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**HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AS A  
DETERMINANT OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF THE  
NORTHERN PROVINCE**

**Tendani Emmanuel Sivhabu**  
B.A. (Fort Hare), B.Ed., UED (Venda)

**Dissertation submitted for the degree Magister Educationis in  
Comparative Education  
at the  
Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys**

**Supervisor: Prof. H.J. Steyn  
Potchefstroom  
1996**

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## SUMMARY

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The study was aimed at discovering the extent to which the education system of Venda satisfies the human resource needs of that area. Chapter one not only outlines the aim of the study but also defines certain terminology used in the text. It also gives an outline of the research methodology.

Chapter two identifies the theoretical guidelines with regard to how the education system is related to human resource needs. In defining the education system the chapter indicates that education cannot be divorced from the society in which it exists and therefore must be seen as a social, cultural and economic phenomenon.

Chapter three examines the manner in which human resources function as a determinant of the education system. In examining the meaning of human resources it indicates the importance of developing the skills of the people as well as indicating the importance of attitudes towards work of the people, thus showing that skills and attitudes together help create good human resources for the growth and development of society.

Chapter four indicates general educational needs as well as the criteria to be used for the purposes of this research. It indicates that basic skills should be developed in all people so that they can be able to adjust properly to the workplace. It emphasises the importance of reading, writing, computation and speaking abilities as the basis for education which intends to develop good human resources.

Chapter five is the empirical study. It therefore indicates how the postal questionnaire was used. It also contains the results of the empirical study, and explains them.

Chapter six gives the conclusions as well as the recommendations that are a result of this research. It concludes that the education system and society are bound together and should not be separated, that human resource development is an important aim of education systems and therefore development should not be one-sided but should be complete, that is, it should include social and cultural skills and economic development. Thus education in Venda should not ignore this, and should be of a good quality as from the lowest standards, so that whether a person has an education of up to Standard 5, 8 or 10 it should not be an insurmountable handicap to adjustment to the work situation.

**Key concepts**

Education system; Human resource development; Development planning; Determinant; Educational needs; Educational target group; Vocational education.

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## OPSOMMING

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Die doel van die studie was om vas te stel tot watter mate die onderwysstelsel in Venda in die mensekragbehoefte van die gebied voorsien. Hoofstuk een gee nie slegs die doel van die studie weer nie, maar verskaf ook sekere definisies van terme wat in die studie gebruik word, en verskaf ook 'n aanduiding van die metodologie wat gebruik is.

Hoofstuk twee identifiseer die teoretiese uitgangspunte met verwysing na die samehang tussen die onderwysstelsel en die mensekragbehoefte. Deur middel van die definisie van die onderwysstelsel word in die hoofstuk aangetoon dat onderwys nie van die samelewing as 'n geheel geskei kan word nie, en dat die onderwysstelsel daarom gesien moet word as 'n sosiale, kulturele en ekonomiese fenomeen.

Hoofstuk drie ondersoek die wyse waarop die mensekrag as 'n determinant van die onderwysstelsel funksioneer. In die ondersoek na die betekenis van mensekrag word die belangrikheid van die ontwikkeling van mense se vaardighede aangetoon sowel as die waarde daarvan om by mense positiewe gesindhede teenoor werk te skep.

In hoofstuk vier word die basiese vaardighede aangedui wat in alle mense ontwikkel moet word sodat hulle behoorlik in die werkplek kan aanpas. Die belangrikheid van lees-, skryf-, praat- en rekenvaardighede, as die basis vir die onderwys wat goeie mensekragontwikkeling ten doel het, word beklemtoon.

In hoofstuk vyf word die empiriese studie beskryf. Dit dui daarom aan hoe die posvraelys gebruik is, en bevat ook die resultate van die empiriese studie terwyl die resultate verklaar word.

Hoofstuk ses bevat die samevatting en die aanbeveling wat gemaak word as 'n uitvloeisel van hierdie navorsing. Daar word tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat die onderwysstelsel en die samelewing so nou verweef is dat hulle nie geskei kan word nie en dat mensekragontwikkeling 'n belangrike doel van onderwysstelsels is. Hierdie ontwikkeling moet nie eensydig wees nie, maar dit moet sosiale en kulturele vaardighede en ekonomiese ontwikkeling insluit. Onderwys in Venda moet dus daarop fokus dat, ongeag of 'n individu onderwys ontvang tot op die vlak van Standaard 5, 8 of 10, daar effektief by die werksituasie aangepas kan word.

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I am particularly indebted to my supervisor, Professor H.J. Steyn. His insightful guidance made it possible for me to go as far as I have done.

I am also indebted to Mrs E. Mentz, who patiently went through the mass of questionnaires in order to change them into workable statistics.

I thank Prof. A.L. Combrink for editing the language.

I would also like to thank the staff of the Ferdinand Postma Library of Potchefstroom University, the University of Venda Library, the Venda College of Education Library, and the Sibasa National Library for readily assisting me in my search for sources.

I would be lacking in gratitude if I do not thank Mrs S.C. de Bruyn for spending so much of her time typing and printing this dissertation.

