Organisations
SWAP	Sector Wide Approach

## CHAPTER ONE:

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background

The focus of this study is the Whole-school Evaluation (WSE) Policy (See Appendix B, pg. 95), adopted in 2001. The primary intention of the study is to identify and understand the major influences on the policy-makers through examining the dominant discourses in the Background section of the policy, as well as in the Aims and Principles. Secondly, its intention is to look at how these discourses determine processes of inclusion and exclusion within the policy. This refers to how the subject of the policy – those to whom it is addressed and applies - is articulated and further to the evident omission of diversity management from the nine focus areas of WSE (See Appendix A. pg. 94) and from the policy in general.

In addressing the research questions, I have appropriated Kilbourn's 'upside down pyramid' (Kilbourn, 2006: 568) which defines the problem in accordance with what he refers to as a 'train of thought' (2006: 568), beginning with a broad perspective and moving towards a more precise focus as the research problem is reached. There are three components in Kilbourn's pyramid. They begin from the broadest to the narrowest (and from top to bottom), namely, the 'social context, the educational context and the research context' (2006: 568). His approach, as an analytic logic, works well for the purposes of this study in allowing the investigation to identify what one might for lack of a better term describe as the 'international discourse', i.e., the broadest level, and to see how, through tracking the discursive routes the policy might take, what forms its local iterations, at the narrowest level, take.

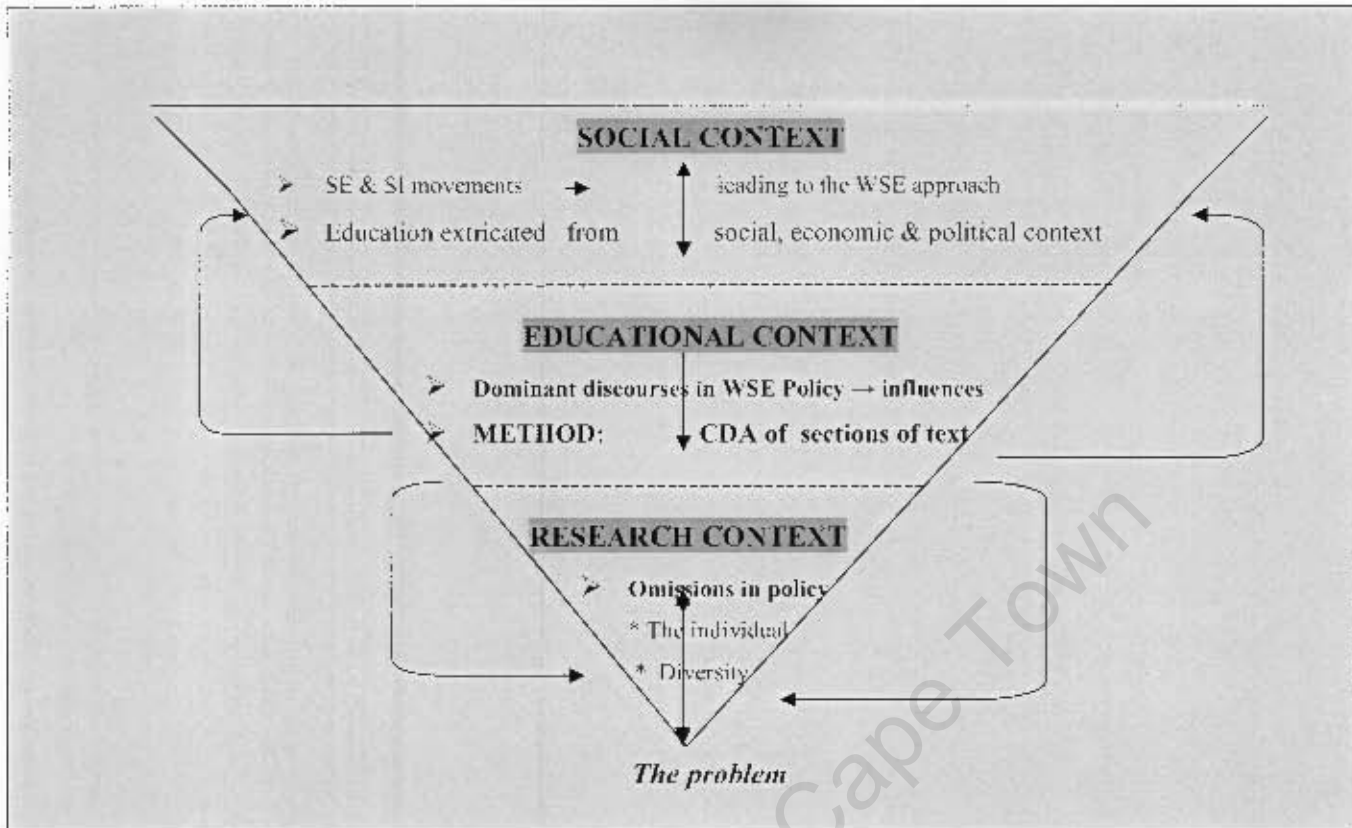


Figure 1. (adapted from) *Train of Thought* (Kilbourn, 2006: 568)

For the purpose of the study Kilbourn's social context has been adapted to indicate that the School Effectiveness and School Improvement Movements shape up as the primary contextual factors which come to inform the WSE Policy. Recognising this, the issue that arises for this study is that of understanding the extent to which the South African WSE strategy engages with its own social, political and historical context. The need for educational reform to be contextualised is conveyed by Ball who argues that if education is not embedded 'within broader trends of social change' (Ball, 2003: 4), it is doubtful that it can effectively support transformation.

It is this apparent disconnect between education and the local social context that has resulted in the major problematique of this study. The argument with which this study proceeds is that this apparent dissonance has come to produce significant omissions within the policy, namely the

absence of diversity management from the nine focus areas for school development and the absence of a clear articulation of the subject.

The middle section of the pyramid, the 'educational context' represents a more focussed narrowing down as the 'train of thought' in this study moves towards an understanding of the Policy. It is in this section that the research method is presented: Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) will be used as an analytic tool with which to critique the policy by amplifying its dominant discourses. Through this analysis the influence on the policy will be explored, namely the ways in which it is pitched at a global rather than local level. Furthermore, the analysis will provide a tool with which to describe the policy's inclusions and, consequently, to understand its absences - for decoding the policy's "significatory practices....i.e. accounting for both the presences and the absences" (Soudien, 1999: 10) within the WSE Policy.

This middle portion interacts with the 'research context' which is positioned at the bottom of the pyramid, and represents the actual research problem – the policy's omissions resulting from its influences. In the context of this critique, this refers to the absence of diversity management from the nine focus areas of the WSE Policy and the implications of its omission. At a deeper level this research problem reflects the absence of an explicit articulation of the subject within the policy. The importance of the connection between the lower two thirds of the pyramid is suggested in the possible link between the global influences on the policy and the consequent constitution of the subject as a global citizen on the one hand, and the overlooking of the local context on the other. It is the responsibility of the state, it is argued, through its education policies to redirect and reconstitute itself at the local level, ensuring transformation through addressing existing social, historical and economic inequalities while simultaneously equipping young people for participation in the global economy.

Kilbourn makes the point, which I wish to reiterate, that these three arenas do not represent a trajectory, beginning with the social context and ending with the research context in order to reach the problem (Kilbourn, 2006: 568). The three components are integrally linked, functioning as interactive, interdependent and contingent elements which represent the different aspects of the research study, together comprising a coherent and iterative whole. Maxwell's 'interactive model' (Maxwell, 1996: 3) similarly describes a research design process in which the elements

are interconnected and flexible, as opposed to functioning as a pre-determined, linear “sequence of steps” (1996: 3). I have attempted in this study, therefore, to present an integrative approach which takes cognisance of the key components of the research design as well as the connections between and among them.

## 1.2 Overview

The form that this dissertation takes is outlined by its key components, beginning with the *research problem*. The influences on the policy - its suggested extrication from the local context and its apparent aspiration towards global educational trends – are examined as a theme that will be recursively interwoven throughout this study. If the research problem is to adequately address the policy’s omissions, namely the absence of diversity management from the nine focus areas of WSE, and the implications of this omission, then it is imperative, it is argued, to make explicit how the individual is constituted in the policy. This must therefore also be integrated into the research problem. The *purpose* or intention of the study reflects its rationale, which operates at three levels: the personal; the theoretical, i.e. research; and the policy level. The *theoretical perspective* represents a shaping, rather than defining of my conceptual orientation. I have borrowed this term from Kilbourn (2006), as this research is influenced by, rather than embedded in a theoretical context. This context has been developed by linking some of the existing literature which illuminates key aspects of the research problem.

The theoretical perspective is embodied within the *literature review* in which current research scholarship on global influences in policy-making is reviewed, with a specific focus on the WSE Policy. The discussion suggests how the policy is constituted at the global rather than at the local level. In this section I explore the extent to which the absence of diversity management from the nine focus areas of WSE is an example of how the policy divorces itself from the local South African context, and yet ironically it is particularly this aspect of the research problem, as will be illustrated, in which there is an absence of literature. The literature review suggests implications of the omission of diversity management which are explored both from a political and psychosocial angle. The *research methodology*, followed by the research *findings*, takes the form of a semiotic analysis of sections of the WSE text which is appropriated to develop an understanding of the dominant discourses in the policy. The methodological tool of CDA is used

to illuminate the major influences on the policy, suggesting how these influences resulted in the policy's dominant discourses. To this end the **Background** to the policy, as well as its **Aims and Principles** will be critically analysed. This analysis is related to the nine focus areas, with an interest in examining that which has been omitted. CDA is used as a methodological tool which is suitable to the research problem and has a 'reasonable chance' (Kilbourn, 2006: 558) of eliciting greater understanding of the issues embodied in the research questions. Finally, I intend, through CDA to establish *validity* in terms of the theoretical approach adopted. This is particularly important in the context of this critique as the research problem presented is not immersed within a single theoretical body of literature. An attempt will be made therefore for the theoretical claims to be validated through the *research method*. The *conclusion* ultimately presents an extrapolation of interwoven themes, drawn both from the conceptual as well as the methodological sections of this paper. The implications of this research are presented in terms of a reconceptualisation of globalisation as well as of education policy.

Before beginning it is important to acknowledge what this study will not include, and in so doing to clarify its epistemological orientation. Neither the practical application of a diversity management training programme in schools, nor the discussion of diversity management at the level of teacher training will be addressed. Both of these issues constitute crucial aspects in the broader debates concerning diversity in schools; however, each requires an in-depth study, and must therefore be deferred to further research. The paper will focus instead on the dominant discourses in the selected sections of the WSE Policy and on how these discourses determine processes of inclusion and omission. It will offer theoretically motivated arguments for the integration of diversity management at the level of policy in order to legitimate its inclusion in schools. The issues that are raised in the research problem, I suggest, need to be conceptualised and problematised *before* addressing the practical implementation of diversity management programmes in schools as these issues, it is argued, establish the theoretical foundation on which other discussions are predicated. This I have attempted to do by presenting a critique of the WSE Policy through the analytic tool of CDA.

In the context of this study, there are some key terms I wish to clarify: firstly, 'diversity' refers to the acknowledgement of difference in terms of culture; gender; race; religion; language; ability;

age; tradition; values; norms; morals and beliefs. Diversity management in education includes developing a sensitivity regarding different teaching and learning styles and the extent to which these styles are reflective of discourse patterns in which cultural assumptions and expectations are embedded. However, as mentioned, this will not be included in this study. The term 'inclusivity' secondly, refers to the rejection of homogenisation, bias, discrimination and prejudice through engaging consciously with identities other than one's own. This implies an attitude to others and an approach to education that is based on fair and just practice. In the context of this paper the school is viewed as an intercultural community. As such it is regarded as an environment in which diverse people come together, free to articulate and engage in their own and each other's differences.

### 1.3 Research Problem

The problem this study addresses is the absence of diversity management from the nine focus areas of Whole-school Evaluation and the consequent need for diversity and difference to be explicitly recruited into South African education. An important question the study raises therefore is whether the omission of diversity management and the implications thereof are symptomatic of the policy's aspiration towards global educational trends and its resultant extrication from the local context. This relates to the policy's dominant influences, and the extent to which these influences have resulted in significant omissions which have had direct implications for South African Education.

It is suggested that there is a deeper epistemological problem which emerges through the absence of difference and diversity discourse in the policy. This is also an etymological issue regarding the policy itself and the influences on the policy-makers, and has to do with the notion of identity and the extent to which this is clearly enough explicated in the policy. It is my intention in this regard, through the methodological mechanism of CDA, to critique the policy by making explicit the notions and assumptions underlying the policy that may help create an understanding of *who* the subject of the policy is and *how* the individual is constituted at policy level. In Chapter Five, I critically examine references within the selected sections of the text, to the 'subject' with a focus on exploring ways in which the individual is represented. In deconstructing assumed notions of

the subject, I critique those aspects of the policy that I believe insufficiently address the complexity of the South African situation.

The question of the articulation of the individual within the policy relates to the suggested dislocation of the policy from the South African social, economic, historical and political context and the consequent lack of integration of South Africa's history of discrimination into the policy-making process. The argument that will be explored is based on the "rationalist belief that the complexities of the social world can be measured and recorded with the appropriate instruments and technologies" (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 60). The extent to which this has narrowed the focus of policy reform in South Africa will be examined, resulting in the overlooking of context as a crucial signifier of school effectiveness. The research problem therefore focuses on whether the contextual influence of South Africa's past has been absorbed boldly enough into the WSE Policy, as exemplified in the nine focus areas as well as in the **Background, Aims and Principles**. A key aspect of the study will be an exploration of how the policy identifies the individual in relation to him/herself and to the other, and whether this has direct implications for continued patterns of behaviour that serve to differentiate and exclude, rather than integrate and include. Such a perspective may also offer insight into the extent to which the notion of identity envisaged in the policy is legitimising and validating of the individual both in terms of attitudes to the self, as well as to the other. Finally the research dissertation concerns how the policy may be implicated in addressing prejudice, discrimination and inequality and therefore how, in essence, it mediates difference and diversity.

The following questions which frame the research problem have therefore been posed:

- 1. What are the dominant discourses in the background to the WSE Policy and how do these discourses determine processes of inclusion and exclusion?*
- 2. What appear to be the influences, both locally and globally on policy-makers in these discourses?*
- 3. How are these influences linked to significant omissions within the policy and what are the implications of these omissions?*

#### 1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was initially shaped by my personal experience of working in seven small town and semi-rural schools over a four-year period. During this time I was responsible for the facilitation of a Whole-school Development project which required that each school develop and implement a School Improvement Plan (SIP). The apparent need for diversity management to be addressed was suggested ironically at the outset by the lack of representivity on the School Development Teams (SDT) in each of the schools.

However, despite the structural non-representivity of the SDT, the employment of strategies to address diversity and difference was not reflected in any one of these schools' development processes. Referring to the research problem, this suggests that the absence of diversity management as a guideline for school development from the nine focus areas in the WSE Policy may have resulted in these schools overlooking diversity as one of the criteria for their development. The consequence of this oversight may thus be seen as a missed opportunity to have addressed difference and diversity in the planning and implementation of Whole-school Development strategies within these schools.

On a more personal level, I am deeply committed to developing a greater understanding of difference and diversity within the school context, both systemically and within the classroom. I am interested in how difference is mediated within a diverse environment as well as in the way that the individual is constituted within a diverse context. Although I have drawn on prior literature which explores the articulation of the subject at policy level, there is no literature, to my knowledge, which links this position, namely that of the location of the subject in the policy, to the omission of diversity management from WSE and the implications thereof. In order to investigate this second issue, it would be useful to begin by examining the first. Nkomo and Dolby suggest that "questions, contradictions, and struggles" regarding identity and difference "haunt the day-to-day world of schools, communities, and learners. And while 'race' is alive in the classrooms of schools across the nation, it is, as Soudien and Sayed argue, relatively under-interrogated, particularly in the educational literature" (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 5).

The argument that is presented is that the location and identification of the subject at policy level needs to be explicated, as the notion of the individual currently remains obfuscated within a multicultural orientation. An attempt will be made to show, in the chapters that follow, that this has deep implications for the continuation of division and inequalities. An important question that emerges therefore is to what extent can there be effective transformation without an explicit articulation of the subject? This question relates to the perpetuation of particular notions and assumptions embedded in the unspoken and the extent to which these notions and assumptions become reflective of the 'natural order' in the eyes of both those who benefit from it, and those who remain subjugated by it (Bullock, 1977: 379). The study will therefore explore some of the gaps and silences that have emerged within the policy and the possible link between these gaps and the dominant influences of the policy articulated through school effectiveness discourse. It will consider whether the policy has sufficiently addressed issues of difference and diversity or whether these issues have been discursively shifted and overlooked. The purpose of the study is to interrogate "what is hidden, contradictory, silenced" (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 129) through describing that which is present - to explore the absence *through* the presence and in so doing to "open up some discursive space" (1999: 129) for the inclusion of alternative discourses.

The premise on which this study is based is that the management of diversity needs to be integral and pivotal to any reconstructionist education policy and that it is this that should underpin and foreground every facet of the school, both operationally and developmentally. The urgent need for an active, effective participatory approach in managing diversity within the school community is not being sufficiently addressed, it is argued, even though this may be taking place informally and spontaneously in some schools. However, the fact that it has not been identified as a key area for Whole-school Evaluation may suggest that schools are not compelled to include this development priority into their SIP, precluding them from integrating this issue into the school in any formalised way. In the literature review that follows the implications of this omission will be explored and the link between the absence of diversity management in schools and the continuation of divisions and inequalities within South Africa will be examined. It is the responsibility of the country as a whole to address racism and discrimination in all its forms and

manifestations – and it is argued that education, as one of the most powerful institutions of any country, must respond to this challenge with urgency.

The purpose of this study is linked to its significance at policy level. It is the state's responsibility through the National Education Policy to actively and effectively address the fundamental issue of difference and diversity – one that urgently requires attention particularly because of deep-rooted divisions inherited from South Africa's political and contested history. Nkomo and Dolby (2004: 5) are useful in emphasising the point: "If South Africa is to live up to its promise of being a model of multiracial democracy for the world.... then the examination of race, in all its complexity and contradictions, must remain a priority for educational researchers, policymakers, and practitioners."

University of Cape Town

## CHAPTER TWO:

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Theoretical Perspective

For the purpose of this study, I wish to draw a distinction between the terms ‘theoretical perspective’ and ‘conceptual framework’. I will use the term ‘perspective’ in this context (Kilbourn, 2006: 545) rather than ‘framework’ as the literature on which I have drawn has served to shape rather than define my orientation. While this literature has influenced and informed my understanding, my perspective is not theoretically embedded in one specific theoretical field. The research problem for this study is, I believe, more amenable to a somewhat broader, more diverse field of theory. As Ball suggests, “simple recourse to a single theory explanation seems unhelpful and inadequate but deployment of a set of affinities might get us somewhere” (Ball, 2003: 28).

The notion of the subject during the Enlightenment as stable, coherent, centered, self-contained and differentiated from the social structure has become increasingly difficult to sustain (Gillborn, 1995: 71). The fracturing of social life in post-modernity has dislocated the subject from its previously held central position, shifting its location, as individual identity has become suffused with different possibilities. Hall describes the post-modern subject as “having no fixed, essential or permanent identity. Identity becomes a ‘moveable feast:’ formed and transformed continuously in relation to the ways we are represented or addressed in the cultural systems which surround us” (Hall, 1992: 277). As such, the subject no longer is able to see itself as entirely self-integrated, absorbing its identity solely from “the essential centre of the self” (1992: 275). Instead he/she “assumes different identities at different times, identities which are not unified around a coherent ‘self’” (1992: 277).

Hall et al. argue that the more globalised social life becomes, “the more identities become detached – disembedded – from specific times, places, histories, and traditions, and appear ‘free-

floating” (1992: 303). Because of the shifting, contested nature of the post-modern subject and the consequent emergence of new possibilities of meaning, it is suggested, there is an even greater need for policy-makers to explicitly articulate the type of subjectivity that is envisaged in policy documents. Within the context of South African education policy, an explication of the subject is critical because of South Africa’s complex, contested past and because, furthermore, of the recent emergence within the post-1994 education policies of “the possibility of new articulations” – the potential for the creation of new identities; the “production of new subjects...” (1992: 279).

The location and articulation of the individual within the WSE Policy concerns the broader “relationship between educational policy and identity” (Soudien, 1999: 1). The deconstruction of this relationship would help to make clear what the implications of diversity in the policy might be – why it has been included in particular places such as the Life Orientation Learning Area on the one hand, and why on the other it has been omitted from that part of the policy which directs the school’s development. It is suggested that the lack of explicit articulation of the subject is problematic in that embedded notions of the individual that have occupied pre- and post- modern Western thinking have become normalised, idealised assumptions which remain unnoticed and unchallenged.

Soudien’s interest in exploring how subjectivity is “being imagined in our education policy” (Soudien, 2008: 3) demonstrates that through the current education policies, “our new government ... misrecognises the child whom it is serving” (2008: 3) through displacing “non-Western and non-traditional forms of learning” (1999: 11) and meaning. On a broader level Hall et al. remind us of the possibility of globalisation working in tandem with a “strengthening of local identities” (Hall, 1992: 306), a notion that potentially could open the space for “a new South African identity” (Soudien, 1999: 1) one that could work to define the subject in relation to his/her history and in relation to the other. The question that emerges therefore is to what extent is the potential that could be derived from the ‘productive dialogue’ (2005: 508) between local and global overlooked through critical absences and omissions in the policy?

