AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

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Dissertation submitted for the degree of Master of Education in Comparative Education in the School of Educational Sciences at the University for Christian Higher Educaion of Potchefstroom at the Vaal Triangle Campus

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Vanderbijlpark

2002
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincerest gratitude and appreciation to the following people who contributed immensely to the successful completion of this study:

Dr. E.A.S. de Waal, my study leader for the visionary leadership, motherly love, guidance and encouragement she gave me; even telephonically she was always there for me.

Prof. A.M.C. Theron, my co-study leader for his expert assistance. Despite new work demands on him, he was always willing to have time for constructive assistance.

The research unit of the Gauteng Department of Education for giving me permission to access schools and conduct this research.

The Acting District Director of Vanderbijlpark South 3, Mr L.W.C. Henderson for his warm reception and support for this project and his appeal to school principals to cooperate with me during the research stages.

The school principals, deputy principals, HODs and educators for their voluntary participation and purposive responses during the circulation of the questionnaires.

Mrs Eisa van Rooyen for typing the first drafts of this research project. This she did with patience and willingness to help despite ill health.

Ms Anmarie Terblanche, for her availability, humaneness and willingness for typing the final manuscript so excellently at a very short time and under tremendous pressure.

Mrs A. Oosthuizen of the Statistical Consultancy Services at the PU for CHE (Vaal Triangle Campus) for her expert assistance with the questionnaire and analyses of the data.

Mrs S. Geldenhuys for her preparedness and patience to do the final check of the bibliography.

The staff of the Ferdinand Postma Library at PU for CHE (Vaal Triangle Campus) for their friendly assistance and co-operation.

Mrs M.J. Kruger for the language editing of the manuscript.

My mother, Lettia Tsotetsi for her love of education and her ability to instill in me the admiration of the mother figure.

My adorable wife, Evelina and children, Katleho, Katiso and Phakisi for everything that I am and the sacrifices they made for me.

Finally, I thank God the Almighty for lending me strength and good health to pursue this challenging study.
SUMMARY

The aim of the study was to investigate affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

This investigation was prompted by political changes, which took place after the democratic elections of April 1994, impacting on the provisioning of education in South Africa. The South African education system and its institutions were confronted by many new laws and policies, including affirmative action programmes that had to be implemented. Structural changes like a unified and racially integrated education system came into being.

Key concepts: affirmative action, mechanism, education, education system and reform.

Through literature and empirical studies it was found that race and gender discrimination was observable in all the education institutions in the RSA. Literature study revealed that neither arguments for, nor arguments against affirmative action should be overemphasized at the expense of the other. Both approaches supplemented and enriched each other. Applied correctly and managed well, the disadvantages of affirmative action can be overcome in the main. In this manner most of the injustices of the past can be corrected.

It was established through literature study that, like in the USA, affirmative action in the RSA seems to be an option to eradicate the imbalances of the past in terms of race and gender. In the USA success was achieved by affirmative action programmes: The American population became more representative in terms of race and gender. On the other hand it was also established that the previously disadvantaged groups were over-represented. This led to the claim of reverse discrimination.
The empirical method, namely using questionnaires, was successful in obtaining information about how education participants, especially at school level, were affected by the implementation of affirmative action policies. It also established how education participants felt and thought about their experiences and perceptions about the affirmative action mechanism for education reform.

The study established that factors aimed at the equality of opportunity (also known as the soft approach) enjoyed preference to factors aimed at the equality of result (also known as the hard approach). In order to bring about the smooth education transformation it also established that for observable and radical changes to occur in the education system, factors aimed at the equality of result (the hard approach) should enjoy more attention than factors aimed at the equality of opportunity. Thus it was concluded that both the soft and the hard approaches were necessary to understand the controversial nature of affirmative action.

A number of recommendations were made with regard to the research findings for stakeholders and officials to note.
OPSOMMING

Die doel met die studie was om regstellende optrede in die onderwyshervorming in Suid-Afrika te ondersoek.

Die ondersoek is aangespoor deur politieke veranderings wat na die demokratiese verkiesings van April 1994 plaasgevind het. Dit het die onderwysvoorsiening in Suid-Afrika beïnvloed. Die Suid-Afrikaanse onderwysstelsel en sy instellings is deur baie nuwe wetgewings en beleid, insluitende regstellende optrede geraak. Strukturele veranderinge soos 'n enkele en ras-geïntegreerde onderwysstelsel is geïmplementeer.

Kernwoorde: regstellende optrede, meganies, onderwys, onderwysstelsel en hervorming.

Deur literatuurstudie en empiriese ondersoek is bevind dat ras- en geslagsdiskriminasie merkbaar is in alle onderwysinstellings in die RSA. Literatuurstudie het openbaar dat nog argumente vir, nog argumente teen regstellende aksie ten koste van mekaar oorbeklemtoon moet word. Albei standpunte vul mekaar aan en verryk mekaar. Indien dit korrek aangewend word en goed bestuur word, kan die nadele van regstellende aksie grootliks oorkom word. Gp hierdie manier kan die grootste deel van die onreg van die verlede reggestel word.

Deur literatuurstudie is bevind dat, soos in die VSA, regstellende aksie 'n opsie blyk te wees om die wanbalans wat daar in die verlede in ras en geslag was, uit te wis. In die VSA is sukses behaal deur regstellende aksie programme: Die Amerikaanse bevolking het meer verteenwoordigend geword in terme van ras en geslag. Aan die ander kant is ook vasgestel dat vroeër benadeelde groepe oorverteenwoordig is. Dit het tot omgekeerde diskriminasie gelei.
Die empiriese metode, naamlik die gebruik van vraelyste, was suksesvol om inligting te kry oor hoe onderwysdeelnemers, veral op skoolvlak, geraak is deur die implementering van regstellende aksie-beleid en hoe onderwysdeelnemers voel en dink oor hulle ondervindings en persepsies oor die regstellende aksie-meganisme vir onderwyshervorming.

Die studie het vasgestel dat faktore gerig op gelykheid van geleentheid (ook bekend as die sagte benadering) bo faktore gerig op gelykheid van resultaat (ook bekend as die harde benadering) verkies is. Daar is ook vasgestel dat harmonieuse onderwyshervorming afhang van merkbare en radikale veranderinge, sodat faktore gerig op die gelykheid van resultaat (die harde benadering) meer aandag moet kry as faktore gerig op gelykheid van geleentheid. Daar is dus vasgestel dat beide die sagte en harde benaderings nodig is om die kontroversiële aard van regstellende aksie te verstaan.

‘n Aantal aanbevelings na aanleiding van die navorsingsbevindings is gemaak, vir die aandag van belanghebbendes en amptenare.
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CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION
The demise of a carefully planned apartheid education system (Christie & Collins, 1991:60) which was regarded as a crime against humanity (Samuel, 1992:110) gave way to a new racially integrated education system in South Africa. This unified education system is a new form of education in South Africa, where all stakeholders are involved in decision-making affecting them. According to well-informed educationists, fair opportunities for training and advancement in the education service, including an affirmative action policy, are essential in order to ensure an effective leadership cadre which is broadly representative of the population they serve (SA, 1995a:21).

It is for this reason that an integrated education system seems to be acceptable to all education participants because of its non-discrimination and participatory decision-making. Therefore, a means, in the form of affirmative action, is advocated as an effective instrument aimed at ensuring the success of a single integrated education system for all.

According to Sonn (1994:10), affirmative action will eradicate unfair entry standards, which have been selectively applied in the past to suit the white community instead of an approach of unselective access to education for all racial groups. Therefore it is imperative to view affirmative action as a necessary strategy to correct the imbalances of the past system in government institutions and not as reverse discrimination in disguise (Ngutshane, 1994:18).

1.2 BACKGROUND AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
The present education system is mostly perceived as legitimate because of its non-discriminatory policies on the provision of education, which stress equal opportunities for all (ANC, 1994:60). This is a positive indication for education transformation, as compared to apartheid education, which not only separated white from black children, but also divided white children into separate camps according to language differentiation (Mncwabe, 1990:61). The country is in the vortex of change and so is the education system. Affirmative action is believed to be the vehicle for observable change in the education system. It is therefore essential for all role
players to accept this change. Those who refuse to adapt could be crushed by the process of renewal (Hilliard, 1993:11).

The event of education reform in South Africa is slow to yield observable outcomes (Nyatsumba, 1995:4), as epitomised in

- the urgent call for education transformation in the Technikon OFS incident where classes were disrupted (Duma, 1995:3),
- the students' march at University of the Witwatersrand to demand reform in the administration of the institution (Bavuma, 1995:4),
- as well as the unfortunate incident at Ruyterwacht in the Cape where a schoolboy was killed due to the bussing of learners for racial integration in the school (Keeton, 1995:2).

It is not everybody who is for change. Some are against change. The much-publicised issue of Potgietersrus where the governing body refused to admit black learners is a clear indication of resistance to racial integration (De Lange, 1996:2). The situation was defused by a court order, which ruled that the school may not unfairly, on the grounds of race, ethnic or social origin, culture, colour or language, refuse to admit any learner. It may also not refuse to permit any learner admitted to the school to participate fully in the activities of the school (Stuart, 1996:2). However, this order did not deter the school from resisting change because white learners were then taught in the school hostels (De Lange, 1996:2).

All these events are symptomatic of the need for a complete education reform. Affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform seeks to ensure actualisation of this newly created unified education system for all racial groups in the country (SA, 1992:16). Alexander (1990:166) purports that education transformation should be accelerated by all possible means and intervention to ensure total dismantling of ethnically and racially based education policies. However, an attempt to achieve transparent results in education reform should be done with great circumspection, otherwise the process of education reform might not yield the desired successful results. A practical example to show that the issue of affirmative action should be handled with great sensitivity and seriousness is the case of Grové Primary School and about 100 other schools in the Western Cape. They challenged the Education Minister in the Cape High
Court that he placed an unlawful limitation on the school’s statutory powers to recruit and appoint teachers from the best available candidates (Jansen, 2000:91). Indeed the court ruled that the Minister acted *ultra vires* in issuing resolutions with the requirement that schools summarily select teachers from the redeployment list and that he acted unconstitutionally by not following administrative procedure in changing existing policies (Jansen, 2000:9). One cannot agree more with Bot (1992:63) that the success of integration, in short term at least, will depend on the efforts made by those willing to assist the process of change.

Hofmeyr and Buckland (1992:17) warn that there are no quick fix solutions for education reform because education systems do not change overnight, but take time. Therefore education participants should exercise patience in order to reap the fruits of education reform. Again, a helpful instrument to ensure the success of education is affirmative action, which should be supported by the state according to Samuel (1992:114). On the same note, Claassen (1993b:61) also supports this view held by Samuel, but warns that, like all other alternatives aimed at equity in education, affirmative action cannot be a fail-safe panacea for all social ills. In the same spirit, Wang (1990:191) views affirmative action as a special treatment accorded members of a disadvantaged minority group.

Other educationists like Claassen, Weiner, Mokae, Olivier and Williams (Beckmann, 1994:160) support this idea of affirmative action but use synonymous concepts such as positive or reverse discrimination, preferential treatment, standardisation, equalisation, redress, empowerment, compensatory justice, distributive justice, redistribution, reservations, advancement of minority groups and catch-up measures to describe affirmative action. Precisely stated, the common attribute of affirmative action is its insistence on action programmes aimed at promoting parity among previously unequal groups (Claassen, 1993a: 149).

Elaborating further on the nature of affirmative action, Human (1990:273) strongly feels that affirmative action should strive towards ensuring upward mobility of both blacks and all women as historically disadvantaged groups into managerial positions. According to Human (1990:273) this should not be done at the expense of whites, though other educationists advocate that reparation for
past injustices should be made sternly, even if such reparation may involve
discrimination in favour of individuals who belong to preferred groups. This view
is greatly supported by Sonn (1994:13) who believes that there should be more
deliberations in challenging pretentious attempts of a non-racial education
system while compromising fundamental requirements of a non-discriminatory
education dispensation. One can deduce from the statement an approach,
which is militant in achieving parity for the historically disadvantaged groups or
individuals.

By the same token, Hartshorne (1992:231) maintains that our task as people is to
reconstruct what the unjust past has put in place, with an understanding that
education change is slow to materialise. Thus affirmative action can be regarded
as an effective mechanism to bring about a speedy but realistic education reform.
However, one should guard against being pre-occupied with attempts of
correcting past mistakes instead of pro-actively focussing on means to promote
and takes it further when saying that these transitional problems are exacerbated
by the fact that, whereas the government has paid much attention to the
decision-making process in respect of desegregation, it has paid little attention to
the process of integration.

Affirmative action is said to be surrounded by a great measure of ambivalence,
controversy, contradiction and conflict (Beckmann, 1994:160). In contrast to this
view, Claassen (1993b:62) believes that, even though affirmative action is
viewed in relation to discrimination, it differs from the latter in terms of its policy,
namely to advantage and not to prejudice. On this note, one would tend to agree
with Beckmann (1994:162) that positive discrimination clearly differs from reverse
discrimination in the sense that the former is aimed at bringing about equality in
education other than the latter which is aimed at revenging past injustices.

It is interesting to note that affirmative action as a means towards equality in
education tends to polarise white fears and anxieties of losing what they have
against the aspirations of blacks for gaining what they do not have (Beckmann,
1994:160). From this statement, one can deduce that either a revolutionary or an
evolutionary approach can be adopted by proponents of affirmative action in
order to reform education in South Africa.
This brings us to two distinguishable approaches of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform, namely programmes aimed at equality of opportunity on the one hand, and equality of result on the other. In addition to this dichotomy, it is imperative to know that it is not affirmative action as such that is at fault, but the way and spirit in which it is implemented (Human, 1993:156). Therefore, either an equality of result or equality of opportunity approach will determine the success or the failure of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

It is important to take note of the ways in which education participants are affected by affirmative action. The attitudes of education participants will also be an imperative factor in the implementation of affirmative action.

The United States of America might provide some guidelines towards the implementation of affirmative action, because of its history of racial differentiation, as well as the fact that it was the first country to legislate affirmative action with the aim of attaining an integrated education system as embodied in Title VII of the Civil Right Act of 1964 (Claassen, 1993b:65). Lessons from the Americans might be adapted to suit the unique problems in South Africa.

Against the foregoing background of the problem, the following problem questions arise:

- What is the nature of affirmative action?
- Which factors influence affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform?
- To what extent did affirmative action succeed or fail in the United States of America?
- What are the attitudes of education participants in South Africa, especially at school level, with regard to affirmative action?
- Which guidelines can be laid down for education role players facing the reality of affirmative action?

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

There are five aims for this study, namely:

- to determine the nature of affirmative action;
• to identify factors influencing affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform;
• to determine the extent to which affirmative action succeeded or failed in the United States of America;
• to determine the attitudes of education participants in South Africa, especially at school level with regard to affirmative action;
• to lay down guidelines for education role players facing the reality of affirmative action.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Literature study
A literature study on affirmative action was conducted with the aim of determining the nature of affirmative action, factors influencing affirmative action, as well as the extent to which affirmative action succeeded or failed in the United States of America.

A DIALOG-search was conducted with the help of the following key words:

*Equity, equality, parity, affirmative action, reverse discrimination, positive discrimination, discrimination, preferential policies, disadvantaged group, prejudice, standardisation, empowerment, employment neutrality, minority groups, rationalisation of education and proportional representation.*

1.4.2 Empirical research

1.4.2.1 Aim
An empirical investigation was conducted to determine the attitudes of education participants in the RSA, especially at school level, with regard to affirmative action.

1.4.2.2 Instrument
Data for this study was collected through the use of the questionnaire survey technique that was developed in the light of the literature study. A structured questionnaire was designed and administered to the sampled education participants.
1.4.2.3 Population
The population (N=1763) comprised of all principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and teachers in the former Vaal Triangle area, now known as the Eastern and Western Metropolitan sub-structures of the Vereeniging and Vanderbijlpark districts in Gauteng Province.

1.4.2.4 Sample
A sample of (n=350) was drawn from 40 schools, namely 20 secondary schools and 20 primary schools. A stratified random sampling method was employed to ensure that identified groups (in terms of job description, gender, race and position in workplace) were represented. From the sample (n=350), 50% (n=150) were teachers, while 25% (n=75) were heads of departments and the other 25% (n=75) were either principals or deputy principals. Principals and deputy principals were categorised as one sample group because of their limited numbers.

1.5 Division of Chapters
The research report is based on the following sub-headings:

Chapter 1: Orientation
Chapter 2: The nature of affirmative action
Chapter 3: Factors influencing affirmative action as a mechanism of education reform
Chapter 4: Affirmative action in the United States of America and in the Republic of South Africa: A comparison
Chapter 5: Empirical research design
Chapter 6: Data analysis and interpretation
Chapter 7: Summary, findings, conclusion and recommendations

1.6 Related Research
Claassen (1993) investigated affirmative action very well by providing its definition, historical development, moral considerations, its beneficiaries and practical examples with reference to other countries. The most interesting aspect of the research is the distinction between two approaches of affirmative action, namely programmes aimed at equality of result and those aimed at equality of
opportunity. The shortcoming of this research is the lack of empirical data, especially at school level. One of the recommendations in this study is therefore an empirical investigation at this level as one of the levels affected by the implementation of affirmative action.

Another researcher, Beckmann (1994) exploited education as a vehicle for affirmative action at large. The researcher adopted a legal perspective whereby an analysis of Section 8 of the interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, 200 of 1993 was done. Some legal questions that have a bearing on education in terms of affirmative action were put forth. Like Claassen's work, this research lacked empirical data, especially at school level.

Like the works of both Claassen (1993) and Beckmann (1994), Wang (1990) gave a well-argued viewpoint of positive discrimination based on theory and experiences derived from other countries. One of the recommendations in this study is therefore for an empirical survey at school level to be conducted.

The shortcomings identified from the aforementioned studies will be addressed in this study, especially at school level through the analysis of perceptions of education participants regarding affirmative action. At this stage it is important to refer to the White Paper on Education and Training as published in the Government Gazette. It is stated there that the mission of the Education Ministry to strive for fair opportunities for training and advancement in the education service, including an affirmative action policy, is essential, in order to ensure an effective leadership cadre, which is broadly representative of the population they serve (SA, 1995a:21).

1.7 ENVISAGED PROBLEMS

(a) The number of sources on the subject might be limited. Nevertheless there are enough primary sources for the purpose of the research.

(b) The questionnaire items might not cover all aspects of affirmative action per se. However, it is believed that the formulated questionnaire items are representative of common issues surrounding the aspect of affirmative action.

(c) The responses of respondents might sometimes not be reliable, which would imply that one might not be able to guarantee the validity of the test. This may be overcome by asking simple and objective questions.
The research study is limited to the Eastern and Western Metropolitan sub-structures of Gauteng Province, which was previously known as the Vaal Triangle. This means that results can only be applicable to this area. It is, however, believed that findings can help with insight in understanding perceptions of other people in other areas concerning affirmative action programmes.

1.8 SUMMARY
In this chapter an introduction has been given to the background and statement of the problem concerning affirmative action. The aims and research methodology in terms of both literature study and empirical research were also elucidated. The procedure to be followed, instrument to be used, population targeted and manner of drawing a sample were set out. Division of chapters, study of related research done, possible problems envisaged and how they can be circumvented, were explained.

Definition of concepts and the nature of affirmative action will be dealt with in Chapter 2.
CHAPTER 2
THE NATURE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION
In this chapter applicable terminologies are defined and explained for the purpose of common understanding and avoidance of misinterpretations. Furthermore, conditions identified by researchers as influencing the successful implementation of affirmative action as an education reform mechanism are discussed. They need to be discussed to determine the role they will play in the possible implementation of affirmative action programmes in educational institutions in South Africa.

Debates about affirmative action programmes are also highlighted. This will provide insight and foresight to the reader concerning the arguments for, as well as against affirmative action.

2.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS
2.2.1 Affirmative action

Claassen (1993a:149) defines affirmative action as programmes aimed at promoting parity between citizens by increasing the participation of disadvantaged groups in educational, economic, political and social structures of the society. Wang (1990:191) shares the view but prefers to identify it as positive discrimination instead of affirmative action. He says that it refers to the situation whereby individuals are accorded special treatment in educational selection because of their membership in a disadvantaged group or groups, thus departing from strictly achievement-based criteria of recruitment.

Beckmann (1994:161) regards affirmative action as all special measures taken by a legislature or executive, private corporation or educational institution, for the purposes of securing advancement of certain racial or ethnic groups requiring such protection. These measures are necessary to ensure such groups or individuals equal enjoyment or exercise of human rights and fundamental freedoms. In addition to ethnicity and race as areas of focus, affirmative action can also be relevant in areas of caste, gender and ability.

Ngutshane (1994:17) argues that affirmative action should be viewed as a strategy to empower the disadvantaged and to ensure that appointments are based on the philosophy of meritocracy. He proceeds to say that affirmative action is a strategy, tactic or a means to an end, which is the advancement of blacks and females. It
therefore stands to reason that affirmative action should be seen as a
temporary and curative measure for injustices of the past.

Another dimension of affirmative action is stated by Wang (1990:196), who
asserts that affirmative action refers to good faith efforts made by employers
and educational institutions to recruit more minorities who meet the minimum
competency requirements for specific jobs or for admissions. The view of
Herholdt and Marx (1999:26) differs from the view that affirmative action rests
on the principle of good faith efforts. They say that one criticism levelled
against affirmative action is that it is reverse discrimination which aims at
replacing one form of racism and sexism by another whereby the formerly
disadvantaged are now favoured. They continue to argue that this is a
serious charge, because a society will justly shrink from remedies that
substitute one injustice for another, and thus appear to be as repugnant as
the disease they claim to cure.

However, notwithstanding the merit of the previous argument, affirmative
action serves a definite purpose in redressing the imbalances of the past by
ensuring that previously disadvantaged groups are included in the correct
proportion in managerial positions in accordance with the demography of the
country’s population (Herholdt & Marx, 1999:28). In addition Maphai (1992:6)
avers that one can only understand affirmative action against the background
of discrimination because in reality affirmative action does not violate the
universal principle of non-discrimination but is compatible with it since its aim
is to eradicate past inequalities. This is in line with the Constitution of the

It is for this reason that Beckmann (1994:162) gives a warning that reparation
strategies should guard against revenge for past injustices, instead of
levelling the education field. It is, however, imperative to note that the views of
educationists on affirmative action differ. Claassen (1993b:62) asserts that,
even though affirmative action is viewed in relation to discrimination, it differs
from the latter in terms of its policy, which is to advantage and not to
prejudice. His argument is carried further by Ngutshane (1994:17) who
purports that affirmative action should not be viewed as reverse
discrimination, but as a necessary strategy to correct the imbalances in
central government institutions.
Affirmative action and redistribution issues simply reflect natural justice and a pro-active attitude towards social development. Therefore, there is nothing new or extraordinary about affirmative action (Ngutshane, 1994:18). However, a warning is given not to reduce affirmative action to mere advancement programmes for the disadvantaged because that might lead to tokenism (Qunta, 1995: 21).

To synthesise, affirmative action is a mechanism of redressing historical discrimination in different social spheres between and among people of different race, ethnicity, religion, gender and ability. Affirmative action aims at pro-actively eradicating all such disparities, which created barriers for individuals, preventing them from exercising their human rights. Affirmative action acknowledges that all human beings are created equal, therefore they must be treated equally. This means that previously disadvantaged target groups have to be brought on equal footing with the previously favoured groups by means of special treatment, preferably protected by law, before equal treatment can be valid. The implication is that active remedial measures in terms of compensation for the historically disadvantaged have to be met first before equity can be advocated.

Above all, affirmative action is a moral consideration between justice and injustice. Laws cannot make it happen. It needs good faith efforts by participants to involve everybody in a systematically planned strategy to maximise the skills and potential of all the citizens of the country. Although affirmative action should be a controlled and temporary curative measure, it should not be approached with a quick-fix and window-dressing attitude. It should rather be maintained with a carefully thought-out mentality aiming at representation of people of the country throughout all spheres of society, where meritocracy and not tokenism will be a password.

2.2.2 Mechanism
The concept mechanism means manner or procedure for doing something. The concept mechanism is synonymous to concepts like strategy, plan, instrument or tool and art of doing something, working in a co-ordinated manner to bring about desired results (Crowther, 1995:727).
Against the backdrop of the foregoing explanation, affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform means that affirmative action is a vehicle, strategy or instrument for changing education for all the inhabitants of the country.

2.2.3 Education

According to Van Rensburg and Landman (1988:330) education is viewed as a conscious, purposive and positive influence on the educand by an educator. They describe its nature as unplanned, intuitive, unsystematic, experiential and takes place at the primary or home situation on a daily basis. When refined and practised by scientifically schooled experts, this education is known as pedagogics.

Van Heerden (1989:15) further explains that the concept education is derived from a Latin word "educare", which when literally translated, means to impart knowledge. Duminy and Steyn (1985:9) concur with Van Heerden's definition. They explain that the concept education is either derived from the Latin terms "e" (out) and "ducere" (lead) or from "educare" (nourish, nurse or rear). The Latin verb "educo" means to rear. The concept education does not explicitly include the idea of leading a child but refers to the idea of leading, rearing or nourishing of another person. They therefore regard education as a human science that is open to correction and supplementation.

Van Schalkwyk (1988:29) espouses the view that education should be based on complete, normative, balanced, relevant and differentiated principles. According to Farrant (1988:18) education is described as a universal practice engaged in by societies at all stages of development. He proceeds to state that education describes the total process of human learning by which knowledge is imparted, faculties trained and skills developed. Van Vuuren (1986:114) concurs with this definition when regarding education as an event or course of educational acts as they appear in the life-world of a particular child from birth to adulthood.

In other words, education is being embodied by a series of situations, which constitutes for the child the events of his life.
Vrey (1989:3) describes education as a universal phenomenon because it is found among people of all cultures. The essence of this definition is that the adult educates the child for whom he/she is responsible in order that the child may become a worthy participant in his particular society. In other words, the phenomenon of education can only exist where there is already some association between an adult and a child.

To synthesise the preceding explanations, education as a universal human process is both a conscious and unconscious phenomenon aimed at transferring societal norms and values, skills and attitudes to a child by an adult. The child would attempt to emulate and eventually internalise these worthy positive influences from an adult in order to lead a morally responsible life. Education is not a one way communication but a dual way of communication between the education participants. In order to meet the daily basic needs and aspirations of the target individuals or groups, education has to be based on the principles of relevance, normativity, differentiated and balanced needs of the target group.

These needs of the target group will demand of education to take different forms, like formal, non-formal and informal nature.

Whenever the education phenomenon manifests itself, it takes one of the following three distinguishable but interdependent forms, namely formal, non-formal and informal education. Each of these forms will now be discussed.

2.2.3.1 Formal education
According to Steyn (1994:15) formal education generally refers to goal-directed, planned teaching activities whereby the education clients or target group of the national educational system are equipped with desired knowledge, skills and attitudes.

This description concurs with that of Farrant (1988:18), which regards formal education as having a structured form, like time-tables and syllabi among others, which guide teaching and learning activities in institutions such as schools, colleges and so forth, whereby success is recognised by awards, certificates and diplomas.

Duminy and Steyn (1985:16) view formal education as intentional education because it is a planned and systematic way of leading children in the
acquisition of the skills, knowledge and attitudes they themselves, their parents, their society and God want them to acquire. They proceed to explain that this organised form of education occurs in pre-primary, primary, secondary schools, special schools and tertiary institutions. Formal education actually supplements the informal education the child has received at home to prepare the child for the realities of the adult world that lies ahead of the child.

2.2.3.2 Non-formal education

Farrant (1988:19) regards non-formal education as organised, like formal education, but it takes place outside the structure of the formal education system. He says that it is aimed at meeting specific learning needs of particular groups of children, youths or adults to improve their functional literacy in their communities.

Van der Stoep and Louw (1984:260) also share the same sentiments with Farrant when they assert that non-formal education is usually any learning activity, which lies outside the field of formal school systems. They say it is aimed at systematically creating learning opportunities for specific groups of learners with clearly differentiated learning needs.

Non-formal education can therefore include activities such as those provided by cultural organisations, sport clubs, agricultural training programmes, apprenticeship schemes, vocational training in mining and industrial sectors and literacy programmes for specific groups that need education (Van der Stoep & Louw, 1984:260). Non-formal education is therefore a much more pliable and adaptable option and is capable of providing for the diversity of educational needs.

On the other hand, Steyn (1994:15) gives a more succinct definition of non-formal education by stating that it generally refers to goal-directed, planned teaching or training activities whereby the target groups outside the national educational system are equipped with desired skills, knowledge and attitudes.

Duminy and Steyn (1985:17) agree with the explanation from the preceding paragraph. However, they add the new dimension that, although non-formal education occurs outside the jurisdiction of formal institutions such as schools, colleges, universities and technikons, education is not a main
function of, but a secondary undertaking by these bodies who are concerned with education.

Education offered by organisations and institutions like churches, sporting bodies, the private sector and recreational organisations forms part of organised learning programmes which are not under the auspices of any formal state department of education (Duminy & Steyn, 1985:17).

2.2.3.3 Informal education
Informal education generally refers to unplanned activities whereby the target group is equipped with the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes (Steyn, 1994:15). In the same breath, Farrant (1988:18) views informal education as not associated with the awarding of certificates and diplomas, therefore not structured as compared to formal and non-formal education.

Duminy and Steyn (1985:15) give a thorough explanation of informal education by describing it as spontaneous, unsystematic and unorganised because children are not always aware that they are being influenced, - adults do not necessarily plan to educate them. It is equally true that under certain circumstances, informal education can occur when older and younger children are together whereby a child acquires skills such as the ability to eat, walk, listen, act and communicate. They point out that formal education will to a large extent be based on informal education. However, the importance of both non-formal and formal education supplementing informal education should not be ignored.

2.2.4 Education system
An education system is defined as a structure for effective teaching to meet the educational needs of a group of people or target group in a specific territory (Steyn, 1994:3). It is therefore logical that an education system attempts to bring about a co-ordinated inter-relationship between different fundamental pillars of what education is all about. In this instance fundamental pillar of education refers to legislation, policies and administration with regard to education.