I would also like to say thank you to all my friends who, in one way or another, contributed to the success of this study.

Last, but not least, I would like thank my family. You spent many lonely days and nights. All I can say is "A ni ntshilele!"

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## **DEDICATION**

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This work is dedicated to my parents.

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## CHAPTER 1

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### 1. ORIENTATION

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

According to the *Reconstruction and Development Programme* (RDP) document (ANC, 1994:5) people are the most important resource that South Africa has. Since they are the most important resource any country has, people need to be given opportunities to develop themselves in order for them to improve the quality of their own lives. Such people will then be able to help their own communities towards meeting their basic needs, and in doing so contribute towards making the economy of the country grow.

Education has a very important role to play in the development of human resources (Williamson, 1979:3). A country that recognises this, like Japan did after World War II, is well on its way towards improving the quality of life of its people and its economy (Shimuzu, 1992:109). This chapter will give an exposition of the problem for the research, the aim of the study, the methodology used for the research as well as the significance and the feasibility of the research. It will also indicate the chapter division of the research as well as the problems encountered while doing the research. Terms used will also be defined.

#### 1.2 PROBLEM ORIENTATION

Steyn (1992:3) states that "the educational system is created by people to answer the educational needs of people and therefore the educational system emerges from the educational needs of that particular group of people". Tlou and Youngman (Crowder, 1984:7) put the same point of view this way: "An education system is a reflection of the society in which it exists." The educational system of a nation should therefore provide for the educational needs of that country as a whole, including social and economic needs. The social needs of the country will be, for example, the transmission of values, norms, culture and tradition, while the economic needs will include the equipping of the people for the skills needed in the workplace. As Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985:3) state in this regard, "...education, like other

forms of investment in human capital can contribute to economic development and raise the incomes of the poor...".

Others, however, disagree with the latter contention. They maintain that education can not only fail to contribute to economic growth, but may also hold it back. This is because education in some societies has become elitist, fails to measure the products to the needs of the people it is meant for, and above all, education systems are resistant to change (Williamson, 1979:1). Another problem is that while societies have unlimited needs there are only limited resources for fulfilling those needs. Therefore an education system may be desired by the people and yet be too expensive to provide to the people due to the limited resources available.

Human resource planning has in the past been put forward as a measure to counter these problems of scarcity of resources and the unsuitability of outputs from the formal education system. Manpower, the human resources of the country, has to be developed. In order to develop human resources there has to be proper planning.

According to Freeman (1979:77), educational and training programmes have to be initiated in such a manner that the future supply of labour "meshes" with future demand in order to avoid the dual dangers of "shortage" of skilled workers creating bottlenecks in economic growth, and surpluses of workers with outmoded and or unwanted skills.

Venda, which is at present part of the Northern Province of the Republic of South Africa, is a developing region within a third world context and it is therefore unlikely that it does not have to cope with the problems stated above. As noted in the Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the System of Education in Operation in the former Republic of Venda (July, 1981), some of the major problems confronting the education system of Venda are the lack of well-defined aims and objectives, financial constraints, and manpower problems. There is a severe lack of skilled human resources and financial resources in Venda. The system of education in Venda suffers from "its almost total separation from the needs and aspirations of its consumers, whether parents, teachers or pupils (Commission Report, July 1982). [N.B. As stated in paragraph 1.9.2 the term Venda has been used throughout this research to refer to the geographical area where the research was done. The researcher wishes to acknowledge here that the Republic of Venda as a politically independent country does not exist anymore, and the term Venda, as used throughout the research refers to the geographical area in the far northern part of the Northern Province largely

occupied by people who speak the Tshivenda language. It is in this part of the Northern Province that the research was conducted, and it is for this reason that the term Venda, and not "Republic of Venda" has been used.]

With the above in mind the study will revolve around the following research problem:

To what extent does the education system in Venda satisfy the human resource needs of the population?

In order to achieve this the following sub-problems will have to be dealt with as well:

- \* Which theoretical guidelines with regard to the relationship between the national education system and the human resource needs of the population in developing countries?
- \* How are the educational needs of the population affected by the human resource needs of Venda?
- \* How do the identified educational needs, as looked at in the context of the theoretical guidelines, compare with the aims and objectives of the Venda education system?
- \* Are innovative changes in the education system of Venda necessary in order to satisfy the human resource development needs of the people in Venda?

### **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of the study is as follows:

- \* To determine whether the education system in Venda satisfies the human resource needs of the country.

To reach the aim of the study the objectives of this study are as follows:

- \* To identify the theoretical guidelines with regard to the relationship between the education system and the human resource needs of communities in developing countries.
- \* To determine and investigate how the educational needs of the population are affected by the human resource needs of Venda.



- \* To compare the educational needs with the aims and objectives in the Venda education system.
- \* To investigate which innovative changes in the education system of Venda can contribute towards the success of the education system to fulfill the human resource needs of the population.
- \* To make recommendations as to how, if necessary, the education system in Venda can satisfy the human resource development needs of Venda.