Against this perspective I draw on Touraine's theory of an 'intervention society' (Touraine, 2000: 131) and it is in the context of a globalised world order that is fragmented, decentralised, differentiated and polarised that this theory is introduced. Touraine's theoretical lens creates a humanist approach that reconstitutes the individual – in relation to him/herself; to the other and to the community. Touraine explores the extent to which a society's ability to increase its interventional capacity is contingent upon the "freedom and creativity of the personal subject, defined as an agent who can reconcile instrumental action with the defence of an identity" (2000: 131). Caught in the polarity of "conflicting worlds of markets and communities" (2000: 131), the individual is called upon, as Subject, to "re-create in his life and personal experience a unity that no longer exists in social life" (2000: 134). It is only through the notion of the Subject that the individual can re-define him/herself by mediating between social integration and cultural identity. The principle of instrumentality is crucial to Touraine's theory as it is this that instils in the Subject a sense of his/her capacity to act – to make social and political choices so as to participate actively in his/her own history, and in so doing to recognise "that others also have the right to be actors in their own lives" (2000: 138).

Touraine's notion of being able "to see the other within themselves" (Soudien, 2006: 115) requires greater exploration as it is this that preempts an appreciation of 'otherness' and 'difference'. A deconstruction and problematisation of these terms – 'otherness' and 'difference' is considered fundamental before leapfrogging ahead, and embracing the more comfortable notion of 'inclusivity'. An exploration of these notions is crucial to the understanding of diversity management so that we may begin to make sense of how these social constructs have been used to fracture and de-legitimise identities in South Africa. This requires developing a broader understanding of the implications of difference and 'othering' and the extent to which the construction of the other may be linked with the preservation of power by the dominant group. Terkessidis explores extreme forms of this in the notion of the 'dangerous other' (Terkessidis, 2000: 224) and illustrates how the process of othering has been used to establish social cohesiveness and in this sense how it may be masked by sociological dynamics. Norval suggests that it is only through being able to "foster and sustain difference" (Norval, 1996: 293) that we can keep spaces open 'for identification within a democratic order' (1996: 293).

Soudien suggests that “it is the very act of displacing and decentring the *other*... that the new South Africa and the new identities within it present themselves as profoundly discriminatory moments of history and opens up opportunities for new struggles as the *other* continues to announce itself and calls for recognition” (Soudien, 1999: 12). This has significant implications for diversity management in education as the school, as a microcosm of society, may be seen as constituting one of the most powerful and influential ways through which identity and socialisation are shaped. The absence of diversity at the systemic level of school development raises the question once again of whether the policy-makers have overlooked opportunities provided by history to grapple with difference and diversity and simultaneously whether they have sufficiently acknowledged the extent to which these terms have come to mould South African identities. The concern that is raised in this study is whether policy-makers have de-prioritised this focus in lieu of the preparation of young South Africans for participation in the economic global market and whether this polarised vision has bypassed the opportunity to build capacity in the mediation of difference. An attempt will be made in Chapter Five to illustrate that the suggested singular causal logic of the policy-makers has functioned to extricate the policy from the local, and re-constitute it at the level of the global domain.

Inclusivity implies appreciation of “the Other as a Subject” (Touraine, 2000: 141) - a recognition that everyone has the “right to reconcile, in their own way, instrumentality and identity, and reason and culture...” (2000: 141). The recognition of the other as subject is relevant to this study as it is suggested that this can only be reached through authentic communication accomplished through the acceptance of diversity and the mediation of difference. Hoare reminds us that “there is a strong correlation between the extent to which we understand our own conscious and unconscious biases and our abilities to unimposingly hear and care about those who do not share our culturally grounded views” (Hoare, 1994: 37, 38).

Touraine, Hall and Soudien have shaped my theoretical perspective by conceptualising the post-modern subject in relation to the other. Soudien has explored the notion of the subject within the policy context by interrogating the articulation of the individual at this level. It is through this conceptual lens that the research problem will be addressed. The theoretical perspective is used to supplement and augment the research literature rather than provide a framework in which the

research is conceptually embedded. The gap in the existing literature on central aspects of the research problem calls for the interweaving of the theoretical framework with the literature review. Together the two bodies of literature develop a theoretical approach which more robustly frames the research problem. Their linking therefore reflects the contingent relationship that exists between the questions posed earlier, namely: 1. *What are the dominant discourses in the background to the WSE Policy and how do these discourses determine processes of inclusion and exclusion?* 2. *What appear to be the influences, both locally and globally, on policy-makers in these discourses?* 3. *How are these influences linked to significant omissions within the policy and what are the implications of these omissions?*

The discussion that follows is based on the argument that the global influences on the policy-makers take expression firstly in terms of the omission of diversity management from critical places in the policy and secondly in terms of the way in which the subject has been constituted. Both these implications are pre-empted, it is argued, by the policy's extrication from the South African social, political, economic and historical context.

## **2.2 The WSE Discussion**

This section is divided into six main parts: the first peruses some of the current literature on the School Effectiveness and School Improvement movements as a back-drop to the Whole-school Evaluation Policy. The literature reviewed presents a critique of these movements by focusing specifically on their extrication from the social, economic, historical and political context, a severance which becomes more critical, it is argued, within the context of a developing country. It is this divorce that reflects a similar polarising of the WSE Policy from its local context and highlights the aspirations of policy-makers instead towards global policy trends. The focus of the second section is the global influence on the policy-makers which has defined the relationship between the WSE Policy and the South African context and the consequent influence of globalisation on education. These influences, articulated through an effectiveness discourse, demarcate the policy terrain, establishing the parameters of school evaluation, inherent in which are 'marketplace values' (Whitty & Power, 2003: 97) of "individualism, competition, performativity and differentiation" (2003: 9). Although an attempt is made to contextualise this research by examining the South African situation, the dearth of scholarship in this specific area

(i.e. the relationship between the WSE Policy and the South African context), calls for a more generalised look at some of the policy-borrowing literature which is reviewed in an attempt to demonstrate the extent to which policy-making is constituted at the global rather than at the local level. This is encapsulated by Ball, who, drawing on Levin, defines the global trend in education and social policy as the ‘policy epidemic’ in which he speaks of a ‘new orthodoxy’ (Ball, 2003: 30), which typically “comes as a package; that is, very schematically: competition, choice, devolution, managerialism and performativity” (2003: 30 from Ball 2000).

After presenting an analysis of what is present in the policy and constituted through global influences, the third part of the literature review reveals its absences; the absence of articulation of the subject within the policy is first explored and thereafter, the omission of diversity management from the WSE Policy. Ironically it is particularly this aspect of the research problem, as will be illustrated, in which there is a paucity of literature. The interweaving, throughout the study of the subject as it is constituted in the policy, demonstrates its contingency within the research problem.

The fourth part of the literature review examines the implications of the omission of diversity management from a psychosocial perspective by looking first at identity formation and second at racism in the workplace. The fifth section includes a discussion of identity formation through engaging with diversity and difference, and the sixth ultimately looks at the school as an intercultural community and explores conceptually what diversity management can bring to education.

## **2.2. (i) A Background to Whole-School Evaluation - School Effectiveness and School Improvement: The Problem of Decontextualisation**

A substantial body of literature exists which points to the extrication of both international and national educational policies from the political, socio-economic and historical context in which they are set. Whitty and Power for example discuss the tendency of policy-makers to ‘(de)contextualise reform’ (Whitty & Power, 2003: 305). The failure to recognise historical and cultural features results in what Rose refers to as ‘false universalism’ (2003: 306) in which cross-national comparisons are made without reference and acknowledgment to the specific differences

specific differences in the political context. Results of these comparisons are presented as a “reified reading of reality, which becomes a truth” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 60).

Despite the recent merging of the School Effectiveness and School Improvement traditions after decades of polarised divergence, it continues to be the case, regrettably, that reform policies engage insufficiently with their social contexts of application and therefore continue to be criticised for being insufficiently reflective of the significant broader social, historical and political features. Fleisch and Christie comment on how specific historical contexts are often “glossed over in models of school effectiveness/improvement” (Fleisch & Christie, 2004: 95) which suggests that the two traditions have by and large overlooked these aspects upon which effective school reform would be contingent, in order to be successfully implemented and sustained. In his review essay on School Effectiveness, Angus critiques the decontextualised approach of this paradigm: “Not only is context understood as something that exists outside or beyond schooling rather than in relation to it, but also it is something that is prior to schooling rather than being historically contiguous” (Angus, 1993: 341). Similarly, Morley and Rasool comment on school effectiveness representing an “apolitical, ahistorical and de-ideologized view of educational change and development” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 34). According to Fleisch and Christie (2004) the relationship between systemic School Improvement and the social, economic and political context is an interdependent one: “Rather than being the product of a set of interlocking school-related factors, or of institution-level changes, the experience of school change in South Africa suggests that historical context needs to be an overriding consideration that frames all judgements of effectiveness and improvement” (Fleisch & Christie, 2004: 96).

The School Effectiveness and School Improvement movements have defined the parameters of school reform which, in turn, have informed the process of change in schools over the last forty years. However, both the School Effectiveness and School Improvement literature have been primarily focused on conditions reflective of OECD countries. Fleisch and Christie present a case for countries in transition to be understood and theorised as a separate category (2004: 96). The importance of the social, political and cultural context as a “powerful determinant in school change” (2004: 97) offers a more complex and differentiated approach to School Effectiveness and School Improvement as articulated by Fleisch and Christie (2004); Reynolds, Hopkins and

Stoll (1993); MacBeath and Mortimore (2001) and Angus (1993), amongst others. This contextual approach takes into account a broad range of factors including the social, cultural, economic, political and historical – factors which are inextricably interconnected and which are powerful determinants in influencing and defining educational change:

... change research needs also to explore mechanisms that relate social structural changes to school and classroom improvements. In the South African context at least, rigorous and systematic analyses of historical specificities within and beyond the school are necessary for a full understanding of school change. (Fleisch & Christie, 2004: 97)

## **2.2. (ii) Understanding Globalisation and its Influence on Education**

The WSE Policy emerged out of the School Effectiveness and School Improvement movements, privileging school effectiveness over school improvement. As discussed, both School Effectiveness and School Improvement reflect a decontextualised approach which, it is argued has influenced the global orientation of the policy-makers and the concomitant extrication of the WSE from the South African context. A detailed analysis of the policy discourse, representing these influences, is presented in Chapter Five which attempts to frame and substantiate this discussion. Before reviewing the global influence on the policy-makers it would be valuable to explore some of the theories of globalisation in order to create a context into which the policy-makers can be positioned more clearly. For the purpose of this research two of the three schools of thought that have emerged in response to understanding the causal dynamics of globalisation will be presented, each of which represents a distinctive perspective of globalisation.

The *hyperglobalisers*, firstly attribute globalisation to the emergence of a single global market. The economic logic, defined by this perspective, focuses on a process of “ ‘denationalisation’ of economies through the establishment of transnational networks of production, trade and finance” (Carnoy & Castells, 1999: 3) resulting from economic globalisation. Globalisation is seen as essentially an economic phenomenon and economic power is wielded through the global economy which is polarised between ‘winners and losers’ (1999: 4). Intrinsic to the global economy is a global infrastructure, comprising “mechanisms of global governance” (1999: 4) such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (WB) which further functions to challenge and erode the legitimacy of the nation state.

While the *hyperglobalisers* view the world economy as constituting a global civil society, the *transformationalists*, defined by Giddens, Castells and others, view globalisation as a historically unprecedented long term process, 'inscribed with contradictions' (1999: 7). While almost all countries and their territories are seen by the hyperglobalisers as being part of that global system (1999: 7), the transformationalists challenge the existence of a single global society. According to this view, inherent in the process of globalisation is a complex dialectical polarisation between those communities which are being integrated into the global order on the one hand, and those which are becoming increasingly marginalised on the other (1999: 8). Rather than the world being organised in an integrated global economy, stratifications are carved between the "elites, the contented and the marginalised" (1999: 8) and it is these divisions which permeate traditional national territorial borders.

Globalisation discourse is further defined by Held and McGrew (1992) who articulate the importance of understanding its driving force (Held & McGrew, 1992). For the hyperglobalists globalisation is viewed as mono-causal, the primary catalyst being economic. Defining causation in terms of a singular process, however, ignores the complexity of a more differentiated approach which would take into account a broad range of factors including the social, cultural, political and technological.

A multi-causal logic, as defined by the transformationalists, on the other hand accounts for a more complex, multi-layered perspective exposing the contradictory elements and 'opposed tendencies' (1992: 74) of globalisation. This further illuminates its inherent ambiguity, duality and complexity. The 'binary oppositions' commonly identified include "universalisation versus particularisation"; 'homogenisation versus differentiation': 'integration versus fragmentation'; 'centralisation versus decentralisation' and 'juxtaposition versus syncretisation'" (1992: 74; 75). While in some parts of the world, globalisation may be experienced by individuals and communities as being integrally part of their lives, in other communities, the direct impact of globalisation may not be experienced by individuals at all in their daily existence. While some communities are deeply integrated and closely affected therefore, others are excluded and marginalised, thus exhibiting an intrinsic unevenness characterised by a highly asymmetrical structure of power relations reflecting privilege and hierarchy on the one hand, and exclusion and

alienation on the other. Such opposing, contradictory tendencies reveal the contingency and complexity inherent in the globalisation process – a process which by its very nature is uneven, discontinuous and asymmetrical; a process which reflects the contradictory experiences of globalisation in and between countries, communities and in the daily lives of individuals.

An attempt will be made through the analysis of the policy's discourse in Chapter Five to illustrate that the influence of globalisation on education, as exemplified in the WSE Policy, is conveyed through a mono-causal logic appropriated by the policy makers. The focus of the policy on quality, improvement and performance will be shown to define globalisation in terms of a singular process – the primary catalyst being economic. The intimate relationship between knowledge production and economic value clearly echoes core objectives of international organisations such as The World Bank which has played an important role in re-structuring education through 'finance-driven' reforms, and in this way may be seen as an active vehicle through which globalisation has impacted on education (Carnoy, 2000: 47).

The influence of globalisation on education reform was activated in the 1980s, paving the way for a new trend in education. The Education Reform Act (ERA), is described as "the most influential piece of educational policy" (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 10) in the United Kingdom, in the twentieth century, in which "the entire educational system was to be overhauled and restructured" (1999: 30). This reform injected marketisation, competition and standardisation into the education arena, foregrounding concepts of "quality assurance, measurement (and) performance" (1999: 14). In addition to restructuring, the decentralisation of schools was enforced as power was devolved to local management. The principle of examination as the "formal testing and signifier of ability" (1999: 11) reinforced by the ERA was extended in the 1990s from a focus on individual students to that of educational institutions, enabling academic performance to be measured with the result that "targets, goals, outcomes could be identified and worked for" (1999: 12).

Important questions that emerge from this discussion are first, how has this education reform been implicated at policy level and second, whose interests have been predominantly served by these education reforms? Ball defines the 'dimension of policy' as the arena in which "discursive

and ideological terms of the new rules of exclusion are translated into practice” (Ball, 2003: 21). He argues that “policy thinking is classed in particular ways and particular policies present the middle class with strategic advantages in education” (2003: 21). The argument presented by Ball is that education policies are currently aimed at addressing the needs and “satisfying the concerns and interests of the middle class” (2003: 21) and therefore privilege this class while “not appearing to do so” (2003: 26). Whitty (2003), similarly criticises education reform policies as embodying “a commitment to creating, not a more equal society but one that is more ‘acceptably unequal’” (Whitty, 2003: 80):

Although current education policies may seem to be a response to changing economic, political and cultural priorities in modern societies, it would be difficult to argue, at least in the case of Britain, that they should be read as indicating that we have entered into a qualitatively new phase of social development – or experienced a postmodern break. Despite new forms of accumulation, together with some limited changes in patterns of social and cultural differentiation, the continuities seem just as striking as the discontinuities (2003: 84).

Soudien, Jacklin and Hoadley (2001: 81) suggest that the values and ideals permeating education may “propound the objective of social equality but consistently maintain inequitable practices”.

## **2.3 Absences in the Policy**

### **2.3. (i) The Articulation of the Subject within the WSE Policy**

“(I)t is because subjects do not, strictly speaking, know what they are doing that what they do has more meaning than they know” (Bourdieu, P. in Fairclough, N. 1989: 41).

The identification and location of the subject within the WSE Policy, it is argued, has direct implications for how awareness is constructed of the self and the other within South African schools. Potter and Wetherell (1987) acknowledge that “the question becomes not what is the true nature of the self, but how is the self talked about, how is it theorized in discourse?” (Potter & Wetherell, 1987: 102). The argument that follows suggests that any discussion of difference and diversity must create a space at its centre for the articulation of the individual. The theoretical

perspective introduced earlier conceptually orientates the discussion of the subject and the need to unearth its meaning so that an explicit understanding is developed of how the subject “is being imagined in our education policy” (Soudien, 2008: 3). Soudien suggests that education historically has misunderstood the child it has served, just as now, 340 years after the introduction of formal education, the child continues to be ‘misrecognised’ (2008: 3). Drawing on current National Education Policies, he posits that these education policies “read them in ways that are dismissive of and in some ways contemptuous of their histories and ...impose on them ways of being and becoming that are profoundly discriminatory” (2008: 3). The persistence of racial injustice, discrimination and unequal opportunities experienced by children of colour inform the process of how young people see themselves, and each other. In this sense “the question of the subject, and subjectivity is, alongside of the economy, the invisible but fundamental problem that haunts us” (2008: 4). The kind of injustice to which Soudien refers, may be “located in our policy and the way the policy is implicated in the process of becoming human” (2008: 7).

The potential for young South Africans in the 1980s and 1990s to develop their subjectivity - to become conscious - may be seen as the opportunity to have established and activated their agency. However, the possibility for young people to take control of their lives was dismissed and deligitimated by the redefinition within the new policies of the South African identity. By universalising the subject, the ‘subordinate identity’ (2008: 8) of the ‘learner’ has been submerged and disempowered. The notion of the ‘universal subject’ (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 122) establishes a “homogenized, ungendered, non-racialized or social classed group” (1999: 122) that is disembodied, dislocated and undifferentiated. The learner is therefore positioned as a cognitive unit, devoid of the opportunity to develop “the capacity to act and think in the name of a creative personal freedom” (Touraine, 2000: 282). This personal freedom, Touraine suggests, can only be developed through “coming into direct contact with the intellectual, technological and ethical constructs of both the past and the present” (2000: 282). As “critical actors in our own histories” (Soudien, 2007: 5) we need to find a way of engaging actively with our recent history, so that we are able more meaningfully to “come to terms with the deeply engrained forms of culturalisation or socialisation that accompanied and even characterised our experiences as subjects of history during apartheid” (2007: 6).

If identities have been shaped and defined by the individual and collective histories in South Africa, have sufficient opportunities to mediate differences within the education policy context been provided? A starting point in answering this question may be an analysis of the constitution within these policies of the learning subject. In the context of this study, it is the WSE Policy that is the unit of analysis. However, an inherent problem, it is suggested, is the absence of articulation of the subject within this policy. Following this, it is argued that the complexity of the South African identity within this policy is not sufficiently probed. Although the “1990s (may) have seen the *deracialization* of social policy” (Gillborn, 1995: 17), it is argued here that the *notion* of race remains absent. Creating a deepened understanding of South African identities, according to this perspective, implies an investigation into the effects of racism in the shaping of South African identities and in the defining of those relationships. Similarly an exploration of the implications of the silence of race discourse may reveal the extent to which these silences and absences serve to normalise the subject as the privileged middle-class learner. What is of equal interest in this research is the positioning of those identities that may be regarded as deviating from the norm. In the context of this dissertation there are important questions that emerge: First, how are issues pertaining to difference and otherness mediated if they are not part of education policy discourse? Second, what are the broader implications of the silence of discourses relating to difference and race in policies such as WSE and third, to what extent does this silence permeate the school, reducing possibilities for young people to mediate diversity and engage with ‘others’? Morley and Rasool suggest that these silences serve to reinforce traditional power relations which “become so naturalized that they remain unquestioned” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 127). Similarly, according to Gillborn “(t)he deracialized discourse of current education policy does more than disguise existing inequalities, it sustains and promotes them” (Gillborn, 1995: 17). These issues will be returned to in Chapter Five where an attempt will be made, through CDA, to describe that which is present in the policy, and thereby to understand the implications of its absences.

### 2.3. (ii) The Omission of Diversity Management from the Nine Focus areas of WSE

Of the nine focus areas presented to schools in the WSE Policy, not one addresses diversity management, and it is this omission that requires deeper exploration. The inclusion of diversity in the Life Orientation Curriculum at the GET (General Education and Training) and FET (Further Education and Training) levels without systemic attention to diversity management is suggestive of the notion that diversity management can be dislocated and compartmentalised so as to ‘fit’ into a Learning Area rather than creating a context which foregrounds the entire policy. West and Hopkins’ (1996) reference to ‘Whole School’ development as an ‘illusion’ (West & Hopkins, 1996: 10) underscores the purpose of Whole-school Development in reflecting a developmental perspective that is multi-faceted, broad, and differentiated – a perspective that potentially takes into account diversity, plurality and all aspects of difference and ‘otherness’. Such an approach, it is suggested would legitimate the existence of diverse groups within the school community by encouraging young people to dialogue and engage with each other.