2.2.5 Reform
According to Crowther (1995:981) reform means to make something better by correcting or making improvements. Reform should be viewed as the
injection of life, the revival and shaping anew of something - in this case education. Therefore education should be totally reconstructed to be relevant to the needs of the target group. For instance, we are living in a technologically governed era where electronics plays an important role in our lives. For one to adapt to electronics and execute the challenges of life, education has to be relevant to one's needs. For example, computer literacy is becoming a necessity nowadays as compared to the era before the 1960's. According to Davies (1991:346), the need for education reform stems from the times of the 1976 Soweto uprisings which was a culmination point of protests against institutionalised and undisguised separate education policies. A discussion of conditions identified by research for the successful implementation of affirmative action will now follow.

2.2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, one might challenge the idea that it appears as if only formal and non-formal education belong to the education system because the education system is a structure for effective education, which therefore suggests planned and goal-directed teaching as primary activity of the education system. Informal education is therefore, by definition, not included in the education system. The terminology formal and non-formal education shows inherent weaknesses because it can suggest that formal education is goal-directed and planned while non-formal education is not goal-directed and not planned. The prefix "non" in non-formal gives the meaning of not formal. This is what might give the impression that non-formal education is not planned and not goal-directed while it actually is planned and goal-directed. It can be categorically stated that formal and non-formal education are both planned and goal-directed activities.

A distinction between the activities of formal and non-formal education can be explained by giving practical examples. For instance, whenever an activity, such as boxing is part of a school's extramural activities where teachers are officially involved, then such an activity is part of formal education. If, on the other hand, a teacher organises boxing lessons unofficially, then it is non-formal education.

Similarly, if a learner attends afternoon classes in electronics at a technical school, this may be regarded as formal education. However, if a learner
attends a holiday course in electronics, it is non-formal education. In other words, an activity can either be part of formal or non-formal education depending on the type of institution offering such an activity.

Education as a universal human event or phenomenon manifests itself in one of the following three forms, namely formal, non-formal and informal education. These three forms are not absolutely separate entities but only interdependent facets of the education process. They have only been distinguished from one another for the purpose of discussion. In fact they actually supplement and enrich each other.

2.3 CONDITIONS IDENTIFIED BY RESEARCHERS FOR THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The following conditions are believed to be influential in the implementation of affirmative action programmes. The purpose of their discussion is to determine the role they will play in educational institutions in the possible implementation of affirmative action programmes. Their sequential discussion does not mean their order of importance.

2.3.1 Affirmative action must not degenerate into an ideology

The greatest danger in the implementation of affirmative action in South Africa would be the possibility of affirmative action degenerating into a mere ideology (Van der Merwe, 1994:23). The fact of the matter is that the replacement of the apartheid ideology with another ideology would be fatal to the country in its pursuit of reconstruction and development.

Lategan (1997:38) warns that apartheid ideology should not be substituted by another ideology and mentions some of the prominent ideologies like nationalism, conservation, liberation, marxism, politicism, pluralism and socialism. According to Hilliard (1991:5) affirmative action is, in fact, more than a political slogan. It is a technique that can be used by the Government and the citizens themselves to uplift minority or majority groups. A warning is sounded by Hilliard (1991:5) that care must be taken in the process of “righting” the wrongs so that we should not “wrong” the right things. In other words all South Africans must try to strike a balance in their joint venture to nurture the new democracy because not all existing structures need change: some only need modification.
The assumption here is that an affirmative action ideology is regarded as equally evil as the apartheid policy it aims to eradicate. This might appear true if affirmative action programmes are viewed as purely reverse discrimination and not as curative positive discrimination of past injustices. But this ideology of viewing affirmative action in negative terms need not arouse concern because affirmative action differs from discrimination by virtue of the policy it advances, namely to advantage and not to prejudice (Claassen, 1993a:148).

The problem with apartheid was that it had created and reinforced an "us and them" syndrome whereby blacks were looked down upon as incapable human beings (Human, 1991:322). Unlike apartheid ideology, affirmative action intends to reinforce the "we" syndrome whereby all citizens of the country would feel involved in their development and therefore grow in their well-being (Human, 1991:322).

2.3.2 Affirmative action must be coupled with a change of mentality
Whites should denounce the mentality of a boss and a subordinate relationship towards blacks which has been found to be coupled with egotism and culture chauvinism, while by the same score, blacks should free themselves from a submissive and slave mentality (Van der Merwe, 1994:24). However, this statement should not be viewed with absolute inclusivity and generalisation. There are individual differences in association and thinking between blacks and whites.

It is generally known that some whites were brought up with a perception that blacks are worthless, have uncouth behaviour and are dangerous, consequently they are not to be trusted (Fuhr, 1993:5). The opposite belief is also true that some blacks have learnt to respond to whites as cruel creatures who are out to molest and kill blacks (Fuhr, 1993:5).

It is this type of distant association that brought about negative attitudes of blacks against whites and vice versa. Nevertheless, there has been and still is an exception in the thinking style between individuals of the black and white race (Van der Merwe, 1994:24). It is not all whites or blacks who were brought up in the mentality of not trusting each other. Individuals differ in their thinking irrespective of their racial affiliation. For this reason it would be
unfair to generalise about the thinking mentality of blacks or whites on inclusive basis. Therefore, both black and white people should be independent of each other and be able to develop on their own in order to realise their potential to the full.

Pretentious association instead of honest acceptance of all racial groups in South Africa will be costly to the new and fragile democracy that all of us are longing for. Hence Seroka (1999:145) states that attitude is the single most important factor in our abilities to deal with affirmative action. South Africans should move away from the black-white or male-female dichotomies in their thinking (Greyling, 2000:154). The paradigm should shift from seeing each other as unequal, to rather as differently created.

It is needless to say that the know-all or know-nothing mentality will not be conducive for affirmative action to materialise. One's way of thinking obviously permeates one's way of behaviour. For affirmative action to be workable, it demands of every South African to change in mind and at heart.

2.3.3 Affirmative action should not rob people of their moral autonomy
Ethics refers to one's outlook in life and is therefore the cornerstone of affirmative action (Van der Merwe, 1994:25). People can love and build each other in a corrupt system as much as they can hate and destroy each other in a sound and healthy system depending on their moral values within their societies (Van der Merwe, 1994:25). One's moral convictions come from within and is not governed by laws of the country. One's convictions act as moral guidelines for one's meaningful existence.

Perhaps the viewpoint of Esterhuyze (1992:22) is valid when saying that we learn some basics about the field of affirmative action but couple that with a cultivated sense of right and wrong about it. This sense of right and wrong is the essence of moral autonomy, which would be a guiding light when people get lost in the maze of choices about affirmative action.

Maphai (1992:7) gives another perspective on the moral value of either right or wrong in as far as in instituting affirmative action. one is neither rewarding the innocent nor punishing the guilty – one is just looking into the future to level the playing field. To achieve success with affirmative action, thrust should be behind moral justification, which includes bases of sound
strategies, people development and stability in the country (Roos, 1995:3). In support of this view Dibodu (1995:87) asserts that South Africa’s philosophy towards affirmative action is to emphasise the principles of Ubuntu or humaneness since all creatures have been created in the image of God.

Morally, affirmative action is an instrument of justice in so far as it entails a systematic programme for bringing social opportunities and material benefits to a target group who would otherwise be deprived thereof (Pandor, 1992:24) Furthermore, it would suffice to mention that it would be unacceptable, counter-productive and morally incorrect to make blacks and women feel that they are victims even in the post-apartheid era as they were during the apartheid period (Pandor, 1992:25). This would be morally wrong and unjustifiable. Affirmative action should uplift such groups.

2.3.4 Merits, qualifications and standards should be maintained

Apartheid was wrong because people were not treated according to personal merit, which is the only generally acceptable basis for appointments or admissions (Van der Merwe, 1994:25). This statement gives the foundation that the best-qualified person is the right person for the job, which is unfortunately not always true. Logically, the argument stems from the apartheid era whereby black people received gutter education, which in essence did not reflect the potential of black people.

According to Van der Merwe (1994:25), danger might exist where qualifications and standards could be used as successful blocking mechanisms instead of genuine means of providing services of value. The argument proceeds to advance the notion that alternative means should be sought, whereby a person’s potentials and skills are determined, especially in occupations where an education qualification is not so important. In other words, education is important, but not the only, criterion for jobs. Since apartheid education was unacceptable to the majority of black South Africans, its content speaks volumes about its irrelevance for the target group. It is on this score that standards have to be questionable to those who feel there is discrimination in as far as equal opportunities are concerned.
The fact that standards have to be maintained, assumes that standards are or were high, which is a point that might be highly debatable in education circles (Human, 1991:330).

Maphai (1992:8) contends that standards have not fallen from the sky, the Bible or Koran or anything. There is no standard in the air, because people themselves create standards. A standard is a standard towards something or for something - standards are not uncontested things and people need to ask what is meant by standards, as well as standard towards what. Ironically standards are raised as being a problem when decisions about access are discussed (Maphai, 1992:9). The question as to whose standards are we referring can be added to the dimension of what standards are or ought to be (Davies, 1991:63). The fact illustrated here is that the question of standards is complex, relative and highly emotive.

Setting of high and difficult to attain entry standards for previously disadvantaged groups is a subtle form of discrimination, even though it might appear to be gender and race-free. It is an indirect form of discrimination. According to Campanella (1993:26), non-job-related qualifications and artificially high levels of education, linguistic ability and physical strength should not be used to justify selection of a person from an advantaged group over a person from a disadvantaged group. Luhabe (1993:10) asserts that we cannot simply expect people to compete equally when they have not received equal opportunities in education.

De Vries (1991:89) presents a different view that affirmative action leads to incompetence and a lowering of standards, in so far as it tolerates the filling of positions by unqualified appointees. However, Luhabe (1993:9) challenges this statement, which assumes that people are to be treated equally despite the fact that they come from different backgrounds. Luhabe proceeds to state that it is a fallacy to assume that unequal people from different social backgrounds should be treated and expected to perform equally whilst they are not coming from a homogeneous background.
2.3.5 Affirmative action should be coupled with education and training programmes which emphasise self-help as a solution

Affirmative action programmes should be coupled with education and training programmes aimed at balancing the responsibility of the state to help the poor, while at the same time helping the poor to be independent (Van der Merwe, 1994:27). The Reconstruction and Development Programme of the government is not to be regarded as a state handout project but as a form of assistance to those individuals who do something on their own. If people also try something to help themselves, then the state's task of equipping its inhabitants with skills and basic training will be easy to attain.

Affirmative action programmes as a form of redressing imbalances of the past will ultimately bring about redistribution of wealth to all the inhabitants of the South African society. This will reduce the state of subsistence living of poor people and elevate it to that of well-to-do people. Education and training is one mechanism of ensuring a better life for all people (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994:xvi).

The provision of education and skills will help people to be self-employed and consequently be able to create jobs for themselves and for others. In this way people will not be dependent on the state to provide them with everything. But this does not mean that the state should shun its responsibility towards its citizens.

Although education and training is basically important for the development of blacks as the previously disadvantaged group, it should not be viewed in simplistic terms of putting knowledge and skills into black people and then expecting them to perform in a white world which remains fundamentally unchanged (Human, 1991:320).

2.3.6 Affirmative action should be strictly a controlled and temporary measure

Affirmative action programmes should be based on the principles of natural justice and fairness whereby its implementation should not drain out either the employer or the employee for personal gains, but aim at equitable distribution of resources. The argument proceeds to emphasise the fact that when affirmative action programmes are not cost-effective and efficient but counter-
productive, then they should be reviewed or replaced immediately (Van der Merwe, 1994:27).

In terms of the Constitution affirmative action entails a set of legal institutions (for instance court of law and Equal Employment Opportunities Commission), which allows the preferred group to attain social benefit of legal rights. This they can enforce through legal apparatus of the state (Boulle, 1988:3). It will ensure that affirmative action is controlled and is a temporary measure.

Although affirmative action measures should be regarded as temporary, it was found that they not only persist but also expand in scope even long after the cut-off date - as it happened in India and Pakistan, for example (Van der Merwe, 1994:28). By and large, it is also argued that past discrimination on various levels does not cease when statutory and other discriminatory measures are lifted, so that remedial and compensatory measures have to be applied (Claassen, 1993b:62).

In order for affirmative action to be controlled and temporary by nature, Ferndale (1993:3) proposes that a monitoring and evaluation system should be developed to ensure that the affirmative action process is maintained and adapted, if necessary.

Van der Merwe (1994:28) advocates the formation of a commission that would be responsible for the implementation of affirmative action policies, like the one initiated in Namibia. The monitoring commission's duties will be to review and amend discrimination measures. Genuine complaints of discrimination will be investigated and necessary steps will be taken to redress the discriminatory situation, even if it means punitive proceedings against the offending party. This is already the move by the Labour Ministry of South Africa, namely that employers may be fined or face other legal actions if they fail to implement the proposed plans of stamping out discrimination in the workplace (Malala, 1996:1).

Malala (1996:2) proceeds to report that the proposals on an Employment and Occupational Equity Statute, as explained by the Ministry of Labour, is not reverse discrimination in disguise, but a vision that is aimed at ensuring that discrimination does not remain a permanent feature of our society. In addition, the document says the measures to accelerate employment,
promotion and training will be directed at black people, women and people with disabilities. The government will favour employers who promote employment equity by providing incentives, which include consideration for tenders for government and parastatal contracts as well as direct or indirect subsidies.

2.3.7 Preference should be limited to a choice between two equally qualified candidates

Apartheid was a race-specific issue and consequently those who lived under it suffered as a race group (Van der Merwe, 1994:28).

Logically speaking, one has to be racial in approach to overcome the results of racism. This factor of racial discrimination is what affirmative action is aimed at as a redressal mechanism for historic injustices. Since apartheid was a racial instrument to oppress other racial groups, affirmative action should be viewed as an instrument to undo the imbalances created by apartheid (Van der Merwe, 1994:28). However, affirmative action is more than eradicating racial inequalities. It also aims at balancing gender inequality.

According to Gallanter (1991:13), it appears that no matter how fair the measures now employed for distributing benefits, the victims of past injustice will not fare well unless fairness demands that reparation be made to redress old biases. The understanding is that race-consciousness action should enjoy priority over colour-blindness action with the sole purpose of bringing all people on a par before treating them equally.

Having said that, Van der Merwe (1994:28) believes that preference for employment or admission should be limited to two equally qualified candidates. The reason for this is that the victim-mentality syndrome, which strips a human being of his worth for the sake of another racial group is avoided. Therefore the price which the previously advantaged victim has to pay is that of unfulfilled existence and unrealistic personal potential actualisation. This victim mentality syndrome might also lead to a feeling of anxiety and helplessness.

However, there might be specific situations whereby a colour-blindness strategy would not work, like appointing a white teacher in a predominantly black school which is aggressive towards whites or vice versa (Van der
Merwe, 1994:28). Hence discretion and sensitivity should be exercised in the appointment of different racial individuals for the sake of affirmative action programmes.

An interesting observation is made by Claassen (1993b:85) that, while one article in the Constitution may forbid discrimination in favour of any person, another article would rule that nothing prevents the state from making any special provision for certain groups, thus constitutionally paving the way for affirmative action programmes.

2.3.8 Affirmative action should contribute to the establishment of a community value system

The ultimate binding factor that affirmative action should bring about, is a community value system which should allow people to associate freely with each other (Van der Merwe, 1994:29). Apartheid has caused irreparable damage to community structures and value systems through its divide and rule policy. This has brought about mistrust and suspicion between different racial groups. Hatred and deep-seated misconceptions about each other, as South Africans have, will take some time to be totally uprooted. A discussion about debate concerning affirmative action in terms of its successes and failure will now follow.

It is only fitting to point out that all South Africans should now start to value and appreciate their classical value system which encompasses hard work, discipline, self-control and respect for work, family and community at large (Van der Merwe, 1994:29). This objective can be achieved through education and training programmes, which will equip people with knowledge and skills in order to better their existence.

2.4 DEBATE ABOUT AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The success of affirmative action would depend on sound human interpersonal relationships.

Affirmative action is complicated and sensitive (Dludlu, 1994:2). There are arguments for, as well as against, affirmative action as a reform mechanism in education. Like two sides of the same coin, these arguments will be
discussed separately to shed some light in the understanding of affirmative action.

A discussion about the debate concerning affirmative action in terms of its successes and failures now follows.

2.4.1 Debate for affirmative action

- Affirmative action looks at ways and means on every level of education, living standard, job security and economic viability of bringing the disadvantaged communities to a level of equity (Sonn, 1994:10).

- Affirmative action aims at redressing injustices of the past by making compensation in the present (Boulle, 1988:4).

- Affirmative action would ultimately render the colour criterion irrelevant in appointment procedures while it proactively fosters attributes of accountability, openness, competency, efficiency, non-sexism and equity. To ensure its success the government can legislate in favour of affirmative action (Ngutshane, 1994:18).

- Affirmative action would ensure a more realistic reflection of society in any institution (Boulle, 1988:4).

- Affirmative action would realise the fact that the employment patterns in government institutions should represent the demographic make-up of the country (Ngutshane, 1994:17).

- Affirmative action is the only instrument, which can ensure that the racial profile of the management cadre is changed (Human, 1990:283).

- Outsider groups can be integrated into the social system for the general welfare of the society (Boulle, 1988:4).

- Through affirmative action, previously marginalised groups and individuals can be effectively developed through education and training (Ngutshane, 1994:16).

- Affirmative action can ensure visible inclusion of targeted groups and promotion of their placement in strategic planning and locations (Claassen, 1993b:81).
Correctly applied affirmative action is a value-governed and morally principled way of redressing social wrongs (Nell & Van Staden, 1988:19).

Affirmative action is an effective way of ensuring that individuals and groups who would otherwise be lost to society and the economy can realise their full potential (Claassen, 1993b:81).

Through affirmative action enrolments at educational institutions have increased, economic progress has been achieved, and disadvantaged groups have gained political power (Claassen, 1993b:81).

Affirmative action should take place at the selection or recruitment stage only, thereafter all employees should have the opportunity to develop their potential and to move up in the organisation on merit and in accordance with career and succession plans (Human, 1990:283).

Since the concept of minority group means different things in different countries and against different backgrounds, an explanation is therefore necessary. In South Africa, unlike in the United States, the minority in terms of power and privilege, constitutes a large majority in terms of vested interests (Boulle, 1988:6). Minority here means a disadvantaged group that was historically barred from participation in political, economic and educational opportunities. In this case, blacks, women and the disabled are the ones who were not allowed participation in the wealth of their countries. Specifically speaking, blacks and women constitute the numerical majority in South Africa. In short, the concept minority group should rather be replaced by target group to dispel misunderstanding.

2.4.2 Debate against affirmative action

Although affirmative action is aimed at eradicating gender and race discrimination, it still uses the same criteria of race and gender to promote its target (Claassen, 1993b:82).

Affirmative action counterbalances the principle of equal treatment under the law, in that this would be nothing else but positive discrimination (Wang, 1990:191).

A negative outcome of affirmative action might be that of a possibility of non-target group backlash (Hilliard, 1993:19).
• Even though affirmative action programmes may be aimed at protecting or enhancing individual rights, in practice it is inevitably couched in terms of group rights (Claassen, 1993b:82). The unfairness that arises is that all members of a disadvantaged group may claim preferential treatment in terms of an affirmative action programme, even though some individuals may not be disadvantaged at all (Madi, 1993:iv).

• Affirmative action programmes may be economically unattainable because their implementation would require substantial financial support, especially from the state (Claassen, 1993b:82). This would be difficult if not impossible to attain in South Africa where the disadvantaged groups are a numerical majority. Given the financial constraints, even a well-disposed authority will be hard-pressed to establish complete educational equality in the immediate future (Claassen, 1993b:90).

• Affirmative action could be merely reduced to advancement programmes for the disadvantaged, hence tokenism, instead of pro-actively developing human resources (Ngutshane, 1994:17).

• Although preferential programmes are defined as temporary, they often not only persist but also expand in scope even beyond the cut-off point (Claassen, 1993:82).

• Affirmative action leads to incompetence and a lowering of standards in so far as it tolerates the filling of positions by unqualified appointees (Claassen, 1993b:82).

• The qualifications and achievements of targeted individuals and groups are considered suspect by both the non-preferred and preferred groups because of affirmative action (Claassen, 1993b:83).

• The indiscriminate use of affirmative action could become counterproductive if preferential treatment is perceived as reverse discrimination by the disfavoured groups (Hilliard, 1993:19). Therefore an unfair handicap is placed on individuals who are deprived of opportunities they deserve on merit (Claassen, 1993b:82).
2.5 CONCLUSION

It is clear from the preceding paragraphs that there is no absolute goodness or badness concerning affirmative action programmes. In other words, it is a mixture of arguments. Although some programmes of affirmative action have been successful in improving the educational and economic position of targeted groups, other programmes have been a failure. Affirmative action should be viewed as one of the many ways of attempting to redress injustices of the past but not as a blueprint for success. In other words, there will be pitfalls in affirmative action programmes because affirmative action cannot be a fail-safe panacea of all social ills. It is not affirmative action as such that is at fault, but the way and spirit in which it is being implemented.

It might sound paradoxical to say that affirmative action is to be viewed as a necessary evil if South Africans are serious about a fundamental change in the structural make-up of our society. Affirmative action programmes in the United States have been highly successful it seems, in improving the educational, employment and welfare positions of blacks, women and other socially disadvantaged groups. Even the poverty level in terms of socio-economic status of blacks decreased from 45% to about 30%. As a result of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and other court verdicts, concerted efforts including bussing of learners, were made to bring about proportional representation in all spheres of life. The result was that of increment in enrolments due to open opportunities access to institutions of learning by all means.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter an introduction to the nature of affirmative action was given as well as a concise account of the definition of some key concepts like affirmative action, mechanism, education, education system and reform.

The nature of affirmative action in terms of arguments for and against affirmative action was also discussed. It is from that discussion that one can deduce a two-fold nature of affirmative action, just like two sides of the same coin.

Debate for affirmative action cannot and should not be absolutised at the expense of debate against affirmative action. The opposite is equally true. In
fact the two arguments should supplement and enrich each other. Literature study revealed that affirmative action could be a good remedy for addressing injustices of the past provided it is not implemented indiscriminately. On the other hand, however, it should not be regarded as the absolute panacea for wrongs of society.

Factors influencing affirmative action based on its approaches will be discussed in Chapter 3.
CHAPTER 3
FACTORS INFLUENCING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM OF EDUCATION REFORM

3.1 INTRODUCTION
According to the Department of Education (hereinafter DE), the government of the day has given a clear constitutional mandate to pass laws aimed at promoting affirmative action in education and to allocate resources in education on an affirmative action basis in the new democratic South Africa (SA, 1995b:37).

It is to this effect that factors, which might influence the possible implementation of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa, should be exploited. Two approaches, namely the viewpoint of factors aimed at the equality of opportunity, as well as the viewpoint of factors aimed at the equality of result, are discussed.

Hopefully, insight and foresight might dawn out of the deliberations aimed at affirmative action as a reform mechanism in South Africa, because of the sensitive nature of affirmative action.

3.2 FACTORS AIMED AT EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY
Given the South African legacy of the past, with its imbalances in education circles, a mechanism in the form of affirmative action is advocated in order to redress these imbalances. Factors aimed at equality of opportunity will now be discussed. These factors are pro-active in nature. Pro-active in this case means that an atmosphere conducive to a smooth acceptance of affirmative action as a remedial factor for injustices of the past is created. In other words, a situation is created where events are caused to happen rather than reacting to events, which are already caused.

3.2.1 Parity in spending
Education provision should be for all South Africans and not for certain privileged groups only. It is a known fact that the legacy of apartheid has brought about a great disparity in funding of education.

According to Behr (1984:312), spending on black education was disproportionately low and on white education disproportionately high during the pre-democratic era. Hence, in the democratic era the government is constitutionally doing everything to provide equal education for all (Claassen, 1995:489).
Steyn and Van der Westhuizen (1993:37) point out that, even though disparities in the per capita expenditure on education should be blamed on the apartheid system, apartheid is not the only reason for the disparities in the funding of education between black and white. It is more likely not even the major reason. There are other possible factors contributing to disparity in education funding.

These reasons, among others, include the fact that the black population has a much larger proportion of children in primary school than the white population. Since the spending is lower in primary than in secondary schools, the average spending for all pupils will be lower for blacks than for whites (Behr, 1984:312). Behr continues to point out that there are also differences in the salary scales and qualifications of teachers and differences in the number of pupils per teacher, which have a bearing on the unit cost per pupil (1984:312).

Vos and Brits (1990:57) state that the expenditure (capital expenditure for the maintenance of buildings excluded) for the financial year 1979/80 for white primary and secondary pupils was R534 and R960 per capita respectively against R92 and R459 per capita for black pupils. Obviously this was a huge and unacceptable disparity in education funding.

Behr (1984:312) supports Vos and Brits by indicating that, in the financial year 1978/79, no less than 64.5% was spent on education for whites, whereas only 16.4% was spent on the education for blacks. 12.7% was spent on the education for coloureds and 6.3% was spent on the education of Indians.

It is to be noted that the fact that South Africa appeared to be spending more on education should be understood against the background that the bulk of the total public spending on education was apportioned to whites (Behr, 1984:312).

This skewed funding will be put to rest because the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act 84 of 1996) stipulates that the state must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis. This is to ensure proper exercise of the rights of learners to education, and the redress of past inequalities in education provision (SA, 1996b:24).

The imbalance in annual per capita spending by various ethnically defined education departments which were creations of segregated education, does not constitute equal opportunity for all (Claassen, 1993b:76).
Rationalisation of inefficient education spending, among others, would have to be undertaken in order to make more money available for more deserving projects, such as improved instructional material, the provision of more classrooms and teacher training facilities (Claassen, 1993b:76).

The new education system has drafted the Schools' Education Bill document (dated 24 April 1996) to address the imbalance in the financing of education before enacting it. Given the financial constraints, future parity in education spending would necessitate, among others, the reduction in per capita spending on white education (Claassen, 1993b:76).

Because inequality is so deep-rooted in our educational history and dominates the present provision of schooling, a new policy for school provision must unavoidably be a policy for increasing access and retention of black learners. This means achieving equity in public funding, eliminating illegal discrimination, creating democratic governance, rehabilitating schools and raising the quality of performance (SA, 1995a:67).

These points are enshrined in the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996), namely that everyone has the right to both basic and further education, which the state must make progressively available and accessible.

Furthermore, the basis of financial allocations to different categories of state and state-aided schools must be equitable and transparent, aimed at eliminating historical disparities based on race and religion and ensuring an acceptable quality of education (SA, 1995b:4). The state is therefore obliged to allocate sufficient funds to public schools to ensure that every South African learner is provided with basic education as one of the fundamental rights.

The South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act 84 of 1996) mentions that a public school must admit learners and serve its educational requirement without unfairly discriminating in any way (SA, 1996b:6). This statement concurs with the principle of equality as embodied in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) that no person (or the state) may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against anyone.

Until 1994, South Africa had fifteen different ministries of education. Four were in independent homelands and six in the self-governing territories. One was responsible for education for blacks (the Department of Education and Training).
There were also one in each of the three tricameral houses of parliament namely the House of Assembly for whites, the House of Delegates for Indians and the House of Representatives for coloureds. The last one for the Department of National Education was responsible for co-ordination and establishing countrywide norms and standards (SA, 1995b:15).

According to Vos and Brits (1990:66), the former tricameral parliament was formed in terms of the Republic of South Africa Constitution, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983) which provided:

- House of Assembly consisting of 178 white members;
- House of Representative consisting of 85 coloured members; and

These ethnic administrative divisions were reinforced by the inequalities between the resources available to departments catering for different race groups. So was the quality of education. The schools catering for whites were at the top of the quality scale, followed by those catering for Indians, coloureds and blacks. Hence the per capita expenditure on whites was approximately four times that of blacks (SA, 1995b:15).

The Department of Education, in its first White Paper on Education and Training (dated 15 March 1995), proposes three options to finance performing schools. These options are now discussed - but not in order of their merit.

3.2.1.1 The minimalist-gradualist approach
A more radical redistribution of the non-personnel residue could be achieved by allocating these resources on an affirmative action basis, linked to index of needs (SA, 1995b:69). This would mean maintaining amongst others a model school closely resembling Model C schools, with some of their governance powers reduced and permitting many more schools from ex-departments to follow suit. The choice would be left to individual schools, and it could be anticipated that it would be mainly middle-class parents who would select this option (SA, 1995b:68).

According to the Education White Paper 2 on School Organisation, Governance and Funding of 1996, dated 14 February, the system of schools known as Model C schools was introduced under own affairs dispensation of the previous government in terms of the Education Affairs Act, 1988 (Act 70 of 1988 of the House of Assembly). Part of the Model C arrangements included the recognition of the school...
as legal persona (SA, 1996c:43). In April 1992, the schools were converted from state to state-aided schools with the department of education concerned being responsible for salaries of teachers (but not the teachers' appointment, since governing bodies became their employers). The governing bodies are responsible for the raising of all other recurrent costs, through mandatory fee charges or other means (SA, 1996c:44).

These schools and their governing bodies, being juristic persons, could obtain ownership of their grounds and buildings in the Model C sense, and could use these to generate additional resources (SA, 1995b:69). This option would become a meaningful possibility only if clear commitment to a more equitable distribution of resources could be demonstrated. Equity could involve the equalisation of all non-personnel expenditure allocations to all schools. These changes would need to be phased in over time.

3.2.1.2 The equitable school-based formula approach

Proponents of this option would argue that efficiency can best be enhanced through purposeful and concerted efforts to raise the level of quality in the system overall, particularly in under-resourced schools (SA, 1995b:70).

Heavy emphasis is placed on equity and redress, and concern is expressed that arguments about maintaining high levels of resourcing to support higher quality in parts of the system should not be used to block or delay the urgent task of resource reallocation (SA, 1995b:70).

This option proceeds from the premise that the achievement of per capita equity in the allocation of budgetary resources to schools has to be a fundamental objective of the process of educational transformation (SA, 1995b:70). The starting point of this option is to determine, initially on a gross equal per capita basis, what the state is able to afford by way of funding to each eligible child in the compulsory phase. This amount is then used as the basis for determining a formula for funding each individual public school, making due allowance, amongst other things, for affirmative action and redress (SA, 1995b:70).

3.2.1.3 The partnership funding approach

This approach seeks to achieve a balance between the demands of four key principles, namely attaining equity, redressing past imbalances, advancing quality and improving efficiency (SA, 1995b:72).
A key assumption is that the provision of quality schooling for all at no cost to parents and communities is not affordable from the resources currently allocated by the state for education. The problem is acute, particularly during the transition when the phasing-in of equitable funding allocations will have to take place at the same time, as additional expenditure will be required to redress the effects of decades of discrimination and neglect (SA, 1995b:72).