#### **1.4 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS**

- 1.4.1 Human resource development. It is the process by which people are prepared for a productive employment role, improving their skills and abilities and therefore contributing to their maximum potential in producing the combination of goods and services preferred in the society for social and economic progress (Hallack, 1990:1; Todaro, 1985:352).
- 1.4.2 *RDP* (Reconstruction and Development Programme): This is the policy framework of the present South African Government. It is an integrated programme, based on people, building the nation and linking reconstruction and development. The programme is thus intended for meeting the basic needs of the citizens of South Africa as well as opening up the human potential (i.e. developing the human resources) of the country and building the economy (ANC, 1994:1-13).
- 1.4.3 *Venda* is an area (a territory) in the far Northern Province largely occupied by Tshivenda-speaking people. In 1979 it was given independence by the former South African government, which independence came to an end in April 1994 when elections were held in the whole of South Africa. When the major part of this research was done Venda was still an independent territory. For this reason and also for the reason that while the independence has been rescinded Venda as a geographical territory still exists, the term Venda has continued to be used in this research. In other words, Venda as a politically independent country does not exist anymore, yet Venda as a geographical area which existed long before independence was ever thought of, still exists with its people and the school system as it has existed during the independence years. (The name Venda was not given to this territory during independence but had been there for generations and generations long before independence [see also

1.9.2 and 3.3.5)). The syllabi being used at schools in 1995 are still those of the Department of Education and Training. The researcher wishes to state unequivocally that the use of the term Venda does not imply that the researcher refuses to acknowledge that the "Republic" of Venda does not exist anymore, i.e. there is no political intention on the part of the researcher when using the term Venda. For this reason the researcher did not use the name "Republic of Venda" except where a publication which bears the name "Republic of Venda" has been used.

## **1.5 METHODOLOGY/PROCEDURE**

### **1.5.1 Literature study**

Use was made of both primary and secondary sources in order to obtain information on education in developing countries. These were obtained from the library of the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, the libraries of the Universities of Venda, South Africa, and the North as well as the Venda National Library in Sibasa and the Venda College of education Library in Thohoyandou. This will be done in order to:

- \* obtain information on human resource development;
- \* obtain information on the aims and objectives of the Venda education system as well as the education systems of the developing countries;
- \* determine the feasibility of improvements to make the education system satisfy the human resource needs of the people.

### **1.5.2 Postal questionnaires**

Postal questionnaires were also used. They were posted to employers since the researcher deemed it necessary as the employers are the ones who employ the products of the education system. The purpose of the postal questionnaire was to:

- \* determine what employers regarded as the necessary skills for employment;
- \* determine the human resources development needs of the Venda population;
- \* determine the relevance of the education for both the economy at large as well as for the workplace;

- \* cross check/verify information obtained in the literature study.

## **1.6 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH**

It is hoped that this research will help in solving the problems of quality as well as relevance in education in Venda as well as help in providing a basis for the proper provision of education geared towards the development needs of the people of Venda.

## **1.7 FEASIBILITY**

Many studies have been conducted and books published by educationists, education economists, development economists, and sociologists on the role of education in development. The World Bank as well has published and released several reports on the role that education can play in development. These reports have been quoted in many publications by different authors. Many African countries have also tried to tackle this issue. All these will be of immense help to the researcher.

## **1.8 THE STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION**

This work is divided into the following chapters:

- \* **Chapter 1:** Introduction.

This chapter discusses the problem under investigation. It also gives the aim of the study as well as the research methods used in the study.

- \* **Chapter 2:** The education system and development needs: some theoretical guidelines.

The chapter defines the education system and also discusses the components of the education system as well as its structure. It also examines the relationship between the education system and educational needs.

- \* **Chapter 3:** Human resources development as a determinant of educational needs of Venda.

This chapter examines how human resources functions as a determinant of the education system. It also examines the influence of human resources development on the education system, even discussing the human resources situation in Venda.

- \* **Chapter 4:** General educational needs and the criteria to be used for this research.

The chapter discusses general educational needs as indicated by various authorities. It also examines the aims of education in Venda. Furthermore, it gives criteria to be used for the purposes of the empirical study for this research.

- \* **Chapter 5:** An empirical study of the educational needs in Venda.

Chapter 5 deals with the design of the research and the presentation analysis and interpretation of the results.

- \* **Chapter 6:** Summary, conclusions and recommendations.

This chapter gives a summary of the issues dealt with in the whole research as well as the conclusions and recommendations necessitated by the work.

## **1.9 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED DURING THE RESEARCH**

The researcher encountered certain problems during the course of this study.

### **1.9.1 Literature study**

It was very difficult to find enough relevant and up to date information on the human resources situation of Venda. This is why the Venda National Development Corporation Business Directory of 1994 was used as the main source of information on the subject. The researcher's own personal knowledge and experiences as a resident and a worker in this area also helped to fill in the information gaps. All this, however, indicates that there is a need for more research like this one on the human resources situation of Venda.

### **1.9.2 Venda's changed political status**

As indicated in paragraphs 1.4.3 and 3.3.5 Venda's status as an independent state has changed since April 1994. The research was in large part done before Venda again became part of South Africa, and continued even after April 1994. Because of the change in the political status of Venda a decision had to be made as to whether to change the topic of the research as well as the references to Venda in the research.