De Clercq (2007) critiques the WSE Policy by raising issues of “school accountability and support” (de Clercq, 2007: 97) and argues for a reconceptualised, more “appropriate quality monitoring system” (2007: 97) which can “lay the basis for school improvement for all South African schools” (2007: 97). The focus of her critique primarily concerns accountability and support and it is the “problematic or ambiguous assumptions” (2007: 103) of the WSE strategy that she challenges. She states that “WSE is not primarily a system which can easily be used to identify specific school improvement strategies”, and it is this point that I wish to reinforce. In the context of this research problem, an important question that emerges concerns the appropriate evaluation of diversity management were it to be included in the nine focus areas. As de Clercq suggests, the evaluation of school improvement requires a different strategy to that circumscribed in the WSE Policy (2007: 103) – one that is amenable to the situational context of the school. This suggests that evaluation strategies for diversity management may need to be reconceptualised, as would the specificities of its inclusion in the nine focus areas and in the WSE Policy more generally. These issues, whilst crucial to the discussion of diversity in schools, must be deferred to further research which would need to consider the practical implications of diversity management strategies in schools. An important point for consideration in this study, and one that needs to be problematised *before* considering the practical specificities of diversity

management in schools, concerns the normative assumptions underpinning school effectiveness, and the extent to which effectiveness discourse is socially constructed and divorced from the social context of the majority of South African youth. In the sections that follow, notions of achievement, performance and effectiveness will be explored as signifying an epistemological understanding of education reflecting a discourse that is “both...homogenized and homogenizing” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 13). If school effectiveness discourse is intrinsically homogenising, it is important to ask whether it is discursively congruent with “gender, ethnicity, sexualit(y), disabilit(y) and social class” (1999: 15) discourses. More specifically, it is the question of whether Whole-school Evaluation is epistemologically conducive to the complexity of diversity management within the South African context that needs to be examined. In order to address this issue, it is argued that one must make explicit that which is “hidden, contradictory, distorted and avoided in the common-sense rhetoric of school effectiveness” (1999: 13). An analysis of sections of the policy which follows in Chapter Five will attempt to do so.

Although de Clercq questions whether the nine prescribed areas “are the most pertinent and essential to schooling in South Africa” (2007: 107), there has been no specific South African study, to my knowledge, which explores the link between the WSE Policy and the South African context - focussing on the influence of its recent history on the policy, and on the need to integrate diversity management explicitly and systemically into the policy. More specifically, there has been no literature to date which problematises its absence from the policy. Chapter Five of this paper will describe the extent to which the omission of diversity management from the WSE Policy reflects the dislocation of National Policy from the South African context.

## **2.4 Psychosocial Implications of the Omission of Diversity Management within the South African Context**

### **2.4 (i) Identity formation and the Process of ‘Othering’**

Identity formation within the context of the school is fundamental to the discussion of diversity in education as “it is society that provides access and opportunities for identity achievement...”

(Hoare, 1994: 24) and the school, as a microcosm of society, constitutes one of the most powerful agents of socialisation (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997: 7) and identity formation.

The formation of white identity in South Africa has been historically linked with an identity of superiority, with the result that a positive self image has been attributed to and associated with being white. 'Othering' has functioned as a "conceptual process in which inferior qualities were projected onto, and seen as, the property of racialised others" (Ballard, 2004: 53). As Ballard suggests, because the colonialist notion of a sense of superiority based on whiteness is not as explicitly displayed in a post-colonialist context, white identity has been reconstituted in terms of its 'ordinariness'. Post-apartheid "'White' identities are unmarked and invisible while other identities are marked" (2004: 54), and visible. Although this may reflect social differentiation globally, and although it may be hidden in a discourse "not as easily identifiable as racist, ...the racist implications should not be underestimated" (2004: 56). According to Gallagher, "to ignore white ethnicity is to redouble its hegemony by naturalizing it" (Gallagher, 1995: 173). Prinsloo & De la Rey (1997) say, also, that "(e)thnicity needs to be deconstructed and specified according to a particular societal context to understand the social forces that inform and drive individual and collective behaviours" (Prinsloo & De la Rey, 1997: 13). Norval (1996) discusses the 'competing myths' (Norval, 1996: 275) inherent in the discourse of the new National Party that emerged in South Africa in the 1980s as an attempt to stitch together the dislocated apartheid legacy. She too draws attention to the urgent need to address these discourses and to examine their implications:

...it is precisely to the extent in which (these discourses) succeed in resituating themselves within the horizon of a non-racial South Africa that their force and relevance for the period of transition, and beyond, is to be found. The discourse of non-racialism, clearly dominant in the construction of a post-apartheid order, will have to contend with and take account of these alternative myths if a successful transition to democracy is to be instituted (1996: 275).

The issue of 'whiteness' must according to Gallagher be addressed (Gallagher, 1995: 173) and must form part of a diversity discourse, as a theoretical understanding of racial identity is a prerequisite to broadening an understanding of ourselves and of each other.

This social identity formation process reflects a similar internal psychological process of identity formation in which the self is created by delineating itself from the other. Familiarity is endorsed

through difference which is represented by the unfamiliar other so that difference becomes “a critical ingredient of identity serving as a differentiating variable” (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 2). It is the differentiation and marginalisation of the other that yields for the self an - albeit tenuous - sense of identity. At the core of the process of ‘othering’ is the individual’s inclination to find legitimacy through attributing stereotypes to the externalised ‘other’. The legitimisation of the socially constructed inscription of the other is so deep, according to Nkomo and Dolby, “that it has been taken for granted as natural and axiomatic despite its artificiality” (2004: 2).

Glick and Fiske (2001) suggest that the establishment and perpetuation of the other is inextricably linked with the preservation of power by the dominant group as the process of ‘othering’ enables groups within a society to establish their own identity while simultaneously fulfilling the dominant group’s ability to preserve its power and privilege which function to uphold power relations. The ‘legitimizing myths’ (Glick & Fiske, 2001: 287) inherent in these stereotypes, explored by Glick and Fiske as well as by Sidanius et al. (2001) serve to justify societal status and group relations and thereby maintain a system of inequality (2001: 293). In fulfilling a legitimising function, these stereotypes serve furthermore to endorse and perpetuate group identity by justifying and maintaining the identity attributed by both groups to each other as well as by each group to itself. Glick and Fiske acknowledge therefore that “group identities are an important source of self-identity” (2001: 300), however the point that needs to be emphasised is that the more the group defines itself in relation to the other – in relation to what it is not - the more its identity will be fragile and tenuous. The importance of this discussion in the context of this research is that as long as interaction with the other is predicated on ambivalence, “every individual’s attempt to become a subject” and to be “actors in their own history” (Touraine, 1999: 138) will be thwarted. The consequence of this is the compromise of the right of others to become subjects - the extreme consequences of which may be seen in the countless world-wide atrocities visited by one group upon another and, more locally in the recent outbreaks of xenophobic attacks throughout South Africa. Recognition of one’s desire to become a subject, on the other hand – an actor in one’s life – requires a deep recognition and acknowledgement that “others also have the right to be actors in their own lives” (1999: 138). Nkomo and Dolby exemplify the profound need to recognise the subject – both within the self, and the other, by quoting a message written on a church door in Rwanda, “If you knew me, and you knew yourself,

you would not have killed me” (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 2). Touraine tells us that “there can be no communication unless those who are communicating have a common unitary principle. And only the attempt to reconcile instrumental action and identity can constitute that principle. That is the definition of the Subject” (Touraine, 1999: 138).

#### **2.4. (ii) ‘Culture Shock’ in the workplace**

While racial discourse may have changed in South Africa, “assumptions about ‘racial asymmetry’ persist in more subtle and implicit forms” (Franchi 2003: 157). Nkomo and Dolby remind us that ‘otherness’ discourses found expression in the apartheid ideology, “a social construction that inscribed itself so deeply in the institutional structures and psyche of all segments in society – victim and perpetrator – that still lingers with stubborn tenacity even after its official dissolution” (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 2).

Franchi (2003) presents an analysis of affirmative action in the workplace as a critical area in which “‘race’, racism and racialization continue to manifest themselves and evolve in post-apartheid South Africa” (2003: 157). The importance of Franchi’s study for this research is demonstrated by his findings which show the extent to which racism and prejudice permeate the workplace. Franchi’s research therefore offers a significant context-based motivation for the inclusion of diversity in education. He indicates that the lack of prior experience in engaging with diversity, before entering the workplace results in individuals being ill-equipped to manage their internalised “‘intercultural’ ignorance, acculturative stress and fear of ‘intercultural’ contact” (2003: 161), and thereby are unable to manage their psychological and interpersonal stress in the workplace. Franchi describes the notion of ‘culture shock’ as the experience individuals may have of feeling dislocated, “in situations where they are unable to draw on their habitual social and communication skills to understand the other and make themselves understood cross-culturally” (2003: 161). Prejudice, stereotypes and racism may be invoked to “reduce the subjective anxiety associated with culture shock” (2003: 162) as feelings of estrangement, helplessness, discomfort and dislocation are displaced onto a “reified, stigmatized, external Other” (2003: 162). According to Roland, “when racist attitudes predominate, repressed negativities are unconsciously projected onto the other, poisoning the identity of both” (Roland,

1994: 23). The example of racism and discrimination in the workplace has been presented as one of the predominant ways in which the lack of prior exposure to and engagement with diversity may translate into hostility, xenophobia and differentiation between groups as they enter and participate in society. Norval argues that the establishment of identity formation through differentiation, although psychologically necessary, does not mean that all “‘differences’ have to be excluded as ‘other’ as ‘evil’” (Norval, 1996: 303). She suggests that “one has here a site of indeterminacy that opens up the space for considering a variety of ways in which the relation between self and other may be conceived” (1996: 303) and “the possibility for the consolidation of identity through the constitution of difference, rather than otherness .... (and to) conceive and develop practices in which it is possible to recognize the instability of identity, and to respect the otherness of the other” (1996: 203).

## **2.5 Identity Formation through Diversity and Difference**

“We do not really see through our eyes or hear through our ears, but through our beliefs. To put our beliefs on hold is to cease to exist as ourselves for a moment...We must learn to be vulnerable enough to allow our world to turn upside down in order to allow the realities of others to edge themselves into our consciousness” (Delpit, 1988 from Wlodkowsky & Ginsberg, 1995: 3).

The need, according to Wlodkowsky and Ginsberg, to extricate oneself from one’s own deeply rooted cultural assumptions and to re-position oneself more globally in order to develop greater reflexivity is essential in addressing diversity management. Such an exercise would encourage greater capacity for observation, reflection and insight, which in turn would enable a deeper process of critical thinking regarding one’s own position coupled with increased empathy, sensitivity and consciousness regarding one’s position in relation to others. It is through consciously deepening one’s understanding of the other as well as actively acknowledging and engaging with difference that the notion of integration is appreciated. These authors suggest that this is intrinsically linked with identity formation as integration implies a bolstering of the sense of self through deepening one’s understanding of the other. Integration must therefore entail “departure from a logic in which a secure sense of self is dependent on an inferior understanding

of others” (Ballard, 2004: 64). Instead, the establishment of identity must be premised on the capacity to “engage with the diversity of society in a way that does not feel threatened by that diversity” (2004: 65).

The ability to extricate ourselves from our deeply rooted cultural beliefs requires openness according to Touraine, to the possibility of different conceptualisations of identity: “Interpersonal and inter-cultural communication are possible only if we cease to define ourselves in terms of our possession of a particular identity...” (Touraine, 1999: 152). By recruiting notions of difference and otherness into education discourse, a broadened understanding of the relationship between the self and the other may be encouraged, which may serve to help young people mediate difference and identity and to explore the reasons why difference is appropriated in the formation of identity. Integral to an understanding of identity therefore, are the notions of difference and otherness, and it is, according to Keen (1994), through the act of looking inwards, through internally scrutinising the layers of defense to find our own other that we will locate our own enemy. “The highest form of moral courage requires us to look at ourselves from another perspective, to repent, and to reown our shadows” (Keen, 1994: 416). According to this view, our capacity to hold within our selves the polarities of self-doubt and uncertainty on the one hand, together with compassion and empathy, on the other, would enable us to engage with the other so that relationships can be forged on the basis of humanity, equality and social justice. Norval calls for a regard for ‘radical pluralism’ (Norval, 1996: 304) which requires “responsibility for keeping open the space of contestation of identification” (1996: 304) so that the possibility for recognising “the non-sutured nature of identity” (1996: 305) is protected and fostered.

The colonial notion of national identity - defined by clear boundaries delineated by the nation state - was one that constituted itself through representations of nationhood in relation to the other. National identity, articulated through collective group definition functioned to clearly demarcate relations between the centre and the periphery. In the post-modern, globalised context, on the other hand, the intersection between the ‘centre’ and the ‘periphery’ has resulted in the evident merging of societal relations between groups. Terkessidis (2000) discusses this “phenomenon of ‘mixture’” (Terkessidis, 2000: 220) which has led to the re-positioning of people in society as aspects of hybridity have filtered across and between cultural groups.

Paradoxically, within the context of this evident 'crossover' (2000: 220), it is suggested that the need to problematise difference becomes even more pronounced in that while aspects of otherness have been absorbed into the dominant culture, it has done nothing to shift the existing power structures: "Difference has now become an integral part of metropolitan culture, yet this does not tell us anything about the nature of these differences, nor is it a clear indication of the end of exclusion" (Terkessidis, 2000: 227). Similarly Gillborn reminds us that "(a)n awareness of hybrid identities and 'cultural syncretism', should not blind us to the continuing power of traditional 'racial' dichotomies – categories that have genuine currency in countless contexts and can still prove fatal" (Gillborn, 1995: 90). Nkomo and Dolby suggest that "(t)he changing landscape of race, racism, and racial identities is further complicated by the desire to 'escape' race – to somehow transcend or mute its power in a search for a common national identity. Such a desire is expressed in policies and practices of non-racialism, which simultaneously mark the importance of race, while stripping away its power" (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 5). It is evident therefore that the less defined and explicit difference may appear to be, the more difficult it is to recognise, the more complex it becomes and the more it needs to be recruited into national discourses.

## **2.6 Diversity Management and Education: The School as an Intercultural Community**

If the school is to be viewed as an intercultural community, the need to conceptualise and problematise diversity from an intercultural perspective becomes pivotal. This calls for the responsibility of diversity management to extend to all who participate in the school community, including educators, parents, administration staff and ground-staff. In this sense, it is argued firstly that every role-player needs to develop a greater consciousness and sensitivity to the other and secondly that the student experience must assume central position in the education process. Of the nine focus areas in the WSE Policy, only one - 'learner achievement' – directly pertains to the learner. Morley and Rasool echo Plowden's (1967) view that "at the heart of the education process lies the child" (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 33). Without the child as a pivotal focus, schools may find themselves engaging in 'Whole'-school Development without considering its implications for the learners. Amplifying the learner's experience demands an examination of the expectations placed on diverse students to adjust and adapt to certain cultural norms and

behaviour. This necessitates creating new learning activities amenable to different types of learners, “to more equitably match learning experiences to the wealth of diverse intellectual strengths” (Wlodkowsky & Ginsberg, 1995: 37). Furthermore, all aspects of the ‘hidden curriculum’ (Whitty & Power, 2003: 321) need to be unpacked and exposed so that existing inequalities are not reproduced within the school. New attitudes, norms and behaviour based on an anti-bias approach would create a school culture and ethos reflecting plurality and inclusivity. By engaging more directly with difference and diversity, schools may begin to address the extent to which gender, race and religion, for example, impact on the experience of schooling for the individual learner and in this way may begin to take responsibility for the influence they have on the identity formation process, both at an individual and social level.

Wildman and Davis (1995) suggest that language and discourse need to be critically examined in an attempt to expose ways in which meaning is created on the basis of power systems and privilege. Ironically, this is obfuscated by “the very vocabulary that we use to talk about discrimination...” (Wildman & Davis, 1995: 52). According to these authors, privilege needs to be established as part of the pedagogical discourse so that discussions about race, gender and sexual orientation, are represented as “power system(s) that create privileges in some people as well as disadvantages in others” (1995: 52). Such an approach would help to confront and dismantle the ‘normalization of privilege’ (1995: 53) so that entrenched characteristics attributed to privilege would no longer represent the ‘norm’ against which people are measured and judged. Because systems of privilege reflect power relations which serve to define and influence the way we view ourselves and the other, it is suggested that they need to be made visible in order to establish the school as a diverse, prejudice-free community. Hoare (1994) indicates that diversity management must recognise and teach young people the implications of privilege, that is, the tendency of people within society to group and polarise according to social constructs that have been internalised. Education must therefore “increase understanding that culture and language create prisms of ideas, values, and biases... (and) create ways in which biases are challenged” (Hoare, 1994: 30). The inextricable relationship between education and broader societal systems means that “class, gender and racial bias of conventional forms of political association” (Witty & Power, 2003: 321) must be critically confronted and challenged.

Finally, according to Franchi the principle of diversity management within the education context must reflect a contextualised approach, “which aims to de-racialize subjective, social and institutional realities, and structurally transform the power relations underpinning the intercultural” (Franchi, 2003: 184). Through addressing the psychological and social effects of a history of segregation, it is suggested, “deeply held beliefs about the self, the other, and intergroup relations” (2003: 184) can be unpacked and probed. Through critical reflection and deconstruction of “‘racially constructed’ understandings of the self, the other and the world...” (2003: 185), young people can begin to co-construct their realities and their identities in ways that honour difference and draw inspiration and meaning from the other. “Finding ways to dialogue across difference – recognising difference while also transcending it – is now widely seen as crucial to the survival of democracy” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999: 96).

### **Concluding Comments**

In this literature review an attempt has been made to establish a theoretical context highlighting the various elements of the research problem. A fairly broad range of scholarship has been drawn upon to enrich and augment the discussion. The point that is taken from this literature is that that global influences on the policy-makers play themselves out firstly through the omission of diversity management from the WSE Policy and secondly through the absence of articulation of the subject. Foregrounding these omissions, as has been suggested, is the policy’s extrication from the South African context. The School Effectiveness and School Improvement movements were introduced as a back-drop to the Whole-school Evaluation Policy, and a context out of which the policy was developed. This discussion has attempted to highlight the extrication of both these movements from the social, economic, historical and political context, a divorce that reflects a similar separation between the WSE Policy and the local South African context. The second section examined globalisation, exploring the global influence on the policy-makers, and highlighting, through the literature, the aspirations of the WSE policy-makers towards the creation of a globally-aligned policy. The importance of this discussion in the context of this study is the extent to which global influences, articulated through an effectiveness discourse, have demarcated the policy terrain, and in the process established processes of inclusion and exclusion. This study emerges as a result of the difficulty in locating South African scholarship

exclusion. This study emerges as a result of the difficulty in locating South African scholarship that critically examines the relationship between the WSE Policy and the South African context. A clear gap exists here. It is this gap that the dissertation seeks to address.

University of Cape Town

## CHAPTER THREE:

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

Following the theoretical perspective and literature review which established the conceptual foundation of this study, CDA is introduced as the methodological tool through which the research problem is addressed and the WSE Policy critiqued. The representation that is constructed and developed through the text analysis that follows in Chapter Five will inevitably be influenced by my own theoretical assumptions, as the method in which any study is approached can never be neutral: “The way that things are represented... is always open to multiple interpretations...Hence, representations do not simply *reflect* (in some neutral way) a particular thing (object, person, group); they *construct* or support a particular idea of that object” (Gillborn, 1995: 18). In the same way, the object of the study itself, namely the WSE Policy, is an articulation of enscripted notions and assumptions – the point which constitutes the essence of the research problem. The intention in this paper is therefore to present “a careful and critical analysis” (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 507) of the dominant discourses in the WSE Policy, which are represented as ‘regimes of truth’ (Ball, 2006: 50). Recognition and analysis of these discourses may help to ‘map the field’ (2002: 507), helping to understand the dominant influences on the policy and ultimately to open the discursive space for other possibilities. Through CDA, therefore, “social analysis (the external relations of the text) is combined with semiotic/linguistic analysis (the internal relations of the text). Mediating between these two levels of analysis the interdiscursive analysis focuses on identifying which genres and discourses are drawn on in the text, and (on) how they work together...” (Taylor, 2004: 437).

It is intended that CDA will focus our attention on the policy in terms of “what lies between, that which is neither one thing nor the other” (Ball, 2003: 2) and equally, although less explicitly, to that which has been omitted altogether. In this research, CDA is used as a mechanism through which to explore the relationship between “discursive practices, events, and texts; and wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes” (Taylor, 2004: 435) so that an understanding is reached of ways in which “texts construct representations of the world, social

relationships, and social identities (with) ....an emphasis on highlighting how such practices and texts are ideologically shaped by relations of power” (2004: 435).

Through deconstruction of selected sections of the text, attention will be placed on the text both in terms of the policy’s etymology as well as its semiotics. The intention of this research is to explore the policy’s meaning by demonstrating, first, how the policy is constituted at the global level and second, to examine the implications of this policy-borrowing approach, both in terms of how the subject is articulated and in terms of the absence of diversity management as a focal area for the development of schools. The policy will be approached from the perspective of both its inclusionary and exclusionary capacity. Soudien, drawing on Derrida, refers to the sign in terms of its ‘ideality’ as well as its ‘tension and contradiction’ (Soudien, 1999: 5), as within the sign there is both ‘*presence* and *absence*’ and it is only in the ‘presence of the absence’ (1999: 5) that self-reflection is possible. The policy’s inclusions refer to that which is declared and presented through its language, the analysis of which will attempt to bring to light the embedded ideologies conveying the intentionality and purpose of the policy-makers. An understanding of that which is present within the policy will amplify dominant global trends, exposing the policy’s influences and orientation. It is only through a description and analysis of the presence therefore that a basis can be established for understanding the absence.

### **3.2 Approach**

The approach employed in this study focuses on the descriptive, through interpretation and explanation (Fernsten, 2005: 5) in order to understand the policy’s meaning. Through critically investigating the policy influences, an attempt has been made to challenge assumptions and to explore how the text “construct(s) representations of the world, social relationships and social identities” (Taylor, 2004: 435). A description of the text through interpretation and explanation has made it possible to search for “connections and causes which are hidden” (Fairclough, 1992: 9) in order to reveal absences and ambiguities. However this approach calls for critical intervention and for this reason the implications for policy and discourse are outlined in Chapter Six.