This approach consists of public schools in a partnership between state and community, and proposes a framework for partnership funding which attempts to balance the concerns of equity, redress, quality and efficiency (SA, 1995b:72). An allocation of Education Redress Fund would channel resources for reconstruction and quality improvement to schools, which have been disadvantaged by past policies. Steps are to be taken to reduce the disparity in average teacher costs between schools (SA, 1995b:73). This can be achieved over time through a strategy to restructure teacher salary scales to reduce the rigid linkage between qualifications and salary, to provide for incentives to promote the redistribution of teachers, and to upgrade under-qualified teachers already in the system (SA, 1995b:73).

This approach recognises that the implementation of an obligatory school fee is in conflict with policy commitments to free and compulsory schooling. The first provision is that no child can be excluded from the compulsory education phase or prejudiced in any way on the basis of non-payment of obligatory fees by a parent. The implication is that schooling will be fee-free for those who cannot afford to pay for it, while those who can afford will be required to make a contribution towards operating costs of providing a reasonable level of education (SA, 1995b:74).

The major principle is a commitment to equitable total expenditure on basic operating costs for each child. It is proposed that the fee be set on a sliding scale based on family income, with the fee zero-rated at the lower end. There is an incentive for schools to ensure maximum fee payment. This approach assumes that payment of fees will be a legal obligation, and legal penalties can be imposed on those parents who give false declarations of family income category, or who fail to pay the assessed fee (SA, 1995b:76). The whole approach assumes that it will be introduced as part of a campaign to promote community school relations and community support for schools (SA, 1995b:77).
3.2.2 Compulsory education

The previous status of compulsory education for the four main population groups, namely whites, coloureds, Indians and blacks was inherently unequal though it was statutorily mandated (Behr, 1988:104). The fact of compulsory education is that it was universally adhered to only in the cases of white and Indian education, to a lesser extent in coloured education, while it remained elusive in black education (Claassen, 1993b:77).

The shocking research findings are that, in spite of statutory measures to enforce compulsory education, it was estimated that one and a half million black children of school-going age were not attending school in 1991. In some rural communities as many as 30% of black children were not at school (Landman, 1992:37). This state of affairs is unacceptable and needs to be corrected.

However, the reality is that, given the current financial constraints in South Africa, free compulsory education up to the end of the secondary school phase would not be feasible (Claassen, 1993b:76). Different alternatives have to be exploited to correct the injustice created by the legacy of the past.

Equality of opportunity would not exist if education were to be compulsory for only a segment of the population (Claassen, 1993b:77). This was previously the case, because the compulsory school attendance for whites was from seven to sixteen years, for coloureds it depended on areas where sufficient and suitable school accommodation was available, for Indians it was from six to fifteen. For blacks it was compulsory from sub-standard A to standard four on condition that communities concerned were prepared to accept both the principle and the concomitant responsibility (Behr, 1988:104).

It would thus be fitting to view compulsory education as an affirmative action programme aimed at redressing a past imbalance. It would be the responsibility of the state to fund compulsory education to be free to every child, since education is a right for every child.

Basic education is thus a legal entitlement to which every person has a claim (SA, 1995a:40). For children, the right would be satisfied by the availability of schooling facilities sufficient to enable every child to begin and complete a basic education programme of acceptable quality (SA, 1995a:40).
The urgent priority has been to begin meeting the commitment to free and compulsory general education in a way that is seen by the people as both fair and necessary, even if this involves the encouragement of voluntary contributions by parents to school development funds to supplement the state provision (SA, 1995a:63).

Compulsory education will also provide a legal instrument to prevent the exploitation of child labour at the expense of the child's education. The constitution obliges the state, parents and others who might have such authority to uphold the rights of the child to education (SA, 1995a:76).

It might be necessary to explain the two elements of compulsory education, namely compulsory provision of education and compulsory school attendance.

Compulsory education provision means that the state is required to ensure that educational opportunities of acceptable quality are available to every child for the general education period (SA, 1995a:76).

This means that no child can be denied access to schooling for the compulsory period. The operational principle is that the right of access applies to publicly funded schools nearest the child's home.

In the same breath, compulsory school attendance means that the law provides a legal obligation on the parents of children covered by the compulsory education period to ensure that children covered by the compulsory education period attend school for that period (SA, 1995a:76).

The South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act 84 of 1996) specifies that every parent must cause every learner for whom he or she is responsible to attend a school from the first school day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of seven years until the last day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of fifteen years or the ninth grade, whichever occurs first (SA, 1996b:6).

3.2.3 Unified education system
The apartheid education policy had brought about segregated education institutions, hence an unequal education provision for different racial groups. Claassen (1993b:77) emphasises the fact that the education system of South Africa was fragmented into fifteen education departments, which were primarily ethnically based and secondarily geographically divided. It is to this effect that the previously
disadvantaged groups perceived the fragmented structure as major obstacle to educational and social enhancement.

The new single school system, infused with democracy, which came into being after the national general elections in April 1994, ensured that the evil segregated education of the apartheid era is foreverpast.

Demography and language play a role in the type of institutions we have in the country. It is, however, true that racial factors play a role too. Racism is still rife in the education system. For example, in the white farming areas, the farm schools have been and continue to be schools meant for the children of workers but not for the children of white farmers.

The resources available to schools are to a large extent determined by the department that used to control them. These departments were organised along racial and ethnic lines and the schools that they ran are still largely attended by children of the same racial or ethnic groups (SA, 1995b:26). In short, despite the fact that some black children have been admitted to the schools formerly reserved for whites, coloureds and Indians, today a child's race is still one of the major determinants of the educational opportunities available to him or her in South Africa (SA, 1995b:26).

3.2.4 Support programmes
The education phenomenon is not an independent entity but needs different support programmes in different forms to enable education to achieve its aims. Academic backlogs of the past need to be addressed. Boulle (1988:6) cites some of the examples, which might help to redress the imbalances of the past, namely:

- medium of instruction support - for instance English for non-English speakers where English is the medium of instruction,
- additional tuition in mathematics and science,
- a bridging year for pre-primary pupils,
- pre-tertiary bridging programmes, and
- large scale adult and non-formal education programmes.
Due to separate and unequal education provision in the past, many South Africans, especially blacks, were excluded from the mainstream of proper education. This resulted into many adults and youth being illiterate or semi-literate. The launching of one of the presidential lead projects of Adult Basic Education and Training was necessitated by these circumstances (Alfreds, 1995:7). It will suffice to view this project as a form of support programme.

The amount of R300 million will see the National Student Financial Aid Scheme getting off the ground to help needy students in tertiary institutions with loans and bursaries (Alfreds, 1995:7).

A further R4,8 billion in subsidies have been announced by the Minister of Education which will hopefully help about 36 tertiary institutions that are currently reeling under heavy student debts of about R304,5 million (Mecoamere, 1997:2). The South African Student Congress feel that the aid is still too minimal and call for the government to boost the National Student Financial Aid Scheme with extra R166 million in order to pay off their debts (Mecoamere, 1997:2).

Another form of support programme would be financial assistance to the disadvantaged, such as exemption from paying tuition fees or provision of either free or subsidised school residential facilities and transport services (Claassen, 1993b:79). To correct this situation, the state launched the student loan scheme to aid the needy students (Alfreds, 1995:7). Fifteen percent of the national education budget (about R4,77 billion) has been channelled towards reducing inequalities in schools and injecting funds into poorer schools (Alfreds, 1995:7).

Boulle (1988:7) proposes that human support programmes should be aimed at addressing some of the personal and cultural problems encountered by under-prepared students. For instance, student counsellors may help students with study methods, course choice and adaptation problems of disadvantaged students. High failure rate among first year students as well as high dropout rate at tertiary institutes, will be minimised or stopped.

General support programmes provide indirect financial assistance and other support forms to the disadvantaged, for example, free stationery and textbooks, milk and food schemes at schools (Claassen, 1993b:79).

Special education offered by specialist teachers and other education support services personnel like school social workers, psychological and counselling
services are available in schools in the former House of Delegates, House of Assembly and House of Representatives (SA, 1995b:24). Historically, in black schools, there has been little commitment to provide services in mainstream classes for children with special needs. Therefore, services are virtually non-existent in schools where the majority of black learners are enrolled, despite the fact that half of all black learners who enter school do not pass grade seven after seven years (SA, 1995b:24).

Black schools receive minimal, if any, access to services, and rural areas are the most neglected (SA, 1995b:25). This severe neglect is of even greater concern when one considers that black children, mainly as a result of apartheid policies, are more vulnerable to poor developmental outcomes, especially those associated with poor living conditions like malnutrition and undernutrition, diseases, breakdown of the family, single parenting, female-headed households and violence. In many communities across race groups, the unique needs of girls are not taken into consideration despite the fact that they are often discriminated against, abused and neglected (SA, 1995b:25).

Generally, parents, teachers, learners, the disabled community, disabled people’s organisations and support staff, such as therapists, have no representation on governance structures (SA, 1995b:25).

It is essential that teachers be helped to develop the expertise and skills that will enable them to stimulate learning. It is necessary to ensure that children have sufficient textbooks and instructional material. The physical facilities of schools must provide a decent environment for learning. Many of our schools are in a state of disrepair. Many are in ruins. Furthermore, many more lack basic furniture, storage space, electricity, a safe water supply, toilets, a school library, laboratories, workshops and recreational facilities (SA, 1995a:74).

The state has an obligation in terms of education provision policy to ensure that students have access to basic teaching materials such as syllabuses, teachers’ guides and an appropriate range and level of other resources including reference material (SA, 1995a:77).

3.2.5 Curriculum restructuring

It is a fact that under a single and unified national education system there should be a single core curriculum, which reflects the cultural diversity of the rainbow nation of South Africa. The curriculum should take into account common cultural values,
norms and standards cherished by the community it serves so that it can be relevant. An alien curriculum does not afford equality of opportunity to pupils whose culture is not reflected in the curriculum (Claassen, 1993b:79). Historically neglected aspects of other cultural groups should be clustered and reflected in the core curriculum for every community to select those cultural values, which they deem important.

The governing bodies of all schools funded by the state are prohibited from organising compulsory religious education classes and religious observances at those schools. Voluntary religious observances, however, should be conducted on an equitable basis (SA, 1995b:37). The governing bodies of all schools funded by the state are prohibited from discriminating unfairly on grounds of race, gender, sex, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture or language (SA, 1995b:37).

Curriculum 2005 as announced by the Minister of Education, will equip students with specific skills and responsibility to contribute towards education reform (Hartley, 1997:4). Hartley continues to point out that this curriculum 2005 will have eight learning areas.

South Africans might learn from the American education system in the ensuing paragraphs that one of the goals of the Civil Rights movement of 1964 was to attack racial discrimination in educational settings (Forster, 1999:253). As a result successful intensive Civil Rights campaigns, which originated in Detroit, Michigan and Newmark in New Jersey, forced publishers to eliminate racial biases in their printing companies. Textbooks not only illustrated the history content transmitted to the learners but they also offered a window into the dominant values and beliefs of the established groups in any given period throughout the world since textbooks convey social, cultural, political and economic artifacts (Forster, 1999:253).

Indeed, racist attitudes and condescending descriptions of Indians and Negroes pervaded American textbooks written before the 1960's that were based on the Americanisation policy – introduced on 15 May 1915 by President Woodrow Wilson, which propagated the message that there was no place for distinctive ethnic groups in America (Forster, 1999:275). Understandably, therefore, history textbooks stressed unity over fragmentation, nationhood over ethnicity and common experience over diversity.
By the 1960's textbooks had transformed from scarcely mentioning blacks and other minorities in the 1940's, to containing substantial multicultural and feminist components in the 1980's. But still, general treatment of other minority groups did not improve despite an increased coverage of other ethnic groups in textbooks. Rather, portrayal of racial injustices and discrimination as conscious acts perpetuated by white society appeared in textbooks as amorphous problems for America (Forster, 1999:272).

Couts (1996:28) asserts that particular attention in curriculum re-design should be given to the overriding issue of relevance which should strive for a better balance between academic and practical subjects, and between education and work so that learners can be better prepared for their roles in society. New subjects or learning programmes must include technology and entrepreneurship in addition to maths and science. Relevance also means incorporating and acknowledging the learners' experience of life and work into the curriculum so that they can begin to reflect upon their circumstances, formulate solutions to problems and enjoy access to a greater variety of post-school opportunities (Couts, 1996:29).

The implication is that if learners do not see themselves in the literature, history or geography that they learn, they will never identify with the subject matter and make it their own. For this reason, it is strongly proposed that all teacher education and training courses should incorporate modules, which sensitise the consciences of students in the crucial areas of race, gender, religion and class. Curriculum construction is therefore an intensely political activity – full of value political judgements about what is possible, desirable, important and expedient.

3.2.6 Service programmes for teachers

In-service programmes for under-qualified teachers are an example of service programmes aimed at redressing the discriminating imbalances of the past (Claassen, 1993b:79). The in-service programmes would try to bring on par the expertise of black teachers to that of their white counterparts. The damage done by one apartheid system that was aimed at preparing blacks to be choppers of wood and drawers of water was irreparable (Christie & Collins, 1991:61). In-service programmes are expected to give new knowledge and skills to teachers in employment. Subject advisory services and programmes aimed at helping learners with special needs will provide service to teachers.
3.3 FACTORS AIMED AT EQUALITY OF RESULT

Should a soft approach, namely factors aimed at equality of opportunity fail, then focus will be on a hard approach, also known as factors aimed at equality of result. This approach is heavily criticised because of its reactive nature. A discussion now follows wherein these factors aimed at equality of result are exploited.

3.3.1 Reservation of positions

In view of the serious under-representation of some groups in managerial, teaching and administrative posts, a variety of education posts may be reserved for historically disadvantaged groups (Claassen, 1993b:80). Claassen further points out that the top political education post might be held by a member of a historically disadvantaged group. Which is indeed so.

Black managers should not only be appointed in positions where they are responsible for blacks only. They should be given positions with real authority and power. No white male should be employed unless a suitable black or female is not available (Ferndale, 1993:3). Specific job categories should be targeted for black employees first.

The fact that affirmative action is mostly conceptualised as the advancement of blacks will inevitably lead to the maintenance of the status quo for women and disabled people (Ferndale, 1993:3).

Luhabe (1993:8) purports that it could be dangerous to define the policies rigidly in terms of reservations and quotas because the previously favoured groups might become resentful. Therefore, the framework must determine who the real beneficiaries should be and what the benefits would be.

Opening up the civil service, education, health and other departments, getting jobs should not mean appointing unqualified persons simply on the basis of colour or gender (Sachs, 1992:65). Sachs continues to view affirmative action programmes as essentially aimed to give special support to people who have been kept out of qualifications in the past to acquire them now. Sachs further asserts that blackness should never become a property right in itself as whiteness became, nor should whiteness continue to have the superiority stature it presently enjoys.

Sachs (1992:65) argues that race and gender can be relevant elements amongst others in deciding on appointments, but only if the candidates satisfy all least basic requirements for the position. Sachs continues to state that merit principles should
not be abolished, but applied in a more sensitive way, whereby special efforts are made in search for the widest range of candidates and to give training to those who have been disadvantaged.

Unlike Sachs, Qunta (1995:19) points out that relative to black men and women, white women had unhindered access to the best educational institutions in the country where they had an exposure to economic, education and health prosperity simply because of being part of a privileged minority group. Qunta proceeds to argue that white women were not hampered in their careers by the burden of raising a family because, unlike their counterparts in the Western world, most had at their disposal very cheap domestic labour.

It is important to understand that Qunta does not argue that white women should not benefit from affirmative action programmes, but should benefit only where it will not further disadvantage a black person. In fact, Qunta points out that there is no reason why, for instance, when a suitable black candidate is not available, or is undergoing training, a white woman should not be given preference over a white man. In the past she would have been overlooked on account of sexist attitudes (Qunta, 1995:19).

3.3.2 Enrolment quotas and targets

It is necessary to start by clarifying that quotas are not the same as targets (Qunta, 1995:21). According to Innes (1993:17), a target is a goal which management voluntarily sets for itself to reach, whereas a quota is externally imposed. The target set should be realistic in the sense that it must take account of the available staff, the opportunities for skills development and the environmental pressures on the company.

A warning is, however, sounded that, if management finds during the course of the year that it is not likely to reach its target for the year, it should not force the pace unduly, but should rather investigate where problems lie and try to ease them (Innes, 1993:17). Hence management must provide periodic affirmative action report-back to all employees, in which they publicise their targets and evaluate the progress of programmes, as secrecy will breed mistrust and suspicion.

Claassen (1993b:80) is of the opinion that, even though specific quotas may not be fixed, goals for the appointment of targeted groups may be set.
Moreover, section 8(3) of the 1993 interim Constitution of the RSA, Act 200 of 1993 specifically permits the application of measures, which would include special admission regulations, which are designed to remedy the effect of past discrimination (SA, 1995a:41).

Targets and not quotas are necessary to address the racial imbalances in the organisational structures. They are important as they help to focus managerial action and make it possible to monitor progress. Targets should be revised at least on an annual basis (Ferndale, 1993:2).

According to Campanella (1993:27), if an employer is serious about changing the racial and sexual composition of the workforce, then for instance, if two or more job applicants have the required merit and capacity, the member of the disadvantaged group should be employed. This means, in effect, that no white male should be employed or promoted if there is a suitable black or woman candidate in the competition with him, no matter how well qualified he might be and even if he is the best man for the job (Campanella, 1993:27). It is in this view of Campanella that one must look carefully at the issue of goals, timetables and quotas.

Campanella (1993:27) continues that when an employer decides that blacks and women are under-represented in his/her workforce and wishes to change that situation, he may do so in a rigid manner or more flexibly. The simplest way to attempt representativeness is to set a quota - for example 30% of the workforce in the job category must be black. Perhaps some timetables and quotas must be met in two years. This quota and timetable can be met most effectively by not employing white males until the set objective is achieved.

The criticism against quotas is that its rigidity places great pressure on the employer to fill the numbers (Campanella, 1993:27). This may lead to a drop in standards, for example people are employed but cannot perform adequately due to a lack of skills or orientation. Also, quotas carry the potential to create a stigmatising effect that prejudices those people who possess genuine merit. In addition, the quota, if set too low, places an artificial upper limit on the number of blacks and women who can be employed (Campanella, 1993:27).

Unlike quotas, targets or goals represent the more flexible approach. In the system the employer sets a target in terms of numbers of blacks and women it wishes to employ over an appropriate period of time. But both the target and the timetable are reviewable to take account of the shifting job market and economic climate.
Campanella proceeds to state that it is therefore easier to be sensitive and realistic about skilled shortages without necessarily compromising standards. There is also a better chance of avoiding the stigma problem when targets and not quotas are used in addressing the issue of integration.

The Black Management Forum suggests that organisations could consider success of their affirmative action plans when 30% of management at all levels are black (McGregor & McGregor, 1993:8). This forum proceeds to state that the affirmative action process could be stopped when this level is reached since sufficient momentum would have been achieved to ensure that the process of reform cannot be reversed and therefore there will be sufficient role models for the future within the workforce.

Quotas should never be the main means of redressing the injustices and inequalities created by apartheid (Sachs, 1992:63).

In the short term, however, quotas and timetables could have an important role to play, if they are well targeted, neatly tailored, participatory, limited in duration and do not unduly trample on the rights of others (Sachs, 1992:66). In other words, quotas should be used in a skilful, resolute and sensitive manner and, as a last resort, where there is no alternative.

According to Qunta (1995:37), figures alone are not sufficient to measure the success of affirmative action, but they do say a lot about an institution. The climate within the institution, where individuals are allowed to perform and advance, is more important as a mere head count (Qunta, 1995:38). Employers may well focus on members and be prepared to improve them. However, enough attention should also be given to creating a climate inside institutions of employment conducive to the development of skills and potentials of target groups.

Quotas are not good in as far as the appointment of people is concerned because of their focus on numbers. But quotas are a necessary evil for employers who are not serious about affirmative action. However, affirmation of previously disadvantaged groups should not lead to tokenism. Innes (1993:15) describes tokenism as a typical response of employers who do not wish to make real changes. Innes says that tokenism occurs when an employer appoints a previously disadvantaged person not because the employer believes that the person has the necessary skills for the
position, but because the employer believes in making a good impression on the public by appointing someone belonging to a previously disadvantaged group.

There is nothing actually wrong with appointees, but rather with motives behind appointments, namely window-dressing and exploitation of appointees to deal with unpalatable measures of opposing advancement programmes that are in the interest of the community (Qunta, 1995:54).

It may be true that the use of the quota system undermines individual initiative and the competitive spirit among recipient groups, since they are ensured of job placement and advancement regardless of their individual talents or efforts. It is, however, only one of the affirmative action strategies (Innes, 1993:14). Therefore its shortcomings may not necessarily apply to other strategies or approaches. Each affirmative action approach should be considered on its merits so that we should not resort to jettisoning the whole of the affirmative action mechanism simply because of the flaws inherent in one particular strategy.

3.3.3 Enforced school integration
Claassen (1993b:80) asserts that if a degree of separation on geographic, cultural and linguistic grounds is retained in the new education dispensation, schools may still have largely mono-racial pupil bodies.

Culture and language aspects of the rainbow nation will be observed as human qualities determining the different human races, which are in the country. Education authorities may decide to actively manipulate the pupil composition at schools in order to create genuinely mixed schools and accordingly, equal opportunities (Claassen, 1993b:80).

Forced integration measures of schools may include bussing of pupils to schools of a predominate ly different race to that of pupils being bussed, as well as differentiated admission policies, which would take the multiple impeding factors for targeted groups into account (Claassen, 1993b:80). Claassen further cites an example that lower matriculation results for targeted students may be accepted as an admission standard to a tertiary institution on the grounds of disrupted school careers and the poor teaching methods to which such students were exposed.

A practical example to show that the issue of affirmative action should be handled with great sensitivity and seriousness is the Case of Grové Primary School and about 100 other schools in the Western Cape. They challenged the Education
Minister in the Cape High Court that the Education Minister placed an unlawful limitation on the school’s statutory powers to recruit and appoint teachers from the best available candidates (Jansen, 2000:91). Indeed the Court ruled that the Education Minister acted *ultra vires* in issuing resolutions with the requirements that schools summarily select teachers from redeployment lists and that he acted unconstitutionally by not following administrative procedures in changing existing policies (Jansen, 2000:9).

### 3.3.4 Enforced multicultural school staff composition

Claassen (1993b:80) has a vision that, even in a non-racial dispensation, staff composition at schools may well be largely mono-racial - white teachers at predominantly white schools and black teachers at predominantly black schools. This situation would obviously be an inequality in staff composition for non-racial South Africa. Affirmative action programmes can address this imbalance by mandating mixed staff compositions in order to attain integration (Claassen, 1993b:80). A practical example would be a quota for black staff members in the traditionally white schools and *vice versa*. This state of affairs should not be viewed as something totally new, because even in the apartheid education era, mixed staff composition used to be a reality in some schools and still is, especially in historically black schools. This was not enforced by any means, hence seemed to have worked well. Nevertheless, this status quo cannot continue without meaningful redressal to ensure a properly integrated schooling system.

However, even if all schools, which exist at present were racially integrated, this would not solve the problem of inequity. This is because of gross inequities in physical and human resource provision, and the funding and governance arrangements for the various existing school types (SA, 1995b:26). It would thus not be sufficient to change the racial composition of the school in order to bring about greater equality of educational opportunities. To do the latter it is essential to reorganise the existing school types (SA, 1995b:26).

### 3.3.5 Equality of academic results

A more extreme form of affirmative action would be to manipulate academic results in such a way that the results are on a par with those of the non-preferred groups; thus, matriculation results may be adjusted to improve the pass rate of black matriculants (Claassen, 1993b:81). This would be an extreme form of affirmative action.
The inequities in per capita spending between departments are largely due to the skewed distribution of teacher qualification, inappropriate linking of salary levels to qualifications and disparities in learner-teacher ratios. While the overall national learner-teacher ratio is below 1:35, the distribution of teachers and the absolute shortage of teachers in the technical fields will need to be addressed (SA, 1995b:64).

Repetition rates and matric pass rates are closely related to per capita expenditure. The black repetition rate in grades one and two is close to twenty percent, and the matric pass rate in former departments is unacceptably low (SA, 1995b:64).

Although the Ministry of Education is mindful of the need for each school to maintain the highest possible standard of education of which it is capable under the circumstances in which it finds itself. However, the maintenance of standards cannot under any circumstances justify admission policies which are designed, directly or indirectly, to exclude applicants from obtaining basic education to which they are entitled by right (SA, 1995a:44).

Sachs (1992:65) states that the essence of affirmative action programmes is the one of special support to people who have been kept out of qualifications in the past to acquire them now.

One of the most important things, which is often overlooked in the debate about standards and qualifications, is that many requirements for jobs are actually overstated (Qunta, 1995:27). Qunta continues to assert that potential, motivation, age and work experience, not just academic qualifications, should all be taken into account when assessing candidates.

3.4 CONCLUSION

There is no conclusive evidence from the review of literature for either factor aimed at the equality of opportunity or factors aimed at equality of result to be more effective. Depending on the situation, both approaches have a role to play in order to bring about meaningful transformation in education. Change should not only exist on paper but should permeate the minds and attitudes of people.

The discrepancies between black and white in education and skills are largely as a result of a planned strategy to disempower blacks. It is against this background that the business culture should be transformed in such a way that it tolerates differences and should be supportive of affirmative action. Therefore the
identification and removal of all discriminatory practices should be a priority. Change that comes naturally is better than change that is forced. However, at any rate, change should come and should be managed effectively.

3.5 SUMMARY

This chapter was devoted to factors influencing affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. These factors are broadly divided into factors aimed at equality of opportunity as well as factors aimed at equality of result.

Depending on one’s view, these factors can be hard or soft. Since South Africa is in the developmental stage of nurturing its newly founded democracy, it seems that factors aimed at the equality of opportunity will enjoy preference to factors aimed at the equality of result to bring about smooth education transformation.

However, there is also a feeling that factors aimed at equality of opportunity will not bring about meaningful change, since these factors will perpetuate the status quo. To ensure radical transformation in education as well as social representativeness of the population, factors aimed at equality of result will bring about change. Therefore these factors seems to be supplementing each other. Different approaches of these factors have been highlighted.

The successes and failures of affirmative action in the United States of America will be discussed in Chapter 4.
CHAPTER 4
AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA: A COMPARISON

4.1 INTRODUCTION

To see how affirmative action may be dealt with internationally, one can look at how it was implemented in countries like the USA, India, Pakistan, Malaysia, Namibia and Zimbabwe. For this research the American experience is particularly meaningful, since there are some similarities between the American and the South African situation (Qunta, 1995:29). The similarities include an African component of the population, who has traditionally suffered racial discrimination, as well as other ethnic groups who were also subject to unfair practices and prejudices (Qunta, 1995:29).

There are, however, also differences:

• In the United States, black Americans are a minority, albeit the largest minority because they constitute 12% of the population

• Unlike in South Africa, racial discrimination has never been an official government policy (Qunta, 1995:29), although separation was official policy and discrimination did take place.

In this chapter the focus is on affirmative action in education in the United States of America, as well as in the Republic of South Africa. The historical background of the origin of affirmative action forms an integral component of this chapter. The successes and failures of affirmative action in education in the USA are also highlighted.

4.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN THE USA

The principle of equality of all people only became an integral part of mankind's evolving moral and political philosophy during the Enlightenment in the 18th century. The historical background of affirmative action in the USA is exploited in terms of federal government, Title VII and the fourteenth amendment as categories of affirmative action policies (Claassen, 1993b:64).

It is necessary to mention that affirmative action in the United States has gone through a number of very controversial phases. A few of these controversies
were state legislation, bussing, quotas and various lawsuits (McGregor & McGregor, 1993:16).

Racism was and still is a problem, which runs deep in American society and racial polarisation is more marked than most outsiders realise (Qunta, 1995:29). Qunta continues to point out that race riots which used to erupt periodically, such as those in Watts in the 1960's, Miami in 1980 and 1989 as well as in Los Angeles in 1992, were symptomatic of racial conflict in the United States of America. Against the backdrop of the previous paragraphs, it is necessary to scrutinise the historical background of affirmative action in the United States of America.

4.2.1 Federal Government
The history of affirmative action in the United States of America corresponds very closely with the civil rights movement in that country and the political persuasions of successive governments (Sauerman, 1995:30). In this context political persuasions mean that the American government took political decisions to bring about meaningful participation of its citizens. Special efforts had to be made to redress the exclusion of women and other marginalised groups from the workforce (Edwards, 1995:74). Sauerman (1995:30) elucidates that even though the origin of the concept of affirmative action appeared in the Labour Relations Act of 1935, the enactment of affirmative action legislation outlawing discriminatory business practices date back to 1941 when president Roosevelt issued an executive order prohibiting defence employers from discriminating against minorities.

It was only in 1954 that the doctrine of discriminatory politics was first overruled in education and it was only during the late 1950's and early 1960's that the Civil Rights Movement, under the leadership of Martin Luther King, began to alter perceptions concerning equality in American society (Sauerman, 1995:30).

Subsequent presidents issued similar orders requiring non-discrimination by federal employers, but their orders lacked meaningful enforcement mechanism and the government lacked the necessary will, hence affirmative action remained a lip service until the 1960's when concerted efforts were made to enforce the decrees (Sauerman, 1995:30).

The term affirmative action first appeared in the 1935 National Labour Relations Act with its original meaning of redressing unfair labour practices (Stewart, 1990:89). In 1961 President John F. Kennedy implemented affirmative action in Executive Order 10925 (Sauerman, 1995:30). This order went further than simply prohibiting
discrimination, to impose a duty upon private employers to engage in affirmative action to ensure that applicants were on the job without regard to race, creed, colour or nationality (Sauerman, 1995:30).

In 1965, Executive Order 11246 of President Lyndon Johnson followed, wherein federal employers agreed not to discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, colour, religion, sex or national origin. They also agreed to take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed and employees are treated without regard to their race, colour, religion, sex or national origin during employment (Qunta, 1995:29).

This Executive Order 11246 was administered by the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programmes (OFCCP) in the department of labour, which supervised the compliance review of an employer's activities. Failure of an employer to comply with the necessary requirements without justification resulted in sanctions such as debarring from bidding on future government contracts (Sauerman, 1995:31).

Increasingly, through the 1960's, executive orders were supplemented by detailed guidelines specifying when and how companies were to comply with affirmative action requirements. For example, the revised Philadelphia Plan of 1969 employed numerical goals and timetables as part of a mandatory affirmative action plan for construction employers (Sauerman, 1995:31).