After thorough consideration of this dilemma it was decided to replace the name "Venda" in the topic by "Northern Province" but still retain the reference to Venda in the research. The reason for this decision, as stated in paragraphs 1.4.3 and 3.3.5 was that Venda as an area where people who largely speak the Tshivenda language reside still exists. Also the name Venda for this area was not given by those who gave Venda independence or accepted it, i.e. the name has been Venda for generations. Moreover, the research was done in the former Republic of Venda. However, acknowledgement is given of the fact that Venda as a Republic does not exist anymore, and therefore except where it was necessary to use the name Republic of Venda, for example, where a publication with the name Republic of Venda was used the researcher avoided using the word *republic* when referring to Venda.

#### **1.10 SUMMARY AND FURTHER PROGRAMME**

Chapter one has served to introduce the problem under investigation as well as put it in its context. It has also given the aim of the study. The methods of investigation have also been given. The following chapters, which include the empirical study, address the problem for the study and its various aspects as discussed in this chapter.

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## **CHAPTER 2**

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### **2. THE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS: SOME THEORETICAL GUIDELINES**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The aim of this chapter is to identify the theoretical guidelines with regard to the relationship between the education system and the human resource needs of communities in developing countries. In order to do this effectively the chapter will examine the education system with special emphasis on what the education system is (defining the education system), the structure and components of the education system, as well as the determinants of the education system. The chapter will also examine the relationship between development needs of the community and the education system, investigating the relationship between education, society and the economy, as well as that between education, society and development.

#### **2.2 COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AND EDUCATION SYSTEMS**

The education system is composed of various social structures. Each of the social structures has the responsibility for a particular facet of educative teaching. In this manner the particular and general needs of a community are dealt with in accordance with a particular purpose and plan. Each country's education system is a concrete manifestation of this phenomenon of reality known as "education system". The education system is therefore both a universal and a unique entity (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:xiii, 6-7).

Comparative education has the education system as its field of study and research. The comparative educationist looks at the various education systems of the world in order to make discoveries about the education system as a general and universal social structure, always remembering that education systems are actually concrete forms of reality that manifest themselves in various forms in every country of the world (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:Xiii).

Comparative education has to look at both the specific and general functioning of the education system in order to find the most appropriate way to satisfy the educational needs of particular communities. In providing education to a community it has to be

considered what development needs are there for that community. Familiarity with the culture of the people, their language, their traditions, their politics as well as their type of economy and their economic status (whether they are developed, developing or underdeveloped) is important. With regard to the latter point, consideration must be given to the community's human resource needs, that is, the quantity as well as the quality of their present and projected human resources as well as the skills needed. This implies human resource development and planning. This will have a direct impact on the type, quality and quantity of education provided and therefore on the education system of that particular community. It is therefore of particular importance to develop more information about the types of education systems, their internal functioning, the general characteristics of specific education systems, the components of the education system as well as the determinants of the education system (Vos & Brits, 1990:34-35; Meier, 1976:5-11).

## **2.3 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM**

### **2.3.1 Defining the national education system**

According to Vos and Brits (1990:31), "...the education system is ... more than a school system, .. it is also a socio-cultural system and is as such a sub-system of the socio-cultural milieu". Education is a task that is undertaken by all communities of the world, both developed and underdeveloped. As Shimuzu (1992:109) contends, the education system is now a universal institution, with schools firmly established in the way of life of people. Every education system has its own shape and character in accordance with the social structure and the cultural background of each society even if the societies may appear to be very similar. In simple primitive societies the transfer of cultural values, customs, traditions and the way of life of the community is important. While the transfer of cultural values, customs, traditions and the way of life of the community is as crucial for developed communities as it is for underdeveloped communities, there is more to education in developed societies than just this. As Van Schalkwyk (1988:2) says, "in the modern and highly developed communities of the twentieth century education has become a complex, comprehensive and highly specialised training and dissemination as well as acquisition of knowledge in a highly differentiated and scientific manner within a network of basic and specialised institutions". Hence an extensive system of supporting services is necessary to assist in the provision of education and the achievement of proper educative teaching. Education then becomes a system of interacting sub-structures

which form part of the whole structure of society. The education system becomes a specific structure comprising of specific components.

The main task and aim of the educational system is, according to Steyn (1992:3), "to provide effective teaching for the target group. The primary activity in the educational system is effective teaching", which he defines as "planned activities to bring about the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes" (Steyn, 1992:3). All structures in the education system therefore function with the aim of fulfilling the task of effective teaching.

When effective teaching is done it has to be in accordance with the educational needs of the community. The education system does not exist in a vacuum, but exists because there is a need for it and because there are needs that it can satisfy or help in providing for the satisfaction of those needs. The needs will be needs of a specific group of people. (Steyn [1992:3] calls them the target group.) The people's educational needs co-determine what the specific education system will be like, that is, its nature and content. Other factors such as the quality of personnel available and the present situation of the existing education system also play a role.