According to Taylor the different approaches of CDA may be separated into two basic categories - those that pay close attention to the linguistic features of the text – referred to by Fairclough as “textually oriented discourse analysis” (2004: 435), and those which pay less attention to the linguistic aspects of the text, focusing more on the historical and social context of the text (2004: 435). The approach employed in this study has been influenced by Fairclough whose work combines both these approaches, focusing on an interdisciplinary perspective. This “opens a dialogue between disciplines concerned with linguistic and semiotic analysis ...and disciplines concerned with theorizing and researching social processes and social change” (Fairclough (2001) in Taylor, 2004: 438). In this study, therefore, rather than focus on the stylistic and grammatical micro-analysis of the text, emphasis is placed on a broader description through the extrapolation of key words, themes and concepts. CDA has been used as a methodological mechanism to unmask the dominant discourses so as to understand the amplitudes of the policy and thereby “to help uncover how discourses are implicated in producing and replicating the ideological interests” (Fernsten, 2005: 375) and influences on the policy-makers. Competing discourses are explored thematically to reveal ambiguities and contradictions within the text, illuminating the policy’s influences which are framed within its dominant discourses. While the text analysis is presented through a thematic deconstruction of particular terms, it is first located within its social context, as presented in Chapter Four. A discussion of the global knowledge economy as a context for the WSE Policy enables one to “explore the relationships between discursive practices, events, and texts; and wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes” (Taylor, 2004: 435). The approach employed in this study has therefore focused both on a semantic and semiotic analysis of the text in order to elicit a close examination of the various influences at work in the policy’s dominant discourses.

This type of interpretive approach to CDA is suitable, it is argued, to the research problem presented earlier and it is believed that the outcome of the analysis validates and substantiates the theoretical perspective, which in turn frames the research problem. The research problem is amenable to this thematic mode of enquiry as it is the “subtleties and nuances... rather than stark and distinct patterns and relationships” (Ball, 2003: 2) that are of interest here. It is these ‘subtleties and nuances’ that would contribute towards an interpretation of meanings – an exploration rather than a deterministic examination. In Ball’s introductory chapter to his book,

'Class Strategies and the Education Market', he expresses his attempts to "gather together and elaborate a particular package of concepts, or 'moral vocabulary'" (Parkin, 1979: 115) which seeks "as far as possible, to escape from the seductive simplicities and the comforts of certainty (Stronach and MacLure 1997) offered by the binary" (Ball, 2003: 2).

The interpretative, thematic approach to CDA provides a method through which the discourse of the policy can be closely and critically examined, by unpacking the social, economic and political influences underlying the meaning encoded in the text. It is the subtleties, ambiguities and contradictions within the meaning that will be described through the analysis of the text.

### 3.3 Strengths and Limitations of CDA

Chouliaraki and Fairclough suggest that one feature of late modernity transformation has to do with "transformations in language and discourse" (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999: 4), which foregrounds CDA as a "fundamental element in the critical theorisation and analysis of late modernity" (1999: 4). The point that needs to be emphasised is that an important component of the economic, social and cultural transformation is the existence of these "*discourses* as well as processes that are taking place outside discourse, and that the processes that are taking place outside discourse are substantively shaped by these discourses" (1999: 4). An example in the context of this research dissertation may be seen in the different notions embodied in the discourse of 'effectiveness'. Drawing on Harvey, Chouliaraki and Fairclough indicate that because the "discourse shapes and reshapes the organisational reality", it is 'socially constitutive' (1994: 4) in shaping reality. The strength of CDA in this sense is that a critical analysis of 'effectiveness' discourse, for example, is "a quite fundamental part of ...a critical analysis of late modern economic change" (1994: 4).

The value of CDA is that it provides a critical lens through which "the discursive political discourses that have framed educational change and development..." (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 17) may be described and analysed. Furthermore it enables one to interrogate the "relationship of language to other social processes ... of how language works within power relations" (Taylor, 2004: 436). The possibilities and "potential inherent in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) for

investigating the internal processes...” (Thomas, 2004: 228) of the text and thereby for understanding the dominant influences underlying the text may be seen as its strength. Fairclough suggests that “(p)ractices which appear to be universal and commonsensical can often be shown to originate in the dominant class or the dominant bloc, and to have become *naturalized*” (Fairclough, 1989: 33). CDA offers a method of enquiry into discourse patterns that have become normalised and uncontested, and enables the interrogation of types of dynamics which function to “sustain unequal power relations” (1989: 33). Through a critical examination of these internal processes an attempt is made to elicit a greater understanding of the parameters of the policy by declaring the hidden meanings of that which is present and ultimately by unveiling and disclosing its absences. In addition to CDA helping to understand the inclusionary and exclusionary capacity of the text - it provides a method for exploring ways in which these processes are adumbrated through competing and contradictory discourses within the text. The expository value of CDA makes it amenable to “documenting multiple and competing discourses” (Taylor, 2004: 433) and to providing an understanding of ambiguities and contradictions inherent in that which is present. More starkly, it is through the ‘presence of the absence’ (Soudien, 1999: 5), through unpeeling the visible layers of the text, that CDA offers possibilities for understanding.

While CDA facilitates greater understanding and possibilities, it may also create constraints. In framing the issues, it may limit possibilities, reinforcing the researcher’s own values, narrowing the research lens, ‘precluding other perspectives...’ (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 499). For this reason, an attempt has been made at the outset to establish a broad theoretical base, offering a conceptual orientation that has traversed some of the conventional research terrain beyond the parameters of CDA and to draw on this research so as to fortify the method employed. Although CDA may be appropriated as both theory and method (Chourliaraki & Fairclough, 1999: 16), it has for the purpose of this research been linked with additional theoretical approaches, as presented in Chapter Two. The intention of the interweaving of additional literature is to “bring a variety of theories into dialogue” (1999: 16), including research emanating from both the social and psychosocial paradigms and further, to broaden the research lens so that CDA may operate from within a wider research terrain, amplifying possibilities and encouraging reflexivity on the part of the researcher.

The reliability of the representativeness of the text is another potential limitation of this mode of enquiry. For this reason, a clear justification of the portions of the texts selected will be presented in Chapter Five. A further constraint of CDA is the total dependability of the qualitative analysis on the original source material. The more textured, differentiated and complex the text, the more rich, multi-faceted and multi-layered the analysis may be. The text under analysis in this research, unlike for example, a literary or conversational transcript, lacked the richness of nuance and the depth of meaning. By the very nature of the text being a policy document, the content under analysis, although elegantly written and thematically consistent, was semantically and stylistically mechanical and legalistic, rendering the document 'thin', unitary and perfunctory. This compromised its amenability for discursive layering and textured analysis. While this particular point is presented to indicate a possible limitation of CDA in determining a direct link between the nature of the source material and the complexity of the findings, this point may serve implicitly to convey its strength. The predominantly positivist, deterministic discourse of the WSE Policy, as revealed through CDA, appropriately reflects and conveys its intention, namely, the delineation and prescription of the economic value of human capital through South African education.

#### **3.4 Data Collection and Analysis: Validity and Reliability**

Potter and Wetherell repeat the point that there is no specific "method to discourse analysis in the way we traditionally think of an experimental method or content analysis method" (Potter & Wetherell, 1987: 175). Rather than acquire a specific method in this study, the process of data collection and analysis was divided into two general stages: *collection* and *analysis*. The collection of the data required thorough reading and re-reading in search of consistent terms and phrases which together comprised a set of themes. Once the themes were identified and developed, intersecting patterns and recursions began to emerge. Because the focus of the research problem is the influence on the policy-makers in order to understand the dominant discourses, and thereafter to explore the policy's omissions, the text had to be scrutinised on three levels: first, that which was presented and described, second, that which was mentioned but not explicated, and third, that which was absent. The process of analysis consisted of grouping the themes together and linking them to particular hypotheses. Here the terms that were extrapolated became 'linguistic evidence' (1987: 168) and the process of analysis required interpretation,

description and explanation. According to Fairclough the processes involved in text analysis are interdependent, “(w)hat one ‘sees’ in a text, what one regards as worth describing, and what one chooses to emphasize in a description, are all dependent on how one interprets a text” (Fairclough, 1989: 27).

At all times in the processes of data collection and analysis, an attempt was made to remain cognisant of two important issues: First, my own subjective interpretation of the text and the extent to which this may have affected its validity and reliability, and second, the coherence of the findings. I was conscious of the influence of my values and conceptual framework on the interpretation of the text and to this end questioned my own biases repeatedly during both the collection and analysis of the data. The theory that influenced my understanding inevitably was embedded in my interpretation of words, concepts and phrases which ultimately were shaped and defined by my theoretical perspective. For this reason a broader academic scholarship was drawn upon and appropriated as a resource to validate and support the interpretation. An attempt to establish validity and reliability was sought furthermore, by demonstrating that the interpretation presented from the analysis of the selected sections of the text was reflective of the text in general (Brown & Dowling, 1998: 143), while the linking of this interpretation with the theoretical framework and the research problem (1998: 144) helped to create ‘authenticity’ (Maxwell, 1992: 280) and validity. An attempt was therefore made to establish both validity and reliability by ensuring that the findings interacted coherently with the theoretical perspective, which in turn supported and framed the research problem.

### **3.5 Ethics**

Although no human subject was involved in the collection of data, the formal ethical protocols of the university have been adhered to. This includes upholding the standard regulations pertaining to plagiarism. All quotations have been clearly cited and referenced throughout the text and references used are listed at the end.

## CHAPTER FOUR:

### CONTEXTUALISING THE WSE POLICY

#### 4.1 The Whole-School Evaluation Policy

The concepts of quality and effectiveness, central to the WSE Policy, emerged in the 1970s, implicitly legitimating a new role for schooling and education by shifting accountability to local education authorities (LEA's) (Morley & Rasool, 1000: 27). Key calls such as the need to improve educational standards began to emerge during this time, reflecting the development of new ideological positions and new education discourses. These culminated in the United Kingdom in the 1988 Education Reform Act (1999: 3), "fundamentally altering the categories of description, forms of organization and modes of thinking about the educational process" (1999: 30). Emphasis was placed on increasing excellence by enhancing the quality and standards of education, a process which would be supported by assessment criteria. Under the management and support of the LEAs in England, schools were required to produce School Development Plans (1999: 31) in which they were expected to identify development priorities based on the needs of the school. The Education Reform Act of 1988 in the UK had a powerful influence on educational policy throughout the world. In South Africa this influence became evident in the WSE Policy which was introduced in 2001 (de Clercq, 2007: 100). Its effect was to look for and measure standards of quality and excellence according to performance and evaluation strategies.

In terms of the national WSE Policy all schools are obliged to develop a School Improvement Plan (SIP), against which they are evaluated every three to five years. To accomplish this, schools are expected to undergo a process of school improvement based on development priorities identified by the school. The term 'Whole-school Development' describes this process, which is coordinated by the School Development Team (SDT), comprising educators, parents, members of the School Management Team and School Governing Body. According to the WSE Policy, every school must conduct its own self-evaluation, which is followed by external evaluation, facilitated by 'registered supervisors' (Whole-School Evaluation Instruments: 2007:

1). The focus of school evaluation is therefore placed both on internal monitoring as well as external evaluation and is defined as “the process through which a school determines at a given point, to what extent it is succeeding in attaining its stated aims and objectives, taking into account the priorities set and the full range of available resources” (2007: 3). Whole-school Evaluation is carried out at selected schools and is to be reviewed annually by the school with a view “to producing a performance report on the critical analysis of school operations that provides proposals for improvement on an on-going basis...” (2007: 1).

As a set of guidelines for schools’ development, the National Department of Education has identified nine ‘standardized performance’ (de Clercq, 2007: 101) areas (Appendix A. pg. 94 ) of which the schools are expected to select five, depending on their developmental needs, as identified by the SDT. It is according to these five focal areas that the school accounts for its performance by conducting a self-evaluation process. The importance of the nine focus areas for evaluation is highlighted in the ‘Whole-School Evaluation Guidelines and Criteria’ document supplied to schools by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) which states that ‘the areas for evaluation constitute the major aspects of a school’s work. These guidelines reflect the areas identified in Tirasano, Education Minister, Kader Asmal’s ‘Call to Action’ campaign (Sayed, Y. et al. 2007: 33). They are presented as being the key to the future development of education in South Africa’ (Guidelines and Criteria document, 2006: 1). The guidelines are regarded as enabling schools to “measure their performance against national criteria and so judge how well they are doing” (Evaluation Guidelines and Criteria for the WSE Policy document: 2001: 2). The focus of the selected nine areas for evaluation is indicative of a shift in emphasis from individual performance to performance of the school as a whole: “Recognising the importance of schools as the place in which the quality of education is ultimately determined, focus is primarily on the school as a whole rather than simply on individuals and their performance” (Government Gazette: 2001: 6).

Evaluation of performance in schools is conducted through a system that seeks to measure quality through a set of indicators. These ‘indicators of good practice’ (SMT Introductory Guide, 2000: 3) which constitute the quality assurance framework, are ‘statements of the results, goals and *behaviours* which a school must demonstrate for excellent delivery’ (2000: 3). The quality

assurance strategy ensures that “the education provided by schools meets the expectations of the stakeholders and is relevant to the needs of South Africans” (2000: 3). The policy places particular importance on the “need to use objective criteria and performance indicators consistently in the evaluation of schools” (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 6). The emphasis on evaluation and performance is therefore subject to national and international comparisons as learners’ outcomes become the quantitative measurement of their success. However, it is not only student performance that is evaluated through this type of data collection, but the quality of education as a whole – the intention being to improve its overall efficiency. International organisations such as the World Bank have put pressure on governments to employ systems of measuring success to enhance education efficiency (Carnoy, 2000: 57). Consequently through the state, pressure has been placed on schools to aspire to higher standards of quality, and it is the WSE Policy that is employed as a mechanism to measure standards that have been implemented. Despite increased pressure on schools, the WSE model intends to be “less punitive and more supportive”, (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 1) as stated in the Minister’s Foreword to the policy, and similarly, in the introduction to the policy, to be “supportive and developmental rather than punitive and judgmental” (2001:7). The WSE strategy offers a mechanism through which education performance can be translated into measurable outcomes which result in increased pressure to improve results and bolster efficiency. In this way educational delivery becomes a marketable product, which may be measured on a national level against its international counterparts (2000: 44): “Performance in real time is enhanced as an outcome; quantitative measurement appears easier, and its results become increasingly the means of communication about performance” (2000: 56).

## **4.2 Global Knowledge Economy and Discourse**

Because CDA constitutes an understanding of policy as “ideological texts which have been constructed in a particular context” (Taylor et al, 1997: 4), the process of analysis must begin with an understanding of that context, as it is the context that foregrounds the policy and defines its meaning. Taylor suggests that “both the background and context of policies, including their historical antecedents ...” (1997: 44) are needed to create an understanding of the forces involved in the shaping of the policy, as well as the policy consequences (1997:52). In Chapter Two, a

brief overview of the School Effectiveness and School Improvement traditions was offered as a historical background from which the WSE Policy was developed. The purpose was to present these paradigms, on which the WSE Policy is predicated, as being essentially decontextualised. The argument presented was that the divorce of school effectiveness and school improvement from the social, political and economic context foreshadowed education reform in South Africa which, consequently, it is suggested, is more amenable to global influences and concerns and more inclined to position itself in the global policy terrain rather than the local context.

The 1990s marked the beginning of an era in which the global knowledge economy transfused and defined policy discourse (Robertson, 2005: 152). Robertson identifies four features which demarcate the shift away from traditional economic models which regarded knowledge formation as an exogenous factor in economic growth towards more recent 'human capital' models (2005: 152):

- (i) the balance between knowledge and resources (labour and capital) has shifted toward knowledge; (ii) securing long-term economic growth will be much more dependent on knowledge (cf. UK Department for Trade and Industry, 1998; New Zealand knowledge Wave Forum, 2003); (iii) education will play a critical role in economic growth (cf. Dfes, 2004a); however (iv) in order to play this critical role, education systems will need to respond in new ways to the demands of the knowledge economy (2005: 152).

Human capital theory amplifies the economic value of education, emphasising the relationship between "education, worker productivity and the economy and is underscored by the principle that economic development can be maximized through a process of constructive educational planning" (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 18). Global economic restructuring has determined the development of education policies that are "more responsive to the changing labour market needs of nations" (Taylor et al, 1997: 4). The importance of establishing this context is that, in addition to social policies being shaped by particular contexts, the relationship of context with policy is mediated through language which has become an important economic tool. Monkman and Baird reveal the concern of neo-liberal economic agendas with fiscal efficiency and draw a direct relationship between neo-liberal ideology and globalization (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 502). They suggest that "neoliberalism is globalization's ideology" (2002: 502) and that this discourse serves to "shut out consideration of other perspectives such as those informed by critical,

feminist, and postmodern analyses....” (2002: 502). It is through language that the values embedded in this ‘ideology’ are represented and conveyed. Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999: vii) view language as becoming “an increasingly salient element of contemporary social practice ...With the shift to ‘knowledge-based’ economies, many of the ‘goods’ that are produced have a linguistic or partly linguistic character....” In this way language has become ‘technologised’ (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999: vii; 1996: 71). Fairclough describes this ‘technologization of discourse’ (Fairclough, 1992: 8) as the systematic application of specific discourses within an organisation or institution by ‘professional technologists’ (1992: 8), which demonstrates the extent to which language is utilised and employed as a mechanism through which to legitimate change. Fairclough distinguishes contemporary ‘orders of discourse’ (1996: 71) from ‘earlier orders of discourse’ (1996: 71) because of the relationship between discourse and recent social changes that are taking place. However, as Fairclough suggests, the words “relationship ‘between’” (Fairclough, 1989: 23) discourse and social changes imply that these are “two independent entities that just happen to come into contact occasionally” (1989: 23) rather than existing integrally, interactively and contingently: “(I)t is not a matter of a symmetrical relationship ‘between’ language and society as equal facets of a single whole. The whole is society, and language is one strand of the social” (1989: 23).

### **4.3 Understanding policy**

In an attempt to make explicit the meaning of policy, Ball differentiates between “policy as text and policy as discourse” (Ball, 2006: 44). This definition conceptually sets apart policies as complex processes rather than policies as ‘things’ (2006: 44). While the notion of ‘policy as text’ may signify “representations which are encoded in complex ways” (2006: 44), open to the interpretation and meaning of the reader, ‘policy as discourse’ represents a system that constructs “certain possibilities for thought” (2006: 48). In this sense, “words are ordered and combined in particular ways” while “other combinations are displaced or excluded” (2006: 48). Drawing on Foucault, he makes the point that discourse is far more than words – it is legitimated as ‘regimes of truth’ (2006: 49). Similarly policy is ‘more than the text’ (Taylor et al, 1997: 15). “Thus, in these terms the effect of policy is primarily discursive, it changes the possibilities we have for thinking ‘otherwise’ thus it limits our responses to change...” (Ball, 2006: 49). CDA is

appropriated as a methodological tool which offers a mechanism for challenging hegemonic assumptions and reified truths, thereby deepening our understanding and broadening our capacity to act – to make social and political choices so as to participate actively in our own history. It is this that constitutes ‘the real political task’ (2006: 52), which, in referring to Foucault, Ball describes as being “to criticize the working of institutions which appear to be both neutral and independent....” (2006: 52).

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### FINDINGS

#### 5.1 Selection of the Text for Analysis

The specific information needed for the purpose of policy analysis will be determined to a large extent by the research questions (Taylor et al, 1997: 41), which in this research are: 1. *What are the dominant discourses in the background to the WSE Policy and how do these discourses determine processes of inclusion and exclusion?* 2. *What appear to be the influences, both locally and globally on policy-makers in these discourses?* 3. *How are these influences linked to significant omissions within the policy and what are the implications of these omissions?*

Because policy research aims to “unravel the complexities of the policy process” (1997: 41) a close analysis of the text itself is central to this type of qualitative research. For the purpose of this paper, the portions of the text selected for analysis, which are highlighted in bold, include the **‘Background and Context’** as well as the **‘Aims’** and **‘Principles’**. Through deconstruction of these sections of the text its dominant discourses will be amplified in an attempt to address the research problem. The focus of the text analysis is two-fold: first it concentrates on the policy’s inclusions, namely the influences of globalisation conveyed through school effectiveness discourse, and thereafter it explores the policy’s absences, that is, the absence of articulation of the subject in the policy and the omission of diversity management from the nine focal areas of school development.

The reason for the inclusion of the Background and Context as well as the Aims and Principles of the policy was because of the initial delineation in these sections, of the policy’s central themes, concepts and notions. These elements are introduced in the selected portions of the text and are thereafter interwoven recursively through the rest of the policy. The purpose of limiting the analysis to these areas is that it is in these early sections that the policy’s objectives are highlighted. The remainder of the text demonstrates a discursive shift from a conceptual

description of the policy to a more pragmatic focus on the specificities of evaluation such as inputs, processes, outputs, performance ratings and responsibilities. For the purpose of this study, the process of intertextuality, discussed below, has offered a worthwhile opportunity to refer to other texts over and above the WSE Policy. Introductory manuals for schools have been drawn upon at times, to substantiate a particular point and have provided a useful supplement to the policy. Such resources are issued to schools by the National Department of Education as well as the Western Cape Education Department and serve to supplement the policy and support schools as they engage in the process of Whole-school Evaluation and the implementation of their SIP's.

## **5.2 Inclusions in the Policy**

The sections which follow embody particular themes that arise in the literature and through a process of recovery of key portions of the policy text itself show what is emphasised and de-emphasised in the policy. Each of the sections below is built around extracts from the policy.

### **5.2.1 Borrowed Concepts**

An examination of key concepts of the WSE Policy serves to create an epistemological understanding of the impact and influence of international globalisation trends on the policy. An explanation of the notion of policy-borrowing is followed by a critique of the influence of globalisation on the WSE Policy. In so doing, an attempt is made to explore the dominant discourses which are representative of international trends and concepts, and to examine the consequences for inclusion and exclusion of the ways in which the discourses are framed. This analysis will hopefully elicit an understanding of how language is used in the policy arena to “help us see the processes more clearly, understand the dynamics, and possibly to make change that addresses not only access but also equity and quality” (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 503). Before presenting a description of the dominant discourses in the policy, it would be valuable to explore the notion of policy- borrowing in greater depth.