By the end of the decade affirmative action programmes had developed, including the following (Sauerman, 1995:31):

- an analysis of previously disadvantaged utilisation in all job categories;
- the establishment of goals and timetables to correct historically disadvantaged under-representation; and
- the development of data collection systems and reporting plans documenting progress in affirmative action goals.

4.2.2 Title VII

At the same time that the federal government developed affirmative action enforcement mechanisms for government employers, the United States of America's Congress enacted a series of Civil Rights Acts of 1964 outlawing racial and other forms of discrimination in voting, public accommodation, employment, education and housing (Sauerman, 1995:31). The most important of these new statutes for
affirmative action was Title VII of the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 which became effective on 2 July 1965 (Sauerman, 1995:31). Sauerman's statement concurs with Claassen's statement (1993b:65) that the first explicit compulsory enactment of affirmative action anywhere in the world was Title VII of Civil Rights Acts of 1964 in the United States of America. (Claassen 1993b:65). This implies that laws before Title VII of the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 did not achieve meaningful and observable results like those achieved by Title VII. It was because of its compulsory nature and severe penalties that Title VII made an impact on the lives of Americans.

According to section 703(d) of the Civil Rights Acts of 1964, it was an unlawful employment practice for any employer labour organisation or joint labour management committee controlling apprenticeship or other training or re-training - including on-the-job training programmes - to discriminate against any individual because of sex, colour, religion or national origin in admission to, or employment in any programme established to provide apprenticeship or other training (Sauerman, 1995:31).

Originally the Civil Rights Act (1964) only applied to private employers, but with the passing of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act in 1972, it was extended to public employers as well (Sauerman, 1995:31). Title VII was administered by a five member non-partisan Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) which originally only had the power to investigate and conciliate claims of discrimination against private employers (Cottam, 1987:47).

The implication is that if conciliation was not attempted or was unsuccessful, the complainant was entitled to institute new proceedings in the federal courts (Sauerman, 1995:31). Sauerman (1995:31) also mentions that, at that stage, the commission (EEOC) had no power to litigate and only the attorney general could institute federal courts' proceedings against patterns or practices of discrimination. The powers of the EEOC in this regard were extended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, which authorised the commission to bring suit in the federal courts against private parties. The EEOC could then pass that power to litigate on the individual plaintiff (Sauerman, 1995:32).

Thus, Title VII provided judicial channels for testing and enforcing affirmative action programmes, and it became the central focus of affirmative action litigation (Sauerman, 1995:32). Between 1964 and 1981, the federal courts decided on more than 5 000 affirmative action cases brought by private litigants and by the EEOC -
moreover this figure does not include many more thousands of cases settled out of court (Sauerman, 1995:32).

4.2.3 The Fourteenth Amendment

A further source of litigating affirmative action lay in the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment - the equivalent of the fundamental right to equality embodied in Section 8(1) and (2) of the South African Interim Constitution of 1993 (Sauerman, 1995:32).

The Fourteenth Amendment states that no state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privilege or immunities of citizens of the United States of America, nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law, nor deny any persons within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the law (Sauerman, 1995:32).

The Fourteenth Amendment was designed to afford legal protection to newly freed slaves and Title VII was designed to enforce affirmative action (Sauerman, 1995:32).

4.3 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION IN THE USA

Redressing inequalities brought about by separate education policies is a great challenge. In 1954 major reform was precipitated by the case of Brown against the Board of Education which overturned the 1895 Plessy versus Fergusson separate-but-equal ruling declaring that separate educational facilities are inherently unequal and thus unconstitutional, thereby bringing an end to separate education for different race groups (Squelch, 1994:39).

In this section some of the contentious but core issues in affirming education are looked at in order to highlight the need for affirmative action programmes in education. Curriculum composition, race, gender, financial support, enrolment, learning material and teachers' expectations are some of the aspects that will be discussed in brief.

4.3.1 Affirmative action and gender

Affirmative action usually denotes the promotion of members of disadvantaged groups to positions of seniority in various walks of life so that every echelon becomes more representative of the broader population mix. Attitudes in people are so entrenched that specific gender roles are accepted without thorough questioning (De Bruyn, 1996:78). For instance, if a woman is perceived as aggressive, she may
have problems like rejection, resistance and despicable attitudes in her managerial work.

It should not come as a surprise that the situation of male domination in the USA brought about unintended results. In Chicago, it was found that more women than men left the education profession for other professions, because they viewed education as marginalising women (Hess, 1993:90). As a result of this scenario, authorities came up with a concept of education renewal in Chicago schools in order to focus and reform education for all the children of the city, no matter from which disadvantaged positions they came.

The other contributing factor to female under-representation in notable positions of leadership was that the Americans over-emphasised the issue of the American nation being at risk. The motivation behind the concept of the American nation being at risk was to reform the curriculum to be relevant and balanced (Marshall, 1993:3).

It is also worth mentioning that the concept of education reform in the USA had its negative repercussions. Girls were left confused by mixed messages leading to dropout, pregnancy and shying away from mathematics and science among others, because of the unavailability of women as role models in these subjects. In other words, the subtle message to girls was that, although they are told that they can become doctors and astronauts, they can see in their schools that women who break sex-role stereotypes encounter barriers, lack of support and marginalisation (Marshall, 1993:3).

Most girls are not encouraged to study mathematics or science, yet these subjects can provide a foundation for professional development for girls as human resource (De Bruyn, 1996:78). Lemmer (1994:16) supports the same view by mentioning that gender stereotypes in mathematics and science communicate the unspoken message that these subjects are a male domain, hence success in these subjects for girls is more likely to be attributed to luck than ability. In a proliferation of studies carried out predominantly in the USA, Western Europe and Australia, it was found that boys received overall preferential treatment during formal education despite the implementation of various equity programmes (Gilbert & Taylor, 1991:6).

According to Greyvenstein (1991:303), in the United States of America and in the Republic of South Africa, female teachers constitute two-thirds of the teaching force but are extremely under-represented in management positions.
Greyvenstein, Lemmer (1994:14) asserts that it is a world-wide phenomenon that most school teachers are females who are concentrated in pre-primary and primary school teaching and still severely under-represented in headships and other positions of leadership. Reasons for women's under-representation vary. According to an investigation conducted in the USA and elsewhere by Bell and Chase (1993:151), the factor contributing most is that men's higher gender status reinforces the identification of masculinity with highly valued professional traits. This situation male domination makes it hard for women to make inroads into the male dominated arena, though it is a breakthrough because the number of women in traditionally male dominated occupations increased. However, the increase was not dramatic. The cause of this malady rests with the people's mental attitude. Once in the workplace, many female employees encounter two types of men, namely those who do not acknowledge women's equality and those who think they do women a favour when they give them less work to do (De Bruyn, 1996:79). This is the type of male manager attitude which keeps women off the learning experience of managing. When posts become available women fail to apply because they lack the experience and the expertise of doing the job.

Concurring with male managers who deny females opportunities to learn, are white male managers who believe that white women and blacks do not have what it takes to be managers, let alone good managers. This is a fallacy because neither white women nor blacks are given a chance to prove themselves. It cannot be proven by any means that both white women and blacks are inherently different from white men since all human beings are created with innate capabilities (Adams, 1993:79).

This belief of providing women with educational opportunities was enlivened by the State of California in its Master Plan, whereby it was also enshrined that every citizenry of California has a right and is assured of a place in education regardless of colour, ethnicity, race or religious affiliation and gender (Tierney, 1997:174). This act of California set a good precedent for institutions like the University of Nebraska, which made a policy to appoint women in its faculty - in fact it was the first institution to do so.

Similarly, with student enrolment it was found that elite institutions like Harvard University enrolled 1.7% blacks in its faculty while the University of California increased black enrolment from 3.5% to 4.3% in a period of fifteen years. In the same breath, a variety of different groups also fit within the rubric of affirmative
action in individual States of America in that, for example, Massachusetts included immigrant Portuguese while Louisiana included French Acadians (Tierney, 1997:178).

Another part of the problem lies in the tendency of white managers to appoint and promote people who resemble them. This results into women having to work twice as hard to prove themselves, despite having competencies such as empathy and interpersonal skills that make women ideally suited for leadership positions (Macdonald, 1996:23). Barriers against women managers in the USA were not only covert but were also overt and physical in nature. In 1963 two young black women, Autherine Lucy and Pollie Anne Myers, had applied to the University of Alabama but were physically barred from entering the doors of the institution (Tierney, 1997:178).

The exclusion of female teachers often rests mainly on stereotyped presuppositions that women do not aspire to promotion posts (Greyvenstein, 1991:303). The mentality reinforces the perception that women teach and men control (Lemmer, 1994:4). Since women form a significant number of the population - about 70% of all black and white teachers are women (Lemmer, 1994:22) - they should be allowed to make a significant contribution in supplementing or even complementing the shortage of skills needed, but unfortunately they are ignored, neglected and under-utilised.

To rectify the situation based on misconceptions about women, radical and urgent changes have to be brought about in the form of affirmative action. Covert and overt discrimination which often accompany the employment of women teachers in terms of salary, promotion and tenure practices have to be closely scrutinised (Lemmer, 1994:14).

Throughout much of the 20th century segregated institutions existed that denied entrance to multiple groups of people. The lonely example of the Citadel in 1995, where women were officially not welcome, was commonplace less than 40 years ago throughout the academe (Tierney, 1997:178).

The faculty administration and student composition of learning institutions were overwhelmingly white men. This scenario resulted in a lack of meaningful participation in preferential activities of the institution by other racial and gender groups other than white male counterparts. Black institutions were not only segregated, but also systematically limited in curriculum and under-funded, as well as restricting access and opportunity in various fields. For instance, elite institutions
like Harvard University comprised 1.7% of blacks in its faculty of education (Tierney, 1997:177).


From Tables 4.1 and 4.2 it is evident that the largest gains for groups included under affirmative action guidelines have been by white, middle- and upper middle-class women, exemplified by the fact that in 1970 women accounted for slightly over 23% of the tenure and faculty (Tierney, 1997:177). Ten years later the percentage of women improved to 30%.

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 indicate that modest gains have been made for all categories over the last 30 years. Asian Americans have made the largest gains in terms of a group's attendance in college, followed by Hispanics (Tierney, 1997:181).

Similarly undergraduate degrees conferred in the United States during the last 20 years have become increasingly diverse, although the increases are not substantial (Tierney, 1997:181).

According to the information supplied by the National Center for Education Statistics, in 1970 women received 13.3% of the doctorates awarded and a decade later that number rose to 40% (Tierney, 1997:177). When Black American, American Indian, Asian American and Hispanic faculties, are combined, they total over 60,000. These changes are mostly due to affirmative action - not as a sole factor, but as a contributing factor (Tierney, 1997:177).

Similarly, with regard to student enrolment at the University of California, 4.3% of the student population are blacks as opposed to 3.5% fifteen years before (Tierney, 1997:177). To illustrate benefits of affirmative action since its implementation, over 15,000 black students have graduated from America's 25 highest ranked groups (Tierney, 1997:178).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEGMENT OF FACULTY</th>
<th>ALL RACES/ETHNICITIES</th>
<th>WHITE, NON-HISPANIC</th>
<th>BLACK, NON-HISPANIC</th>
<th>HISPANIC</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>AMERICAN INDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both genders</td>
<td>451,558 (100)</td>
<td>410,345 (90.9)</td>
<td>18,540 (4.1)</td>
<td>6,899 (1.5)</td>
<td>14,489 (3.2)</td>
<td>1,285 (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>330,930 (73.3)</td>
<td>303,543 (67.2)</td>
<td>10,000 (2.2)</td>
<td>4,844 (1.1)</td>
<td>11,725 (2.6)</td>
<td>818 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>120,628 (26.7)</td>
<td>106,802 (23.7)</td>
<td>8,540 (1.8)</td>
<td>2,055 (0.5)</td>
<td>2,764 (0.6)</td>
<td>467 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both genders</td>
<td>520,324 (100)</td>
<td>456,222 (87.7)</td>
<td>24,516 (4.7)</td>
<td>11,422 (2.2)</td>
<td>26,510 (5.1)</td>
<td>1,654 (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>355,111 (68.2)</td>
<td>313,205 (60.2)</td>
<td>13,056 (2.5)</td>
<td>7,353 (1.4)</td>
<td>20,481 (3.9)</td>
<td>1,016 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>165,213 (31.8)</td>
<td>143,017 (27.5)</td>
<td>11,460 (2.2)</td>
<td>4,069 (0.8)</td>
<td>6,029 (1.2)</td>
<td>648 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals. (Tierney, 1997:179)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK AND GENDER</th>
<th>ALL RACES/ETHNICITIES</th>
<th>WHITE, NON-HISPANIC</th>
<th>BLACK, NON-HISPANIC</th>
<th>HISPANIC</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>AMERICAN INDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors</td>
<td>115,210 (100)</td>
<td>107,690 (93.5)</td>
<td>2,396 (2.1)</td>
<td>1,166 (1.0)</td>
<td>3,759 (3.3)</td>
<td>199 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>103,380 (89.7)</td>
<td>97,017 (84.2)</td>
<td>1,716 (1.5)</td>
<td>977 (0.8)</td>
<td>3,507 (3.1)</td>
<td>163 (0.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>11,830 (11.0)</td>
<td>10,673 (9.3)</td>
<td>680 (0.6)</td>
<td>189 (0.2)</td>
<td>252 (0.2)</td>
<td>36 (0.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professors</td>
<td>105,584 (100)</td>
<td>96,959 (91.8)</td>
<td>3,576 (3.4)</td>
<td>1,438 (1.4)</td>
<td>3,262 (3.1)</td>
<td>349 (0.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>83,589 (79.1)</td>
<td>77,268 (73.2)</td>
<td>2,290 (2.2)</td>
<td>1,109 (1.1)</td>
<td>2,749 (2.6)</td>
<td>173 (0.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>21,995 (21.0)</td>
<td>19,691 (18.6)</td>
<td>1,286 (1.2)</td>
<td>329 (0.3)</td>
<td>513 (0.5)</td>
<td>176 (0.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professors</td>
<td>110,974 (100)</td>
<td>99,154 (89.3)</td>
<td>5,419 (4.9)</td>
<td>1,771 (1.6)</td>
<td>4,349 (3.9)</td>
<td>456 (0.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>73,810 (66.5)</td>
<td>66,270 (59.7)</td>
<td>2,749 (2.5)</td>
<td>1,204 (1.1)</td>
<td>3,390 (3.0)</td>
<td>285 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>37,164 (33.5)</td>
<td>32,884 (29.6)</td>
<td>2,670 (2.4)</td>
<td>567 (0.5)</td>
<td>959 (0.9)</td>
<td>171 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other faculty</td>
<td>119,790 (100)</td>
<td>106,542 (88.9)</td>
<td>7,149 (6.0)</td>
<td>2,524 (2.1)</td>
<td>3,119 (2.6)</td>
<td>456 (0.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>70,151 (58.6)</td>
<td>62,389 (52.5)</td>
<td>3,245 (2.7)</td>
<td>1,554 (1.3)</td>
<td>3,079 (1.7)</td>
<td>285 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>49,639 (41.4)</td>
<td>43,554 (36.4)</td>
<td>3,904 (3.3)</td>
<td>970 (0.8)</td>
<td>1,040 (0.9)</td>
<td>171 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>144,341 (100)</td>
<td>132,065 (91.5)</td>
<td>3,572 (2.5)</td>
<td>2,038 (1.4)</td>
<td>6,371 (4.4)</td>
<td>295 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>123,173 (85.3)</td>
<td>113,097 (78.4)</td>
<td>2,466 (1.7)</td>
<td>1,654 (1.2)</td>
<td>5,721 (4.0)</td>
<td>235 (0.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>21,168 (14.7)</td>
<td>18,998 (13.1)</td>
<td>1,106 (0.8)</td>
<td>384 (0.2)</td>
<td>650 (0.5)</td>
<td>60 (0.04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professors</td>
<td>116,631 (100)</td>
<td>103,918 (89.1)</td>
<td>4,942 (4.2)</td>
<td>2,107 (1.8)</td>
<td>5,391 (4.6)</td>
<td>273 (0.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>84,311 (62.3)</td>
<td>75,341 (60.4)</td>
<td>2,924 (2.5)</td>
<td>1,490 (1.3)</td>
<td>4,363 (3.7)</td>
<td>193 (0.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>32,320 (27.7)</td>
<td>28,577 (24.5)</td>
<td>2,018 (1.7)</td>
<td>617 (0.5)</td>
<td>1,928 (0.9)</td>
<td>80 (0.06)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professors</td>
<td>126,344 (100)</td>
<td>106,557 (84.3)</td>
<td>7,524 (6.0)</td>
<td>3,246 (2.6)</td>
<td>8,649 (6.8)</td>
<td>368 (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>76,129 (60.3)</td>
<td>63,573 (50.3)</td>
<td>3,884 (3.1)</td>
<td>1,964 (1.6)</td>
<td>6,511 (5.2)</td>
<td>197 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>50,215 (39.7)</td>
<td>42,984 (34.0)</td>
<td>3,640 (2.9)</td>
<td>1,282 (1.0)</td>
<td>2,138 (1.7)</td>
<td>171 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other faculty</td>
<td>133,008 (100)</td>
<td>113,682 (85.5)</td>
<td>8,476 (6.4)</td>
<td>4,031 (3.0)</td>
<td>6,099 (4.6)</td>
<td>718 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>71,462 (53.7)</td>
<td>61,194 (46.0)</td>
<td>3,782 (2.8)</td>
<td>2,245 (1.7)</td>
<td>3,886 (2.9)</td>
<td>390 (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>61,510 (46.3)</td>
<td>52,488 (39.5)</td>
<td>4,695 (3.5)</td>
<td>1,786 (1.3)</td>
<td>2,218 (1.7)</td>
<td>327 (0.2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

(Tierney, 1997:179)
### TABLE 4.3: TOTAL FALL ENROLMENT (IN THOUSANDS) IN INSTITUTIONS OF POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION BY RACE/ETHNICITY OF STUDENT: 1976-1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,968.6 (100.0)</td>
<td>12,086.8 (100.0)</td>
<td>12,233.0 (100.0)</td>
<td>13,043.1 (100.0)</td>
<td>14,491.2 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>9,071.1 (84.3)</td>
<td>9,833.0 (83.5)</td>
<td>9,814.7 (82.5)</td>
<td>10,283.2 (81.1)</td>
<td>10,870.0 (77.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>1,033.0 (9.6)</td>
<td>1,106.8 (9.4)</td>
<td>1,075.8 (9.0)</td>
<td>1,129.6 (9.9)</td>
<td>1,393.5 (9.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>383.8 (3.6)</td>
<td>471.7 (4.0)</td>
<td>534.9 (4.5)</td>
<td>680.0 (5.4)</td>
<td>654.4 (6.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>197.9 (1.8)</td>
<td>286.4 (2.4)</td>
<td>389.5 (3.3)</td>
<td>406.7 (3.9)</td>
<td>696.3 (5.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>76.1 (0.7)</td>
<td>83.9 (0.7)</td>
<td>83.6 (0.7)</td>
<td>92.5 (0.7)</td>
<td>118.8 (0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>3,326 (0.4)</td>
<td>3,593 (0.4)</td>
<td>4,246 (0.4)</td>
<td>3,951 (0.4)</td>
<td>5,671 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-resident alien</td>
<td>15,714 (1.7)</td>
<td>22,589 (2.4)</td>
<td>29,217 (3.0)</td>
<td>27,026 (2.7)</td>
<td>32,240 (2.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
(Tierney, 1997:180)

### TABLE 4.4: BACHELOR'S DEGREES CONFERRED (IN THOUSANDS) BY INSTITUTIONS OF POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION BY RACE/ETHNICITY OF STUDENT: 1976-77 TO 1992-93

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>917,900 (100.0)</td>
<td>934,800 (100.0)</td>
<td>968,311 (100.0)</td>
<td>1,016,350 (100.0)</td>
<td>1,159,931 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>807,688 (88.0)</td>
<td>807,319 (86.4)</td>
<td>826,106 (85.3)</td>
<td>859,703 (84.6)</td>
<td>947,309 (81.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>48,636 (6.4)</td>
<td>60,673 (6.5)</td>
<td>57,473 (5.9)</td>
<td>58,078 (5.7)</td>
<td>77,872 (6.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>18,743 (2.0)</td>
<td>21,832 (2.3)</td>
<td>25,874 (2.7)</td>
<td>37,674 (3.7)</td>
<td>51,463 (4.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>13,793 (1.5)</td>
<td>18,794 (2.0)</td>
<td>25,395 (2.6)</td>
<td>37,674 (3.7)</td>
<td>51,463 (4.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>3,326 (0.4)</td>
<td>3,593 (0.4)</td>
<td>4,246 (0.4)</td>
<td>3,951 (0.4)</td>
<td>5,671 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>15,714 (1.7)</td>
<td>22,589 (2.4)</td>
<td>29,217 (3.0)</td>
<td>27,026 (2.7)</td>
<td>32,240 (2.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Numbers in parentheses are percentages.
(Tierney, 1997:182)

Table 4.5 points out gender differences. Perhaps the most alarming point to be gleaned from the table concerns black men. Although the overall number of black
men going to college has increased over the last 20 years, their percentage of the college-going population has dropped (Tierney, 1997:181).

The same point may be made of white men, but of no other category for men or women. Women have increased as a percentage of the college-going population in every racial and ethnic category (Tierney, 1997:181). Hispanics, Asian American and American Indian men have also increased their participation rates, albeit not as significantly as their female counterparts. (Tierney, 1997:181).

### TABLE 4.5: TOTAL FALL ENROLMENT (IN THOUSANDS) IN INSTITUTIONS OF POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION BY RACE/ETHNICITY OF STUDENT: 1976-1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MEN</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>5,794.4 (52.4A)</td>
<td>5,808.1 (48.0)</td>
<td>5,858.3 (47.3)</td>
<td>5,998.2 (45.4)</td>
<td>6,526.1 (44.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>4,813.7 (44.7)</td>
<td>4,772.9 (40.5)</td>
<td>4,689.9 (39.4)</td>
<td>4,711.6 (37.2)</td>
<td>4,882.5 (34.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>469.9 (4.4)</td>
<td>463.7 (3.9)</td>
<td>436.8 (3.7)</td>
<td>442.7 (3.5)</td>
<td>537.1 (3.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>209.7 (1.9)</td>
<td>231.6 (2.0)</td>
<td>253.8 (2.1)</td>
<td>310.3 (2.4)</td>
<td>427.4 (3.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>108.4 (1.0)</td>
<td>151.3 (1.3)</td>
<td>210.0 (1.8)</td>
<td>259.2 (2.0)</td>
<td>351.3 (2.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>38.5 (0.4)</td>
<td>37.8 (0.3)</td>
<td>37.4 (0.3)</td>
<td>39.1 (0.3)</td>
<td>50.1 (0.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-resident alien</td>
<td>218.7 (-)</td>
<td>305.0 (-)</td>
<td>334.6 (-)</td>
<td>381.2 (-)</td>
<td>457.6 (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WOMEN</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>5,191.2 (47.6)</td>
<td>6,218.7 (52.0)</td>
<td>6,374.7 (52.7)</td>
<td>7,044.9 (54.6)</td>
<td>7,965.1 (55.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>4,262.4 (39.6)</td>
<td>5,060.1 (42.9)</td>
<td>6,374.7 (43.1)</td>
<td>7,044.9 (54.6)</td>
<td>7,965.1 (55.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>563.1 (5.2)</td>
<td>643.0 (5.5)</td>
<td>639.0 (5.4)</td>
<td>686.9 (5.4)</td>
<td>856.4 (9.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>174.1 (1.6)</td>
<td>240.1 (2.0)</td>
<td>281.2 (2.4)</td>
<td>369.0 (2.9)</td>
<td>527.1 (3.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>89.4 (0.8)</td>
<td>135.2 (1.1)</td>
<td>179.5 (1.5)</td>
<td>237.5 (1.9)</td>
<td>345.5 (2.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>37.6 (0.3)</td>
<td>46.1 (0.4)</td>
<td>46.1 (0.4)</td>
<td>53.4 (0.4)</td>
<td>68.8 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Numbers in parentheses are percentages. (Tierney, 1997:183)

Tables 4.6 and 4.7 show the specifics of where people go to college. A larger percentage of other racial groups, except whites, always have gone to two year
institutions rather than four-year institutions (Tierney, 1997:181). Over a 20-year period, it has been noticed that the pattern remains constant, although the trend seems to be that more marginalised students are going to two-year institutions.

Black students are the only racial or ethnic group that has increased its participation at four-year institutions while decreasing its attendance at two-year institutions by percentage (Tierney, 1997:182).

**TABLE 4.6: TOTAL FALL ENROLMENT (IN THOUSANDS) IN INSTITUTIONS OF POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION BY TYPE OF RACE/ETHNICITY OF STUDENT: 1976-1992**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4 YEAR INSTITUTIONS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>7,106.5</td>
<td>7,565.4</td>
<td>7,706.1</td>
<td>8,175.0</td>
<td>8,768.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>5,999.0</td>
<td>6,274.5</td>
<td>6,300.4</td>
<td>6,581.6</td>
<td>6,746.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(86.6)</td>
<td>(85.7)</td>
<td>(84.9)</td>
<td>(83.6)</td>
<td>(80.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total minority</td>
<td>931.0</td>
<td>1,049.9</td>
<td>1,123.6</td>
<td>1,291.8</td>
<td>1,663.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13.4)</td>
<td>(14.3)</td>
<td>(15.1)</td>
<td>(16.4)</td>
<td>(19.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>603.7</td>
<td>634.3</td>
<td>617.0</td>
<td>666.3</td>
<td>791.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8.7)</td>
<td>(8.7)</td>
<td>(8.3)</td>
<td>(9.4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>173.6</td>
<td>216.6</td>
<td>246.1</td>
<td>296.0</td>
<td>409.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2.5)</td>
<td>(3.0)</td>
<td>(3.3)</td>
<td>(3.9)</td>
<td>(4.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>(36.9)</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>467.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1.0)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(4.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>118.7</td>
<td>162.1</td>
<td>222/4</td>
<td>297.4</td>
<td>407.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1.7)</td>
<td>(2.2)</td>
<td>(3.0)</td>
<td>(3.8)</td>
<td>(4.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>2 YEAR INSTITUTIONS</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(100.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(80.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.*

(Tierney, 1997:184)
### Table 4.7: Total Fall Enrolment in Institutions of Post-Secondary Education by Level of Race/Ethnicity of Student: 1976-1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
<td>(100.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UNDERGRADUATE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>9,419.0</td>
<td>10,469.1</td>
<td>10,610.8</td>
<td>11,304.2</td>
<td>12,539.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>7,740.5</td>
<td>8,480.7</td>
<td>8,484.0</td>
<td>8,908.7</td>
<td>9,360.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total minority</td>
<td>1,535.3</td>
<td>1,778.5</td>
<td>1,911.0</td>
<td>2,192.4</td>
<td>2,891.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>943.4</td>
<td>1,018.8</td>
<td>994.9</td>
<td>1,038.8</td>
<td>1,281.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>352.9</td>
<td>433.1</td>
<td>495.1</td>
<td>631.2</td>
<td>887.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>169.3</td>
<td>248.7</td>
<td>343.0</td>
<td>436.6</td>
<td>512.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>77.9</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>110.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GRADUATE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>1,322.5</td>
<td>1,340.9</td>
<td>1,343.7</td>
<td>1,471.9</td>
<td>1,670.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>1,115.6</td>
<td>1,104.7</td>
<td>1,087.3</td>
<td>1,153.2</td>
<td>1,268.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total minority</td>
<td>134.5</td>
<td>144.0</td>
<td>141.1</td>
<td>167.2</td>
<td>217.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>78.5</td>
<td>75.1</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>61.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Numbers in parentheses are percentages.*

(Tierney, 1997:185)

#### 4.3.2 Affirmative action and race

Like gender inequality, race is another barrier to the provision of education. Edwards (1995:1) remarks that everybody should be wary of policies that take explicit account of race because such policies mean that people of different racial groups have to be treated differently by intent. In the same breath, present inequalities between racial groups that are an inheritance from past harm done by some groups to others may never be corrected by policies that take no account of race (Edwards, 1995:1).
The scenario in education is no exception. According to Tierney (1997:188), affirmative action ultimately harms blacks by reinforcing the idea in them and in society at large that they are societal victims. In this light, even when blacks or women reach a goal without the support of societal policies, their achievements are diminished and discredited.

For example, in the Northern States of America discrimination was rife because black learners were accommodated in isolated, overcrowded buildings and had to use outdated reading material. Even worse, if a black learner became skilled in a particular career field, which was not permissible due to being of a specific non-preferred racial group, that learner would remain unemployed despite appropriate qualifications. This resistance to a unified education spilled over to other areas since white Americans were afraid that integration in education would also give rise to integration with regard to other areas such as residential areas for instance (Theron & Van Staden, 1995:596).

Racial discrimination was not a novel situation. In the USA racial discrimination in education was rife. For instance, in the Southern States of America the per capita expenditure on schools for whites was considerably higher than that of schools for blacks despite legislation which prohibited such practices (Theron & Van Staden, 1995:596). Perhaps the most stunning event was that of 1959 whereby Clyde Kennard, a 31-year-old black man applied to Mississippi Southern College for admission, but was refused admission and even put to jail for that (Tierney, 1997:178).

### 4.3.3 Curriculum composition

Just like race and gender, curriculum composition is another barrier towards equal education. The curriculum of the institution determines its culture and vice versa. Likewise, the school in particular transmits culture to learners in the form of knowledge, skills and experience (Lemmer, 1994:9).

The culture of the institution permeates everything in that institution. According to Lemmer (1994:9), the curriculum operates on two levels, one intentional and official, and the other unintentional and unexamined. For this reason it is an enormous challenge facing teachers to design an integrated curriculum and selection of content (Squeich, 1994:43). Therefore, curriculum experts should make sure that the curriculum of the institution is relevant to the ideals and expectations of the nation as a whole.
In an international survey conducted in the United States of America, France and Australia, among other countries, it was found that textbooks used in schools seldom showed achievements of marginalised groups favourably (Beckmann, 1994:126). It is this type of unfortunate situation which has led to remarks that some whites have argued that black studies as contained in the curriculum were a disgraceful academic fraud, devoid of any real intellectual content. They were nothing in fact but a sell-out to militant black students to keep them from causing trouble on campus. The logical reasoning is that curriculum has to be reformed to meet the expectations and needs of people it is intended to serve. Controversies over curriculum and textbooks have been the focus of many arguments in New York and California (Pifer, 1993:35).