The target group of a national education system to be identified will be those people living within the boundaries of a specific territory. The concept of territory allows us to be able to talk of the Canadian system of education and the South African system of education - to name but a few. This therefore means that with the concept of territory we can talk of a national system of education.

From the above discussion one can pick out several important elements that can help in defining the education system. These are a logistical structure, effective teaching, educational needs, group of people and territory. Steyn's definition of the national education system is therefore particularly relevant. He defines the education system as a logistical framework for effective teaching for the satisfaction of the educational needs of a specific group of people in a specific territory (Steyn, 1992:3-4).

## **2.3.2 The structure and components of the education system**

### **2.3.2.1 Introduction**

Various writers recognise various components as parts forming the structure of the education system. Van Schalkwyk (1988:41-164) recognises educational policy and legislation, organisational structure of the education system, managerial and



legislation, organisational structure of the education system, managerial and administrative structures, educational institutions, supportive services and structures with an interest in education as components of the education system. Steyn (1992:13-36) recognises the following: education system policy, education system administration, structure for teaching and supportive services. For the purposes of this work the following will be discussed as components for describing the logistical framework of the education system:

- \* education system policy,
- \* education system administration,
- \* structure for teaching, and
- \* support services.

This is because the researcher recognises that any education system should have policy and should be administered. It should also have structures in which teaching is conducted. In addition, an education system is not and should not be isolated, and therefore needs some services to support it. Society will also have an interest in what takes place within the education system.

#### **2.3.2.2 Education system policy**

According to Van Schalkwyk (1988:41), "educating and teaching are fundamentally the responsibility of the community. However, to ensure that this task will be effectively realised, it is carried out by specialists on behalf of the community". The community carries the general responsibility for the education and teaching of the members of that community while the specialists have the particular responsibility of educating on behalf of the community. Some communities require education of a religious nature, others of a patriotic nature, while some may want a vocational type of education. Since these are convictions, they take shape in an educational policy, which may even become law. The educational policy makers have to remember that educative teaching is both universal and individual, and they must make the educational policy with proper consideration of the universal educational principles. An educational system policy should also be in accordance with the needs of the community for which it is formulated, hence Steyn (1992:14) defines educational policy as "the expression of the way in which identified educational needs of the target group are to be realised". It is therefore the basis for the establishment and coordination of the system of education so as to meet the target group's educational needs.

Without educational policy the goal of the national education system cannot be met. Educational system policy allows for proper establishment of effective education system administration, structure of teaching and supportive services for the proper attainment of the goals of a specific education system.

Educational system policy must also clearly indicate the target group and the education and/or training needs of that target group. The policy-makers must, in doing this, look closely at the demographic information of the target group, the economic and industrial situation of the target group, and the common and individual education and/or training needs that are there within the individual interest groups in the target group.

Van Schalkwyk (1988:42) divides educational policy into two categories. An educational provision policy, also called a theoretical policy, indicates the **what**, for example, "what the direction, spirit and character and objectives of education should be and what the basic idea, motive and nature of education should be" (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:42). Educational executive policy, also known as the practical policy, on the other hand, deals with the **how**, indicating how a particular idea, motive and nature can be implemented, that is, in what ways and using which methods and techniques.

Policy functions as a starting point for the public functions of education, guiding the action and being a model, guideline and regulator for the design and practice of the education system. Policy changes as people's motives, desires and outlook change. An educational system policy gives rise to education laws, rules and instructions (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:42-43).

### **2.3.2.3 Educational system administration**

The education system, being a specialised but also interwoven entity, needs to be properly administered and managed. Administration and control of education are facets of educational management. Educational management, like other facets of public management, involves such factors as policy-making, financing, control and administration of the education system (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:12). It is a way of ensuring the proper functioning of educational institutions, which may be schools or departments of education or even one education system as a whole. Educational administration therefore indicates the structural organisation and the organising of

functionaries and personnel in the education system. It determines the educational policy as well as ascertain the implementation of the accepted policy.

There will be functionaries or personnel who are responsible for the management of the education system; these will be called education system managers. There will also be functionaries responsible for identified administrative tasks. Furthermore education system administrating will also have functionaries responsible for the management of the funds made available to education (Steyn, 1992:22-23).

### **2.3.2.4 Structure for teaching**

#### **2.3.2.4.1 Introduction**

According to Steyn (1992:26), "the structure for teaching (with regards to the national education system) indicates the structural combination of all educational institutions at all four educational levels, namely the pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary levels and also the possibilities of pupil movement within and between the different educational institutions according to their differentiated educational needs". Its chief function is the creation and arrangement of teaching and learning situations for effective provision for different abilities, interests and choices of learners, and the demands by the community or the target group. The structure for teaching consists of the following elements:

#### **2.3.1.4.2 The structure for educational and/or training programmes**

This deals with the educational (training) levels and institutions, curricula, differentiation, entrance requirements, as well as evaluation and certification.

##### **2.3.2.4.2.1 Education levels**

The structure for education programmes in the national education system is composed of four levels, viz. the pre-primary level, which is the first level and is usually not compulsory; the primary educational level, which provides general basic education, the minimum education for the acquisition of basic literacy and is often compulsory; the secondary educational level, which may have some degree of specialisation and be compulsory as well; tertiary education, which is usually entered only after successful completion of secondary education and is usually meant for job specific advanced education (Steyn, 1992:26-29).