Policy-borrowing or “‘modeling’, ‘transfer’, ‘diffusion’, ‘appropriation’ and ‘copying’ ... occurs across the boundaries of nation states and leads to the generic universalising tendencies in

educational reform” (Taylor et al, 1997: 60). The influence of global agendas on education reform is framed through international discourses transmitted throughout the world in the form of policy-borrowing and education trend setting. Although “informal modes of transmission” (Whitty & Power, 2003: 309) are probably more common in international policy-borrowing, to some extent there has been a more active, formalised dissemination of neo-liberal policies across the globe, by international organisations such as the IMF and World Bank (2003: 309). In addition to the World Bank’s preconditions for educational reform which can be understood as an “ideological stance, in promoting an integrated world system along market lines” (Ball, 2006: 72), policy-borrowing is transmitted through the ‘circulation of ideas’ (Popkewitz, 1996 in Ball, 2006: 71), often initiated in the United Kingdom and New Zealand which have served as ‘political laboratories’ (2006: 71). Whitty and Power raise important questions regarding the appeal that these policies have across different continents and ask whether this appeal may be in response to a “disillusionment with existing modes of education provision” or whether it may “reflect a more general crisis within the state” (Whitty & Power, 2003: 309). Whilst these questions are relevant to the discussion of the effect of globalisation on education, what is of particular interest in the context of this study is the appeal of global policies to a developing country such as South Africa and the appropriateness of these policies in “addressing complex processes of social differentiation” (Sayed et al, 2007: 16). The interrogation of the notion of international policies as legitimating systems of values reflecting political and economic trends is critical, and the extent to which they promote social equality and equitable transformation within the local context must be carefully investigated. As will be shown in the sections that follow, borrowed policies such as the WSE Policy serve to transfuse particular views of reality, reflecting international ideologies which serve to validate selective understandings of social needs, imposing specific ‘forms of development’ (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 95) within a particular context. The focus of analysis in the study is the applicability of international policies, namely the WSE Policy to South Africa and the extent to which this policy takes into consideration the social, historical and political specificities that pertain to that context.

Policy-borrowing accords with the notion of social change being constituted in discourse and this is powerfully conveyed through the concept of intertextuality (Fairclough, 1992: 101). Fairclough echoes Foucault’s comment that “there can be no statement that in one way or another does not reactualize others” (1992: 101 from 1972: 98). In this sense texts cannot be seen as existing in

isolation, but absorb aspects of other texts on which they are predicated. The text therefore “... (r)esponds to, reaccentuates, and reworks past texts, and in so doing helps to make history and contributes to wider processes of change, as well as anticipating and trying to shape subsequent texts” (1992: 102). Fairclough defines ‘embedded intertextuality’ (1992: 118) as the existence of a ‘discourse type’ in one text, that is also “clearly contained within the matrix of another” (1992: 118). An example of this is the containment of themes and elements in the WSE Policy that may be located within the South African Schools Act (SASA), a text that is referred to later in this chapter. This act serves as the “framing document for school education in South Africa” (Soudien, 1999: 5) and functions to provide a “general and comprehensive framework for the management of the restructuring of South African education...” (1999: 5). It is in this act that the foundations for a new education system are laid and that the terms to define those who participate in this system are introduced and circumscribed.

#### 5.2.1.1 The Notion of Evaluation

Prior to 1994 there was no systematic, organised mechanism of evaluation. In contrast to the nineteen different systems of school supervision conducted by panels of inspectors (Steyn, 2003: 337), the WSE Policy was designed to ensure that a system of evaluation was conducted according to a national, agreed model. It functions as an “initiative to provide world-class education to South African learners by putting standards of excellence into action” (2003: 337). At the same time it provides a regulatory mechanism to measure improvement and quality in both teacher performance and school development (Jansen, 2004: 56). In addition to being externally regulated, evaluation is internally conducted and it is this self-regulation that presents an example of a “capillary notion of power” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 61), in which, rather than being monolithic, “power operates everywhere in everyday transactions” (1999: 61).

The ‘borrowing’ of concepts from the global world by the WSE policy-makers is clearly demonstrated in the **Background** to this policy. In its opening paragraph the policy is introduced as a mechanism for ‘**systematic evaluation**’ (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 7) and it is through this mechanism that quality is assessed and measured:

**For many years, there has been no national system of evaluating the performance of schools, and there is no comprehensive data on the quality of teaching and learning, or on the educational standards achieved in the system. As a result, the National Policy for Whole-School Evaluation is being introduced. This complements other quality assurance initiatives conducted under the aegis of systemic evaluation, namely; accreditation of providers, programme and service reviews and monitoring learning achievements... (2001: 7).**

In addition to creating the legal basis for school evaluation, the policy provides details concerning who should be evaluated, what is to be evaluated and how evaluation should be conducted. While WSE is not viewed as an end in itself, it constitutes **“the first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement”** (2001: 8). Through this process therefore, the policy aims to improve efficiency and to enhance quality as schools are measured according to pre-set standardised criteria reflective of an effective school. However there are two fundamental problems with the assumption that quality can be assessed and measured through systematised evaluation. First, school efficiency is not necessarily consistent with school improvement (Carnoy, 2000: 57). This point, which suggests possible contradictions between school evaluation and school improvement, will be explored later. The second problem has to do with the notion of quality and it is this issue that will be examined in more depth now. The measurement of quality is contingent firstly on one’s specific subjective understanding of what quality may be. This does not only raise the question of how one defines quality, but furthermore, of “who has the power to determine that” (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 503). The defining of quality presents relativity problems and therefore needs to be contextualised in order to appreciate how it will be interpreted and what the implications of that interpretation may be. Being value-laden, the notion of quality is culturally determined and will therefore be subject to different interpretations and meanings. An added problem regarding the notion of quality in school effectiveness is that it is reductionist: in the same way that ‘success’ and ‘effectiveness’ are “reduced largely to those schools which perform well in examinations” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 130), determining quality in terms of performance, “ignore(s) the social, moral and aesthetic dimensions of teaching and learning” (1999: 130), and in the process overlooks those aspects of knowledge that are not quantifiable (1999: 130). The discussion of the term ‘quality’ in School Effectiveness discourse will be returned to in more detail later.

In its very opening sections, therefore, one is able to see how the process of decontextualisation is set in motion for the text as a whole.

### 5.2.1.2 School Improvement versus School Evaluation

The value of CDA in revealing multiple and competing discourses is evident in the notional contradictions in the WSE Policy. Some of the ambiguities emerging from these competing discourses which will be explored include School Evaluation versus School Improvement; Equity versus Equality and Equity versus Effectiveness. It is argued firstly, that these contradictions are reflective of paradigmatic differences within the policy's epistemology and result in a lack of clarity and coherence in terms of the policy's intentions and meaning. Secondly, although alternative discourses such as those of school improvement and equality are used in the policy, the underlying rhetoric is that of school effectiveness. In the context of the research problem it is suggested that the primary concern of the policy-makers is conveyed through a school effectiveness discourse, reflective of an international human-capital based ideology which shifts the policy's focus away from local historical, political and social factors, towards global trends and influences. Reflecting this, point 1.1.5 of the introduction states that:

**Whole-school evaluation is not an end in itself, but the first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement. The National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation is designed to achieve the goal of school improvement through a partnership between supervisors, schools and support services at one level, and national and provincial governments at another.** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 8)

The notion of Whole-school Development is rooted in the School Improvement paradigm. Whole-school Development is regarded, on the one hand as being central to Whole-School Evaluation, which is described in the policy as being a 'holistic process which aims at developing the whole school' (WCED module for School Self-evaluation: 2003: 11). However, on the other hand, the goal of Whole-school Development within the policy remains outcome-based and product-driven, "The ultimate goal of Whole-school Development is to improve the quality of teaching and learning" (2003: 11). These stated aims and goals blur the discursive focus of the

policy which shifts from being process oriented - reflective of the School Improvement approach - to being achievement oriented, representative of the School Effectiveness paradigm.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the School Improvement and School Effectiveness movements represent two traditions which may be seen as epistemologically and methodologically polarised. As mentioned, the School Improvement movement arose in response to research on School Effectiveness and has traditionally reflected an approach to education that is holistic, developmental and interventional. This paradigm has reflected “a determined faith in the integrity of the school, a belief in its improvability, and a disdain for demonstrating achievement gains” (Muller & Roberts, 2000: 4). The qualitative approach of School Improvement adopted a more integrated view of the school, focusing on organisation, management and leadership. Rather than innovations targeting one aspect of the school system, they became ‘whole school’ oriented, appreciating the “school as a site of change” (Muller & Roberts, 2000: 6). Internal process-oriented approaches were believed to impact on school quality with the result that attention was paid to areas such as communication; decision-making; leadership training; staff development. Despite more recent changes by leading school improvers in their position regarding achievement as a result of demands for public accountability (Reynolds et al, 1993: 41), at the heart of school improvement thinking is the need for strategies to address and reflect the culture of the school (1994: 85). Although the WSE Policy includes school improvement discourse at times, its dominant focus on outcomes (rather than process) through evaluation, renders it paradigmatically amenable to statistical analyses that are quantifiable and measurable. This precludes process-oriented features such as “attitudes, values, relationships and climate” (Reynolds et al, 1993: 51) which may reflect broader social, historical and political aspects, in favour of performance-based, outcomes-oriented variables such as “clear goals and high expectations” (1993: 44).

**The Policy places emphasis on the need to use *objective criteria and performance indicators* (my emphasis) consistently in the evaluation of schools. Recognising the importance of schools as the place in which the quality of education is ultimately determined, focus is primarily on *the school as a whole* (my emphasis) rather than simply on individuals and their performance (Minister’s Foreword: WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 6) .**

The paradigmatic differences between school improvement and school effectiveness are exhibited in the policy's focus which on the one hand is placed on school improvement principles such as that of the 'whole school', and on the other, on the identification of criteria which determine effective schools and standards of excellence measured by high performance.

### 5.2.1.3 Equity versus Equality

The South African Schools Act (1996), together with its ancillary policies and regulations are "predicated on the intention of moving the education system from its roots deep within the inequities of the past to a future which is – rhetorically, at least – framed by the high-minded principles of equity and equality" (Soudien et al, 2001: 78). The concepts of equity and equality are introduced in the Legislative Context of the WSE Policy:

**The transformation of education in South Africa emphasises the right of all to quality education (Education White Paper, 1995). The first intent is to redress the discriminatory, unbalanced and inequitable distribution of the education services of the apartheid regime, and secondly to develop a world-class education system suitable to meet the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 8).**

The equity/equality discourse creates ambiguities within the policy when viewed within the South African context as the notions inherent in these concepts are conflated, thus creating a reliance on certain presuppositions. Equity and redress function as 'programmatic responses' (Sayed, 2001: 254), reflecting an affirmative action philosophy, aiming to "provide resources to those who have been most disadvantaged" (2001: 254) This raises a fundamental problem which has to do with the notional assumption that the provision of equal opportunities can overcome social inequality (Sayed et al, 2007: 16). This generic, undifferentiated approach is problematic in that first, it presupposes that all inequalities may be grouped together so that "gender problems are dealt with in the same way as racial problems" (2007: 16). Second, it presupposes that peoples' social positions arise from "social, economic and political equality" (2007: 16). Such a presupposition overlooks the importance of recognising the specificities of different needs on the one hand, and "retaining a focus on 'universalism' or an integrated view of social equality" (2007: 16) on the other. The need to problematise difference explicitly at policy level is justified

by the equity/equality debate and the ambiguities that emerge from these competing discourses. A deeper understanding of difference at policy level would create greater clarity regarding equity and equality, which furthermore would clarify the assumption that equity brings equality, a notion which fundamentally discounts the deep divisions of race, class, gender, language and religion. The non-differentiated, homogenising equality/equality discourse serves to “overlook embedded inequalities” (Sayed et al, 2007: 15), prioritising the inclusion and integration of the previously excluded generic ‘other’ without paying sufficient attention to the specific needs and interests of “differentially positioned social groups” (2007: 16). The conflation of equity and equality overlooks the consideration of “other fundamental issues that should fall under the rubric of educational equity” (Soudien, et al, 2001: 78). Similarly, Samoff (1996) argues that equity and equality should be differentiated and that “whereas the former refers to justice, the latter refers to the ‘principle of sameness’” (Sayed, 2001: 253). Accordingly, “Equity includes the distribution of educational services so that all may be able to be equal. Equity in this approach can be perceived as a strategy to achieve equality. Equality, on the other hand, implies that in a democratic system no-one should be treated differently” (2001: 253).

The use of the terms equity and equality in the WSE Policy are problematic as in addition to these terms creating possible assumptions and ambiguities they ignore specificities pertaining to a particular context. The notion of equality furthermore raises problems that may be seen as normative, highlighting the difficulty of its measurement, namely whether “inequality is normative” and to what extent it can be “measured against the norms and standards of the dominant group” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 11). This highlights a relativity problem – “equal with what, or whom?” (1999: 11). In this sense equality adumbrates an idealistic, over-optimistic notion based on a “naïve moral philosophy, promising liberation and freedom from oppressive power relations” (1999: 11). This sentiment is echoed by Robertson who comments on the idealism of neo-liberal discourse in education policies: “The re-imagining and rescripting of education in these policies is deeply problematic in that they are dependent upon a highly romantic view of the new economy and society...” (Robertson, 2005: 154).

#### 5.2.1.4 Equity verses Effectiveness

As discussed earlier with regard to the competing discourses of equity and equality, the appropriation of the concepts of equity and effectiveness create ambiguities particularly when viewed within the South African context. A “trade-off between equity and effectiveness” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 113) is evident in the policy in that while equity is associated with broader issues pertaining to social structures of race, class, gender and distributive social justice (1999: 115), effectiveness reflects market-place values of performance and accountability.

Referring to the text, emphasis is placed on the one hand on **“the right of all to quality education”** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette 2001: 8) and on **“improving the overall quality of education in South African schools, (seeking) to ensure that all our children are given an equal opportunity to make the best use of their capabilities”** (2001: 07). On the other hand the policy **“places particular emphasis on the need to use objective criteria and performance indicators consistently in the evaluation of schools”** (2001: 6); on **“evaluating the performance of schools”** (2001: 7); on identifying indicators for the recognition of **“very good schools”** (2001: 7); on facilitating **“improvement of school performance”** (2001: 7) and on the monitoring of **“education provision, delivery and performance”** (2001: 8) These goals are summarised in one of the policy’s **‘main objectives’** which is **“to assess the effectiveness of the entire system and the extent to which the vision and goals of the education system are being achieved”** (2001: 8)

The dominant school effectiveness discourse in the policy, it is argued, overshadows the more intricate, complex specificities regarding equity issues within the South African context and in this way appears to have resulted in the overlooking of the deeper, broader implications of equity. The contradictions intrinsic in the equity versus effectiveness discourse are suggestive of the reliance of school effectiveness on interpretations that privilege Western meanings, functioning to demonstrate the epistemological orientation of the policy-makers. This discourse reflects notions and interpretations that are culturally defined, thus narrowing the space for critical review and reflection, and thereby precluding the possibilities of alternative, more contextualised realities: “The ubiquitous use of terms such as ‘effectiveness’, ‘quality’ and ‘achievement’ does

not automatically denote shared meanings and common understandings” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 134). However, it is argued that the perennial use of this rhetoric conveys an international trend reflecting market-place values and an approach to education policy based on the borrowing and importing of global trends.

#### 5.2.1.5 The Notion of ‘Quality’, ‘Performance’ and ‘Effectiveness’

Key terms repeated in the policy include ‘quality’, ‘performance’ and ‘effectiveness’. The notions of quality and performance are introduced in the first paragraph of the Background and Context and are thereafter repeated throughout the policy, underscoring the theme of effectiveness:

**For many years, there has been no national system of evaluating the performance of schools, and there is no comprehensive data on the quality of teaching and learning, or on the educational standards achieved in the system. As a result, the National Policy for Whole-School Evaluation is being introduced. This complements other quality assurance initiatives conducted under the aegis of systemic evaluation, namely; accreditation of providers, programme and service reviews and monitoring learning achievements...**

(WSE Policy, Government Gazette 2001: 7).

While the policy focuses on “**improving the overall quality of education in South African schools**” (2001: 7), it is regarded as the “**first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement**” (2001: 8). It “**confirms that external whole-school evaluation is an integral part of the new quality assurance approach**” (2001: 8) and asserts itself as the “**cornerstone of the quality assurance system in schools**” (2001: 10). The relationship between quality and performance is suggested in the policy’s second principle which states that

**(a)ll members of a school community have responsibility for the quality of their own performance. Whole-school evaluation intends to enable the contribution made by staff, learners and other stakeholders to improve their own and the school’s performance, to be properly recognised** (2001: 11).

The fourth principle states that “**good quality whole-school evaluation must be standardised and consistent**”, while the sixth principle discusses staff development and training as being

**“critical to school improvement”** (2001: 11). Here it states that **“(a) measure used by whole-school evaluation in judging a school’s performance is the amount and quality of in-service training undertaken by staff and its impact on learning and standards of achievement”** (2001: 11).

Although, quality has become the “buzzword in educational circles as schools are subject to ever-increasing scrutiny” (Botha, 2002: 365), it is important to ask to what extent quality can be accurately defined, quantified or measured. As suggested earlier, implicit in the principle of quality is an element of subjective interpretation which precludes the validity and viability of accurate measurement via the current mechanisms as employed through the WSE Policy. Although performance and effectiveness may be important signifiers of quality, it is suggested that the notion of quality is far more expansive and complex than implied by these terms. Quality implies an ethos and an approach to education which reflect values based on fair and just practice as well as an ‘ethical responsibility’ (Shalem et al, 2004: 74) on the part of the educators. All aspects pertaining to quality cannot be definitively measured or improved without educators themselves being “entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring the quality of the service they offer. This requires an intensive socialization into the values and standards of a professional community” (Minzberg, 1993 from Shalem et al, 2004: 74). Without a clearer, more multi-dimensional understanding of the term ‘quality’, shared understanding and consensus regarding expectations may be problematic as the notion of quality is both relative and subjective. Even within the more confined parameters of quality indicators, Botha highlights the difficulty that researchers in cross-national work have had in reaching agreement (Botha, 2002: 265). Despite the potential complexity of meanings inherent in the terms ‘quality’ school effectiveness discourse has defined itself according to a set of taxonomies reflective of particular interests and ideologies that do not sufficiently consider the complex realities of the South African situation. The emphasis in the policy on terms such as **‘quality’; ‘performance’** and **‘effectiveness’** without consideration of how these terms may be contextually adapted suggests that policy-makers have overlooked local specificities, orientating themselves instead in a human-capital based global ideology.

An example of a contextual reality within South African schools is illustrated by the term 'perceived quality', (Murgatroyd in Botha, 2002: 265). This suggests one important way in which the policy's focus on quality may have detrimental effects, especially in the light of continued discrepancies regarding educational performance amongst different schools. In South Africa it is the matriculation examination results that are essentially the primary performance indicators of schools. This, apart from representing levels of performance of the learner and therefore implicitly of the educator and the school, also "determines who goes to university, who has to repeat schooling in some form, who gets shunted into perceived lower forms of technical education, and who remains unemployed" (Jansen, 2004: 62). In this sense performance is exhibited as a 'sign system' (Ball, 2006: 71), through which it is "represent(ed)...in a self-referential and reified form for consumption" (2006: 71). Quality of performance is declared and shared by publicising the examination results which for many schools will determine factors such as the number of teachers that can be employed. Schools with persistently poor results will attract fewer and weaker learners – "thereby sustaining the vicious cycle of substandard results" (Jansen, 2004: 62). The strong drive by the National Education Department to improve the quality of education by enhancing matriculation results therefore places extreme pressure on learners, on schools and on provinces, who are responsible for schools and who face enormous pressure both "from below (parent communities) and from above (the national government)" (2004: 63). Performance in particular subjects is compared with student performance in other countries. Accelerated availability of and access to information technology facilitates easier quantitative measurement, presenting students' results as the "means of communication about performance" (Carnoy, 2000: 56). Carnoy indicates that "an important element of such performance is linked to 'efficiency'" (2000: 56). Performance therefore enables the tracking of "the quantity and quality of education through data collection ...largely with the intention of using such results to improve educational efficiency" (2000: 56). As mentioned, the pressure placed on many schools to aspire to higher standards of performance, and the pervasive ranking of schools according to the quality of their performance may have detrimental consequences. Such consequences "can include short-term thinking, restricted goals for the school and its pupils, and increased tension and conflict amongst teachers, as they become increasingly afraid of 'failure'" (West & Hopkins, 1996: 7). Ironically it is unclear as to whether the "'customer' in this particular 'market-place' will be served best as maximising overall performance may well mean restricting individual choice or

even ... the exclusion of those pupils who lower the overall average” (1996: 7). The linear, functionalist focus on improving quality equates school effectiveness with the goal of raising educational standards in order to equip young people to “take their places in the society and the economy” (Angus, 1993: 342). Furthermore the regulation and improvement of quality through standardised, pre-set indicators functions to homogenise school effectiveness: “Instead of recognizing diversity and pluralism, there is an assumption that there is one best way of doing things and that this will work for all organizations, communities and individuals” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 63). There is a need, it is argued, particularly in the South African context, for broader, more differentiated definitions of terms such as quality, performance and effectiveness – definitions that take into account the “social, emotional and political contexts of teaching and learning” (1999: 131).