In a case study conducted in New York, the curriculum of the public school was found to be reflecting deep-seated pathologies of racial hatred because the curriculum was not inclusive of ethnic diversity. In California teachers depended heavily on commercial textbooks to implement the curriculum frameworks, as do most teachers in the United States of America. In order to avoid criticism of texts, especially history content, which was viewed as containing errors of facts, omissions and inadequate coverage, the State of California reviewed history content in 1988 to be central for curriculum framework in social studies (Cody, Woodward & Elliot, 1993:53).

It is unquestionable that the transmission of culture takes place in institutions of learning via the curriculum which can either improve the life chances of the disadvantaged or perpetuate the existing class, racial and gender social stratification. An irrelevant and unacceptable curriculum cannot afford equality of opportunity to learners whose culture is not reflected in the curriculum (Claassen, 1995:79). It is therefore necessary to undertake an analysis of what happens in the learning institutions so as to adapt the official curriculum as embodied in syllabi and policy documents far beyond conscious discrimination.

4.3.4 Learning and resource materials

Closely linked to curriculum are learning and resource materials. Educational and media material provides a major source of unintentional teaching and learning about gender roles (Lemmer, 1994:10). The type of learning and resource materials used in learning institutions is dictated by the curriculum of that institution.
Before the affirmative action era, blacks used to complain about irrelevant textbooks. The same goes for women and girls who pointed out that textbooks presented limited portrayals of females (Lemmer, 1994:10). In contrast, males are presented and portrayed in a variety of occupations whereas females are confined to either fantasy roles like housewives and mothers, or nurses (Lemmer, 1994:10). History texts in particular have been heavily criticised to be misrepresenting blacks and all women in terms of their social history and achievements.

In the United States of America the premise has been that of ethnic diversity. The principle of cultural pluralism, that is the co-operation of various cultures in the total framework of education with specific focus on marginalised groups, influenced not only the curriculum, but the whole system of educational provision with regard to content, methods and strategies (Theron & Van Staden, 1995:599). Still on the same note, it is also important to mention that the leadership of the California State Superintendent of Public Instructions was very influential in ensuring that the content of history textbooks was the central feature in the 1988 revision of the curriculum. This ensured identification with the curriculum content.

History texts are not the only learning and resource material in contention. Mathematics and science are additional thorny issues. Traditionally mathematics and science have been considered impersonal and even neutral subjects until critical analyses of textbooks used in several countries were done and both qualitative and quantitative differences in portrayal of men and women were found (Lemmer, 1994:11).

Along with curriculum reform there is a dire need to select appropriate and relevant instructional material which include books, articles, notes, worksheets, videos, films and pictures (Squelch, 1994:43). It is to this effect that there should be a move away from pure rote and textbook learning to creative learning.

4.3.5 Teacher expectations, behaviour and interaction

Teachers have certain expectations of their learners. Teacher expectations of learners' performance and abilities can operate as a self-fulfilling prophecy (Lemmer, 1994:11). This means that there is a tendency for the performance of learners to conform with the expectations cherished by the teacher. Likewise, unspoken assumptions about gender roles and the attitudes towards women maintained by teachers have a potent influence on the gender role socialisation of male and female learners (Lemmer, 1994:11).
Sadker, it was found that the day-to-day life in American classrooms has remained unchanged over 20 years, with boys receiving overall preferential treatment during formal education, despite the implementation of various equity programmes, Lemmer (1994:12).

The fact of the matter is that even though teachers can assume that they treat both boys and girls equally, their attitudes and behaviour will unconsciously show subtle forms of prejudices in the teaching and learning situation. Teachers generally consider girls to be calm, appreciative and co-operative but less creative, independent and autonomous than boys in the classroom (Lemmer, 1994:11). This behaviour of teachers ultimately creates an unwritten norm about implicit expectations regarding social roles played by males and females. The result is that boys and girls unconsciously internalise expectations of following certain gender-categorised occupations. A proliferation of studies carried out predominantly in the United States of America, Western Europe and Australia, have been undertaken to investigate the conditions within education systems that would remove the formal barriers to gender equity and give women and girls equal treatment in education circles. The result of the study showed that the gender stereotype and prejudices against the girlchild continued, though they were subtle (Lemmer, 1996:5).

4.3.6 Teachers as models

Negative teachers' expectations, behaviour and biased interaction with their learners create specific images of them. Since learners learn by imitating teachers, they tend to internalise the type of traits possessed by their teachers as their role models. This happened, for example, according to an investigation conducted internationally in primary classrooms, namely in the USA, Western Europe and Australia. It was established that in mixed sex classrooms male learners receive more teacher attention than females regardless of the teacher's sex. The only exception to some extent was in monosexual girls' schools, where female teachers provided models in mathematics and science subjects (French & French, 1993:95).

In this regard, educators in various Western countries have expressed concern about the under-representation of women in positions of leadership in the education system (Lemmer, 1994:14). This type of scenario leaves girls without models to identify with, hence perpetuate the state of women under-representation in positions of leadership.
The other assumption is that male and female teachers identify with specific age groups of learners as well as with specific subject areas (Lemmer, 1994:4). Concerning age of learners, it seems women work comfortably with young learners, probably because of their motherly love, while men work better with older learners. Women are generally viewed to be more sympathetic than men. This makes them more suitable to work with younger children who need nurturing and caring. The outcome of this stereotyped identification with regard to subjects is that men are associated with mathematics and science as masculine subjects and women with home economics, languages and humanities as feminine subjects.

The discussion of some of the critical issues in affirmative action is by no means conclusive. The list of barriers in achieving equality in education is endless. The list might include geographical limitations, financial support, language, curriculum, gender, race, poverty, instructional materials and socio-economic status (Squelch, 1994:34).

Inequality in society is regarded as indefensible and it is argued that equal educational opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of sufficient and compensatory educational opportunities for disadvantaged groups (Squelch, 1994:34).

It is high time that particularly women should change this stereotype. There are no inherent reasons in existence for the under-achievement of female teachers in mathematics and science, except for causes which might stem from certain social, emotional and attitudinal factors (Lemmer, 1994:15). Global patterns show that women teachers tend to be under-represented in certain subjects because of the belief that women do not have what it takes to excel in these subjects (Adams, 1993:79).

4.3.7 Synthesis

Some of the central issues in affirmative action programmes in education have been looked at. It is evident that prior to the integration of the education system in the United States of America, education was a much-contested terrain with gross inequalities. This hampered equal education provision. The situation in the Republic of South Africa is no exception.

Although affirmative action cannot be a panacea for education malady, in a way it is a necessary evil. Gross inequalities in the provision of education can be minimised
or eliminated through affirmative action programmes. Historically disadvantaged groups should be compensated by providing equal educational opportunities.

Affirmative action should be viewed as a practical reform mechanism by which equality can be established in the education system. This will eradicate aspects such as unequal financing, inadequate facilities and unfavourable teacher-pupil ratios.

Affirmative action did not only bring about failures, like a claim to a drop of standards among others. Affirmative action also brought about benefits or successes to the American citizens.

4.4 SUCCESSES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

In the United States of America it has been proposed that each black family be given a one off payment of 100 000 dollars as a restitution gesture (Claassen, 1993b:63).

This amount of restitution gestures was a kick-start aimed at compensating for the injustices of the past where other groups were excluded from participating in the affairs of their country.

Clark (1991:117) points out that due to affirmative action programmes, poverty amongst blacks has decreased from 45% to about 30%. Moreover, affirmative action has prompted businesses and educational institutions to examine their recruitment, staffing and promotion practices more carefully (Claassen, 1993b:66). Some of the dividends paid by affirmative action programmes include the improvement of women's lives in social and educational circles. In the education sector, for example women accounted for 40% of the college student population in 1900, though what they studied was circumscribed (Tierney, 1997:178).

Through civil rights legislation blacks were employed in large numbers, though few received better jobs. The result of civil rights legislation was that by 1970 the typical black family already had more than one wage-earner, hence historically disadvantaged groups gained economic empowerment (Hammerman, 1988:133).

In the United States of America the government regulations and the civil rights acts of 1964 played an important role in opening up corporations and educational institutions to the previously disadvantaged people (Qunta, 1995:35).

With the women's movement and the continuing inflation of the dollar, women, especially white women, went to work in unprecedented numbers and in better jobs
for that matter. Hence the number of one-earner families decreased considerably (Hammerman, 1988:133).

Katz and Proshansky (1987:99) assert that due to affirmative action, employment opportunities have improved markedly during the past quarter century in the United States of America.

In support to Katz and Proshansky, Kennedy (1994:49) purports that affirmative action has strikingly benefited blacks as a group and the nation as a whole because it has enabled blacks to attain occupational and educational advancement in numbers and at the pace that would otherwise have been impossible.

There have been positive externalities accompanying affirmative action programmes in other contexts as well, most importantly by teaching whites that blacks too, are capable of handling responsibility, dispensing knowledge and applying valued skills (Kennedy, 1994:51).

It seems as if the presence of blacks across the broad spectrum of institutional settings upsets conventional stereotypes about the place of blacks and acculturates. On the other hand, it makes the public used to the idea that blacks can and must participate in all areas of a national life (Kennedy, 1994:52).

By the same token, West (1994:29) supports Kennedy by maintaining that, without affirmative action, American companies would not have made the kind of back-pays and hiring agreements they did in 1970, which increased the number of blacks working in government services to 1.3 million. This figure represents 41% of the total population.

Most large companies in the United States of America are obliged to employ historically disadvantaged groups in sufficient numbers, adopting numerical goals and time-tables which will monitor the number of historically disadvantaged employed in the companies (Qunta, 1995:30).

Although the legislation that currently exists in the United States of America may not be the best, we can certainly learn from its mistakes. There is no doubt that the legislated affirmative action, as a means of ensuring that people of all race groups are developed, may be crucial in the process of evening up to some extent the current inequity in life chances (Human, 1990:327).

In support of non-discrimination, President Bill Clinton visited California in July 1990 with a plea for continuing affirmative action, making the case - overwhelmingly
supported in opinion polls - that racism remains the most divisive problem in America and that integration needs to be underpinned by law (Branson, 1997:19).

It is imperative to note that the Office of the Contract Compliance Programmes ensures that the number of black American and female staff members in a company is in direct proportion to the number of qualified staff available in the total workforce (Qunta, 1995:30).

In other words, companies have to make sure that their staff complexion reflects the population figures at large.

The commission guarding against any form of discrimination has the right to sue any employer who has employed more than fifteen people and is not following a fair employment policy (Qunta, 1995:30). In South Africa the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1988 which came into operation on the 16 October 1988 seeks to ensure that everybody is given a fair chance to employment (De Witt et al., 1988:4). Section 4.5 presents failures of affirmative action in education in the United States of America.

4.5 FAILURES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The high rate of unemployment amongst blacks in the USA was exacerbated by the type of education provided. Education for black pupils was aimed at traditional careers and work within the community. However, educational authorities did not have much choice, because if a black pupil became skilled in a particular career field which was not permissible due to being of a specific racial group, this pupil will remain unemployed despite having acquired relevant qualifications (Theron & Van Staden, 1995:596).

Even in the education fraternity failures of affirmative action are observed whereby after 15 years following the introduction of integrated education, there were still considerable differences with regard to the scholastic performance of white and black pupils (Theron & Van Staden, 1995:598). The effects of separate education left long-lasting scars on the lives of American people as the documented research shows. In 1964, 45% of the black community was living below the poverty line, and blacks suffered twice the level of unemployment than whites did (Claassen, 1993b:65).

According to Human (1990:219), many affirmative action programmes fail for a specific reason, namely that they are founded on a deficient model of black
advancement. Such a model fails to take all of the factors impacting on the development of black people into account, not least of which is the role of white managers in the development of their subordinates.

It would appear that, historically, in the United States of America as well as in South Africa the development of black people was and in some instances still is conceptualised simply in terms of putting knowledge and skills into black people. They are then expected to function in a white dominated world which remains fundamentally unchanged (Human, 1990:320). In other words, the climate within the institution is an important determinant for affirmative action to succeed (Qunta, 1995:37). The heart of the matter is that the extent to which an institution allows blacks to perform to their peak and to advance within the institution speaks volumes for itself - more than a mere head count (Qunta, 1995:37).

Human (1990:321) mentions that experience proved that to conceptualise development simply in terms of the education and training of blacks is simplistic in the extreme. The argument is not that education and training are not important, but equally important are expectations, prejudices and people management skills of white managers. Negative climate and attitudes tend to evoke negative responses from subordinates, hence a failure of the process of affirmative action.

This type of negative attitude spilled over to education circles whereby resistance from whites was so great that only 1,2% of the 2,9 million black pupils enrolled at integrated public schools in the USA during the 1963-1964 school year (Theron & Van Staden, 1995:597).

The experience of many companies in the United States of America cites negative expectations and lack of people management skills and accountability amongst white managers as primary reasons for the failure of affirmative action (Human, 1990:321). This viewpoint concurs with a statement by Ferndale (1993:2), that affirmative action is doomed to failure if management does not take ownership of the process. It is therefore imperative that management should be consciously committed to the letter and spirit of affirmative action.

Many people, in both the United States of America and South Africa, would argue that affirmative action has failed to achieve its goals because a lot of time, effort and money have been put into it but minimal success has been attained indeed (Human, 1990:323). The reasoning is that, in the United States of America, the majority of people believe that affirmative action programmes have benefited white women
more than blacks. Some suggest that they had lost sight of the basic issue of black Americans and Hispanics because of the fragmentation of affirmative action programmes to cater for large numbers of racial groupings, gender, the disabled, war veterans, the ageing and so on (Human, 1990:323).

Barber (1996:12) feels that the results of affirmative action backfired in the sense that the beneficiaries of affirmative action are blacks and Mexican-Americans which fact brings about a detriment to whites and non-preferred groups.

An important and possibly the most crucial reason why affirmative action programmes fail is that top management is not committed to them (Human, 1990:325). In some instances, senior management appears to be doing something whilst nothing actually changes in practice.

Katz and Proshansky (1987:101) point out that one other reason why affirmative action programmes failed is because many employers see blacks as high risk employees, in terms of both their attitudes about work and their previous training in useful skills for the job.

The most common criticism against affirmative action is that it is racism in reverse (Qunta, 1995:22). Robinson (1996:5) is in agreement with Qunta’s statement by saying that many years of racial and sexual affirmative action in the USA have left men and whites, especially white males, severely under-represented in several departments because of affirmative action.

Even where blacks get senior positions, they do not necessarily get the authority that normally accompanies such positions (Qunta, 1995:22). The appointment of blacks merely becomes a window-dressing effect or tokenism. Logically the influence the minimal number of blacks can bring about is noticeably minimal as well. As a result, the decision-making process in institutions will for a long time remain with whites, despite a slow increase of blacks at senior levels (Qunta, 1995:22).

In 1985, when the Ronald Reagan administration threatened to remove the legal basis for affirmative action by revoking the regulations and guidelines in place by virtue of Executive Order 11246, many big American companies indicated that they would continue with their programmes even if not legally required to do so (Qunta, 1995:31).
Qunta (1995:30) mentions that, even after more than thirty years, affirmative action is still a contentious issue in the United States of America because the costs of implementing affirmative action are exorbitant, with very little real returns.

The State of California, under the leadership of governor Pete Wilson, defended one of the most controversial pieces of legislation in recent United States of America history - a decision taken after a referendum, to end the affirmative law that has become known as Proposition 209 (Branson, 1997:10). The argument is that the dream of reverend Martin Luther King of racial diversity had been achieved, so it was time to be colour-blind in order to stop giving preference to blacks, women and other disadvantaged groups in state colleges and jobs (Branson, 1997:19). Branson (1997:19) points out that the effects of Proposition 209 was a total wipe-out because the enrolment of black students at California law schools had plummeted more than eighty percent, as if the last thirty years have melted away.

Even more shocking, the same happened in Texas, where another ruling which resulted from a reverse discrimination suit, saw its top law school registering only three blacks, down from 312 last year. It speaks volumes that Proposition 209 and the Texas ruling are far from the last word on affirmative action and its aim, namely giving previously disadvantaged groups equal opportunity (Branson, 1997:19).

One other contentious failure of affirmative action is that it led to a drop in educational standards (Qunta, 1995:25). Qunta (1995:25) proceeds to mention that the concept of standards and merits is so insidious because those who use these concepts to exclude others are often unaware that their standards are entirely subjective and culturally defined. In support of Qunta, Innes (1993:13), mentions that there is a tendency among those who use the standards argument to assume that in the past, standards were high and the very concept was used as an objective means of job placement.

Many black beneficiaries of affirmative action view claims of meritocracy with scepticism because it is recognised that in many instances, the objection that affirmative action represents a deviation from meritocratic standards is little more than disappointed nostalgia for a golden age that never existed (Kennedy, 1994:53).

Kennedy (1994:53) maintains that over-exclusion of blacks from public and private institutions of education and employment was one massive affront to meritocratic pretentiousness. In as much as the elevation of blacks addresses pressing social needs, it is rightly insisted that considering a black race as part of the bundle of traits
that constitute merit is entirely appropriate. This emphasises the fact that in the past race was used as a criterion to oppress and marginalise other groups, so it is logical that for a start and as a temporary measure within targeted time-frames race should be used to redress the historical imbalances (Edwards, 1995:29). A discussion and an overview of the situation in South Africa will follow in section 4.6.

4.6 AN OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SITUATION

In the previous section affirmative action in the USA was researched in an in-depth study. In this section focus will be on an overview of the South African education system in order to find out why affirmative action may be a mechanism for education reform.

The following bar graph shows a gross inequality between males and females at South African universities in 1991 in terms of position and gender of academic staff.

FIGURE 4.1

SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY ACADEMIC STAFF BY POSITION AND GENDER

(Adapted from Udusa News in Claassen, 1995:74)

Figure 4.1 shows that females are concentrated in lower positions of responsibility in lecturing. For instance, females occupy more positions of lecturers and junior lecturers: about 70% of females are junior lecturers against 30% of males for the same position. In contrast, males are outnumbering females in higher positions of responsibility, namely senior lecturers, associate professors and professors. For example, about 90% of males occupy positions of professors against 10% of females for the same position. This situation shows a glaring disparity in terms of gender equity.

Comparatively speaking, the scenario of female under-representation in positions of authority at tertiary institutions is the same in the USA and the RSA.
FIGURE 4.2
STAFFING PATTERN AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

(Adapted from Udusa News in Claassen, 1995:74)

Figure 4.2 shows the staffing pattern at South African universities in the same period. Whites employed at the South African universities ranged at about 81% against Blacks (5%), Coloured (2.5%) and Indians (1.5%). This state of affairs needs urgent attention when considering the fact that Blacks are in numerical majority in South Africa. In the USA the opposite is true: Blacks are in the minority there, though the largest minority, since they constitute 12% of the population (Quanta, 1995:29).

Another contributory factor to the high percentage of whites' employment might be that racial discrimination was an official government policy in South Africa while in the USA it was not. But this does not mean that discrimination was not taking place in the USA. In fact it was and still is taking place.

The graph illustrates very clearly that something was and still is wrong with an acute under-representation of women in managerial positions, even though they constitute the majority of the total population. The trend of women under-representation starts from pre-primary through primary and secondary school level to tertiary education.

It should not come as a surprise that the trend of women under-representation is going to last for quite some time. Referring to the myth that gender equality is changing, the International Labour Organisation points out that at the present rate, it will take until the 25th century before men and women reach equal status in the workplace, despite women in developing countries being more qualified than their male management colleagues (Macdonald, 1996:24).
Gender inequalities should be stopped sooner rather than later. Sex discrimination should be eradicated at all costs. The gloomy picture as painted by Professor June St.Clair of Wits University that women make up 50% of the world's population, perform roughly two-thirds of its work, earn roughly one-tenth of its income and own one-hundredth of its property will have to be changed (Macdonald, 1996:24).

Moreover, the enrolment of women in technikons shows a definite gender segregation with male students concentrated in engineering and business management while women are concentrated in office work, catering, personnel management and tourism (Lemmer, 1994:22). This state of affairs does not only condition women to follow female-specific occupations, but also confirms that women have been conditioned to think like that. This type of attitude permeates the thinking of males who are stereotyped, to avoid female-specific occupations because they are typified as for females.

Poor enrolments in technikons are largely due to the fact that girls fail to take the kind of subjects, for instance mathematics and science, which will allow them entrance to such institutions of learning (Lemmer, 1994:22). According to Truscott in Lemmer (1994:22), a notable feature of university enrolments is the serious under-representation of black women in universities. In 1988, for example, statistics showed that white women constituted more than half (53,7%) of all university students while black women comprised only a third of all university students.

Out of 36 470 permanently appointed personnel in South African universities in 1997, almost half (46,1%) were whites. The next largest racial group were blacks (40,4%). The contrast is also clear in terms of social strata in that out of 46,1% permanently employed whites, 63,9% were professionals while black professionals only amounted to 14,5%. Indians and coloured respectively counted 34,3% and 11,8%.

An inverse picture is also seen in that 35,4% whites were non-professionals against 76,3% Blacks. The picture of gender inequality is also a matter of concern. Out of 36 470 permanently employed personnel, 56,6% were males while 43,3% were females.
### TABLE 4.8 HEADCOUNT OF PERSONNEL WITH PERMANENT APPOINTMENTS ACCORDING TO PERSONNEL CATEGORY, RACIAL/ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION AND SEX FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31 DECEMBER 1997 IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACIAL/ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION AND SEX</th>
<th>PERSONNEL CATEGORY</th>
<th>NOTES</th>
<th>WHITE (01)</th>
<th>COLOURED (02)</th>
<th>INDIAN (03)</th>
<th>BLACK (04)</th>
<th>ALL OTHER (05)</th>
<th>TOTAL (06)</th>
<th>MALE (07)</th>
<th>FEMALE (08)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Professional Staff -Sub-total</td>
<td></td>
<td>10 758</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>2 149</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13 900</td>
<td>8 706</td>
<td>5 194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1 Instruction/Research Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td>8 420</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>468</td>
<td>1 470</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10 633</td>
<td>6 897</td>
<td>3 736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Executive/Administrative/Managerial Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td>620</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>618</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.3 Specialist/Support Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 524</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 956</td>
<td>807</td>
<td>1 149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Non-professional Staff -Sub-total</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 961</td>
<td>2 726</td>
<td>1 160</td>
<td>11 255</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21 109</td>
<td>11 195</td>
<td>9 914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1 Technical Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 116</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 935</td>
<td>1 267</td>
<td>668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2 Non-professional Administrative Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 182</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>2 573</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8 084</td>
<td>2 535</td>
<td>5 549</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.3 Crafts/Trades Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>409</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.4 Service Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>247</td>
<td>1 493</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>8 191</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10 322</td>
<td>6 754</td>
<td>3 566</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>16 824</td>
<td>3 102</td>
<td>1 775</td>
<td>14 747</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36 470</td>
<td>20 672</td>
<td>15 798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Department of Education, 1997:1)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACIAL/ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION AND SEX</th>
<th>PERSONNEL CATEGORY</th>
<th>NOTES</th>
<th>WHITE 01</th>
<th>COLOURED 02</th>
<th>INDIAN 03</th>
<th>BLACK 04</th>
<th>ALL OTHER 05</th>
<th>TOTAL 06</th>
<th>MALE 07</th>
<th>FEMALE 08</th>
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<td>RACIAL/ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERSONNEL CATEGORY</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Professional Staff</td>
<td>-Sub-total</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 060</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 015</td>
<td>2 435</td>
<td>1 480</td>
</tr>
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<td>1.1 Instruction/Research Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 388</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 058</td>
<td>1 902</td>
<td>1 156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Executive/Administrative/Managerial Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>230</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Specialist/Support Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>442</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Non-professional Staff</td>
<td>-Sub-total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 942</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>2 863</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5 566</td>
<td>2 517</td>
<td>3 049</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.1 Technical Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>179</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Non-professional Administrative Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 564</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 659</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>1 938</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.3 Crafts/Trades Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>112</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Service Employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>2 042</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 375</td>
<td>1 378</td>
<td>997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 002</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>3 365</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9 481</td>
<td>4 952</td>
<td>4 529</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Department of Education (1997:1)
Just like an imbalance in terms of gender and race representation in South African universities showed in Table 4.8, the picture remains the same even for South African technikons. Out of a total of 9,481 permanently employed personnel, 52.7% were Whites, 35.4% were Blacks, 6.8% were Indians, 4.8% were Coloureds and only 4 were other racial/ethnic groups. The discrepancy exists between males and females. Out of 3,915 professional staff, males comprised 62.1%, while 37.8% were females.

**TABLE 4.10: RACIAL COMPOSITION OF TEACHING STAFF IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES IN 1994**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>UNIVERSITIES</th>
<th>TOTAL TEACHING STAFF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESIDENTIAL</td>
<td>NON-RESIDENTIAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asians</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloureds</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>6432</td>
<td>2124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>7,478</td>
<td>2,641</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:10-11)

According to Table 4.10, which shows the teaching staff at South African universities in 1994, 8,556 were whites which is six times more than all other racial groups combined. This situation needs attention in order to improve the opportunities for other races.

**TABLE 4.11: HEADCOUNT OF ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUP IN SOUTH AFRICAN TECHNIKONS IN 1994**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>COLOUREDSDS</th>
<th>WHITES</th>
<th>BLACKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cape Technikon</td>
<td>7,851</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1,231</td>
<td>6,116</td>
<td>393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Tvl. Technikon</td>
<td>6,234</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6,184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangosotho Technikon</td>
<td>2,962</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2,931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ML Sultan Technikon</td>
<td>5,720</td>
<td>3,354</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>1,861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natal Technikon</td>
<td>6,624</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>3,808</td>
<td>1,852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peninsula Technikon</td>
<td>6,607</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3,845</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>1,359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Elizabeth Technikon</td>
<td>7,006</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>807</td>
<td>4,006</td>
<td>2,114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretoria Technikon</td>
<td>13,019</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>9,630</td>
<td>3,117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technikon RSA</td>
<td>67,874</td>
<td>3,151</td>
<td>5,488</td>
<td>31,884</td>
<td>27,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaal Triangle Technikon</td>
<td>7,860</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>6,035</td>
<td>1,679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witwatersrand Technikon</td>
<td>10,085</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>6,056</td>
<td>3,227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>147,226</td>
<td>8,256</td>
<td>12,533</td>
<td>71,936</td>
<td>54,501</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:10)
Just like in Table 4.10 where the majority of teaching staff were Whites, the scene remains unchanged with the number of enrolled white students surpassing that of other racial groups. Out of 147,226 enrolled students in South African technikons in 1994, 48.8% were whites, followed by blacks at 37.0%, coloureds at 8.5% and lastly Indians at 5.6%. This situation needs redress since blacks are in numerical majority. There should be opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups to gain access to these institutions.

**TABLE 4.12: HEADCOUNT OF PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUP AND TECHNIKON**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>INDIAN</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>WHITES</th>
<th>BLACKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cape Technikon</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Tvl. Technikon</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangosotho Technikon</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ML Sultan Technikon</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natal Technikon</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peninsula Technikon</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>51</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Elizabeth Technikon</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretoria Technikon</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technikon RSA</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaal Triangle Technikon</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witwatersrand Technikon</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>2,528</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:10)

Table 4.12 shows the professional personnel at technikons. Whites totalled 87.0% out of 2,528 employed staff. This figure is almost six times more than the other racial groups combined. The situation reveals a gross discrepancy in terms of racial representation.

It is rather surprising to note that black professionals at technikons were the least in numbers yet Table 4.11 depicted blacks as the second largest racial group.
enrolled at technikons. It seems that there is no correlation in terms of the numbers of enrolled students and professional staff at the same institutions.

**TABLE 4.13: HEADCOUNT OF ENROLLED STUDENTS ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUP AND UNIVERSITY IN 1994**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>WHITES</th>
<th>BLACKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of Cape Town</td>
<td>13 883</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>1 885</td>
<td>8 424</td>
<td>2 869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Durban-Westville</td>
<td>9 479</td>
<td>4 941</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>4 044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical University of Southern Africa</td>
<td>3 244</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2 600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Natal</td>
<td>14 088</td>
<td>3 649</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>6 421</td>
<td>3 659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of the North</td>
<td>19 012</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18 947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of the Orange Free State</td>
<td>9 131</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>7 776</td>
<td>897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Port Elizabeth</td>
<td>5 549</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>3 846</td>
<td>858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potchefstroom University for CHE</td>
<td>9 600</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>7 946</td>
<td>1 430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Pretoria</td>
<td>22 945</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>20 499</td>
<td>2 081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rand Afrikaans University</td>
<td>10 365</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>9 656</td>
<td>362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodes University</td>
<td>4 214</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>2 946</td>
<td>811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of South Africa</td>
<td>129 237</td>
<td>10 998</td>
<td>4 896</td>
<td>54 815</td>
<td>58 528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Stellenbosch</td>
<td>12 953</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>958</td>
<td>11 794</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Western Cape</td>
<td>14 278</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>6 728</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>6 664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Witwatersrand</td>
<td>17 524</td>
<td>2 062</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>11 212</td>
<td>3 927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Zululand</td>
<td>5 562</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>5 454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vista University</td>
<td>32 129</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>31 276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>332 839</td>
<td>24 387</td>
<td>18 024</td>
<td>146 214</td>
<td>143 860</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:12)

Table 4.13 shows student enrolment according to population group in different South African universities in 1994. Out of 333 199 enrolled students, the majority were whites (43,8%) and blacks (43,3%) respectively. Indians (7,3%) and coloureds (5,4) were the third and fourth largest groups respectively.
It is important, however, to note that the historical background of the university still determines the racial enrolment of the institution due to its subtle culture. This perceived culture is still persistent despite the fact that racial segregation was long abolished and students can enrol whenever they want to.