#### 2.3.2.4.2.2 Educational institutions

In order to implement its main task of educative teaching, the education system makes use of educational institutions, for example, schools, colleges, and universities. Each educational institution has to be managed externally on the central, regional or local level and internally by its own managerial staff. Educational institutions are the structures whose responsibility lies in the carrying out of the function of the education system (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:105).

#### 2.3.2.4.2.3 Curricula and differentiation

Curricula are different educational courses or education programmes for the provision of the educational needs of the target group. Curricula ensure both the vertical and the horizontal movement of learners through the structure of educational training programmes. Steyn (1992:29-30) says that there should be provision for individual, cultural and life-view differentiation.

More fundamental, the differentiation possibilities should recognise the needs of the target group. For the national education system this means taking cognisance of the needs of the country as a whole. "The choice of learners should not, for example, exceed the demand for manpower and conversely the human resource needs of the country can greatly influence the choice possibilities of the learners" (Steyn, 1992:30).

Each education system plans its own differentiation possibilities in its own way. One way would be by having it done through types of schools, which may be technical, agricultural or other types; subjects of study, which may be mathematics, biology, history and others; and levels, which may be lower, standard or higher. Movement can be both vertical (from a lower to a higher standard) or horizontal (between the different types of schools, subjects, courses and levels. There can also be differentiation according to age and sex differences of the learners, as well as with cognisance of intellectual abilities (Brickman, 1984:417-418).

#### 2.3.2.4.2.4 Other elements in the structure for teaching

The structure for teaching should also describe the following with regard to the learners:

- \* the quantity and quality of the learners,
- \* their distribution figures within the system,

- \* their socio-economic status,
- \* their geographical distribution, and
- \* their dropout figures.

The following should also be explained by the structure for teaching with regard to the educators:

- \* the quantity and quality of the educators,
- \* the training opportunities and facilities available to them,
- \* their academic and professional qualifications,
- \* their relationships with pupils, and
- \* their service conditions and benefits (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:13-14; Steyn, 1992:32-33).

Whenever possible and especially in the lower standards the medium of instruction should be the mother tongue as this facilitates learning. The structure for teaching should therefore look at the language used within courses/programmes and curricula, and how proficient the learners and the educators are in the language (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:110,249).

The structure for teaching should also examine the locality where education takes place, that is, the physical facilities. Attention should consequently be given to whether the necessary facilities are available, their distribution, their usage and their costs (Steyn, 1992:32-33).

### **2.3.2.5 Support services**

#### **2.3.2.5.1 Introduction**

Education is dynamic and is therefore dependent on help from outside the school. Support services are therefore necessary. Ruperti (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:132) defines support services as "the organised outside help given to individual schools so that their education may run smoothly". Furthermore, support services are there for the sake of and in aid of educative teaching. They are there for the purpose of improving the quality and effectiveness of education activities.

### 2.3.2.5.2 Types of support services

According to Van Schalkwyk (1988:132) support services can be divided into two categories, namely, services to the learners and services to the educator/teacher/lecturer. Steyn (1992:33) uses three aspects related to the educational activity in order to identify support services. These are the educators, the learners, and the teaching activities and structures:

- \* Support services for the educator/teacher/lecturer have to do with the educator's personal problems, personality problems, environmental problems and problems with occupational skills. Services that deal with the drawing up of curricula and those dealing with the provision of skilled or professional knowledge belong to this category of support services for the educator/teacher/lecturer.
- \* The learner may have personal problems, physical problems, and environmental problems. Medical, guidance, media, and other services of this kind are meant for the learner (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:132; Steyn, 1992:33).

According to the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI Support Services, 1992:1-3) support services include school health, school guidance and school counselling, and special education. They are there to address problems the child experiences, for which support is needed. These areas of difficulty include:

- \* special academic and learning problems, which can be addressed by special education;
- \* physical health problems, which can be addressed by school health services;
- \* emotional concerns, which can be addressed by counselling services;
- \* career education needs, which can be addressed by school guidance services;
- \* life skills, which can be addressed by both school guidance and special education;
- \* poverty-related problems, which can be addressed by school guidance and counselling services as well as health services.

Support services should, in a new education system, have the following goals to reach in order to be effective in addressing the difficulties as stated above:

- \* all children of schoolgoing age should have access to preventive physical and mental health care;
- \* the children should also have access to academic development services;
- \* those with special physical, mental and academic needs should have access to specialised services.
- \* support services should as much as possible be integrated to the general curriculum (NEPI Framework Report, 1993:223).

In times of social transition, like South Africa (and therefore Venda) finds itself in, support services can help in smoothing the transition. Also, where human resources development is a concern, the link between school guidance and counselling services and the world of work and the economy in general is not only strong but also vital (NEPI Framework Report, 1993:1-3).