The identification of aspects of excellence and/or effectiveness is an important strategy in Whole-school Evaluation. Two of the aims of the policy state the need to **“identify aspects of excellence within the system which will serve as models of good practice”** and to **“identify the aspects of effective schools and improve the general understanding of what factors create effective schools”** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 10). However this approach raises the problem that correlates themselves do not provide an adequate explanation of the direction of the relationship between cause and effect (Gilmour, 1997: 15; West & Hopkins, 1996: 4; Reynolds et al, 1993:52; Morley & Rasool, 1999: 130). Some correlates may occur because “they are outcomes of effective schools, not determinants of them” (1996: 4). Similarly causality is not automatically established by a “statistically significant correlation between two variables, such as class size and test results” (1999: 130). The existence of such lists of factors that characterise effective schools may lead to an over-simplification in the approach of policy-makers who may be encouraged to believe that factors can be generically superimposed onto less effective schools and thereby to adopt “quick fix universal solutions to schooling problems” (Gilmour, 1997: 15). Furthermore the limitation of generating standardised lists of variables associated with outcomes, shifts attention away from the need for effective change strategies that may relate to a ‘small and discrete’ number of factors so that the “direction and strength of the influences that link school processes together” (Reynolds et al, 1993: 51) can be identified and isolated.

The notion of the **'very good school'** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette 2001: 7) requires further discussion. **"The Policy indicates ways in which very good schools should be recognized and under-performing schools supported"** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette 2001: 7). The narrow definition of the effective or 'very good school', in addition to presenting a problem of correlation, also suggests a problem of measurement. The suggested link between 'very good schools' and performance implies that 'very good schools' are defined according to their achievement levels only, an assumption which implicitly precludes aspects which may contribute to school functionality such as psychosocial support of learners; learner safety and feeding schemes. Because of this evidently narrow definition, the problem emerges as to whether the "measures used adequately capture the construct (effective school) one is trying to measure" (Gilmour, 1997: 15). A more complex, contextualised approach would require a model that carries greater specificity; that reflects all those qualities associated with effective schooling while simultaneously being amenable to verification and measurement. This would call for a less tenuous and more robust match between measure and construct; however, such a model may need to be contingent upon an even greater shift towards a positivist, rationalist school effective approach which would reinforce "a logic of causality" (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 130) and a resulting lack of consideration of contextual factors.

In addition to the narrow definition of the effective school, the WSE Policy encourages the identification and characterisation of effective schools at a single point in time rather than as part of a process of change and evolution. Although one of the two aforementioned aims refers to the need to **"improve the general understanding of what factors create effective schools"** (Government Gazette, 2001: 10), the focus of the policy is on the evaluation of the **"effectiveness of a school in terms of the national goals, using national criteria"** (2001: 10). It would be of value to establish more of an understanding of *how* over a period of time, schools develop in the way in which they do, or *how* the schools become effective, so as to extrapolate information and learn from the process (1993: 51; Harris & Bennet, 2001: 66). The static image of the effective school representing identifiable variables that are fixed and therefore reproducible (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 132) is indicative of an approach to education that overlooks the complexities of exogenous variables and dynamics pertaining to social, economic, historical and political factors.

An overriding, fundamental problem pertaining to each of the terms discussed above, namely ‘quality’, ‘performance’ and ‘effectiveness’, and one which permeates school effectiveness discourse in general, is the extent to which these terms are presented as normative, neutral concepts. They are reified as truth rather than interpretations, and therefore undermine the possibility of reflexivity, contestation and alternative meanings. This becomes particularly problematic when policies such as WSE are introduced in developing countries as these policies function “to offer idealized, ‘scientific’ solutions to what in practical terms, are complex societal problems. Thus these articulations are instrumental in structuring international ‘norms’ circumscribed by criteria formulated by those who have the power to define” (1999: 95). Rather than locating the *reasons* for under-performance in schools as being grounded in complex historical factors, for example, it is argued that the WSE Policy remains focused on performativity and on the creation of human capital.

Ultimately, the appropriation in the WSE Policy of the concepts embedded in school effectiveness discourse implies an acceptance of evaluation as the measurement of quality and effectiveness. This suggests compliance with the “emergence of a new culture of knowledge production, a culture that flattens depth, eradicates the value of tradition, and inculcates serious mistrust in academic practice” (Shalem et al, 2004: 74).

#### **5.2.1.6 The Notion of Partnerships**

The WSE Policy advises that the approach through which the aforementioned principles of evaluation, quality, performance and effectiveness should be facilitated is through partnerships. The term ‘partnership’ has become part of current educational discourse (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 505), and was first articulated in the Taylor Committee’s (1977) report entitled “A New Partnership for Our Schools” which advocated the increase in powers of school governing bodies (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 27). The shifting of school accountability to local authorities during this time marked a new trend in education, culminating in the 1988 Educational Reform Act (1999: 33), the influence of which, as has been discussed, is evident in the WSE Policy.

Point 1.1.3 of the introduction to the WSE Policy states that the policy's **“main purpose is to facilitate improvement of school performance through approaches characterised by partnership, collaboration, mentoring and guidance”** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 7). Similarly point 1.1.5 states that **“(T)he National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation is designed to achieve the goal of school improvement through a partnership between supervisors, schools and support services at one level, and national and provincial governments at another”** (2001: 8). One of the aims of the policy is to **“strengthen the support given to schools by district professional support services”** (2001: 10) and one of the principles states that **“(a)ll members of a school community have responsibility for the quality of their own performance. Whole-school evaluation intends to enable the contribution made by staff, learners and other stakeholders to improve their own and the school's performance...”** (2001: 11). Section Four of the policy, not included in the portions for analysis in this paper, entitled 'Improvement Strategies', offers details regarding the professional support service, the underlying sentiment being the support of partnerships in the implementation of school development.

In his review on the World Bank's 1999 Education Sector Strategy document, Soudien illustrates the document's suggestion of the importance of partnerships “involving the state, NGO's, families and agencies” (Soudien, 2002: 440) as being an effective way forward for developing countries as “the job of dealing with the educational needs of the young is too large for any single institution...” (2002: 447). The concept of partnerships, as defined by the World Bank, therefore has direct implications for education and is suggestive of a relationship that is based on sharing and reciprocity. The approach of partnerships, reminiscent of sector-wide approaches in international education (SWAP) is, according to Monkman and Baird, intended to localise the control of education (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 505), in keeping with the current decentralisation reforms. Educational decentralisation may be seen as a “major manifestation, if not of globalization itself, certainly of an ideology closely identified with and pushing the development of the global economy in a particular direction” (Carnoy, 2000: 44).

Within the context of the provision of support, mentoring and guidance by partnerships towards the development of the school, Jansen raises the question of the implications of a school not

reaching expected levels of performance as prescribed in the SIP's and suggests that for many educators the policy faces a 'credibility crisis' (Jansen, 2004: 60). Although the WSE Policy aims to be supportive rather than punitive, many educators have equated the policy with the system of school inspection under the apartheid government in which schools were "forced into compliance with the State's philosophy and curriculum" (2004: 60). The interpretation by educators of this aspect of the policy, based on historically and politically internalised experiences may therefore be seen to overshadow the policy's intention. The Education Policy and Legislative Context places emphases on the **"shift in terminology from 'inspection' to 'whole-school evaluation'"** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette: 8), however in reality some teachers may continue to equate the two processes. The complexity of the partnership/collaboration dynamic is further illustrated by the inclusion of all role-players as participatory 'partners', which precludes the possibility of blame or responsibility: "The partnership fervor has ...stifled critique, debate, and alternatives as there is no major player on the outside (i.e., no one who has not agreed to the policies and strategies) to challenge them" (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 506). Moreover, the impact of the global partnership trend as demonstrated by the World Bank directive that evaluation be conducted through partnerships becomes far more complex when considered within a particular political and historical context. The challenge of imposing national policies which mirror current international global patterns is all the more acute in developing countries in which deep-rooted social, political and economic divisions translate into heightened sensitivity towards power structures. Although the WSE Policy may be intended to provide support, mentorship, openness, collaboration and guidance, in reality educators may not perceive or experience this – a perception resulting from the legacy of a system of inspection that was undermining, controlling and reinforcing of a political hegemonic ideology.

### **5.3 Absences in the Policy:**

#### **5.3. (i) The articulation of the Subject: The Notion of the 'Learner'**

In this research CDA has been used to develop a greater understanding of how discourse is implicated in social power relations. In the context of the research problem it offers insight into how the learner is positioned within the text, and how this positioning reflects social practices

and relations of power. An important consideration at the outset, in the discussion of the subject in the WSE Policy, concerns the policy's intention which is to focus on the development and evaluation of the school rather than on individual achievement. **“Recognising the importance of schools as the place in which the quality of education is ultimately determined, focus is primarily on the school as a whole rather than simply on individuals and their performance”** (Minister's Foreword, WSE Policy, Government Gazette: 2001: 6). Since it is the school that is primarily the unit of analysis rather than the individual learner, it could be argued that it is not necessary or appropriate that an explication of the learning subject be presented in the WSE Policy, and that what should assume central focus, instead are the technicalities of the evaluation process. The counter argument presented in response to this view is that if the policy is **“aimed at improving the overall quality of education in South African schools”** (2001: 7) and if it **“seeks to ensure that all our children are given an equal opportunity to make the best use of their capabilities”** (2001: 7), then it is the learning subject that needs to be positioned at the centre of the policy. The WSE Policy states that it prioritises the development of the whole school, and as such identifies the nine focus areas to guide the schools in its process of development. However, despite the school-development discourse in the policy, **“...focus is primarily on the school as a whole....”** (my emphasis, 2001: 6), only one of these focal areas, 'Learner Achievement' (See Nine Focus Areas, Appendix A, pg. 93) addresses the needs of the learner. Moreover, the notion of 'learner achievement' is narrowly defined, in accordance with the school effectiveness model, which privileges outcomes-based principles such as **'performance'; 'quality'; 'effectiveness'; 'excellence' and 'quality'**. The learner is first mentioned in the policy on page eleven, in the section entitled, 'Principles' where it is stated that:

**(t)he core mission of schools is to improve the educational achievements of all learners. Whole-school evaluation, therefore, is designed to enable those in schools, supervisors and support services to identify to what extent the school is adding value to learners' prior knowledge, understanding and skills** (2001: 11).

If evaluation is, as the policy indicates, the outcome and purpose of this model, then learner achievement and indeed school effectiveness, is based on a positivist, determinist and mono-causal approach. Further, if Whole-school Evaluation is **“designed to enable those in schools ....to identify to what extent the school is adding value to learners' prior knowledge....”** (2001: 11), then, it is argued, there needs to be an explicit understanding within the policy of the

differentiation in learners' 'prior knowledge'. Learners' 'prior knowledge' is shaped by each person's particular historical, political and socio-economic circumstances. It is not monolithic and cannot be standardised. Therefore if the school is to seriously consider ways in which it may be able to **“(add) value to learners’ prior knowledge, understanding and skills”** (2001: 11), it needs to be able to address first, the contextual realities pertaining to learners' experiences of their past and second, how these experiences have shaped their identity as well as their **“knowledge, understanding and skills”** (2001: 11).

**‘Learner achievement’** is identified as the sixth of the nine areas for evaluation, and the learner is referred to three times in the sections selected for analysis: twice in point (a) of the principles, as quoted above and once in point (b) thereafter. The argument presented in this study is that the identification of factors to which schools must aspire in order to become effective, remains the policy's priority, the implication being that if this outcome is accomplished all other aspects of the school will automatically function more optimally. However, the de-centering of the learner, it is argued serves implicitly to displace and objectify the learner. The limited consideration of the subject may therefore be seen as a critical oversight in the policy as, if the policy's **“first intent is to redress the discriminatory, unbalanced and inequitable distribution of the education services of the apartheid regime”** (2001: 8), it is argued that the policy must address how discrimination and inequity have influenced the learner's identity – how these contextual realities have come to shape the learner, influencing both individual performance and the performance of the school as a whole. The argument that has been presented in this paper is that the overlooking of the subject in the WSE Policy mirrors the broader over-shadowing of the situational specificities pertaining to the local South African context in lieu of international global policy trends.

The objectification of the subject disengages the child/young adult from his/her cultural identity, bypassing any consideration of difference and individual history that each child brings to the education process. The use of the term 'learner' universalises the South African child, invoking the assumptions that all children share the same South African history. In emphasising the uniformity of the subject, the policy ignores historical, social and political factors which have resulted in the existence of many different identities. As discussed in Chapter Two, the school

operates as a powerful site of identity formation and socialisation, yet it is only in one of the four Life Orientation Learning Areas that issues regarding identity are included. Ironically, despite the school's potential for influencing identity formation and socialisation, it is only the mainstream, dominant identities and subjectivities that are encouraged. "Subjectivity ...is framed in the traditional Western epistemological tradition as the autonomous and rational subject" (Soudien, 1999: 10), precluding possibilities for 'otherness'. Sexuality for example, remains a 'silent discourse' (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 126) thereby legitimising conventional identity formation. The silences and absences in the WSE Policy with regard to the learner have served to construct assumed interpretations relating to identity and difference so that conformity is ensured through the reinforcing of traditional power relations (1999: 127).

The need, it is argued, for an explicit representation of the subject is paramount in the WSE Policy, as it would need to be in the SASA – one of the foremost educational policies in the country. It would be valuable at this point to refer to the SASA, in order understand how in that policy the learning subject is considered. In the SASA the learner is defined as "any person receiving education or obliged to receive education..." (SASA, 1996: 2). The Oxford English Dictionary defines 'learner' as "a person who is learning a subject or skill, a person under instruction". Implicit in this is a strong element of passivity, inactivity and non-participation in the learning process. This suggests that young people in South Africa are being attributing an identity which may be regarded as 'subordinate' (1999: 8), and which undermines and disregards the potential they may have to actively participate and engage in their education – to *experience* rather than *receive* an education. In Chapter Two of the SASA, entitled 'The Learner', focus is placed on 'compulsory attendance' (SASA, 1996: 3). There is no articulation here, or anywhere else in the Act of the subject as it is constituted within the social, political and economic context of South Africa. Instead, according to Soudien, the learner is given a 'defining singularity' (1999: 6) and is cast into a "vision of a modern citizen who is able to manage him or herself in a global 21<sup>st</sup> century" (1999: 9). In the conclusion to his paper, "Heralding the New South African: The Relationship between Educational Policy and Identity" (1999), Soudien suggests:

...texts such as the SASA are profoundly important in holding up to us that which its authors wish us to be and also that which they wish us *not* to be. In using the approach of deconstruction, it is important to see that it makes possible not only the recognition of contradiction, but fundamentally also the recognition of the deployment of power. Identity-framing strategies are an important expression of power. (Soudien, 1999: 11)

The constitution of the learner within the WSE Policy is suffused with ambiguities. Market-place values reflective of, and emanating from the global context, permeate the education system without being made visible and are directly implicated in the production of the learning subject who is positioned in a tightly institutionalised structure of competition, performance and evaluation. Drawing on the work of Bowles and Gintis (1976), Power reveals a current applicability of their ‘correspondence thesis’ (2003: 100), written twenty years ago, in which they examined a “structural correspondence between the social relations of the educational system and those of production” (2003: 100). This raises the issues of “whether schools are still engaged in the production of ‘old’ rather than ‘new’ subjectivities, and more specifically, whether marketised education systems (are) simply a new way of producing ‘old’ subjects?” (2003: 100). Similarly, in referring to the constitution of the learning subject in the SASA, Soudien suggests that “what is displaced ...in these constructions are non-Western and non-traditional forms of learning” (Soudien, 1999: 11).

The absence of articulation of the subject within school effectiveness discourse functions, it is argued, to displace and de-value those ‘learners’ whose subjectivities do not comply with the Western, rationalist paradigm, with the result that the majority of young South African school-goers find themselves once again disavowed and peripherally positioned.

### **5.3. (ii) The Articulation of Difference and Diversity**

Despite South Africa’s fractured past, and despite the WSE Policy existing as one of South Africa’s transformational education policies, discourses pertaining to difference and diversity are absent in the policy. As mentioned earlier, it remains questionable as to whether the WSE Policy, as it exists, is amenable to the integration of school improvement strategies such as diversity management. The point that needs to be reiterated is that it is the WSE Policy that identifies the nine focus areas for the purpose of school development, yet not one of these areas either

identifies diversity management, or includes it as a criterion for school development. This suggests that the WSE Policy, rather than being contextually oriented, is representative of a global approach to education reform and that policy-makers have been influenced by international trends in policy development. The outcomes-based, human-capital focus of the policy has overlooked the complexities arising out of the local South African context, with the result that an opportunity for young people to engage with difference and diversity has been forfeited. It has been argued earlier in this dissertation that this is a critical omission given the defining role race has played in the constituting of South African identities. With regard to current scholarship, it has also been suggested that there is a gap in the literature pertaining to the WSE Policy in relation to the South African context. Jansen expresses a similar concern with regard to the limited focus, in general, of educational literature on race in South Africa:

Educational literature on “race” has focused on an extremely small number (in relative terms) of learners who will attend multiracial schools. Most learners will spend their entire educational careers in schools that are, demographically, entirely black. Yet, the policy issues and questions that swirl around these learners – questions about language, standards, centralisation, teachers, and governance are laden with traces of race. Additionally, all of the above are also situated within a new, global reality where the old reality – racial inequality – is still very much alive (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 5).

The importance of this concern is that it reflects a context in which issues regarding difference affect the daily realities of South African learners: “even learners in all-black schools are surrounded by ‘difference’ everyday. And schools, as vital components of the public sphere, are often the location for battles over the borders of diversity in a society” (2004: 5). These observations draw our attention to a notion of difference that transcends race – one that concerns “the multiplicity of the human experience” (2004: 5).

Before concluding it would be worthwhile again to reflect on the problem of the decontextualised approach of school effectiveness discourse within the WSE Policy. It has been argued that this problem is paramount in understanding the policy’s orientation and its consequent inattention to contextual issues. School effectiveness, as discussed previously, constitutes the dominant discourse of the WSE Policy, and “as a relay of power, it currently frames the language of school practice and management” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 129).

The problem of contextualisation pertains not only to the appropriation and transfer of international policies, but also to the generic 'one size fits all' approach in implementing these policies as they are transported from one school to another. The problem of applicability of the school effectiveness strategy to the South African context has been raised. But it is the core message of the School Effectiveness movement - that all children regardless of background factors can succeed - that fundamentally shifts attention away from context and "from the nature of knowledge, the culture of schooling and, most importantly, the question of for whom and in whose interests schools are to be effective" (Angus, 1993: 342). The inherently positivist framework in which School Effectiveness theory is embedded, is characterised by its "isolationist, apolitical approach to education in which it is assumed that educational problems can be fixed by technical means and inequality can be managed within the walls of schools and classrooms provided that teachers and pupils 'follow' correct effective school procedures" (1993: 343). Such a perspective discounts social and cultural differences, ignoring "social relations of inequality, cultural hegemony, sexism, racism, and any of the other social and educational disadvantages and conflicts that surround and pervade schooling" (1993: 343).

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSION

#### 6.1 Re-thinking Globalisation and Education

Hall reminds us that “(p)olicies are articulated both to achieve material affects and to manufacture support for those effects” (Ball, 2006: 72) and presents a formula on which that hypothesis is based:

Social markets/institutional devolution = raising standards (of educational performance) = increased international competitiveness (2006: 72).

I have attempted in this paper to describe the dominant discourses in the WSE Policy and to show the extent to which these discourses reflect economic-centred globalisation trends. These discourses, while revealing some ambiguities and contradictions, exhibit influences of international globalisation trends in the epistemology of the policy. As Shalem, Allais and Steinberg state,

... at the same time as these policies ....were being developed, the South African state was also developing a macro-economic framework which called for a greater role for the market in various ways ... (This) stems partly from the desire to protect learners and build quality education and partly from the need to create a regulatory framework for an education system which could then be opened up to the market (Allais, 2003a).

This sentiment is echoed in point 1.2.1 of the WSE Policy which stipulates that **“Emphasis is made on the ‘right of all to quality education’”** (Education White Paper, 1995, from the WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 9)... and **“to develop a world-class education system suitable to meet the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century”** (WSE Policy, Government Gazette, 2001: 8).

It would be valuable at this point to revisit the theoretical framework of the policy-makers so as to bring into clearer focus those features of the policy that have assumed a dominant position. In

so doing, the omission of discourses that would be resonant and applicable to the post-apartheid South African context becomes accentuated, and their absence all the more conspicuous. The WSE Policy, as conveyed in Chapter Five of this dissertation, hinges on the enhancement of the quality of education via an evaluation mechanism through which performance can be measured. The approach of Whole-school Evaluation is almost exclusively based on a spectrum of values mirrored in the key concepts highlighted earlier: quality, improvement, performance and partnerships - concepts defined by the notion of school effectiveness, framed initially by the Education Reform Act of 1988 (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 33) – and concepts which represent globalisation in terms of a singular economic process. In this sense education systems may be regarded as having been made “objects of micro-economic reform with educational activities being turned into saleable or corporatised market products as part of a national efficiency drive” (Taylor et al, 1997 from Ball, 2006: 72).

Locating the WSE Policy within the globalisation debate suggests that the policy-makers have adopted a mono-causal perspective, rooted in the hyperglobalist theory of causation. The adoption by the policy-makers of this linear, one-dimensional perspective has resulted in the creation of a policy which privileges high standards of efficiency and competition over a more multi-faceted, contextualised approach. Defining globalisation in terms of a singular process disregards the possibility of a differentiated perspective, one that may take into account a broad range of social, cultural and political factors that are inextricably interdependent and that help to explain the effects of complex dynamics in the shaping of a society. The absence in the policy of discourses pertaining to difference and diversity suggests that the primary focus and concern of the policy-makers has been that of preparing young South Africans for entry into the economic global market. The influence of this singular causal logic has functioned to extricate the policy from the local, and re-constitute it at the level of the global domain.

The implications of the borrowing of international educational models which are generically transferred to different societies are that local knowledge and expertise is devalued and diverse approaches homogenised (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 104). Furthermore the influence and attraction of borrowed ideologies disregards an appreciation of the more complex yet subtle effects of historical, political and social factors in influencing and shaping society and the consequent integration of these effects within the education system (Nekwhehva, 2000: 20).