**TABLE 4.14: NUMBER OF PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL ACCORDING TO POPULATION GROUP AND UNIVERSITY IN 1994**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTIONS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>WHITES</th>
<th>BLACKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of Cape Town</td>
<td>873</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Durban-Westville</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical University of Southern Africa</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Natal</td>
<td>989</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of the North</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of the Orange Free State</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Port Elizabeth</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potchefstroom University for CHE</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Pretoria</td>
<td>1 559</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 550</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rand Afrikaans University</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodes University</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of South Africa</td>
<td>1 624</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1 536</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Stellenbosch</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Western Cape</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Witwatersrand</td>
<td>1 031</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Zululand</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vista University</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>12 291</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>10 452</td>
<td>950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:11)
Table 4.14 shows the number of professional personnel in South African universities according to race in 1994. The number of whites (85.0%) is almost ten times more than blacks (7.7%). This table shows a gross imbalance for different racial groups. Affirmative action might be a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

**TABLE 4.15: MEAN YEARS OF SCHOOLING BY POPULATION GROUP FOR PERSONS AGED 25 YEARS AND OLDER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>AFRICANS</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>WHITES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>6.98</td>
<td>10.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>11.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:18)

Table 4.15 shows the mean years of schooling by population group for persons aged 25 years and older. In 1980 the mean years of schooling was 5.43 and it increased to 6.86 in 1991. It can be deduced from the table that the average years of schooling for blacks was below the expected mean both in 1980 and 1991, namely 3.63 and 5.53 respectively. The mean years of schooling for other racial groups were above mean expectation. As for whites the mean years of schooling were twice as high as that of any of the other racial groups.

This area shows a disparity, which can be addressed by affirmative action. The legacy of the segregated education system had a negative contributory role to play in this regard.

**TABLE 4.16: LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY POPULATION GROUP (PERSONS AGED 20 YEARS AND OLDER) (THOUSANDS) IN 1995**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>BLACKS</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>INDIANS</th>
<th>WHITES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22100</td>
<td>15676</td>
<td>2079</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>3700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>2864</td>
<td>2640</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1 to Grade 3 Std 1</td>
<td>813</td>
<td>706</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4 (Std 2)</td>
<td>838</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 5 (Std 3)</td>
<td>927</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 6 (Std 4)</td>
<td>1181</td>
<td>979</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7 (Std 5)</td>
<td>1516</td>
<td>1233</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8 (Std 6)</td>
<td>2084</td>
<td>1533</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9 (Std 7)</td>
<td>1382</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10 (Std 8)/NTC1</td>
<td>2442</td>
<td>1472</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 11 (Std 9)/NTC 11</td>
<td>1543</td>
<td>1242</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.16 shows blacks to be in the majority, and that is almost three times more than the other racial groups combined. It is realised that the majority of blacks (16.8%) followed by coloureds (8.7%), Indians (5.2%) and lastly whites (0.2%) did not attain education beyond grade 1. When looking at the attainment of degrees for different racial groups, the opposite picture is true. Whites are in the majority (62%), followed by blacks (28.9%), Indians (5.4%) and lastly coloureds (3.5%).

Table 4.17: RACIAL COMPOSITION OF STUDENT ENROLMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES IN 1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>UNIVERSITIES</th>
<th>TOTAL STUDENT ENROLMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESIDENTIAL</td>
<td>NON-RESIDENTIAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asians</td>
<td>16 766</td>
<td>7 621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloureds</td>
<td>15 097</td>
<td>2 930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>109 926</td>
<td>36 294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks</td>
<td>90 844</td>
<td>57 973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>232 633</td>
<td>104 818</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997: 10-11)

Table 4.17: shows that the number of both black (44.1% and white (43.3%) students as enrolled in South African universities in 1994 was almost equal. Indians with 7.2% and coloured with 5.3% were the last two enrolled groups. Even though the number of enrolled black and white students almost tally, the reality is that blacks are in numerical majority in the RSA and this situation is that reflected in the registration status of blacks against whites.
TABLE 4.18: RACIAL COMPOSITION OF STUDENT ENROLMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICAN TECHNIKONS IN 1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>TECHNIKONS</th>
<th>TOTAL STUDENT ENROLMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESIDENTIAL</td>
<td>NON-RESIDENTIAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>5 749</td>
<td>2 507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloureds</td>
<td>8 023</td>
<td>4 510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>46 442</td>
<td>25 494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks</td>
<td>32 356</td>
<td>22 145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>92 570</td>
<td>54 656</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:10-11)

This table shows that whites (48.7%) were the most highly enrolled students at technikons in 1994. Following whites were blacks (37.0%), coloureds (8.5%) and lastly Indians (5.6%).

The implication is that more whites were skilled than other racial groups despite their numerical minority in these institutions.

TABLE 4.19: RACIAL COMPOSITION OF STUDENT ENROLMENTS AND TEACHING STAFF AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES IN 1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>TRAINING COLLEGES</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STUDENT ENROLMENT</td>
<td>TEACHING STAFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>1 535</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloureds</td>
<td>5 871</td>
<td>405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>14 105</td>
<td>1 767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks</td>
<td>44 366</td>
<td>2 241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>65 877</td>
<td>4 583</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(South African Central Statistics, 1997:10-11)

Table 4.19 shows the teaching staff against the student enrolment at South African Training Colleges. Black students were in the majority (67.3%), followed by white students (21.4%), then coloured students (8.9%) and lastly Indian
students (2.3%). The teaching staff follows the same trend whereby blacks are in numerical majority followed by whites, coloureds and Indians.

It is interesting to note that the white teaching staff was almost half (50%) of the black teaching staff while in contrast the White student enrolment was three times less than that of black enrolled students. Affirmative action might bring about desired balance in such situations.

4.7 CONCLUSION
Affirmative action is a process and not a result, but is a fair process designed to achieve a just result. The evidence from the literature study is not conclusive as to either the success or failure of affirmative action. It is purported that the principled application of affirmative action according to law is a major guarantee that majority rule operates in a fair manner for the benefit of the whole society.

The results of comparative analysis of different racial group representation at tertiary institutions in the RSA, namely universities, technikons and teacher training colleges indicated that the numbers of white staff members generally outnumbered that of blacks and other racial groups. However, the student enrolment of blacks and other racial groups outnumbered that of white students.

The picture for gender representation was also gloomy in the sense that male staff, especially white males, outnumbered female staff in senior management posts and not in junior positions. Like in the USA the situation in the RSA seems to be riddled with gross inequalities in both the racial and gender issues.

The experience of affirmative action in the United States of America is certainly of relevance to South Africa because it is where the concept of affirmative action was founded and developed into a relatively sophisticated programme.

It became clear from the discussion that management must provide periodic affirmative action report-back to all employees, in which they publicise their targets and evaluate the progress made.

4.8 SUMMARY
In this section focus has been on the origin and historical background of affirmative action, traced in terms of contribution by the federal government of the USA, Title VII and the fourteenth amendment legislation as enshrined in the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
It became clear that affirmative action has been an undertaking of mixed fortunes in terms of its successes and failures. It seems as if there are more failures than successes of affirmative action in the United States of America, although some researchers are convinced that affirmative action has not yet succeeded but is going to.

Successes and failures of affirmative action can be regarded as two sides of the same coin because of their nature of making readers to fathom deeper about the controversial nature of affirmative action programmes.

Undoubtedly, a considerable measure of success was achieved with affirmative action, especially with representation of the American population. In the same breath, a considerable measure of failure, for instance, over-representation of former disadvantaged groups resulted. Hence a claim of reverse discrimination comes into existence.

Like the situation in the USA, affirmative action in the RSA seems to be an option to redress gross inequalities in both race and gender issues.

Race and gender discrimination is observable in all the tertiary institutions, namely universities, technikons and training colleges in the RSA.

In Chapter 5, the empirical research design will be presented.
CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the literature study was done concerning affirmative action as a reform mechanism in the USA and South Africa. In this chapter the empirical research design is discussed. Firstly the purpose of empirical research is espoused. Thereafter the research instrument and design of questionnaire are discussed as well as the population and sample and administrative procedures. Lastly the discussion is on the statistical techniques with regard to the interpretation of data.

5.2 THE PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The empirical research aims to determine the attitudes of education participants in South Africa, especially at school level, with regard to affirmative action being a mechanism for education reform.

5.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

According to Gall, et al. (1996:246) the choice of the research instrument for quantitative research depends on the purpose of the study. For the purpose of this study a structured questionnaire was selected as the research tool. The next section discussion will indicate why a questionnaire was chosen for this purpose.

5.3.1 The questionnaire as a research tool

A survey questionnaire is one of the tools used in the collection of research data and is ultimately dependent on the purpose of the study (Tuckman, 1994:216; Gall et al., 1996:289). According to Best and Kahn (1993:230) the questionnaire is a self-report instrument used for gathering data about variables of interest to the researcher and consists of a number of questions or items that a respondent reads and answers.

Tuckman (1994:230) espouses the fact that questionnaires are used by researchers to convert the information directly given by people into data. In this sense the questionnaire becomes appropriate to gather data for this research in that it would elicit factual data about affirmative action practices and perceptions currently prevailing in Gauteng schools under the Vanderbijlpark South 3 District (cf. Annexure F).
The questionnaire was seen as being cost-effective in this research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990:336). This was easy to administer since the researcher used contact persons and also personally distributed and collected the questionnaires according to the division of schools for the purpose of the research.

The use of questionnaires in this research is based on the following assumptions (cf. Wolf, 1997:422), namely:

- that the respondent can read and understand the questions;
- that respondents are possibly willing to answer the questions;
- that the respondents are in the position to supply the information to answer the questions, and especially in view of the presumed willingness to find a suitable education policy on affirmative action.

The suitability of the questionnaire is basically premised on the fact that respondents are teachers in public schools (i.e. principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and post level one teachers). Hence it is assumed that teachers will be profoundly interested in the participation of the research so that they contribute towards the final outcome of the research and its findings for the betterment of their work situation as teachers, and ultimately the betterment of the education system in South Africa.

Since the questionnaire is on paper and the interaction is impersonal, the questionnaire has, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (1990:335), both advantages and disadvantages. Firstly a discussion will be on the advantages followed by disadvantages.

5.3.2 The advantages of questionnaires

The following are some of the advantages of the questionnaire as used in this study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990:336; Ary et al., 1990:421; Best & Kahn, 1993:230; Tuckman, 1994:216):

- Questionnaires can be distributed to respondents with financial and time cost effectiveness and cover a wide spectrum.
- They reach people who would be difficult to reach otherwise, thus obtaining a broad coverage of views.
• Since the questions are phrased identically, the questionnaire allows for uniformity and elicits more comparable data. Therefore the stimuli for responses are the same.

• Anonymity of respondents is assured since respondents are not required to divulge their identities, addresses and names of schools.

• A questionnaire is relatively easy to plan, construct and administer.

• It can be administered by anybody on behalf of the researcher.

• Respondents can answer the questionnaire at leisure without any pressure for immediate response.

• Permission from education authorities can easily be given since the contents of the questionnaire can be previewed.

• The influence an interviewer could have on the respondent is obviated.

• Processing is made easy by the questionnaire being well compiled.

• Due to its impersonal nature, the questionnaire may elicit more candid and objective results, and therefore more valid responses.

• The questionnaire enhances progress in many areas of educational research and brings to light much information, which would otherwise be lost.

5.3.3 Disadvantages of questionnaires

In spite of its advantages, the questionnaire has the following limitations (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990:336; Ary et al., 1990:421; Best & Kahn, 1993:230; Tuckman, 1994:216):

• A low response rate is the highest common limitation of the questionnaire. This will affect the validity of the results.

• The motivation of respondents may be difficult to check which may lead to misleading responses.

• Questionnaires can frustrate respondents who may feel that their personal options are left out.

• Respondents may be unwilling to respond to questions bordering on private matters or controversial issues and may consequently give what they believe to be socially desirable responses.
• The length of the questionnaire may lead to careless or inaccurate responses and may result in low return rates.

• Little can be done to rectify a misinterpreted question.

• Questionnaires may not probe deep enough to reveal a true picture of opinions and feelings.

• Because of its apparent simplicity, a questionnaire might appeal to the amateur investigator and may be abused.

• The respondents may have little interest in a particular problem and therefore may answer the questionnaire indiscriminately.

Despite these limitations a questionnaire is still a valid instrument for data collection and is still commonly and widely used. Wolf (1997:4) argues that careful and sensitive developmental work will help to identify and make full provision for these limitations.

In using the questionnaire, the researcher must be satisfied that the questions are stated with sufficient clarity to function effectively in an impersonal interaction (Smit, 1988:62). This implies that the researcher must try to maximise the likelihood that a respondent will answer the questions and return the questionnaire (Ary et al., 1990:422-423).

5.4 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

5.4.1 Preparing the questionnaire

The construction of a questionnaire must be well organised by a thorough process which has to meet high standardisation measures (Cohen & Manion, 1989:308). Moloko (1996:90) cites Sidhu’s exposition that a well-designed and -administered questionnaire can serve as an appropriate and useful data-gathering device and can boost the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Consequently the objectivity of the questionnaire will be increased tremendously (Macmillan & Schumacher, 1993:238).

According to Ary et al., (1990:422-424) Van der Westhuizen (1992:45), Macmillan and Schumacher, (1993:238-249) and Gall et al., (1996:294) the following factors need to be considered in preparing a questionnaire:

• The questionnaire should reflect scholarship so as to elicit high returns.
• The questionnaire should be kept as brief as possible so that answering it requires the minimum of a respondent's time. All unnecessary items, especially those whose answers are available from other sources, should be eliminated.

• Questionnaire items should be phrased in such a way that every respondent can understand them. It would be best to construct simple and short sentences. Jargon and complex sentences should be avoided.

• Items in the questionnaire should be phrased in a way that would elicit unambiguous responses. Words like 'often', 'few' and 'sometimes' should be avoided as they mean different things to different people.

• Items should be so phrased as to avoid bias or prejudice that might predetermine respondents' answers.

• Questionnaire items should not be misread because of unstated assumptions. The frame of reference for answering questions should be clear and consistent for all respondents.

• Alternatives to items should be exhaustive, e.g. What is your marital status? should include not only alternatives married or single, but also widowed, divorced and separated.

• Questions that might elicit embarrassment, suspicion or even hostility in the respondents should be avoided if possible.

• Respondents must be competent to answer the questionnaire.

• Double-barrelled questions should be avoided. Questions or statements should be limited to a single idea or concept.

• Questions should be relevant. In other words they should have to do with something, which interests respondents or is important to the respondents.

• Avoid or minimise negative items. These should be avoided because they are easy to misinterpret. If negative items are used, they should be underlined or capitalised to draw the attention of the respondent.

• The questionnaire should be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly printed and duplicated.

Questions should allow for respondents to review their own relevant experiences thoroughly. They should also elicit accurate and complete responses and should
communicate some rules about the process of question answering by providing respondents with the necessary rules so as to reduce complexities (cf. Macmillan & Schumacher, 1993:238-249; Best & Kahn, 1993:230; Ary et al., 1990:426-427).

5.4.2 Construction of the questionnaire items

Questionnaires can use statements or questions, but in all cases the subject is responding to something written (Macmillan & Schumacher, 1993:238). According to Tuckman (1994:225) questionnaire items must be developed carefully so that they measure a specific aspect of the study’s objectives or hypotheses.

The questionnaire items in this study were carefully constructed. The aim of the study was taken into consideration. The measuring instrument is not adapted from anywhere but is a newly prepared one. The literature study (cf. chapters 2, 3 & 4) was the basis from which the questionnaire was designed.

The study purports to investigate the experiences and perceptions of teachers (principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and post level one teachers) concerning affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. Against the background of an integral education system in South Africa since April 1994, it was necessary to investigate affirmative action in terms of its facets, which among others include race, gender and job reservations.

It is a known fact that affirmative action is a sensitive yet important issue, which cannot be ignored or wished away. This is what necessitated the investigation into this topic. First hand information as experienced and perceived by teachers in their work situation is believed to be of paramount importance.

5.4.3 The format of the questionnaire

A total of 38 questions were used in the questionnaire (see Annexure A). The questionnaire was sub-divided into two main sections, namely Section A and Section B.

- Section A (questions 1-7)

Items in this section relate to the biographical or general information of the respondents. This information is essential to the study as it contributes to the respondents’ experiences and perceptions about affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. Questions in section A (question 1-7) relate to information about respondents’ age, teaching experience, qualifications, post level, number of learners enrolled, number of staff members and race.
• Section B (questions 1-38)

Questions in this section (1-38) were graded according to factors identified from the literature study. Each question or statement has two response scales ranging from 1 to 4. For each factor item respondents were asked to indicate on this four-point scale the degree of importance, as well as their perception (i.e. to what extent this factor occurs in reality) for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>YOUR PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Of no importance</td>
<td>1. Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Of limited importance</td>
<td>2. Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Important</td>
<td>3. Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Very important</td>
<td>4. Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following hints as suggested by Macmillan and Schumacher (1993:242-247) were taken into account when finalising the arrangement and the layout of the questionnaire, namely:

• ranking items and prioritising them from most important to least important;
• using a logical sequence and grouping related items together;
• putting important items near the beginning of the long questionnaire and ensuring that their positioning and sequencing should attract the attention and elicit positive responses.

In this questionnaire items have been ordered as follows, though there might be no watertight compartmentalisation due to interdependence of factors. Grouping has been done mostly on relatedness of items:

• Gender: Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6.
• Race/Ethnicity: Questions 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11.
• Employment, quotas and reservation of positions: Questions 12, 13 and 21.
• Medium of instruction: Question 14.
• Enforced school integration: Questions 15, 16 and 20.
• Curriculum composition, subject choice and resource materials: Questions 17, 18, 19, 20 and 23.
• Education standards: Questions 24 and 25.
• Conditions that might influence the implementation of affirmative action: Questions 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38.

The questionnaire (cf. Annexure A) and the covering letter (cf. Annexure C) are the main sources of information that the respondent would refer to in deciding whether or not to complete the questionnaire. The following rules of questionnaire structuring were noted and followed (Ary et al., 1990:422-423; Macmillan & Schumacher, 1993:242-247):

• The questionnaire should be made attractive.
• Questionnaire layout should be appealing. If it appears to be carelessly done or confusing, respondents are likely to be uninterested.
• The use of abbreviations has been avoided. Some abbreviations can mean different things in different experiences and contextual factors.
• Pages and items should be numbered.

In brief, a properly completed and prepared questionnaire should be appealing and compelling for respondents to engage with.

5.4.4 Pilot study

The questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of teachers from both primary and secondary schools in Vrede and Memel (n=40) in the Free State Province. The teachers were requested to answer honestly and note any unclear, confusing and ambiguous statements and to make comments and suggestions as are advised by Wolf (1997:480) and Slavin (1988:133).

Dane (1990:127) asserts that pre-testing is not exactly the same as a pilot test, because pre-testing does not attempt to make a test run of the entire research procedure but tries to test the measures that will be used. Regardless of how the procedure will be followed with the actual survey, pre-testing should involve interviewing some of the pre-test respondents and some respondents may receive a part of the final instrument, such as instructions and a few items, whereas others may receive the entire instrument. According to Macmillan and Schumacher (1993:249), pre-test respondents should be given a space to write comments about individual items.
and the questionnaire as a whole. This would make the researcher aware of whether the questionnaire would take a long time to complete, whether the directions and items were clear, and so on.

Since pre-testing is the most important phase of survey research, no survey data can be trusted unless it has been established that the respondents understood the instrument and had provided appropriate responses (Dane, 1990:128). The importance of a pre-test is advocated by Macmillan and Schumacher (1993:249). They mention that the researcher should have 20 or more subjects, but not less than 10 subjects for a pre-test rather than not having a pre-test at all.

Macmillan and Schumacher (1993:228) indicate that there is usually no need to conduct a pilot project in addition to pre-testing. However, for the purpose of this research both pre-testing and a pilot survey were carried out. A pilot survey is viewed as a small-scale administration of the whole research instrument, using the exact procedure planned to be used for the full scale project on the intended target group (Macmillan & Schumacher, 1993:228).

The questionnaire was first submitted to the researcher's supervisor for scrutiny and comments. After refinement of the questionnaire, it was piloted to a sample of principals and deputy principals (n=35), heads of departments (n=20) and post level one teachers (n=30). This pilot group was drawn from the intended target population, with similar characteristics to the research sample, which would not be part of the final study sample (Tuckman, 1994:235). The pilot group was made up of teachers of both primary and secondary schools in the Vanderbijlpark South 2 district.

The pilot study group was requested to comment on the questionnaire as a whole with regard to its length and any unclear or ambiguous questions. They also had to indicate other points that could lead to improvement of the questionnaire, and to make any comments and suggestions as advised by Ary et al. (1990:428).

The pilot study responses were analysed. The analysis revealed satisfaction with the questionnaire. A few adjustments were made and the questionnaire was finalised (cf. Annexure A).

5.4.5 Questionnaire distribution

The final questionnaire was then distributed to the sample population. A covering letter was enclosed (cf. Annexure C). The covering letter was aimed at orientating the
respondents to the questionnaire, as well as at assuring them of confidentiality and anonymity (Best & Kahn, 1993:241).

The researcher in person and some contact persons distributed and collected the questionnaires. School principals or their officials designate were requested to be contact persons in their schools because of their *ex officio* capacity (cf. Annexure E).

The fact that the researcher in person and contact persons distributed and collected questionnaires eliminated the disadvantage of postal questionnaire surveys and ensured a high return rate as well as exercising control over the time for the return of questionnaires. Telephonic follow-ups were made by the researcher to schools to remind principals and make sure that questionnaires were ready for collecting as per appointment given. Consequently, it took four weeks for the distribution, completion, collection and return of the questionnaire.

### 5.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The target population for the research was identified as teachers of primary and secondary schools in the Gauteng Department of Education under the jurisdiction of Vanderbijlpark South 3 district. This included school principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and post level one teachers. Principals and deputy principals were classified as principals because of their limited numbers.

The first step was to find out the number of school principals (including deputy principals), heads of departments and post level one teachers in public schools of the Gauteng Department of Education. The Gauteng Department of Education’s (GDE) Education Management Information System (EMIS) unit was requested to provide statistical data on the targeted population of the demarcated area. This was not possible since only rounded figures were captured for all districts for the province and not specifically for the target population. Then the Vanderbijlpark South 3 district office was requested to provide the statistics, which could not be produced on hard copy. The data was supplied as a target population (*N*=1 753) of school principals (*n*=83), deputy principals (*n*=74), heads of departments (*n*=240) and post level one teachers (*n*=1 356). Table 5.1 shows the target population data.
The second step was to determine a sample of the three categories of the target population that would be representative of the target population. Determining the size of the sample depends on the nature and purpose of the study. According to Ary et al. (1990:413), most researchers suggest that at least 10 percent of the population should be selected. This is not necessary because the accuracy of the data is determined by the absolute size of the sample, rather than by what percentage of the population it is.

The popular and most generally accepted criterion is that the size of the sample should be small for reasons of time and cost while being large enough to ensure that it is representative enough (Best & Kahn, 1993:19). According to Vermeulen (1998:52) the following should guide sample size:

- the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population the sample needs to be; and
- the size of the sample will be influenced by the relative homogeneity and heterogeneity of the population.

In line with this exposition, a sample (n=350) of the target population was decided upon (cf. Vermeulen, 1998:52). The sample comprised school principals (including deputy principals), heads of departments and post level one teachers.

A list of schools in the Vanderbijlpark South 3 district was obtained from the EMIS unit of the district office and a random sample was drawn from them. A sample of school principals (n=75), heads of departments (n=95) and post level one teachers (n=180) was then selected. This distribution was guided by guidelines of sample sizes (Vermeulen, 1998:52), as well as discussions with the statistical consultant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPALS</th>
<th>DEPUTY PRINCIPALS</th>
<th>HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS</th>
<th>POST LEVEL 1 TEACHERS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>83</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>1 356</td>
<td>1 753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2 shows the sampling of the population under study. This sample of the target population was deemed representative of the target population of schools in the area of Vanderbijlpark South 3 district (cf. Annexure F).

5.6 RESPONSE RATE

Questionnaires were distributed to the sample population in the schools of Vanderbijlpark South 3 district. Table 5.3 shows the return rate per sample category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POPULATION CATEGORY</th>
<th>QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED</th>
<th>QUESTIONNAIRES RECEIVED</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School principals plus deputies</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heads of departments</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>84,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post level one teachers</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>94,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 5.3 it can be seen that response rates exceeded 80% for all respondent categories. This, according to Landman (1980:112), is an acceptable response rate from which generalisations can be made. Babbie (Best & Kahn, 1993:242) also mentions that a response rate of 50% is adequate, 60% is good and 70% very good.

5.7 ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

5.7.1 Approval from the Gauteng Department of Education

The Gauteng Department of Education was requested to give permission for the questionnaire to be administered to the target sampled population in the Vanderbijlpark South 3 district.
The questionnaire was submitted to the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) for approval. Permission to administer it to schools was subsequently granted (cf. Annexure B).

In order to gain access to schools, an identification letter from the schools’ immediate supervisor, namely the district director of Vanderbijlpark South 3 was obtained. This was very important in order to gain the support of the participants and to give credibility to the research purpose (cf. Annexure E).

The questionnaire was distributed to principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and educators on post level one as the target population. The approved questionnaire (Annexure A) was distributed to schools by the researcher in person as well as through contact persons at schools who were in most cases principals or deputy principals.

5.7.2 Follow-up on questionnaire

The response rate was generally good because contact persons and the researcher in person were able to follow-up on outstanding responses. There was a need for telephonic follow-ups by the researcher on cases of pre-scheduled appointments to collect completed questionnaires as well as personal follow-ups where questionnaires were not ready as promised or not all completed. A few were returned by mail as per arrangement. However, despite all these attempts and means, not all questionnaires were retrieved.

5.8 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The Statistical Consultancy Services of the Vaal Triangle Campus of the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education analysed and processed the collected questionnaires by means of the SAS-programme. The programme was used to find the percentages and frequencies.

5.9 SYNTHESIS

This section briefly presented the research design. The research method, development and pilot study were outlined.

The questionnaire was decided upon as the research instrument because of its advantages and was distributed and collected by the researcher personally.

The next section will present the research data analysis and interpretation.
CHAPTER 6
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This section presents a report of the empirical investigation conducted through a questionnaire (see Annexure A) to determine the attitudes of education participants in the RSA, especially at school level, with regard to affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform.

6.2 GENERAL INFORMATION

6.2.1 Review of respondents

A total of 350 questionnaires were randomly distributed. Of this number, 310 (88,5%) respondents returned the questionnaires (cf. Table 5.3). The response rate was thus representative of the sampled group. It is, however, important to note the possible reasons for less than 100% response rate.

It is possible that the response rate was affected by both the gender, and race of the researcher. In some cases, the researcher was interviewed intensely before questionnaires were accepted. Since the respondents were permitted to conduct the research during school hours, it is possible that some participants were pressed for time when they had to complete the questionnaire.

The controversial and sensitive nature of affirmative action mechanism might have promoted or inhibited the genuine response of the participants.

6.2.2 Biographical information

Table 6.1: Age of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 20-30</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 31-40</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>40,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 41-50</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>35,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 51-60</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency missing = 1
Frequency missing refers to null response(s). Since null responses do not contribute positively to the research, they were excluded as such but reflected.

Deduced from the table, almost all of the respondents (309) answered this question. The responses indicate that the largest group of respondents (40.1%) are aged between 31 and 40 years while the second largest group of respondents (35.6%) are aged between 41-50 years. Only (15.2%) of the respondents are aged between 20 and 30 years. The smallest number of respondents (9.1%) are aged between 51-60 years. Only one null response was found with this question.

It can be seen that the largest group of respondents (75.7%) are between 31 and 50 years. This may imply that targeted schools have a rich array of experienced teachers. This bodes well for these schools since these could still be energetic and ambitious teachers.

### 6.2.3 Number of years experienced as an educator

**Table 6.2: Number of years experienced as an educator**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 0-5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 6-10</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 11-15</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 16+</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>41.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing frequency = 6

The largest group of respondents (304) answered this question. Only 6 respondents did not answer. The largest group of respondents (41.4%) have a teaching experience of 16 years and more. A considerable number of respondents fall between 6-10 years (25.3%) and 11-15 years (23.4%) respectively. Only 9.9% of respondents are relatively inexperienced since they have five years and less experience.

The implication is that most educators of the sample group are still youthful and have some years ahead of them. This might have a bearing on the way they experience and perceive affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa in their work situation.
6.2.4 Qualifications of respondents

Table 6.3: Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATIONS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Primary education diploma</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>29,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Secondary education diploma</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>30,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Degree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Degree and diploma</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>23,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Higher qualification</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing frequency = 7

The largest group of respondents (303) answered the question while only a small number (7) did not respond. A significant number of respondents have a primary education diploma (29,4%), or a secondary education diploma (30,4%). Respondents having both a degree and a diploma amount to 23,4%. Only 11,9% of the respondents have a higher qualification and a small number (5%) have only a degree.

Qualifications could have an impact on the thoughts and perceptions of educators in as far as affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform is concerned.

Table 6.4: Post level of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POST LEVEL</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Post level</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Post level</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Post level</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Post level</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Post level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Post level</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing frequency = 4
The largest group of respondents (306) answered this question. Only 4 respondents did not answer this question. The largest group of respondents (57.2%) occupy teaching posts (i.e. post level 1) while about 40% occupy promotional posts. Of these promotional posts, Heads of Departments (post level 2) account for 21.2%. The remaining 21.6% are principals, namely 12.1% on post level 3, 8.8% on post level 4, and 0.7% on post level 5. None of the respondents are on post level 6.

The position held by respondents could have an influence on their perceptions about affirmative action, as well as the degree of importance which could be attached to affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

6.2.5 Number of pupils in school

Table 6.5: Number of pupils in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 0-100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 100-500</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 501-1000</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 1000+</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing frequency = 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The largest group of respondents (307) answered this question. Only 3 respondents did not answer. About half (48.9%) of the respondents are teaching at schools with enrolment of between 501 and 1000 learners. Only 33.9% of schools have more than a thousand learners enrolled. Schools that enrolled between 100 and 500 learners accounted for 16.6% while only 0.7% enrolled hundred or fewer. It is assumed that affirmative action will bring about parity in per capita spending on education provision of the historically disadvantaged groups. This will bring about immense spending on education provision since blacks as a designated group are in numerical majority.

The number of learners at a school as a demographic factor could have a bearing on affirmative action mechanism in education reform in South Africa.
Table 6.6: Number of staff members (Teaching and non-teaching)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF STAFF</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 10-20</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>20,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 20-40</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>66,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 40-60</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 60+</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing frequency = 5

The largest group of respondents (305) answered this question, except 5 who did not respond. Responses to this question indicate that most schools have between 20-40 (66,6%) members of staff. Of the researched schools some have a staff composition of between 10-20 (20,3%), and others have a staff enrolment of between 40-60 (12,5%). There were also very few cases of schools with a staff composition of more than 60 (0,7%).