#### **2.3.2.5.3 Summary**

Since support services are there for the purpose of improving the quality and effectiveness of education services, they should be given priority status in education in South Africa, and therefore Venda. They need to be developed and provided in a clear but common way, although differences should be recognised as no two human beings are exactly the same, and in the same light, no two schools are exactly the same and therefore the services should be provided in accordance with the needs of the particular child and school.

#### **2.3.2.6 Structures with an interest in education**

Through education society prepares the growing young people for their task within the society. Through education the pupils learn the norms, culture, traditions and values of the society in which they find themselves, apart from their learning of pure subject matter. It is because of this reason that society has an intense interest in education and takes such responsibility for education.

The structures within society that are usually interested in education are, for example, the state, the parents (family), the church (the religious community) and industry (the

business world). Other structures that can have an interest in education are cultural bodies, sports bodies and welfare services (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:143-164). Since society is an organised whole, the structures mentioned above should also function in an integrated manner. There should be co-operation in order for proper education to take place. For example, the state should not pass laws that prevent the proper functioning of other structures e.g. passing laws that severely restrict the ability of employers to help in the provision of education to their employees; or passing laws that impede the church's role in education. With proper co-operation between and amongst the structures with an interest in education the community will be able to take full responsibility for the education within society.

While there should be co-operation and integration in their approach to education, each social structure also has its own individual responsibility and duties. For example, the state, apart from passing laws that directly and indirectly affect education also has the responsibility of financing the education. "State interference is necessary in matters such as demographic affairs, economic possibilities and restrictions, manpower requirements, employment, national ideals and requirements, etc." (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:16).

### **2.3.3 Determinants of the education system**

#### **2.3.3.1 Definition of determinants**

"The determinants of the educational system refer to those factors that have a qualifying influence on the structure and functioning of the concerned educational system" (Steyn, 1992:16). They can be divided into two major groups, namely, the internal determinants and the external determinants.

#### **2.3.3.2 Internal determinants**

Internal determinants are those factors that can be present or absent in an education system and can either restrict or are beneficial to the efficiency of that particular education system" (Steyn, 1992:16). Internal determinants refer to:

- \* the situation in which the education system finds itself with regard to the components of the education system such as education system policy, education system administration, structure for teaching and support services;
- \* the way by which the different components limit and benefit each other;



- \* the educational/training principles, i.e. the preconditions and requirements which must be kept in mind with regard to the trainers, learners, content, methods and strategies of education and training (Steyn, 1992:16).

Internal determinants can be educative, historic and interactive in nature. The determinants are educative in nature when the focus is placed upon the learners. The determinants become historic in nature when the existing content or conditions of the educational system components are such that they stimulate or restrict the provision of educational needs. They have an interactive character in a situation where the character or content of one component stimulates or limits the character or content of another component (Steyn, 1992:61-62).

### **2.3.3.3 External determinants**

#### **2.3.3.3.1 Introduction**

External determinants can be said to be those external forces and factors that influence the generality of the education system and bring about the unique specialness of a particular education system's characteristics. They are concerned with the physical environment (physical surroundings) of the education system and the educational needs of the learners as members of a particular target group and a particular social community. One can identify, for example, the philosophy of life, the socio-cultural factors, history, the economy, politics or the political system, the demography and the geographical environment as elements of the external determinants of the educational system (Steyn, 1992:62-63).

#### **2.3.3.3.2 Philosophy of life**

Vos and Brits (1990:39) call this the ground motive, which is the spiritual force with the capability of motivating an individual or a community, with or without their being aware of it. The ground motive is realised in one or more philosophies of life. There can be, among others, Christian, Muslim, rationalist, empiricist, pragmatist, communist, and even pagan philosophies of life. The philosophy of life determines the nature and content of the educational system. It influences, for example, its basic objectives, characteristics, principles, directions, contents, methods, teacher-child-parent relationships and evaluation procedures. For example, since human liberty (liberalism) and rights are regarded as absolutes in the United States of America, no form of religion is allowed in public schools (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:10).

#### **2.3.3.3.3 Socio-cultural factors**

The social factors include the social patterns, interpersonal and intergroup relations as well as group relations. The cultural factors will include such factors as language, culture, traditions, customs and ideals of a community. The socio-cultural factors give rise to specific educational needs and place particular demands on educational provision. The culture of the target group gives the components of the education system a specific content and determines the educational needs of the target group. For example, in Kenya education contributes towards social stratification which in turn has an influence on education through creating specific educational needs (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:7; Welch, 1993:8).

#### **2.3.3.3.4 History**

According to Steyn (1992:66), "when referring to history as a determinant of the education system one is referring to the cultural historical milieu from which an education system derives. It therefore includes the references to the political history, economic history, social history; history of the church and how the different historical events or the different domains determined the current education system". For example, the Canadian government keeps a low profile in education due to the social, religious, political and economic history of the country. Education has always been regarded as the concern of the local community and not the federal government. In the same light African education today reflects the historical influence of Western colonial powers (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:6).