Consequently international policies such as WSE result in the displacing of “local ways of knowing and doing....thus circumscribing possibilities of thought” (Morley & Rasool, 1999: 95). In so doing such policies prevent ways of “imagining alternative futures within these societies” (1999: 95).

The consequence of the leap of policies from the local into the global is that an opportunity to provide a new education model for a society in transition has been compromised, a model in which the learning subject could be explicitly articulated and centrally positioned. An education model constructed on the twin principles of local and global may serve in equal measure to contextually orientate young people, establishing a sense of history and citizenship while at the same time preparing them for active participation in the global world. “... Instead of thinking of the global *replacing* the local, it would be more accurate to think of a new articulation between ‘the global’ and ‘the local’” (Hall, 1992: 304). A reconceptualised articulation between global and local would create space for dynamic possibilities through which the potential of the individual and that of the community could be developed and nurtured. An intrinsic acknowledgement and respect for the self, the other and the community would engender values of responsibility, accountability and tolerance. This would involve a deeper understanding and consciousness of individual responsibilities towards the other and the community on the one hand, while enabling the development of high levels of competency on the other. In this way the binaries of global and local could be interwoven, creating an education policy reflecting the transformationalist’s logic of causation as well as Touraine’s ‘intervention society’ thesis. Such a model would represent a global world that is more interconnected and integrated, in which individuals across diverse communities and cultures would be more connected and conscious. “‘Globalization, or ‘glocalisation’ (Bauman, 1998) is simultaneously about the global and the local. Not being at the exclusive mercy of either is a definition of survival in these risky times” (Muller, 2000: 27). Such a perspective furthermore, would help to shift the South African identity away from fixed, individualist notions of the self, pre-determined by race, class and gender, towards a more differentiated, expansive notion of identity. This would facilitate a more natural integration with the other - towards “the intersections between gender, class, ethnicity, racism, religion and other axes of differentiations empirically and historically as contingent relationships” (Brah 1993: 441 in Gillborn, 1995: 79). In this way we would develop the “capacity to see the

‘other’” (Soudien, 2006: 115) within ourselves. This implies educating young people to look beyond themselves – to see the other while developing the capacity to act – to “reconcile instrumental action with the defence of an identity” (Touraine, 2000: 131). This implies furthermore, engaging in active reconstruction of their social life through conscious choice and responsible action.

## **6.2 Re-thinking Education Policy**

According to Gillborn, a national policy reflecting a “more sophisticated ‘critical antiracism’ is both possible and necessary” (Gillborn, 1995: 67). I have suggested that notions of difference and diversity need to be included at policy level. I have also suggested that the homogenising discourse of school effectiveness underlies the WSE Policy and that this discourse reduces the applicability of the policy to the South African context. Questions have been raised in this paper about the absence of diversity discourse in the WSE Policy and a link has been made between the silences in the policy on the one hand, and an overriding concern with globalisation trends in education on the other. An attempt has been made to illustrate that the primary influence of globalisation on the WSE Policy has found expression in school effectiveness rhetoric, serving to contract the discursive space, precluding possibilities for additional, alternative discourses which may be more applicable to the South African context, and may render the policy more amenable to effective implementation.

In addition to describing the predominantly homogenising discourse of school effectiveness in the policy, some of the policy’s discursive contradictions have been highlighted. While the WSE Policy includes references to school improvement and integrates aspects of other discourses such as equity and partnerships, it is fundamentally rooted in the positivist, rationalist paradigm of school effectiveness. As demonstrated in Chapter Two, these two movements, namely School Effectiveness and School Improvement, from their origins have been epistemologically divergent. This does not suggest that a reconceptualisation of these paradigms is not possible in order for them to interact more equitably. Despite their inherent differences a synthesis of approaches would do much to bolster and augment the knowledge base and operational practice integral to both. West and Hopkins propose a ‘reconceptualisation’ rather than a ‘merging’ so that both traditions are called upon to “transcend the vocabularies and to question the ‘truths’” (West

& Hopkins, 1996: 11) inherent in both. Ultimately the goal of reconceptualisation would be to “develop more ‘contextually specific’ school improvement strategies in which we tailor the precise nature of the programme offered to the ‘presenting culture’ and context of individual schools” (1996: 13). This would have direct implications for policy as the greater the congruence between reform and social reality (London, 1993: 274), the more likelihood there would be for successful implementation. As Whitty and Power remind us “(p)articular policies must be grounded in the history and culture of particular national and local contexts” (Whitty & Power, 2003: 322).

Drawing on McCarthy (1999), Sayed et al discuss the concept of an ‘interlocking framework’ (Sayed et al, 2007: 20) where “race, gender, class, region, and language, all intersect in ways that recognise an individual or group’s unique and particular experiences” (2007: 20). Such a framework takes into account the complexity and multi-dimensionality of injustices and inequalities amongst different groups and the need for the articulation of both individual and group experiences. This approach foregrounds the context in which injustice occurs, acknowledging the “multiple sources of inequality and marginalisation that operate in a specific social sphere” (2007: 20), paying attention to ways in which struggles amongst different groups may be uniquely articulated, thereby “re-shaping and sometimes transforming the dynamic to produce a different set of contradictions” (2007: 20). In this way experiences of exclusion and subordination are constantly being re-moulded and re-articulated in new forms ensuring the perpetuation of patterns of subordination and domination. ‘Nonsynchronicity’ (2007: 20) offers a critical response to this social dynamic, enabling the intersection of different forms of discrimination to be explored, while interrogating the complex, contradictory ways in which the experience of discrimination, injustice and inequality may be individually articulated.

The argument that has been presented in this dissertation is that the management of difference and diversity must be conceptualised at policy level so that young South Africans can begin to appreciate how, based on a history of racism and discrimination, they have come to define themselves, the other and the group - and further, what the implications of this self; other - and group definition may be. Such an understanding would open the space for new identities so that young people would be able to reposition themselves as South African citizens within a democratic society. If schools are to take up the challenge of addressing diversity, it is at policy

level that such inclusions must initially be articulated before being translated into practice at school level, especially given that schools are amenable to policy directives and, according to research scholarship, that schools in general demonstrate compliance towards policy (Sayed et al, 2007: 45). Addressing difference and diversity is crucial in localising the focus of education policies which, it is suggested, if well managed would enhance the prospect of effective implementation in South African schools. Furthermore addressing difference and diversity is critical in broader globalisation terms as it is only through effective diversity management, at all levels and in all societies, that the capacity for human interaction could be authentically nurtured and enabled. This would ultimately reflect a type of globalisation that would seek to strengthen and integrate communities – through engaging with difference and rejecting homogenisation. A critical anti-racist education policy that prioritises both the global and local would reflect a holistic, integrated education system which would prepare the learner for active participation in a competitive global world on the one hand, and on the other, would “(produce) amongst young people a sense of place and belonging” (Soudien, 2006: 103). At the core of this challenge is the vision “to bring to life a vibrant democracy, with an involved, vocal and empowered citizenry: such a vision is the essence of a ‘healthy’ environment for all of us including learners and teachers” (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 6) but as Nkomo and Dolby indicate, “it is not enough to suggest that this vision will come about through the elimination of the old” (2004: 6). What is needed simultaneously are opportunities to enable our learners to unravel the deeper issues embodied in race and racism: to probe the subtleties and innuendos of difference; and to interrogate diversity by engaging with it rather than transcending it, so that “new forms of human connection” (2004: 5) can be established “that will create the solidarities that hundreds of years of racism have prevented and destroyed” (2004: 6). According to Soudien, “(t)he deepening of the educational experience” (Soudien, 2005: 513) may be obtained through a commitment to uncover and recover – to find out more about that which is unknown, that which emanates from deeper forms of otherness and difference, both within and between individuals.

A central concern raised in this dissertation is the positioning of the learner within the WSE Policy and the extent to which the learning subject has been subsumed within school effectiveness discourse. A reconceptualised education model must hold at its centre the student experience. While MacBeath and Mortimore suggest that “it is now time for everyone with a

stake in education to shift focus to individual learners and the range of learning opportunities that might be created and sustained to help (them) realise their potential” (MacBeath & Mortimore, 2001: 207), West and Hopkins propose that “it is time to acknowledge student experience as a major and vital outcome of schooling” (West & Hopkins, 1996: 11). Not only does this imply the need to embrace a broader definition of student achievement by creating a wider range of opportunities but furthermore, the need for an examination of the expectations placed on diverse students to adjust and adapt to certain cultural norms and behaviour. In creating new structures of learning which embody principles of democratic citizenship (Whitty & Power, 2003: 321), new cultural norms and behaviour must be developed so as to reflect and represent all aspects of difference, so that schools become effective socially and culturally as well as educationally, in dealing with social and cultural barriers to learning (Angus, 1993: 344). In this way schools would need to begin to engage more intrinsically with diversity and difference, and to address the extent to which issues regarding gender, religion, race and class influence the experience of schooling.

A National Education Policy that prioritises diversity in all forms is imperative as it is only through explicit policy directives and departmental support in the implementation process, that schools will begin to address the challenge of diversity management. This is something for which every role-player needs to take responsibility. If the notion of ‘Whole-school Development’ is to be authentically engaged with, diversity management must be centrally positioned in both the WSE Policy as well as in other National Education Policies. Similarly clear guidelines and accessible programmes must be offered to educators, equipping them with skills to mediate difference and manage diversity. This, it is argued, must not be confined to any one single Learning Area, but must be actively integrated in all Learning Areas and at all levels of the school.

An education system that prioritises the formation of the subject, in relation to the self and to the other, is one that defines itself by communication so that “just as a city comes to life only when different populations rub shoulders and communicate with one another, so a school must be a place that encourages inter-cultural communications (Touraine, 2000: 277, 278). A combination of “high-skills knowledge and the sensitivity to other ways of knowing” (Soudien, 2006: 115)

would enable citizens to be effectively integrated into the global world while at the same time retaining their capacity to think critically, reflectively, creatively and holistically. Such a system of education would nourish and develop the whole person in order to engage in a competitive global market without compromising fundamental values of integrity, justice and humanity. This would be achieved through authentically participating in a culturally diverse world order that harmonises “the twin principles of solidarity and diversity” (Touraine, 2000: 142) – a society in which the “freedom of the Subject” (2000: 142) can be valued, restored and actively integrated at the level of the global as well as the local. In this way young people would be equipped to make conscious, responsible choices enabling them to become actors in their individual and collective histories, and ultimately to experience a sense of meaning, belonging and ‘shared humanity’ (Nkomo & Dolby, 2004: 6).

More than ever before the school exists as the “sole common institution in our society and a major means for definition of self and ‘Other’” (Brennan & Noffke, 2000: 68). West and Hopkins’ discussion of the need to “make relationships and to assume social responsibility” (West & Hopkins, 1996: 16) must be taken one step further so that emphasis is placed on the articulation of an authentic engagement between the self and the other. Values of empathy and care need to be cultivated so that ‘emotional learning’ as well as ‘cognitive learning’ is encouraged (Hargreaves, 2003: xix). This would help to engender a “cosmopolitan identity which shows tolerance of race and gender differences, genuine curiosity towards and willingness to learn from other cultures, and responsibility towards excluded groups within and beyond one’s own society” (2003: xix). Developing a ‘social integrity’ would translate into authentic participation in a culturally diverse world order harmonising “the twin principles of solidarity and diversity” (Touraine, 2000: 142) – a society in which the subject is valued, restored and actively integrated.

Finally, the absence of diversity and difference discourse suggests that young South Africans have not been given enough opportunity to engage in dialogue and to analyse the discourse of the other, which would enable them to “perceive the Other” (Touraine, 2000: 279), which, as Touraine suggests, is a pre-condition for living together. A reconceptualised model would require a critical examination of school effectiveness rhetoric, so that policy-makers interrogate and re-

frame terms such as ‘effectiveness’ and ‘improvement’. An expanded discourse needs to be inclusive of alternate realities and sensitive to the discursive meanings and associations representing those realities. This needs to be accompanied with an approach to policy in which reflexivity and questioning of meanings and assumptions is encouraged. The explicit articulation of anti-racism in the WSE Policy therefore would need to be conceptualised in tandem with a re-shaping of policy discourse: “Conceptualizations of globalization could and should be more carefully scripted and influences should be considered from multiple directions: not just how globalization influences education but also how actors in education mediate globalization...” (Monkman & Baird, 2002: 507; 508). Authentic transformation would therefore require a re-shaping of policy discourse which would necessitate a critical examination of ways in which language is used in education policies as conduits of particular ideologies emanating from different international contexts. A conceptualisation of the applicability of these policies to local contexts and the implications of policy recontextualisation (Ball, 2006: 75) is required. This would involve not only an analysis of the fit of the policy to the social, economic, political and historical context, but furthermore, an appreciation of ways in which power relations may be implicated in the implementation of such policies. Deeper analysis of appropriate policy adaptation is needed in order to facilitate greater contextual amenability and resonance. This would enable greater understanding of ways in which effective transformation may be addressed so that both school effectiveness and school improvement discourses may share a central, unambiguous place in the educational policy arena.

**30 514 words**

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## APPENDICES

Appendix A.

### **The Nine Focus Areas of Whole school Development**

1. Basic functionality of the school
2. Leadership, management and communication
3. Governance and relationships
4. Quality of teaching and learning, and educator development
5. Curriculum provision and resources
6. Learner achievement
7. School safety, security and discipline
8. School infrastructure
9. Parents and the community

(Government Gazette, 2001: 13)

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Appendix B.

**The Whole-school Evaluation Policy**

University of Cape Town



# Government Gazette

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**GOVERNMENT NOTICE**

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**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

No. 695

26 July 2001

**NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY ACT, 1996 (ACT NO. 27 OF 1996)****POLICY ON WHOLE-SCHOOL EVALUATION.**

I, Kader Asmal, Minister of Education, hereby determine national policy in terms of *Section 3(4)(l) of the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996)*, relating to curriculum frameworks, core syllabuses and education programmes, learning standards, examinations and the certification of qualifications, that the policy on Whole-School Evaluation (Schedule 1) be declared national policy.

I further give notice in terms of *Section 7* of the said Act that this policy is obtainable upon written request from the Director-General, Department of Education, Private Bag X895, Pretoria, 0001. For attention Dr N Mgijima at telephone (012) 312-5118/9 or fax 012 326 2191.

Professor Kader Asmal, MP  
Minister of Education

Schedule 1



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

THE NATIONAL POLICY ON WHOLE-SCHOOL  
EVALUATION

University of Cape Town

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## MINISTER'S FOREWORD

*Assuring quality of the education system is the overriding goal of the Ministry of Education. This National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation introduces an effective monitoring and evaluation process that is vital to the improvement of quality and standards of performance in schools. The adopted model is radically different from the previous school inspection system carried out in South Africa under the apartheid regime. Together with the accompanying guidelines, this Policy prescribes an approach that is built upon interactive and transparent processes. These processes include school self-evaluation, ongoing district-based support, monitoring and development and external evaluations conducted by the supervisory units.*

*The Policy places particular emphasis on the need to use objective criteria and performance indicators consistently in the evaluation of schools. Recognising the importance of schools as the place in which the quality of education is ultimately determined, focus is primarily on the school as a whole rather than simply on individuals and their performance. The multi-sources of evidence that are used, will enable valid and reliable judgements to be made and sound feedback to be provided both to schools and to the decision-makers. The findings must be used to re-orientate efforts towards improving the quality and standards of individual and collective performance. They should complement other initiatives to improve the work of schools, such as developmental appraisal for educators. This makes the model less punitive and more supportive, with a feedback mechanism that enables schools and their support structures to agree on improvement targets and developmental plans.*

*Throughout the development of this Policy and its accompanying documentation, the Ministry has enjoyed the co-operation and support of many interest groups, education authorities, organisations and our provincial colleagues. I would like to thank all of them.*

**Professor Kader Asmal, MP**  
**Minister of Education**  
**June 2001**

## SECTION 1

### BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

#### 1.1 Introduction

- 1.1.1 For many years, there has been no national system of evaluating the performance of schools, and there is no comprehensive data on the quality of teaching and learning, or on the educational standards achieved in the system. As a result, the National Policy for Whole-School Evaluation is being introduced. This complements other quality assurance initiatives conducted under the aegis of systemic evaluation, namely: accreditation of providers, programme and service reviews and monitoring learning achievements. It should also align with Developmental Appraisal for Educators so that educators are confident that the features of good practice sought in whole-school evaluation are the same as those encouraged through appraisal and development programmes.
- 1.1.2 The National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation has been designed to ensure that school evaluation is carried out according to an agreed national model. It sets out the legal basis for school evaluation, its purposes, what is to be evaluated and who can carry out evaluations. It also provides guidance on how evaluation should be conducted. It further sets out how the evaluation process should be administered and funded. The Policy indicates ways in which very good schools should be recognised and under-performing schools supported. It makes clear the links between those at national and provincial level who are responsible for the quality of education, and supervisors, schools and local support services.
- 1.1.3 This Policy is aimed at improving the overall quality of education in South African schools. It seeks to ensure that all our children are given an equal opportunity to make the best use of their capabilities. As a process, whole-school evaluation is meant to be supportive and developmental rather than punitive and judgmental. It will not be used as a coercive measure, though part of its responsibility will be to ensure that national and local policies are complied with. Its main purpose is to facilitate improvement of school performance through approaches characterised by partnership, collaboration, mentoring and guidance. The Policy also contains a built-in mechanism for reporting findings and providing feedback to the school and to various stakeholders - the National and Provincial Education Departments, parents and society generally - on the level of performance achieved by schools.
- 1.1.4 The Policy is supported by national guidelines, criteria for evaluation, and instruments that have to be used by trained and accredited supervisors in order to ensure consistency in the evaluation of schools. These also provide the means by which schools can carry out self-evaluation and so enter into a fruitful dialogue with supervisors and support services.

1.1.5 Whole-school evaluation is not an end in itself, but the first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement. The National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation is designed to achieve the goal of school improvement through a partnership between supervisors, schools and support services at one level, and national and provincial governments at another.

## 1.2 Education policy and legislative context

1.2.1 The transformation of education in South Africa emphasises the right of all to quality education (Education White Paper, 1995). The first intent is to redress the discriminatory, unbalanced and inequitable distribution of the education services of the apartheid regime, and secondly to develop a world-class education system suitable to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

1.2.2 According to the National Education Policy Act (No.27 of 1996), the Minister is mandated to direct that standards of education provision, delivery and performance are monitored. Evaluations need to be carried out under the aegis of the National Department annually or at specified intervals, with the object of assessing progress in complying with the provisions of the constitution and with national education policy. This Act also specifies that, should the evaluation reveal that a province is not complying with the provisions of the constitution or national education policy, the Political Head of Education in the affected province has to account to the Minister in writing within 90 days.

1.2.3 Similarly, the Assessment Policy, gazetted in December 1998, provides for the conducting of systemic evaluation at the key transitional stages, viz. Grade 3, 6 and 9. The main objective is to assess the effectiveness of the entire system and the extent to which the vision and goals of the education system are being achieved.

1.2.4 Also, the Further Education and Training (FET) Act (No.98 of 1998), makes it obligatory for the Director-General, subject to the norms set by the Minister, in terms of the National Education Policy Act, to assess and report on the quality of education provided in the FET Band.

1.2.5 The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act of 1995, requires that Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQA) bodies be established for the purpose of monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of national standards and qualifications.

1.2.6 In line with the above legal provisions, this Policy elaborates on the responsibilities of the Minister with regard to the conduct of whole-school monitoring and evaluation. It confirms that external whole-school evaluation is an integral part of the new quality assurance approach.

1.2.7 The shift in terminology from 'inspection' to 'whole-school evaluation' is important. Whole-school evaluation encapsulates school self-evaluation as well as external evaluation. It also provides for schools to receive advice and support in their continual efforts to improve their effectiveness. It does not interfere in any way with existing

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activities and agreements, for example, Systemic Evaluation and the Developmental Appraisal System. Part of its purpose is to evaluate the effectiveness with which such initiatives are being implemented and provide information aimed at strengthening their contribution to educational improvement.

- 1.2.8 The focus is on both internal monitoring and external evaluation, i.e. self-evaluation by the school and external evaluation by the supervisory units, and the mentoring and support provided by the district-based support teams.

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## SECTION 2

### KEY ELEMENTS OF THE POLICY

#### 2.1 Aims

2.1.1 The principal aims of this Policy are also integral to the supporting documents, the guidelines and criteria. They are to:

- (a) Moderate externally, on a sampling basis, the results of self-evaluation carried out by the schools;
- (b) Evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of the national goals, using national criteria;
- (c) Increase the level of accountability within the education system;
- (d) Strengthen the support given to schools by district professional support services;
- (e) Provide feedback to all stakeholders as a means of achieving continuous school improvement;
- (f) Identify aspects of excellence within the system which will serve as models of good practice and;
- (g) Identify the aspects of effective schools and improve the general understanding of what factors create effective schools.

#### 2.2 Whole-school evaluation and quality assurance

2.2.1 Whole-school evaluation is the cornerstone of the quality assurance system in schools. It enables a school and external supervisors to provide an account of the school's current performance and to show to what extent it meets national goals and needs of the public and communities. This approach provides the opportunity for acknowledging the achievements of a school and for identifying areas that need attention. Whole-school evaluation implies the need for all schools to look continually for ways of improving, and the commitment of Government to provide development programmes designed to support their efforts.

2.2.2 Effective quality assurance within the National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation is to be achieved through schools having well-developed internal self-evaluation processes, credible external evaluations and well-structured support services.