It is assumed that affirmative action should bring about a racially integrated education system. The more one racial group is dominant in a particular institution, the more challenging it could be to have racial integration. It is therefore assumed that historical staff compositions would have practical challenges to bring about an integrated system.

The number of staff members at an institution could have an influence on affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. This situation is possible when policies like redeployment, right-sizing and racial school integration are implemented.

6.2.6 Race/Ethnicity

This is the core factor of affirmative action. Despite its controversial and sensitive nature, 308 respondents answered the question while only 2 did not make their mark.
Table 6.7: Race/Ethnicity of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RACE/ETHNICITY</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Indians</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Black</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Coloured</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. White</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing frequency = 1

The largest group of respondents (45.8%) were Blacks, while the second largest respondent group were Whites. The third largest respondent group were the Indians (10.1%) while the smallest were Coloureds (9.7%).

However, it should be mentioned that there is a high possibility of the inclusion of Indians and Coloureds under blacks as one ethnic or racial group. This is possible because in the apartheid era Indians and Coloureds regarded themselves as blacks, because they were treated as that by segregational laws of the government of the day.

The question of race or ethnicity could influence views and perceptions of respondents about affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

6.3 A RANK ORDER OF THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE OF FACTORS WHICH MIGHT INFLUENCE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM

The mean scores of the educators’ views about the extent the factors which might influence affirmative action should occur, have been ranked in order of importance, that is from the most occurring to the least occurring. The mean scores range from 3.35 for the most important to 2.41 for the least important factor. The mean scores were worked out of four (4) since a four-point scale was used in the questionnaire (Annexure A).

The responses for the degree of importance of the factors range between important and very important. Most of the responses are more than 70% of the scientifically
acceptable return rate of responses. (Best & Kahn, 1993: 242). This confirms the literature survey about the importance of these factors as determinants of affirmative action being a mechanism for education reform.

Table 6.8: A rank order of the degree of importance of factors, which might influence the implementation of affirmative action mechanism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK ORDER</th>
<th>QUESTION</th>
<th>FACTOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>A truly integrated education system will primarily result from the will at heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Affirmative action is a practical mechanism to give equal opportunities to those who never had them before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>The way in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action often leads to negative attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Equal educational opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of compulsory educational opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>In essence, affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>The spirit in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action leads to negative attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Utilising structures like governing bodies in schools can influence the implementation of affirmative action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Affirmative action will promote parity among previously unequal ethnic groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Even though racism is outlawed, it is still practised in educational institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Female teachers are under-utilised for management posts at schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Many male managers believe that women do not have what it takes to be successful managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Affirmative action differs from apartheid in the sense that it aims at advantaging individuals rather than disadvantaging others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>The most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives is to ensure job and enrolment quotas in education institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>One of the basic causes of racial clashes in educational institutions is that whites are afraid of losing what they have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>The employment of women teachers is often accompanied by overt and covert discrimination in terms of promotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Textbooks are biased against blacks in terms of their background, history and achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Inequality in society is regarded as indefensible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>A truly integrated education system will primarily result from enforced legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>White women were beneficiaries of apartheid just like white men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>A basic factor causing racial clashes in educational institutions is irrational legislation forcing racial integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>The reservation of managerial posts for all women as an historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>27</strong></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Affirmative action is nothing else than a strategy to substitute often competent whites, with blacks, who are not always competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Affirmative action will lead to incompetence and lowering of standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>29</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Blacks who are over-optimistic to gain what they never had, may cause racial clashes in educational institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Affirmative action is about witch-hunting and reversed discrimination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Enforced multicultural school staff composition will help to achieve affirmative action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>The fact that black people are often being presented in curricula as labourers and white people as people in professions, will have an influence on their job prospects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>It is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and mathematics, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Affirmative action will not succeed because it is often criticised by people who have themselves been beneficiaries of affirmative action programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>35</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Most textbooks present limited portrayal of women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>36</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>The reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>The primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>The fact that women are often being presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors or business men will have an influence on their job prospects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first five highly ranked factors have a mean score of between 3,381 and 3,141. This means respondents felt that a truly integrated education system will primarily result from the will at heart (question 34) being the most important factor for affirmative action mechanism as a reform strategy for education in South Africa. The
second most important factor is that beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include women (question 1). This is highlighting the fact that women have been grossly disadvantaged by apartheid.

In the third place is the fact that affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively (question 37). The true nature of affirmative action is emphasised by the fact that compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme (question 26), hence ranked in position four.

The fifth most important factor is that affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation (question 35).

An analysis of the first five factors shows that most factors are falling under the approach of equality of results rather than the equality of opportunities (cf. Chapter 3). However, a mixture of the two approaches is evident from the analysis of the first ten factors.

The most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives is to ensure job and enrolment quotas in educational institutions (question 21); racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction (question 14).

In position 34 is the fact that affirmative action will not succeed because it is often criticised by people who have themselves been beneficiaries of affirmative action programmes (question 27). Question 20 reveals that most textbooks present limited portrayals of females and is ranked in position 35. Question 11, namely that the reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes is ranked in position 36.

The last but one question is question 6, namely that the primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks.

In the last place is question 23, namely that the fact that women are often being presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors or businessmen will have an influence on their job prospects (position 38 with an average of 2,413). The mean score of the last five factors in terms of their importance rank between 2,661 and 2,413.
Table 6.9: A rank order of the factors perceived to be highly important to influence the implementation of affirmative action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK ORDER</th>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>QUESTION</th>
<th>AVERAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>It is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and mathematics, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2,734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2,649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The reservation of managerial posts for blacks as an historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2,557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The reservation of managerial posts for all women as an historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The fact that women are often being presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors or business men will have an influence on their job prospects</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Enforced multicultural school staff composition will help to achieve affirmative action</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2,444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Affirmative action will lead to incompetence and lowering of standards</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2,415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2,412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The fact that black people are often being presented in curricula as labourers and white people as people in professions, will have an influence on their job prospects</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2,398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A truly integrated education system will primarily result from enforced legislation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2,379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Column 1</td>
<td>Column 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Most textbooks present limited portrayals of females</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2,377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>A basic factor causing racial clashes in educational institutions is irrational legislation forcing racial integration</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2,361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Affirmative action is about witch-hunting and reversed discrimination</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2,349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Affirmative action will not succeed because it is often criticised by people who have themselves been beneficiaries of affirmative action programmes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2,347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Textbooks are biased against blacks in terms of their background, history and achievement</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2,346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>The employment of women teachers is often accompanied by overt and covert discrimination in terms of promotions</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2,318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives is to ensure job and enrolment quotas in educational institutions</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2,307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Affirmative action is nothing else than a strategy to substitute often competent whites, with blacks, who are not always competent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2,305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Many male managers believe that women do not have what it takes to be successful managers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Blacks who are over-optimistic to gain what they never had, may cause racial clashes in educational institutions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2,257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Inequality in society is regarded as indefensible</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Affirmative action differs from apartheid in the sense that it aims at advantaging individuals rather than disadvantaging others</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2,244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>One of the basic causes of racial clashes in education institutions is that whites are afraid of losing what they have</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2,220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Female teachers are under-utilised for management posts in schools</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Affirmative action will promote parity among previously unequal ethnic groups</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2,159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>In essence, affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2,159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Utilising structures like governing bodies in schools can influence the implementation of affirmative action</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>White women were beneficiaries of apartheid just like white men</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Affirmative action is a practical mechanism to give equal opportunities to those who never had them before</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2,109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2,097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Equal education opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of compensatory educational opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2,047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2,020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2,013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Even though racism is outlawed, it is still practised in educational institutions</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The spirit in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action, often leads to negative attitudes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1,989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>The beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>The way in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action often leads to negative attitudes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1,872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>A truly integrated education system will primarily result from the will at heart</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1,684</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unlike the degree of importance, which was aimed at ascertaining the extent to which a factor should apply, this section shows the degree of perception, which is aimed at ascertaining the extent a factor is occurring.

The degree of the five highly perceived factors range between a mean score of 2,000 and 1,684.

Unlike the degree of importance, there is a slight difference in the mean scores of the degree of perceptions (refer to Table 6.9).

According to the research findings, the most highly ranked factor is question 17, namely that it is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and mathematics, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies (mean score of 2,734). The second highest ranked factor is question 6, namely that the primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks (mean score of 1,649). Question 11, namely that the reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes, is ranked in position three with a mean score of 2,557.

In the fourth position is the fact that the reservation of managerial posts for all women as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes (question 12 with a mean score of 3,489). Question 23, viz. the fact that women are often presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors or business men will have an influence on their job...
prospects, is ranked in position five with a mean score of 2,460.

6.4 A COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF FACTORS THAT MIGHT INFLUENCE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM IN TERMS OF THEIR IMPORTANCE AND PERCEPTION OF OCCURRENCE

Table 6.5.1: A truly integrated education system will primarily result from the will at heart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,351</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,684</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.1 depicts the rank of importance and the rank of perception of occurrence of question 34, viz. that a truly integrated education system will primarily result from the will at heart (>). This was viewed by most respondents as very important, hence ranked position 1 with a mean score of 3,351. But the very same factor was perceived to be the least occurring in the experiences of the respondents with a mean score of 1,684 in position 38.

This implies that a great deal of attention and deliberation should be paid to this aspect by both policymakers and practitioners. These figures show a general view and perception of all participants across the racial lines and gender. A direct proportion between the importance and perception of a factor investigated was observed. This supports the literature survey for a single integrated education system (cf. 3.2.3).

Table 6.5.2: The beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,257</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,949</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.2 depicts the rank of importance and the rank of perception of occurrence of question 1, viz. that the beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women. This was viewed by most respondents as very important, hence ranked position 2 with a mean score of 3,257. But the very same factor was perceived to be the least occurring in the experiences of the respondents with a mean score of 1,949 in position 36.
Table 6.5.2 indicates the factor that the beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women is ranked in the second position with a mean score of 3.257 in terms of importance. The extent to which this factor is occurring is perceived not to be happening at position 36 with a mean score of 1,949.

This response supports the literature study (cf. 3.3.1) that women in general, regardless of race have been discriminated against. In drawing up affirmative action policies, it should be taken into account that all women were also disadvantaged as a group.

**Table 6.5.3: Affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position</td>
<td>position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,223 3</td>
<td>37. Affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively</td>
<td>2,097 30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively is ranked in the third position of importance with a mean score of 3,223 as shown in table 6.5.3. However, the perception of the respondents about occurrence ranked the factor in position thirty with a mean score of 2,097.

The response shows that equal opportunities might be provided by employing affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform.

**Table 6.5.4: Compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position</td>
<td>position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,142 4</td>
<td>26. Compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme</td>
<td>2,020 32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 6.5.4 it can be deduced that compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme. This factor is ranked in the fourth position of importance with a mean score of 3,142. The participants perceived this not to be happening at a satisfactory rate as it is ranked in position 32 with an average score of 2,020.

The research shows that there is a great need towards the stance of compulsory education. Literature study (cf. 3.2.2) supports the idea of compulsory education and compulsory school attendance as contained in the South African Schools Act of 1996.

**Table 6.5.5: Affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,141</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35. Affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.5 shows that affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation. This factor is ranked in the fifth position of importance with an average score of 3,141 while the perception of the respondents shows that this factor enjoys least attention in as far as they perceive it. The factor is ranked at position 33 with a mean score of 2,013.

The debate from literature survey (cf. 3) whether affirmative action is aimed at reconciliation or victimisation is supported by the feedback from participants who regard this factor to be very important even though it is perceived as not getting the attention it deserves.
Table 6.5.6: Affirmative action is a practical mechanism to give equal opportunities to those who never had them before

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,134</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2,109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.6 depicts that affirmative action is a practical mechanism to give equal opportunities to those who never had them before. This factor is ranked in the sixth position of importance with an average of 3,134. However, the perception is that in reality not a great deal of attention is paid to this aspect as shown by position 29 and an average of 2,109 of this factor.

There is no conclusive argument from the literature study about this factor. However, respondents give an indication that this question is viewed as important to bring about education reform in South Africa.

Table 6.5.7: The way in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action often leads to negative attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,071</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,872</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.7 depicts the rank positions of question 28, viz. the fact that the way in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action, often leads to negative attitudes. This factor is ranked in the seventh position of importance with a mean score of 3,071 while the ranked position and mean score of the participants’ perception of occurrence is 37 and 1,872 respectively.
Table 6.5.8: Equal educational opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of compulsory educational opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,031</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2,047 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25. Equal educational opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of compulsory educational opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.8 shows the rankings of question 25, viz. that equal educational opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of compulsory educational opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups. It is ranked in the eighth position of importance with a mean score of 3,031. The perception of the respondents is that this factor is not receiving the attention it deserves, as it is ranked in position 31 with a mean score of 2,047.

This scenario confirms the literature study (cf. 3.2.2) that the previous status of compulsory education for the four main population groups, namely whites, coloureds, Indians and blacks was inherently unequal though it was statutorily mandated. This means that compulsory education was universally adhered to only in the cases of whites and Indians, and to a lesser extent in coloured education while it remained elusive in black education.

Table 6.5.9 In essence, affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,020</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2,159 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30. In essence, affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.9 shows the rankings of question 30, viz. that in essence, affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities. This factor is ranked in
position nine with a mean score of 3,020. The perception of the respondents from their experiences and observations is that this factor is receiving no attention in contrast to as it is supposed to, since it is ranked at position 26 with a mean score of 2,159.

The implication is that tensions and ambivalent feelings between racial, gender and historical backgrounds should be put into perspective by accommodation of differences and emphasising the commonalities.

Table 6.5.10 The spirit in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action leads to negative attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,996</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29. The spirit in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action leads to negative attitudes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.10 indicates the rankings of question 29, viz. that the spirit in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action leads to negative attitudes. This factor is ranked in position ten of importance with an average score of 2,996. The perception level of occurrence by the participants is in position 35 with an average of 1,989.

The implication is that the spirit in which the affirmative action mechanism as a reform strategy is viewed, is important for the mechanism to succeed.

Table 6.5.11 Utility structures like governing bodies in schools can influence the implementation of affirmative action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,986</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>38. Utilising structures like governing bodies in schools can influence the implementation of affirmative action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.5.11 shows the rankings of question 38, viz. that utility structures like governing bodies in schools can influence the implementation of affirmative action. This factor is ranked in the eleventh position of importance and is averaging 2,986. The perception level of the respondents about occurrence is that this factor is not receiving the attention it deserves. The factor is ranked in position 27 with a mean score of 2,151.

Literature study supports this factor (cf. 3.2.1). It is said that schools and their governing bodies as juristic persons could obtain ownership of their grounds and buildings.

The implication is that structures like school governing bodies could be very instrumental in the implementation of affirmative action policies with powers vested in them. What needs to happen is thorough training to make governing bodies understand the great responsibility that is awaiting them.

Table 6.5.12 Affirmative action will promote parity among previously unequal ethnic groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,904</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2,159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Affirmative action will promote parity among previously unequal ethnic groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.12 shows the rankings of question 5, viz. that affirmative action will promote parity among previously unequal ethnic groups. The factor is ranked in position twelve of importance with a mean score of 2,904. The perception of occurrence is at position 25 with an average of 2,159, which does not show satisfaction as perceived by the respondents.

This finding supports the literature study (cf. 3.2.1) that in the democratic era the government is doing everything constitutionally to provide equal education for all.

The implications for education provision will be far-reaching in order to eradicate the great disparity created by apartheid education. Rationalisation of inefficient education spending and reduction in per capita spending on less deserving projects would be undertaken.
Table 6.5.13 Even though racism is outlawed, it is still practised in educational institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,903</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Even though racism is outlawed, it is still practised in educational institutions

Table 6.5.13 shows the rankings of question 10, viz. even though racism is outlawed, it is still practised in educational institutions. This factor is ranked in position 13 of importance with a mean score of 2,903. The perception is that this factor of racism is still being practised at institutions even though law forbids it. The perception rank position is 34 with a mean score of 2,000. The fact that the issue of racism is ranked in position 13 of importance, speaks volumes about the success of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

The implication for education is that the race issue is the core of affirmative action, hence race and affirmative action cannot be divorced from each other if imbalances between racial groups that are an inheritance from past have to be tackled (cf. 4.3.2).

Table 6.5.14 Female teachers are under-utilised for management posts at schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,872</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2,180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Female teachers are under-utilised for management posts at schools

Table 6.5.14 shows that the factor of female under-utilisation for management posts at schools is ranked in position 14 of importance with a mean score of 2,872. This factor is regarded as important to consider. The perception is that this factor is not getting the attention it deserves. For this reason it is ranked in position 24 in perception about occurrence with a mean score of 2,180.

The implication is that the status of women should be affirmed in education circles in South Africa. The sooner this happens the better for the country. Literature survey
confirms that there is an acute under-representation of women in managerial positions, even though they constitute the majority of the total population (cf. 5.2).

**Table 6.5.15 Many male managers believe that women do not have what it takes to be successful managers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,862 15</td>
<td>3. Many male managers believe that women do not have what it takes to be successful managers</td>
<td>2,379 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.15 reveals the rankings of question 3, viz. that many male managers believe that women do not have what it takes to be successful managers. This factor is regarded as an important obstruction to affirmative action by participants since it is ranked in position 15 with an average score of 2,862. The perception is that the status quo still continues to exist that male managers view female managers as unable to manage successfully. This is depicted in the rank order of position 10 and an average score of 2,379. The difference in terms of importance and perception is not much, underscoring the importance of changing this view.

Literature study supports this finding (cf. 4.3.1), that there is a myth that women cannot be good managers or better managers than men can. The implication for education is that accelerated means to recognise the capabilities of women should be embarked upon. It is unacceptable that most teachers are females who are concentrated in pre-primary and primary school teaching while severely under-represented in headships and other positions of leadership.

**Table 6.5.16: Affirmative action differs from apartheid in the sense that it aims at advantaging individuals rather than disadvantaging others**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,854 16</td>
<td>33. Affirmative action differs from apartheid in the sense that it aims at advantaging indivi-duals rather than disadvantaging others</td>
<td>2,244 22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.5.16 shows the rankings of question 33, viz. that affirmative action differs from apartheid in the sense that it aims at advantaging individuals rather than disadvantaging others. This factor is considered as important since it is ranked in position 16 whilst averaging 2,854. On the other hand, the perception of respondents is that attention is not given to this aspect as it warrants. This is seen in the rank position of 22 and a mean score of 2,244.

This confirms literature study (cf. 2.3.1) that unlike apartheid education, which was aimed at disadvantaging specific groups, affirmative action is aimed at advantaging those historically disfavoured groups.

The implication for education is that there should be a strong advocacy for affirmative action rather than against it, with a sole purpose of bringing about equitable redistribution of resources.

Table 6.5.17: The most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives is to ensure job enrolment quotas in education institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,831</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2,307</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. The most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives is to ensure job enrolment quotas in education institutions.

The factor of the most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives, is to ensure job enrolment quotas in education institutions is ranked in position 17 of importance with a mean score of 2,831. The rank position of the same factor about occurrence is also 17 with a mean score of 2,307. This means that there is equilibrium in terms of importance and perception of the factor as viewed by the respondents.

The implication for education is that job or enrolment quotas will have a bearing on education reform in South Africa. In cases of resistance to change, literature study (cf. 3.3.2) revealed that this factor would ensure the success of affirmative action to an extent.
Table 6.5.18: Racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,824</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2,412</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. Racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction

The factor that racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction is ranked in position 18 of importance with an average score of 2,824 as shown in the table. This shows that the factor is moderately important as considered by the participants. The perception is that this factor is given attention as it is ranked at position eight with an aggregate score of 2,412.

The implication for education is that this factor is not regarded as very important since it is perceived to be catered for anyway by some institutions (cf. 3.2.4).

Table 6.5.19: One of the basic causes of racial clashes in educational institutions is that whites are afraid of losing what they have

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,807</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2,220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. One of the basic causes of racial clashes in educational institutions is that whites are afraid of losing what they have

The factor that one of the basic causes of racial clashes in educational institutions is that whites are afraid of losing what they have, is regarded as of limited importance since it is ranked position 19 with a mean score of 2,807. The perception is that this is not really a factor that warrants much attention since it is ranked in position 23 with an average of 2,220 by the respondents.

Nevertheless, the implication for education is that racial clashes in education institutions should be taken into consideration when affirmative action mechanism might be introduced. Though this factor is regarded as of limited importance, it is perceived to be impacting on education.
Table 6.5.20 The employment of women teachers is often accompanied by overt and covert discrimination in terms of promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,759</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2,318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. The employment of women teachers is often accompanied by overt and covert discrimination in terms of promotion

From table 6.5.20 it can be deducted that the factor that the employment of women teachers is often accompanied by overt and covert discrimination in terms of promotion, is regarded as important but not very important by respondents since it is ranked position 20 with a mean score of 2,759. The perception is that not enough attention is paid to this factor since it is ranked in position 16 with a mean score of 2,318.

The implication for education is that this factor has to be given still more attention in order to reform education in South Africa. Literature survey (cf. 3.3.1) confirms the findings of the research that women are either intentionally or unintentionally discriminated against. This might be connected to a belief that they cannot be good managers like men.

Table 6.5.21: Textbooks are biased against blacks in terms of their background, history and achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,738</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2,346</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. Textbooks are biased against blacks in terms of their background, history and achievement

Table 6.5.21 shows that textbooks are biased against blacks in terms of their background, history and achievement as it is ranked in position 21 with a mean score of 2,738. The factor is regarded as having some importance but not great importance. The perception that this is so, is rather strong since participants ranked the item at position 15 with a mean score of 2,346. Comparatively speaking, there is
a balance in terms of the degree of importance and the degree of perception concerning this factor.

This implies that some attention has to be paid to the nature of textbooks prescribed at schools with a special emphasis on the cultural, historical and achievement-orientated background for all racial groups, notably blacks.

Table 6.5.22: Inequality in society is regarded as indefensible

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,719</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2,250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.22 shows the factor that inequality in society is regarded as indefensible as moderately important, hence it is ranked in position 22 with an average of 2,719. The perception of respondents shows that the factor is also moderately perceived.

Table 6.5.23: A truly integrated education system will primarily result from enforced legislation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,699</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2,379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.23 shows the factor that a truly integrated education system will primarily result from enforced legislation is ranked at importance position 23 with a mean score of 2,699. This means that the factor is moderately considered to be important. The perception level of the participants is ranked at position 10 with a mean score of 2,379. The implication is that this factor is regarded as not happening to a satisfactory level.

The implication for the education system is that this factor should be considered when affirmative action policies might be implemented to reform education in South Africa.
Table 6.5.24: White women were beneficiaries of apartheid just like white men

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,680</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2,346</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.24 shows the factor of white women having been beneficiaries of apartheid just like white men to be ranked at importance position 24 with a mean score of 2,680. This means that this factor is regarded as having limited importance whilst it is perceived as having occurred moderately at position 15 of rank order with a mean score of 2,346.

The research finding does not show an overwhelming support of this factor that white women were beneficiaries of apartheid just like white men. Literature study does show a minimal indication in favour of this factor but a great indication is that all women regardless of race were victims and not necessarily beneficiaries of the previous education system (cf. 3.3.1).

Table 6.5.25: A basic factor causing racial clashes in educational institutions is irrational legislation forcing racial integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,676</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2,361</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.25 shows that a basic factor causing racial clashes in educational institutions being irrational legislation forcing racial integration is ranked in importance position 25 with a mean score of 2,676. The respondents showed that there is a limited degree of importance attached to this factor. This factor is ranked in position 12 of perception of occurrence with a mean score of 2,361. When comparing the mean score of both the importance and the perception, they are both approximately the same. This means that the factor is perceived equally with regard to the extent it
occurs and the extent it should occur.

The implication is that racial clashes in education are partly caused by irrational legislation forcing racial integration and partly by other factors. This factor might not be the basic factor but it is one of the contributing factors.

**Table 6.5.26: The reservation of managerial posts for all women as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,668</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3,489</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. The reservation of managerial posts for all women as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes

Table 6.5.26 shows the factor of reservation of managerial posts for all women as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of the affirmative action programme to be ranked in position 26 with an average mean score of 2,668. The respondents show that this factor is of limited importance but necessary. The perception is that this is being given great attention at present, hence ranked in position 4 with an average of 3,489.

The implication is that a great deal of energy need not be expended on it. Still, this factor should be noted as contributing either to the success or failure of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. Literature also supports this notion (cf. 3.3.2).

**Table 6.5.27: Affirmative action is a strategy to often substitute competent whites with blacks who are not always competent**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,665</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Affirmative action is nothing else than a strategy to often substitute competent whites with blacks, who are not always competent

134
Table 6.5.27 shows that the factor of affirmative action being nothing else than a strategy to often substitute competent whites with blacks, who are not always competent. is ranked in importance position 27 with a mean score of 2,665. This means that the factor is considered to be of a limited importance. The ranked position of perception is at position 18 with a mean score of 2,305. This means that the factor is not receiving the attention it deserves.

This implies that affirmative action should really be viewed as a strategy to reform education but not necessarily as a tactic to substitute one race with another. Should the latter assertion be the case, then affirmative action would not be the remedy it is hoped to be.

Table 6.5.28: Affirmative action will lead to incompetence and lowering of standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,662</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2,415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24. Affirmative action will lead to incompetence and lowering of standards</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.28 shows the factor that affirmative action will lead to incompetence and lowering of standards. This factor is ranked in importance position 28 with an average of 2,662. This means that the factor is viewed as of limited importance by the respondents. The perception of occurrence level is at position 7 with an aggregate of 2,415. This means that the factor is perceived as happening and hence has a direct bearing on possible failure of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform.

The implication is that affirmative action is perceived to have a bearing on incompetence and lowering of standards, but do not necessarily depend on it. Factors other than affirmative action might lead to incompetence and lowering of standards.
Table 6.5.29: Blacks who are over-optimistic to gain what they never had may cause racial clashes in educational institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td>position</td>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,662 29</td>
<td>8. Blacks who are over-optimistic to gain what they never had, may cause racial clashes in educational institutions</td>
<td>2,257 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.29 shows the factor that blacks who are over-optimistic to gain what they never had, may cause racial clashes in educational institutions to be of little significance with a mean score of 2,662 and ranked in position 29. The respondents perceived the factor to be moderately occurring with a mean score of 2,257 at position 20.

This implies that this factor of blacks being over-optimistic to gain what they never had might not necessarily cause racial clashes in educational institutions. Participants do not value this factor as very important for affirmative action mechanism.

Table 6.5.30: Affirmative action is about witch-hunting and reverse discrimination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td>position</td>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,658 30</td>
<td>32. Affirmative action is about witch-hunting and reverse discrimination</td>
<td>2,349 13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.30 shows that the factor that affirmative action is about witch-hunting and reverse discrimination, is regarded as not important. This factor is ranked in position 30 with a mean score of 2,658. The rank position of the perception of the participants is that this factor is occurring. In other words, both witch-hunt and reverse discrimination are perceived to be happening by participants. Since the factor is in the 13th position it is perceived as happening quite often.

The implication for education is that affirmative action should not be a witch-hunt and
reverse discrimination, it has to be a just a reform mechanism.

Table 6.5.31: Enforced multicultural school staff composition will help to achieve affirmative action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,652</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>22. Enforced multicultural school staff composition will help to achieve affirmative action</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.31 shows that the factor of enforced multicultural school staff composition helping to achieve affirmative action is ranked at position 31 with a mean score of 2.65%. This factor is regarded to be of minimal importance by the respondents. The perception is that the factor is strongly occurring and is ranked position 6 with a mean score of 2.444.

The implication for education is that it is not important or necessary to enforce multicultural school staff composition to achieve education reform. According to respondents, change should be a natural phenomenon, which needs not be enforced. This finding is in contrast with literature survey (cf. 3.3.4) that in some instances change has to be enforced to bring about education reform.

Table 6.5.32: The fact that black people are often being presented in curricula as labourers and white people as professionals will have an influence on their job prospects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,636</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1. The fact that black people are often being presented in curricula as labourers and white people as people in professions will have an influence on their job prospects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The factor that black people are often being presented in curricula as labourers and whites as people in professions will have an influence on their job prospects is ranked in position 32 with an average of 2,636 in table 6.5.32. This means that the
factor is considered as having minimal influence on education reform. This is supported by the perception that the factor is being regarded as occurring, hence it is ranked at position 9 with an aggregate of 2,398, but as posing no threat to good results of affirmative action.

This implies that this factor is not having far-reaching effects for education reform. It might be one of the contributory factors to bring about education transformation.

Table 6.5.33: It is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and maths, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank Position</td>
<td>Mean Rank Position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,619</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17. It is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and mathematics, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.33 shows the factor that it is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and mathematics, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies is ranked in position 33 with a mean score of 2,610. This means that respondents view it as having very limited importance. However, there are very strong perceptions that this factor is occurring in the life experiences of the participants. It is for this reason that the factor is ranked in position 1 with a mean score of 2,734.

This implies that the factor is not regarded as very important but perceived to be strongly happening. This aspect confirms the literature study (cf. 4.3.6) that girls are generally not encouraged to study science and mathematics. As a form of affirmative action to reform this situation, attention has to be paid to this aspect. Concerted efforts through specialised programmes have to be made to encourage girls to study mathematics and science stereotypes and negative attitudes towards girls should be discouraged.
Table 6.5.34: Affirmative action will not succeed because it is often criticized by people who have themselves been beneficiaries of affirmative action programmes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
<td>2,602 34</td>
<td>2,347 14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.34 shows that the factor that affirmative action will not succeed because it is often criticised by people who have themselves been beneficiaries of affirmative action programmes is regarded as of limited importance by the respondents as it is ranked position 34 with a mean score of 2,602. The perception of the participants is that the factor is moderately occurring in their work situation.

There is not much implication for education since only a small number feel and think positively strong about this factor.

Table 6.5.35: Most textbooks present limited portrayals of females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank position</td>
<td>2,566 35</td>
<td>2,377 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.35 depicts that the factor that most textbooks present limited portrayals of females is ranked in position 35 with a mean score of 2,566. This means that the factor is regarded as of little importance. The perception level of the participants shows a strong tendency that the factor is perceived to be happening. This is shown by the eleventh position of its rank order with a mean score of 2,377.

The implication for education is that this factor should not be a hampering factor towards affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform.
Table 6.5.36: The reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of the affirmative action programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,527</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2,649</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. The reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of the affirmative action programme.

Table 6.5.36 shows that the factor of the reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group ensuring maximum success of an affirmative action programme is regarded as being of little importance since it is ranked at position 36 with an average of 2,527. However, this factor is perceived to be strongly catered for. The participants ranked it at position 3 with a mean score of 2,649.

This implies that the reservation of managerial posts for blacks as a historically disadvantaged group will not necessarily ensure maximum success of affirmative action programme.

Table 6.5.37: The primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,461</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2,649</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. The primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks.

Table 6.5.37 reveals that the factor that the primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks is ranked second from last on the list, namely position 37 with a mean score of 2,461. This means that the factor is viewed to be of little importance by respondents in as far as bringing about educational change. This factor on the other hand is perceived very strongly to be given attention at position 2 with a mean score of 2,649.
Table 6.5.38: The fact that women are often being presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors and business men will have an influence on their job prospects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>FACTOR / QUESTION</th>
<th>PERCEPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank position</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,413</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2,460</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5.38 shows the factor that women are often being presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors or business men will have an influence on their job prospects is ranked last in terms of its importance, namely position 38 with a mean score of 2,413. In other words, participants felt that the factor does not have any importance concerning affirmative action as a reform mechanism. The perception shows that there is a strong tendency towards the occurrence of the factor as they experience it.

There is little implication for education since the factor was both perceived and ranked to be having minimal contribution towards education reform.

6.5 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the findings of the empirical investigation conducted to determine the perceptions of teachers in schools about factors which might influence the possible implementation of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa.

Chapter 7 will present the findings, summary and recommendations pertaining to the research.
CHAPTER 7
SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter firstly presents a summary, findings and recommendations of the research. The summary will focus on important aspects highlighted in the study as well as important aspects of the research findings.

The focus will secondly be on the findings with regard to the research aims posed in Chapter 1, that is findings with regard to the literature study to determine what the nature of affirmative action is (Chapter 2). Furthermore a summary of the factors that influence affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform is given (Chapter 3). Then an overview of the successes and failures of affirmative action in the United States of America and in the Republic of South Africa is presented (Chapter 4). Chapter 5 presented the research design. Chapter 6 focused on the empirical research and Chapter 7 concludes the study, which presents the summary, findings, recommendations and the conclusion of the investigation.

7.2 SUMMARY

In Chapter 1 an introduction to the background and statement of the problem concerning affirmative action was given. The aims and research methodology in terms of both literature study and empirical research were discussed. The investigative procedure to be followed, the instrument to be used, population targeted and manner of drawing a sample were set out.

Division of chapters, study of related research conducted, possible problems envisaged and how they could be circumvented, were explained.

The thrust of the research relates to the possible implementation of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. This study is necessitated by South Africa's transition to democracy, the changes in education system and the associated uncertainty, resistance to change and therefore the potential chaos inherent in such conditions.

It is supposed that educators are bound to be adversely affected. The focus needs to be on creating conditions conducive to the smooth implementation of affirmative action. This will aid the possible retaining of experienced and expert teachers amid
confusion and uncertainties, which are perceived to be caused by educational changes.

This would reduce high levels of discontent and apathy so as to advance effective education transformation through affirmative action mechanism, which are directly essential for the new democratic dispensation. Teachers would then be able to dispense their God-given mandate to educate learners (both black and white) with dedication, commitment and satisfaction.

In Chapter 2 an introduction concerning the nature of affirmative action was given as well as a concise account of the definition of concepts like affirmative action, mechanism, education, education system and reform.

The nature of affirmative action in terms of arguments for and arguments against affirmative action was discussed. It was emphasised that debate for affirmative action cannot and should not be absolutised at the expense of debate against affirmative action. The opposite is equally true.

Conditions for the successful implementation of affirmative action were identified by researchers to be the following:

- Affirmative action must not degenerate into an ideology.
- Affirmative action must be coupled with a change of mentality.
- Affirmative action should not rob people of their moral autonomy, merits and qualifications, and standards should be maintained.
- Affirmative action should be coupled with education and training programmes, which emphasise self-help as a solution.
- Affirmative action should be strictly a controlled and temporary measure and preference should be limited to a choice between two equally qualified candidates.
- Affirmative action should contribute to the establishment of a community value system.

In Chapter 3, factors influencing the implementation of affirmative action were discussed. These factors are basically differentiated in terms of their approaches, namely factors aimed at equality of opportunities, and factors aimed at equality of result.
The equality of opportunities approach, also known as the ‘soft’ approach, encompasses parity in spending, compulsory education, unified education system, support programmes, curriculum restructuring and service programmes for teachers.

In contrast to the ‘soft’ approach, there is an equality of result approach. This is also known as the ‘hard’ approach. This encompasses reservation of posts or positions, enrolment quotas and targets, enforced school integration, enforced multicultural school staff composition and equality of academic results.

Chapter 4 presented the successes and failures of affirmative action in the United States of America and South Africa. Focus was on the historical background of affirmative action in the USA, as well as contextualising education as early as from 1954 during the separate-but-equal education policy. Core aspects of affirmative action like gender, race and curriculum composition amongst others were discussed.

The picture about the education situation in South Africa and the need for affirmative action policies were also highlighted. The main focus was on the empirical investigation to determine the perceptions of participants on affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform. Since job satisfaction relates to the individual’s orientation towards the job situation, it is therefore sound that factors, which affect affirmative action, will be perceived differently.

In Chapter 5 an empirical research design was discussed. Various aspects of the empirical research design were explained, including the research method, the development of the research instrument, the population, sampling procedures, and administrative and statistical procedures. The purpose of the empirical research was to gather information concerning the attitudes of education participants in the Republic of South Africa, especially at school level, with regard to the affirmative action programme as a mechanism for education reform.

In Chapter 6 data were analysed and interpreted. Focus was on the general information about the education participants. The ranked order of the most important factors that might influence the implementation of the affirmative action mechanisms, as well as the ranked order of the most highly perceived factors that might influence the implementation of the affirmative action mechanism was discussed. A comparison between the factors that might influence the implementation of affirmative action programmes as experienced against as perceived was done.
Consequently, findings were discussed with reference to the aims of the investigation in chapter 1.

7.3 FINDINGS

7.3.1 Findings with regard to the first aim of the research: To determine the nature of affirmative action.

The following findings with regard to the nature of affirmative action were reached:

- Affirmative action is a strategy to empower the disadvantaged (2.2.1).
- Affirmative action refers to good faith efforts made by employers and educational institutions to recruit more of the disadvantaged who meet the minimum competency requirements for specific jobs or for admissions (2.2.1).
- Reparation strategies should guard against revenging for past injustices instead of levelling the playing field (2.2.1).
- Affirmative action should not be reduced to mere advancement programmes for the disadvantaged because that might lead to tokenism (2.2.1).
- Affirmative action is a moral consideration between justice and injustice and should not necessarily be governed by law (2.2.1).
- Affirmative action is a mechanism of redressing historical discrimination in different social spheres between and among people of different race, ethnicity, religion, gender and ability (2.2.1).
- Affirmative action must not degenerate into an ideology (2.3.1).
- Affirmative action must be coupled with a change of mentality (2.3.2).
- Affirmative action should not rob people of their moral autonomy (2.3.3).
- Merits, qualifications and standards should be maintained (2.3.4).
- Affirmative action should be coupled with education and training programmes, which emphasise self-help as a solution (2.3.5).
- Affirmative action should be strictly a controlled and temporary measure (2.3.6)
- Preference should be limited to a choice between two equally qualified candidates (2.3.7).
• Affirmative action should contribute to the establishment of a community value system (2.3.8).

• Affirmative action programmes are aimed at promoting parity between and among citizens of the country by increasing the participation of the disadvantaged individuals and groups in educational, economic, political and social circles of society (2.2.1)

• Affirmative action is a mechanism for the empowerment of blacks and females (2.2.1 and 2.4.1)

• Affirmative action should be seen as a temporary and curative measure for the injustices of the segregated education policies of the past (2.2.1 and 2.4.1)

• Affirmative action is not discrimination in reverse but positive discrimination in the sense that its objective is to advantage, not to disadvantage the historically marginalized groups, while reverse discrimination basically seeks to replace one injustice with another. (2.2.1)

• Affirmative action aims at pro-actively eradicating all disparities which created barriers for individuals to be unable to exercise their human rights as contained in the Bill of Rights of the South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996 (2.3.7 and 2.3.8)

• Affirmative action is targeted to bring the historically disfavoured groups on an equal footing with the historically favoured groups through special treatment based on the protection by law (2.2.1 and 2.4.1)

• Arguments for affirmative action cannot and should not be absolutised at the expense of arguments against affirmative action and vice versa (2.5)

7.3.2 Findings with regard to the second aim of the research: To identify factors influencing affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform

Based on the literature study, factors that might influence the implementation of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform were identified and classified under two distinctive approaches, namely the viewpoint of factors aimed at equality of opportunity and the viewpoint of factors aimed at the equality of result approach.

The equality of opportunity approach encompasses the following factors:
Parity in spending (3.2.1)
Compulsory education (3.2.2)
Unified education system (3.2.3)
Support programmes (3.2.4)
Curriculum restructuring (3.2.5)
Service programmes for teachers (3.2.6)

Factors aimed at equality of result, on the other hand, embodies the following aspects:

Reservation of positions (3.3.1)
Enrolment quotas and targets (3.3.2)
Enforced school integration (3.3.3)
Enforced multicultural school staff composition (3.3.4)
Equality of academic results (3.3.5)

7.3.3 Finding with regard to the third aim of the research: Successes and failures of affirmative action in the USA.

With regard to the successes and failures of affirmative action in the USA the following findings were arrived at:

There were different meanings attached to either the successes or failures of affirmative action in the USA (4.3). Although some researchers pointed out both the successes and the failures of affirmative action, other sources seemed to have been written by researchers who were either personally involved in affirmative action measures or who were advocates thereof.

The results of the research have therefore adopted a specific perspective on the issue of affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform. The researcher emphasised successes rather than failures with regard to affirmative action. On the other hand there were sources, which seemed to have been written by affirmative action detractors because of their emphases on the failures of affirmative action. In some instances, what seemed to be a success of affirmative action for some researchers, was seen as a failure by others. It was
therefore important to refer to the debate for and against affirmative action (2.2.1 and 2.4.1)

- To understand both the successes and failures of affirmative action, the historical background of affirmative action in the USA was researched (4.2).
- Core aspects of affirmative action were grounded against the following background:
  - Affirmative action and gender (4.3.1)
  - Affirmative action and race (4.3.2)
  - Curriculum composition (4.3.3)
  - Learning and resource material (4.3.4)
  - Teacher expectations, behaviour and interaction (4.3.5)
  - Teachers as models (4.3.6)
- It seems there is no conclusive consensus for either absolute successes or failures about affirmative action. The truth lies somewhere in the continuum between the two poles (4.3). Some researchers noted that affirmative action programmes are yet to succeed in the USA, given time and support.
- Different lawsuits and court orders in the USA had influenced and shaped its education system (4.3). Civil Rights Acts of 1964 are a good example in this case.

7.3.4 Findings with regard to the fourth aim of the research: To determine the attitudes of education participants in South Africa, especially at school level with regard to affirmative action.

Based on the empirical research the following findings were made:

- A truly integrated education system would primarily result from the will at heart of all education stakeholders. This means that the success of an integrated education system would depend on the efforts made by those willing to assist the process of change (3.2.3).
- Beneficiaries of affirmative action should include all women and blacks (2.2.1).
- Affirmative action should advocate the provision of equal opportunities for all South Africans to utilise their potential effectively (2.2.1 and 2.4.1).
• Compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme (3.2.1 and 3.2.2).

• Affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not at victimisation (2.2.1).

• Affirmative action is a practical mechanism aimed at giving equal opportunities to those who have never had them before (2.2.1).

• The way in which affirmative action is implemented, rather than the principle of affirmative action, often leads to negative attitudes (2.5).

• Equal educational opportunities could not be realised in an unequal society (2.3.2).

• Affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities between education stakeholders (3.2.5).

7.3.5 Findings with regard to the fifth aim of the research: To lay down guidelines for education role players facing the reality of affirmative action.

Based on the literature study the following guidelines were formulated:

• Education role players must guard against affirmative action measures degenerating into an ideology like apartheid policies did (2.3.1). Replacing one ideology with another will do the RSA more harm than good in the sense that roles between the historically disadvantaged and the advantaged will be exchanged for the sake of paying revenge instead of reconstructing and developing our country.

• South Africans found themselves trapped in the past, but should now move forward with their lives. South Africans should not be pre-occupied with the past but should take along with them useful experiences to shape a better future for themselves and the coming generations.

• Affirmative action should be regarded as a necessary evil for the wounds of the past to be healed. Affirmative action should not be regarded as a panacea for all the social problems, nor should it be viewed to be a blueprint for the future.

• Affirmative action should be grounded on the principles of Ubuntu, cultural diversity and inclusivity. This was not the case with apartheid education that
emphasised the "us and them" syndrome between and among different gender and racial groups instead of nation building (2.3.1).

- South Africa is a new democracy. Therefore everybody has a choice and responsibility in exercising his/her rights, duties, obligations and responsibilities. No rights are absolute.

- In order to achieve success with affirmative action, thrust should be behind moral justification, which includes bases of sound strategies, people development and stability (2.3.3).

- Attitude is the single most important factor in our abilities to deal with affirmative action. South Africans should move away from the black-white or male-female dichotomies in their thinking. There should be a mental paradigm shift from seeing and treating each other as unequal people, but rather as differently created and differently able (2.3.2). For affirmative action to be workable, it demands of every South African to change in mind and at heart.

- Affirmative action should not make blacks and women feel like victims in the post-apartheid era as they were during the apartheid regime (2.3.3). Affirmative action should actually uplift such groups.

- Education is an important, but not the only, criterion for the job. Alternative means should be sought for whereby an employee's potential and skills are determined, especially in occupations where an education qualification is not so important (2.3.4). The fact illustrated here is that it would be a fallacy to assume that unequal people from different social backgrounds should be treated equally and expected to perform equally while they are not coming from a homogeneous background (2.3.4)

- The implementation of affirmative action programmes should be reviewed at intervals to ensure cost-effectiveness and efficiency (2.3.6). Should it be realised that affirmative action programmes are counter-productive, they should be adjusted accordingly or replaced immediately (2.3.6).

- Affirmative action appointments should not be done indiscriminately. Situation analysis should be done while other contributory factors are also taken into consideration (2.3.7). Discretion and sensitivity should prevail in the appointment
of prospective employees based on their gender or race in order to meet the quota of the workforce.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

7.4.1 Recommendations based on the literature study and empirical research findings

Recommendation 1

Meaningful educational changes should permeate structural changes, which are often meaningless and superficial.

Motivation

Educational transformation has been perceived as not really meaningful. Individuals perceived that only physical changes of institutions and offices have materialised with little impact on the lives of people. Impersonal policies like enforced redeployment of educators against their will evoked negative attitudes. Most of those educators therefore opted for voluntary severance packages (VSP) whilst others decided to exit the teaching profession.

Most people felt that an integrated education system has materialised physically but a genuine merger of people across the racial and gender line has failed to materialise. Racial tensions and legal battles in institutions of learning and law respectively, are the order of the day. Such incidents are symptomatic of deep-seated frustrations of meaningless educational changes.

Recommendation 2

Affirmative action should strive towards ensuring upward mobility of blacks and all women as historically disadvantaged groups into managerial positions. Affirmative action policies should be focussed upon at all costs. Ways and means have to be sought for vigorously. Society should abandon traditional and stereotypic beliefs that inhibit the upward mobility of blacks and all women educators in the educational management hierarchy. Affirmative action should be implemented to redress the problems of historically disadvantaged groups and to ensure meaningful education transformation.
Motivation

In South Africa today blacks are in numerical majority but their representation in high profile positions is the direct opposite. There are few blacks in senior positions of decision makers though there is a steady increase. The same argument is true for women representation in senior managerial positions where serious decisions about organisations are taken. Token appointment should make way for real devolution of power to blacks and women to take meaningful decision in their work situation. The current steady increase in the appointment of blacks and women in governmental and non-governmental organisations is welcomed but its tempo need to be increased in order to reflect the demographics of the South African situation.

Recommendation 3

There is a dire need to pay more attention to research instruments that will elicit more realistic and authentic responses about affirmative action. Interviews could probably serve this purpose better.

Motivation

Most participants in the targeted area were not familiar with the method of completion of the questionnaire. Despite a declaration of keeping confidentiality of a participant’s identity, most respondents still suspected the anonymity of the questionnaire and felt that their responses would be divulged to authorities in one way or the other. Due to this perception, responses of respondents might have been according to their perception of desired or expected answers.

Since participants had to volunteer to take part, some exercised their choice of not getting involved because of the nature and sensitivity of the research. Still, participants could not have been misled as to the purpose of the investigation with the hope of eliciting the desired responses. Due to the nature of the study, crucial factors could not be omitted. Some participants had negative attitudes towards the researcher simply because of colour differences. There was a tendency of good cooperation between participants and the researcher of the same colour.

Institutions, which were more often sampled for research purposes, showed a negative or minimal co-operation with the researcher. Their belief was that they have been targets for surveillance by education authorities while others felt that they should be compensated for their participation.
Recommendation 4

There is a great need for research studies that will reflect the unique South African culture so that literature studies will mainly reflect the South African situation as against drawing parallels with the USA culture, which may not be reflective of the unique South African situation.

Motivation

Much of the literature on affirmative action is of an American origin because of the country's historical background. The implication is that deductions herein will be reflective of the American society. South Africa is unique regarding its population, socio-cultural nature, economic status, historical background and unique education system.

Consequently, there is a need for research findings to reflect on this uniqueness of the South African situation in a more scientific manner.

Recommendation 5

Education authorities should conduct a general survey of opinions of educators before finalising such policies without the inputs of those who are directly affected.

Motivation

The education department has to undertake a broader consultation approach in order to access its stakeholders or clients on crucial matters. Consultative and negotiation structures like the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) is not enough. Typical issues cited include salary increment means and redeployment policy to ensure equality. Participants felt that this mechanism was more disruptive than constructive for effective education to take place.

7.4.2 Recommendations for further research

The following topics might be considered for further research:

- Affirmative action as a form of reverse discrimination.
- Equality of treatment as a means to equal representation of blacks and all women in the new education dispensation in South Africa.
- Preferential appointment of candidates for positions in the new South Africa against the mandate of gender and racial representation.
• The question of minority groups in the democratic South Africa.

7.5 CONCLUSION

An attempt has been made to summarise all relevant points discussed in the previous chapters. Findings and recommendations emanating from the whole research project have been highlighted. It is hoped that recommendations advanced might assist to reduce or eliminate misconceptions concerning affirmative action as a vehicle for education reform in South Africa. The suggested topics for further research might contribute to the solution-finding for problems embodied by affirmative action.
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ANNEXURE A

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA
QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

1. DIRECTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. You need not anywhere enter your name, the name of your school, or the stamp of your school. Your honest answers will therefore not negatively affect either yourself or your school, but will be of great value to this research.

2. Section A: (General information) should be completed by circling only those cases pertaining to you or your school.

3. Section B: Factors which have to do with affirmative action have been identified by means of research. You are now requested to indicate your attitudes and perceptions concerning affirmative action.

First of all please read the statement and make your choice by crossing on the number corresponding to your choice.

2. SECTION A : GENERAL INFORMATION

1.1 Your age in years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>20-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
<th>41-50</th>
<th>51-60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1.2 Number of teaching experience as an educator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0-5</th>
<th>6-10</th>
<th>11-15</th>
<th>16+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1.3 Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary Education Diploma</th>
<th>Secondary Education Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Degree and Diploma</th>
<th>Higher Qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1.4 Post level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
<th>Level 5</th>
<th>Level 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1.5 Number of pupils in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0-100</th>
<th>100-500</th>
<th>501-1000</th>
<th>1000+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1.6 Number of staff (teaching and non-teaching)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>10-20</th>
<th>20-40</th>
<th>40-60</th>
<th>60+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1.7 Race / Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>White</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Degree of importance

1. Of no importance
2. Of limited importance
3. Important
4. Very important

### Your perception

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Degree of importance</th>
<th>Your perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White women were beneficiaries of apartheid just like white men</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many male managers believe that women do not have what it takes to be successful managers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female teachers are under-utilised for management posts at school</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The beneficiaries of affirmative action should also include all women</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The primary beneficiaries of affirmative action should be blacks</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the basic causes of racial clashes in educational institutions is that whites are afraid of losing what they have</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks who are over-optimistic to gain what they never had, may cause racial clashes in educational institutions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative action is nothing else but a strategy to substitute often competent whites, with blacks, who are not always competent</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even though racism is outlawed, it is still happening in educational institutions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reservation of managerial posts for blacks as an historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reservation of managerial posts for all women as an historically disadvantaged group will ensure maximum success of affirmative action programmes</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The employment of women teachers is often accompanied by overt and covert discrimination in terms of promotion</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racially integrated educational institutions should use English as the only medium of instruction</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A truly integrated education system will primarily result from enforced legislation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Degree of importance
1. Of no importance
2. Of limited importance
3. Important
4. Very important

To what extent should this occur
1 2 3 4

A basic factor causing racial clashes in educational institutions is irrational legislation forcing racial integration

It is generally accepted that girls are not encouraged to study science and mathematics, which is one factor that can be addressed by affirmative action policies

The fact that black people are often being presented in curricula as labourers and white people as people in professions, will have an influence on their job prospects

Textbooks are biased against blacks in terms of their background, history and achievement

Most textbooks present limited portrayals of females

The most pragmatic instrument to achieve affirmative action objectives is to ensure job and enrolment quotas in educational institutions

Enforced multicultural school staff composition will help to achieve affirmative action

The fact that women are often being presented in curricula as housewives or servants and men as doctors or business men will have an influence on their job prospects

Affirmative action will lead to incompetence and lowering of standards

Equal educational opportunities cannot be realised in an unequal society without the provision of compensatory educational opportunities for historically disadvantaged groups

Compulsory education for all learners in South Africa should be viewed as an affirmative action programme

Affirmative action will not succeed because it is often criticized by people who have themselves been beneficiaries of affirmative action programmes

The way in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action often leads to negative attitudes

The spirit in which affirmative action is implemented rather than the principle of affirmative action, often leads to negative attitudes

In essence, affirmative action endeavours to accommodate differences and similarities

Your perception
1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

To what extent does this occur
1 2 3 4

Your perception
1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

To what extent does this occur
1 2 3 4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of importance</th>
<th>Your perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Of no importance</td>
<td>1 Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Of limited importance</td>
<td>2 Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Important</td>
<td>3 Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Very important</td>
<td>4 Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent Should this occur</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31 Inequality in society is regarded as indefensible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32 Affirmative action is about witch-hunt and reversed discrimination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 Affirmative action differs from apartheid in the sense that it aims at advantaging individuals rather than disadvantaging others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34 A truly integrated education system will primarily result from the will at heart</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 Affirmative action is fundamentally aimed at reconciliation and not victimisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 Affirmative action is a practical mechanism to give equal opportunities to those who never had them before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 Affirmative action advocates the idea of equal opportunity provision so that all South Africans can utilise their potentials effectively</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 Utilising structures like governing bodies in schools can influence the implementation of affirmative action</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEXURE B

PERMISSION LETTER FROM GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH
REQUEST TO CONDUCT STUDY ON AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Thank you for your follow-up letter received on 26 August 1999. Approval is granted that you may conduct your interviews and administer questionnaires to teachers in District S 3 primary, intermediate and secondary schools as they appear in the list provided.

Permission is subject to the following conditions:

- The District Director concerned is to be informed that you have received permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct your research in the specified GDE school.

- Please show this letter to the school principal and the chairperson of the school governing body as proof that you have received the Department's consent to carry out the research as detailed above. The letter places no obligation to schools to participate in the research.

- A letter/document which sets out a brief summary of your intended research should please be made available to the principal of the school concerned.

- Please obtain the goodwill and co-operation of the principal, chairperson of the governing body, learners and teachers involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive any special benefit from the Department, while those who prefer not to participate will not be penalised in any way.

- You must conduct your research during school hours and the normal school programme should be interrupted as little as possible. The principal should be consulted as to the times when you may carry out your research.
• The names of the school and teachers may not appear in your dissertation without their consent.
• Please supply the Department via the Research Unit with a bound copy of the dissertation. You may also be requested to give a short presentation on your findings.
• Please supply the Director in whose district the school is located with a brief summary of your findings.

The Department wishes you well with this project and looks forward to hearing from you in due course.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

THOMAS MATHIBA
HEAD: RESEARCH UNIT: DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION INFORMATION
ANNEXURE C

COVERING LETTER TO PRINCIPALS OF SCHOOLS FOR THE PURPOSE OF ADMINISTERING AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE
Dear Colleague

RE: A LETTER TO PRINCIPALS OF SCHOOLS FOR THE PURPOSE OF ADMINISTERING AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The above matter bears reference.
2. It is my humble plea to request your permission and co-operation on conducting a research on AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA.
3. Anticipating that you might have a busy schedule, you are humbly requested to complete the questionaire and give the same to all your sub-ordinates as soon as you can. I believe that it will not take much of your time. I am also pressed for time and very sorry to mention this.
4. I am sure you will agree with me that, with the present education dispensation, such a study to determine perceptions and the extent to which perceptions has to apply, is indespensable.
5. Please be assured of the confidentiality of all participants in this study. Therefore do not fill in your name or the name of your school and do not put a school stamp anywhere on the questionaire.
6. Permission to conduct this study in schools falling under Vanderbijlpark South (S3 District) has been granted by the Gauteng Department of Education.

Allow me to thank you in advance for taking your valuable time and co-operation on this crucial issue in our education system.

Yours sincerely

TSOTETSI S.M (Stephen)
ANNEXURE D

CLARIFICATION FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO THE GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Dear Mr. Mafisa

RE: CLARIFICATIONS ON MY RESEARCH REQUEST

1. My target population for research as requested is Principals, Deputy Principals, Heads of Departments and teachers in the S3 District not only teachers as worded in your previous approval.

2. The target schools are all Secondaries, all farm schools, all intermediate and 40 Primaries in the S3 District.

3. My last humble plea is to be allowed to include the race issue in my research because affirmative action in South Africa is of such a nature that race becomes an indispensable component of the research because of our past history. I discussed this with my promoters and I was advised to ask for your permission to include this aspect in the research.

4. The list of names of schools is attached.

5. I am patiently awaiting your approval so as to fit within the scheduled time for this term.

Thank you in anticipation

Yours faithfully

TSOTETSI S.M.
ANNEXURE E

IDENTIFICATION LETTER OF THE RESEARCHER
FROM THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR
TO: ALL PRINCIPALS
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
INTERMEDIATE AND RURAL SCHOOLS

COMPLETION OF A QUESTIONNAIRE TO CONDUCT A STUDY ON
AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AS A MECHANISM FOR EDUCATION
REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

I hereby request you to help Mr Tsotetsi to complete the questionnaire on the above study.

I whole hearted support this undertaking.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

DISTRICT DIRECTOR
L W C HENDERSON

ACTING DISTRICT DIRECTOR: VANDERBIJLPARK SOUTH
ANNEXURE F

AN APPROVED LIST OF SCHOOLS FALLING UNDER THE VANDERBIJLPARK SOUTH 3 DISTRICT BY THE GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
ARM SCHOOLS
1. Brauns Estate
2. Damfontein
3. Duwendela
4. Michael Rua
5. Nyskallong
6. Pamfontein
7. Phulaneng
8. Ratasetjhaba
9. Rusoord
10. Skansdam
11. Soboka sa Krista
12. Walkerville

SECONDARY SCHOOLS
1. Aha-Thuto
2. Driehock
3. Drie Riviere
4. Dr Malan
5. General Smuts
6. MTS Vereeniging
7. Isizwe Sotchaba
8. Jabulile
9. Lekoa Shandu
10. Leshata
11. Mohloli
12. Overvaal
13. Rephela
14. Riverside
15. Rochnee
16. Suncrest
17. Thamsanqa
18. Thetha
19. Thuto-Lore Comprehensive
20. Transvaillia
21. Vaal High
22. Vereeniging High
23. Vulindlela

PRIMARY SCHOOLS
1. Anglican
2. Arconpark
3. De Deur
4. D F Malherbe
5. Drie Fiviere
6. Dr Verwoerd
7. Emfulenipark
8. Emmanuel
9. Handhawer
10. Historia
11. Itsoso
12. Intlonipho
13. Itemoheng
14. Japie Greyling
5. Kollegepark
6. Kopanong
7. Laus Deo
8. Lobowa
9. Lehlaseli
10. Madume
11. Matei Steyn
12. Meyerton
13. Milton
14. Meeki
15. Moyisela
16. Nomini
17. Orange Farm
18. Park Ridge
19. Pinedene
20. Pudumo
21. Radipabi
22. Reamohetse
23. Refalletse
24. Rekgutlile
25. Republiek
26. Ris1ville
27. Roshenee
28. Rust Ter Vaal
29. Selborne
30. Sonlandpark
31. Suikerbos
32. Titima
33. Tshopana
34. Tshpetso
35. Tshopetse
36. Unitaspark
37. Voorwaarts
38. Vryheidsmonument
39. VuBuzakhe
40. Vulindlela
41. Vuyo
42. Zonkizizwe
ANNEXURE G

REQUEST LETTER TO THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR OF VANDERBIJLPARK SOUTH 3 FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Dear Dr Nduna - Watson

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DISTRIBUTE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The above matter has reference.

2. With reference to my telephonic enquiry from you on the 07.03.99, I would like to request permission to distribute questionnaires to schools under your area of jurisdiction.

3. To this effect I would like to be furnished with addresses, telephone and fax numbers and names of persons who are in positions of authority, so that I can make contacts with them.

4. I am the principal of a Secondary school in Memel, once falling under the then Orange Vaal Education Region of former DET. I am a registered MEd student (student number 10880380) with Potchefstroom University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

5. My research tries to ascertain perceptions of teachers concerning affirmative action as a mechanism for education reform in South Africa. I need this information to complete a chapter on empirical research for my studies.

6. I hope and trust that my application will be considered at your earliest convenience.

7. Attached is a sample of a questionnaire that I intend and promise to administer it in strict confidence to teachers at schools. Should there be a need for adaptation I promise to administer the same after having made aware of such adaptations.

Yours faithfully

TSOTETSI S.M (Stephen)