## 2.3 Principles

### 2.3.1 The Policy is based on the following principles:

- (a) The core mission of schools is to improve the educational achievements of all learners. Whole-school evaluation, therefore, is designed to enable those in schools, supervisors and support services to identify to what extent the school is adding value to learners' prior knowledge, understanding and skills;
- (b) All members of a school community have responsibility for the quality of their own performance. Whole-school evaluation intends to enable the contribution made by staff, learners and other stakeholders to improve their own and the school's performance, to be properly recognised;
- (c) All evaluation activities must be characterised by openness and collaboration. The criteria to be used in evaluating schools, therefore, must be made public;
- (d) Good quality whole-school evaluation must be standardised and consistent. The guidelines, criteria and instruments must ensure consistency over periods of time and across settings;
- (e) The evaluation of both qualitative and quantitative data is essential when deciding how well a school is performing. For this reason, whole-school evaluation is concerned with the range of inputs, processes and outcomes. These are associated with, for example, staffing and physical resources, human and physical, the quality of leadership and management, learning and teaching, and the standards achieved by learners;
- (f) Staff development and training is critical to school improvement. A measure used by whole-school evaluation in judging a school's performance is the amount and quality of in-service training undertaken by staff and its impact on learning and standards of achievement. In this way whole-school evaluation will make an important contribution to securing well-focused development opportunities for school staff;
- (g) Schools are inevitably at different stages of development. Many factors contribute to this. A basic principle of this policy is to seek to understand why schools are where they are and to use the particular circumstances of the school as the main starting point of the evaluation. The policy recognises that schools in disadvantaged areas, for example, must not be disadvantaged in terms of whole-school evaluation.

## 2.4 Approach

- 2.4.1 The approach is designed to help schools measure to what extent they are fulfilling their responsibilities and improving their performance. The means of achieving this are through:

- (a) School-based self-evaluation;
- (b) External evaluation by the supervisory unit personnel trained and accredited to evaluate schools;
- (c) Adequate and regular district support leading to professional development programmes designed to provide assistance and advice to individual staff members and schools as they seek to improve their performance;
- (d) An agreed set of national criteria to ensure a coherent, consistent but flexible approach to evaluating performance in the education system;
- (e) Published written reports on the performance of individual schools;
- (f) Annual reports published by provinces and the Ministry on the state of education in schools.

## 2.5 Ethics and appeals

2.5.1 Through the legal responsibilities bestowed on the Minister of Education, accredited supervisors have the right to enter any school and carry out an evaluation. In doing so, they are expected to observe certain ethical issues and abide by the prescribed code.

2.5.2 The evaluation and monitoring teams need to be fastidious in observing ethical procedures in their work. They are expected to abide by a code of practice which will ensure that they:

- (a) Act professionally towards everyone in the school;
- (b) Communicate openly with the principal and staff of the school while ensuring confidentiality in relation to the school and individuals;
- (c) Evaluate objectively the education provided by the school, avoiding the influence of preconceived ideas and practices;
- (d) Ensure that an appropriate sample of evidence is collected and analysed fairly;
- (e) Provide clear feedback to the school during and as soon as possible after an evaluation;
- (f) Be flexible in response to the different and sometimes changing circumstances of schools, whilst recognising the importance of reporting honestly and fairly to the public at large;
- (g) Carry out evaluations with integrity, treating all those they meet with courtesy and sensitivity;
- (h) Share the principles and procedures of whole-school evaluation with those to be evaluated;
- (i) Be impartial when evaluating a school's performance.

- 2.5.3 It is expected that all school staff and governors will reciprocate the good conduct of supervisors by acting in an open, honest and supportive manner during supervisor visits and evaluations. This will ensure that Whole-School Evaluation is the success it deserves to be and that all those associated with our schools, including learners, benefit to the greatest extent.
- 2.5.4 Schools have a right to register a complaint if they believe that they have been treated unfairly. In the first instance, the school should raise any complaints with the supervisors' team leader, preferably during the evaluation or at the subsequent feedback. The team leader has a duty to try to resolve quickly any issues raised. If the school continues to feel that supervisors have not acted according to the procedures laid down by the National Policy, the Principal can complain to the Head of Department in the Province. This must be done in writing within two working weeks of the school receiving the written evaluation report. During that period, the report will not be published. Where the Head of Department and the Political Head of Education are advised by the independent complaints body that the school has no basis for complaining, the original report will be published. This will normally occur within two weeks of the complaint being received. If the Head of Department is advised that the school has a justifiable complaint, a further evaluation must be arranged within six months of the complaint being made and a new report issued.
- 2.5.5 Complaints can be registered with the Ministry only in the most extreme circumstances and after the second evaluation has been carried out. At this stage, the Ministry will establish an independent body to consider the evidence and become the final arbiter.

## **2.6 Areas for evaluation**

The following are the key areas of evaluation:

1. Basic functionality of the school;
2. Leadership, management and communication;
3. Governance and relationships;
4. Quality of teaching and learning, and educator development;
5. Curriculum provision and resources;
6. Learner achievement;
7. School safety, security and discipline;
8. School infrastructure;
9. Parents and community.

## **2.7 The use of indicators**

Evaluation will be based on indicators covering inputs, processes and outputs.

2.7.1 **INPUTS** - what the school has been provided with in order to carry out its task

The **input indicators** include the main characteristics of each grade of learners, the school's infrastructure, funding and professional and support staff. For example:

- (a) The main characteristics of each cohort of learners when they arrive at the school:
  - i. Socio-economic background;
  - ii. Attainment at entry;
  - iii. Range of languages;
  - iv. Numbers by age and gender per school and class.
  
- (b) Physical resources:
  - i. Classrooms;
  - ii. Common purpose rooms and areas;
  - iii. External premises;
  - iv. Teaching aids, materials and equipment.
  
- (c) Professional and support staff:
  - i. Numbers by gender;
  - ii. Qualifications and experience;
  - iii. Educator development and capacity building.
  
- (d) Funding
  - i. Ministry
  - ii. Province
  - iii. Learners
  - iv. Other sources

2.7.2 **PROCESSES** - how the school seeks to achieve its goals

**Process indicators** show how well the school seeks to achieve its goals. These include the effectiveness with which schools try to ensure effective governance, leadership and management, safety and security measures, and the quality of teaching. For example:

- (a) What the school does to ensure it functions smoothly;
- (b) How the leadership and management of the school is directed to achieve the school's goals;
- (c) How school governance is conducted;
- (d) How the school ensures quality teaching, curriculum planning, and effective assessment of what learners are learning;

- (e) The willingness of all school staff and governors to carry out conscientiously and effectively any responsibility they are given;
- (f) The school's success in encouraging learners to carry out conscientiously and effectively any responsibility they are given, including attendance and punctuality;
- (g) What the school does to ensure security and safety;
- (h) Language of instructions;
- (i) What support and guidance the school provides to help learners develop intellectually and personally;
- (j) What the school does to appraise staff and to help them develop their skills and effectiveness;
- (k) How the school seeks to encourage parental and community involvement;
- (l) How the school manages its resources;
- (m) What the school does to ensure the use and development of information and communication technology for both curriculum and management purposes;
- (n) Guidance and counselling.

### 2.7.3 OUTPUTS - what the school achieves

**Output indicators** include achievements in academic standards, standards of behaviour and rates of punctuality and attendance. For example:

- (a) Learners' standards of attainment at the end of each stage of their education;
- (b) What progress learners have made while at school;
- (c) The quality of learners' response to teaching and to the school's general provision;
- (d) Learners' standards of behaviour;
- (e) The orderliness of the school;
- (f) The condition of school accommodation and furnishings and the effectiveness with which they are used;
- (g) The commitment to the school and its learners of parents and the community;
- (h) The efficiency with which the school uses its resources/funding;
- (i) The provision for safety and security.

## 2.8 Performance ratings

The overall school performance will be rated using the following scale:

5	→	Outstanding
4	→	Good
3	→	Acceptable
2	→	Needs improvement
1	→	Needs urgent support

Where it is not possible to give a rating, 0 will be used.

## 2.9 Evaluation process

- 2.9.1 The Whole-school Evaluation cycle includes pre-evaluation surveys/visits, school self-evaluation, detailed on-site evaluation, post-evaluation reporting and post-evaluation support.
- 2.9.2 Each supervisory team will have a team leader who has the responsibility to build a brief profile about the general level of functionality of the school and to share with the school the procedures that will be followed by the evaluation team. The team leader also has overall responsibility for the evaluation process and the conduct of the supervisors.
- 2.9.3 Supervisory teams will comprise accredited supervisors capable of evaluating the nine focus areas. Members should have the expertise to evaluate at least one subject/learning area and have an awareness of the key elements of good provision for Learners with Special Educational Needs (LSEN).
- 2.9.3 The number of supervisors will normally be within the range of four to six, depending on the size of the school and the resources available.
- 2.9.4 Evaluations will normally be conducted between three and four days of the week, depending on the size of school.
- 2.9.5 An evaluation will result in a published written report and contain recommendations designed to help the school continue to improve.
- 2.9.6 A school will be helped by district support services to formulate and implement an improvement plan based on the recommendations in the report and provide the school with support as it seeks to implement the plan.

## SECTION 3:

### RESPONSIBILITIES AT DIFFERENT LEVELS

#### 3.1 Ministry

The Ministry undertakes to:

- 3.1.1 Provide, within its annual education budget, funding that will be distributed to all the provinces as a conditional grant specifically for school evaluation activities and for supporting schools in their efforts to implement the recommendations of the evaluation report;
- 3.1.2 Set up an appropriate national body to oversee the development, administration and periodic review of the National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation i.e. policy, guidelines and instruments, in response to changing circumstances;
- 3.1.3 Be responsible for developing and implementing a policy for evaluating provincial and district performance in contributing to the implementation of the whole-school evaluation policy and the support they give to improving performance in schools;
- 3.1.4 Ensure that the evaluation system is administered effectively by providing professional guidance and support to provinces on how the evaluations will be organised and conducted. For schools needing emergency interventions, the Ministry will discuss with the relevant province what special arrangements need to be made;
- 3.1.5 Decide on the national sample of schools to be evaluated and determine the length of evaluation cycles. In deciding on the sample, the Ministry will use criteria that include the school's location (rural/urban); size (big/small school); gender (i.e. co-educational/single sex);
- 3.1.6 Once the sample has been decided, inform the provinces of the number and sample of schools to be evaluated;
- 3.1.7 Be responsible for overseeing the training, accreditation and registration of supervisors;
- 3.1.8 Create systems for monitoring the quality of whole-school evaluations and the work of the supervisors;
- 3.1.9 Remove from the register of school evaluators those supervisors who fail to carry out their responsibilities satisfactorily;
- 3.1.10 Collect certain raw data gathered through school evaluations from the provinces in order to enable the Minister to construct an annual report for Parliament. This data will also be used to guide the formulation and review of education policy;
- 3.1.11 Maintain, through the Quality Assurance Directorate in the national Department of Education, an accessible national database on the findings from whole-school

monitoring and evaluation that can be used to refine indicators and provide benchmark data.

### 3.2 Provinces

The Provinces will be responsible for:

- 3.2.1 Identifying a competent, well-trained and accredited supervisory unit, with appropriate administrative support, capable of ensuring that the evaluation of schools is carried out effectively;
- 3.2.2 Organising the work of the supervisory unit so that the annual national sample of schools can be evaluated;
- 3.2.3 Putting in place policies and personnel (support services) designed to provide appropriate administrative support, advice, and guidance to help schools respond to the recommendations emanating from external evaluations;
- 3.2.4 Ensuring appropriate provision for updating the supervisory unit, support services and schools under its jurisdiction in matters concerned with whole-school evaluation;
- 3.2.5 Ensuring that sufficient funds are available within their annual education budget to enable support services and schools to carry out developmental activities in accordance with the National Policy. Provinces will be required to show that this responsibility is being carried out equitably by publishing how these funds are allocated and what criteria are used when distributing funds to different schools;
- 3.2.6 Providing a budget to help schools respond effectively to the recommendations made in an evaluation report, and putting in place contingency plans for dealing with schools that need urgent support. This will include providing appropriate in-service training programmes;
- 3.2.7 Ensuring that all schools under their jurisdiction are fully aware of the implications of the National Policy and Guidelines on Whole-School Evaluation and of their responsibilities in relation to it;
- 3.2.8 Making arrangements for monitoring the quality of professional support services in their districts and dealing with any shortcomings displayed by district support teams;
- 3.2.9 Ensuring that an appropriate Provincial database is established. It must be fully accessible, capable of providing information that can be used to enable it to benchmark its performance in comparison with other Provinces, and linked to the Ministry's database on quality assurance;
- 3.2.10 The Head of Department in consultation with the Political Head of Education will be responsible for publishing the provincial report at that level.

### **3.3 Provincial supervisory units**

Supervisory units will be responsible for:

- 3.3.1 The day-to-day operations of whole-school evaluation under the direction of the Head of the Provincial Department, but within a nationally co-ordinated framework. This is to ensure synergy and the integration of all activities associated with quality assurance;
- 3.3.2 Carrying out whole-school evaluations in districts that are not their regular stations;
- 3.3.3 Retrieving information from their school evaluation reports that can be used to inform provincial and national reports on the quality of education in South Africa. Making that information available to those that need it in the prescribed manner;
- 3.3.4 Providing assistance to support services from time to time in order to help raise standards, particularly in under-performing schools;

### **3.4 District support services**

The district support services, which need to be teams comprising expertise in general school management, leadership, governance, curriculum, staff development, and financial planning, will take responsibility for:

- 3.4.1 Monitoring and supporting schools in their efforts to raise standards and the quality of educational provision. When a need arises, they must provide relevant information to the provincial supervisory units;
- 3.4.2 Ensuring the availability of adequate transport, travel and subsistence budgets for the district support teams in collaboration with the provincial head office and district office;
- 3.4.3 Co-ordinating staff development programmes in response to educators' individual professional need, the findings of whole-school evaluation, and the requirements of provincial and national policies and initiatives;
- 3.4.4 Guiding schools in the implementation of the recommendations of whole-school evaluation reports;
- 3.4.5 Finding ways of setting up clusters of schools so that approaches to improving the performance of schools can be integrated more efficiently and effectively.

### **3.5 Schools**

The executive authority for the professional management of schools is vested in the principal supported by the school governing body. The principal may delegate to an appointee or

nominee from the staff certain functions, including quality management matters, whenever the need arises. Against this background, the principal will be responsible for:

- 3.5.1 Carrying out an internal evaluation of the school in line with the requirements of the National Policy and Guidelines on Whole-School Evaluation;
- 3.5.2 Co-operating with the evaluation team, especially by providing interviews at appropriate times. This also applies to members of the SGB who may be available during an evaluation;
- 3.5.3 Identifying an evaluation co-ordinator to liaise with the evaluation team during a whole-school evaluation exercise. The co-ordinator will participate in the evaluation process by attending evaluation-team meetings in order to help the team interpret evidence and to clarify any uncertainties. The co-ordinator will not be part of decision-making when the evaluation of the school's performance is made;
- 3.5.4 Granting full access to school records, policies, reports and other documentation, including those of the SGB, during external evaluations conducted by the supervisory units;
- 3.5.5 Producing, in collaboration with the support services and the SGB, an improvement plan in response to recommendations made in the evaluation report within four weeks of the receipt of the written evaluation report. Full consultation with all stakeholders must be part of this process;
- 3.5.6 Sending the improvement plan to the District Head for approval and working with professional support service members assigned to the school in order to implement it;
- 3.5.7 Implementing the improvement plan within the stipulated time frames;
- 3.5.8 Informing parents and other stakeholders, such as the SGB, about the intended evaluation and distributing the written summary with the main conclusions and recommendations of the recent evaluation within one week of its arrival at the school. Where appropriate, Principals should follow this by disseminating information in other ways within two weeks of receiving the report.

## SECTION 4

### 4.1 Improvement Strategies

- 4.1.1 In the case of individual schools, the professional support service must link with the senior management team, the staff and the SGB in order to support the implementation of the quality improvement strategies recommended by the supervisors and identified in the school's improvement plan.
- 4.1.2 The professional support service must support schools through helping them produce a coherent, overall plan of action to address the improvement needs articulated by both school self-evaluation and the external evaluation reports of the supervisors.
- 4.1.3 The professional support service is responsible for retrieving key information from the reports of different schools in a district in order to plan the support and professional development required. This should lead to the provision of an integrated training programme that can be delivered in co-operation with other schools and other role players, such as Teacher Centres; Colleges of Education; Technikons; Universities; Teacher Unions and NGOs.
- 4.1.4 School evaluation reports and improvement plans should naturally lead to district, provincial, and national improvement plans which address areas needing improvements, within specified time frames. In addition, the report will include observations made regarding developmental appraisal strategies, professional growth plans and reports. These reports, on the one hand, form the basis for future reviews and serve as an important tool for self-evaluation at all levels within the province and the country. On the other hand, they will be used to highlight elements of good practices in education in schools and those which require attention.

## SECTION 5

### 5.1 Human capacity and development

- 5.1.1 Training is an essential part of preparation for the new system. It will be designed to ensure that supervisors understand the National Policy and accompanying Guidelines and criteria, and can apply them fairly and consistently. Supervisors will receive a certificate indicating that they have completed the first phase of training
- 5.1.2 Training will also be designed to develop the specific skills and attitudes required by good supervisors.
- 5.1.3 In order to evaluate schools, supervisors must be trained and accredited in accordance with conditions laid down by the Quality Assurance Directorate. Generally, they must be qualified educators who have been teaching for at least five years, and who have undertaken some further training as an educator in order to maintain and improve their skills. In some cases, supervisors may be seconded for up to a period of four years from their normal occupations.
- 5.1.4 Supervisors should be capable of evaluating a specialist subject and on occasions a group of related subjects. They must have been trained to be able to evaluate one or more of the nine focus areas that form the core of whole-school evaluation.
- 5.1.5 Supervisors should be capable of making general statements about the quality of provision for special educational needs (SEN).
- 5.1.6 Supervisors must be trained to be competent enough to aid the development of a school. They should be conversant with school self-evaluation techniques and school improvement plans. They should be able to provide worthwhile recommendations that can aid the school and other groups supporting the school to make effective decisions about its future development.
- 5.1.7 Accredited supervisors will have undergone practical training in schools, and will have been assessed as competent to evaluate all types of schools. On going in-service training will be provided, so that skills in areas such as special educational needs (SEN) can be developed.
- 5.1.8 Once they have received training and been accredited, all supervisors will be registered on the Ministry's database.
- 5.1.9 District support teams will receive initial and going on training so that they are competent to aid the development of a school. They must be conversant with the National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation, school self-evaluation techniques and the formulation of school improvement plans.
- 5.1.10 Training of supervisors and support services will include skills in handling, analysing, and interpreting data, communication and interpersonal skills.

## **GLOSSARY OF TERMS**

**Accreditation** - means the certification, usually for a particular period of time, of a person, a body or an institution as having the capacity to fulfill a particular function in the quality assurance system.

**Certification** - recognition by a certificate of the competencies acquired by a supervisor through successfully completing a supervisor's training course.

**Competencies** - the specific knowledge and skills required by supervisors, which include their ability to conform to their code of conduct.

**Curriculum** - planned educational experience provided for learners supplied by schools, mainly in lessons but possibly in other circumstances such as educational visits and extra-curricular activities.

**District** - encompasses district or regional education authority.

**Education for learners with special needs (LSEN)** - is used to designate all those forms of education, in ordinary and special schools or other settings, which are regarded by their practitioners as constituting explicit means of responding to learners 'special' characteristics and 'needs'.

**Ethos** - a number of factors, which include the curricular offerings, relationships in the school community, cultural opportunities, leadership etc. which define the school's community spirit.

**Evaluation** - the means of judging the success of a school's performance based on the criteria in the Evaluation Framework.

**Extra-curricular activities** - activities, such as trips, visits, school contests, cultural, artistic, sportive and technical-scientific activities that are outside the school's normal timetable provided by the school for learners.

**Framework** - the Whole-School Evaluation Framework is a package that includes the policy, guidelines and instruments for monitoring and evaluating the performance of the schools.

**Improvement Strategies** - a planned effort to make better the good and average schools, and to improve the performance of the schools that are performing below the required standards, on an on-going basis.

**Judgements** – opinions formed by supervisors based on evidence collected through using the criteria in the Evaluation Framework.

**Leadership** - the capacity to guide the school and those associated with it in the right direction.

**Monitoring** - systematic observation and recording of one or several aspects of the school's activity.

**Planning** - systematically establishing the way in which specific objectives are going to be fulfilled. Planning can apply to areas of learning and whole-school projects and activities.

**Procedures** - specific steps by which policies and plans are implemented.

**Progress** - learner's progress in school in knowledge, skills, feelings, attitudes, aptitudes and behaviour, which can be measured by comparing their current state with their prior state.

**School** - an environment in which learners are given the opportunity to achieve agreed outcomes. Includes all schools, ABET and LSEN learning centres.

**School policy** - written statements, which describe the way the school intends to, fulfil its educational purpose.

**School development** - improvement in the school's activity: for example, in curriculum, ethos, material resources, etc.

**School mission statement and aims** - a clear statement regarding the purpose of the school.

**School self-evaluation** - is the process by which the school determines, at a given point, to what extent it is succeeding in attaining its stated aims and objectives, taking into account the priorities set and the full range of available resources.

**Supervisor** - a person trained and accredited to evaluate a school's performance.

**Support services** - those with responsibility to provide advice, guidance and help to schools. These include subject advisors, circuit managers, education support services, guidance and counselling services, and remedial services.

**Standards** - measurable levels of achievement that learners should reach in their academic, physical and personal development.

**Strategy** - a way by which the school plans to fulfil its mission and aims.

**Systemic evaluation** - a common approach to the evaluation process whereby an education system or an aspect thereof, is evaluated. Systemic evaluation targets quality factors and examines the education process holistically.

**Whole-school evaluation** - is a collaborative transparent process of making judgements on the holistic performance of schools that is measured against agreed national criteria.

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