#### **2.3.3.3.5 The economy as external determinant**

According to Vos and Brits (1990:45), the economic aspect concerns the careful use of resources. "The economic aspect of an education system refers not only to the financial matters (financing), budgeting, salaries, etc.) but also to the frugal economic application of resources (time, classroom, space, etc.)" (Vos & Brits, 1990:45). The financial position of a country determines the amount of money available for education. The education system functions in an economic manner in that it provides the economic sector with trained manpower. Examples of the influence of the economy as a determinant of the education system will be:

- \* Japan, which because its greatest asset is its human potential, places great demands on education to produce skillful, able and ethically sound workers for all aspects of industry. As Blinco (1993:181) argues, one of the dominant

contributing factors contributing to Japan's economic success has been its education system.

- \* Kenya, which although it can be classified as both an industrial and an agricultural country, is not well-off since technical and agricultural education are not adequately provided for. Moreover, where these types of education are offered Kenyans still tend to prefer an academic training (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:9).

#### **2.3.3.3.6 Politics**

Politics refers to the way in which the state is managed as well as the legislation passed. Whatever the politics of a country, it directly influences the education system not only by way of control and administration but also as related to the contents, objectives, methods and character of the education system. For example the centralised government structures of Japan, China, the Netherlands and Kenya lead to centralised management of the education system. On the other hand the decentralised structures of the USA, Canada and Switzerland lead to decentralised education system management. Also, using the Charter of People's Rights the USA and Canada guarantee equal educational opportunities for all (Steyn, 1992:68).

#### **2.3.3.3.7 Demography and the geographical environment**

Demographic factors as a determinant include the numbers, the distribution and the demographic dynamics of the target group of the education system, while the geographical factors include physical matters, such as topography, situation, plant and animal life, natural resources (raw materials), climate and other natural determining elements. The availability of raw materials as well as the topography of the country determines the concentration of people and therefore the concentration of educational institutions in the education system (Steyn, 1992:69). For example, while the Netherlands is so small and densely populated so that the administration, control and provision of education are cheap, easy to run and efficient, Canada is vast and sparsely populated and thus requires a largely decentralised system of educational provision and administration (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:34).

#### **2.3.3.4 Summary**

Determinants are important in the education system since they have a qualifying influence on the structure and the functioning of that particular education system.

Since determinants, whether internal or external, are resultant from the community in which the education system is, they are therefore important in determining educational needs since such needs are also rooted in the community. The next section will look at how development needs and the education system inter-relate.

## **2.4 DEVELOPMENT NEEDS AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM**

### **2.4.1 Introduction**

Education systems are there in order to cater for the educational needs of the society in which they exist. This means that the community's needs, both educational and development needs, have to be known and understood in order for a proper education system to be established. The development needs may be, for example, social, cultural, economic, and political. One aspect of economic needs that an education system will want to be able to meet is human resource needs. This will again be impacted upon by the social character of the community as well as their economic and political conditions. It is important therefore to examine how the education system and development needs of the community or the target group inter-relate.

### **2.4.2 Education, society and the economy**

Education and society cannot be divorced from each other. Education has an impact on society just as society has an impact on education. Williamson (1979:2) therefore contends that the sociology of education should widen its scope into comparative studies. He also maintains that the economic and political problems of underdevelopment can be illuminated by studies of education.

While Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985:3) say that "...education, like other forms of investment in human capital can contribute to economic development and raise the incomes of the poor...", others, like Williamson (1979:3) also recognise that in many societies education not only fails to contribute to economic growth but can actually hold it back. It is often elitist and fails to match the kinds of people it produces to the needs of the society in which it functions. Perhaps the most fundamental failure of such education systems, according to Williamson (1979:3), is that they have great resistance to change. People tend to cling to the known and fear to venture into the unknown or the new. When education systems show this resistance to change then this can have dire consequences for society at large.

Education cannot be looked at without also looking at the question of planning, e.g. planning for social and economic upliftment and development. As Williamson (1979:2) points out, "...questions of the broader ends of social development and social justice cannot be separated off from questions of change in education. The point is hardly new but we do well to remember it, for change in education is complex. Whatever the direction of change there is always a complex equation to be solved - who benefits? Who bears the cost?" Further questions can be: - What type of education to provide? When should this be done? Even, where is this specifically needed? The planner will have to consider these questions when planning for and introducing change in the education system (Williamson, 1979:2).

### 2.4.3 The meaning of development

The decades since World War II may well be termed the Age of Education. There appears to be no logical limit to the expectations we have for the education system as a social institution. According to Bock (Altbach *et al.*, 1982:78) education is called upon to alleviate poverty, to serve as the vanguard for individual self-improvement. Particularly in new nations that are attempting to merge diverse and often competing ethnic and tribal groups into a unified nation, it is the task of education to provide the young with competencies required for productive participation in the changing economy. It also has to mobilise previously parochial populations to political consciousness; and with reform the inequities of distribution.

Developing nations see themselves as having been disadvantaged for too long, and therefore look at the lack of education as the cause of their underdevelopment, often forgetting that there might be more to their underdevelopment than merely education or the lack of it.

But what is development? Are development and economic development one and the same thing? According to Meier (1976:5-11) economic development is merely part of the total development of a society. Economic development is nothing less than the upward movement of the entire social system. Development means growth plus change. Development also means man's improved ability to control nature, and also a change in man's attitudes and values. As Meier (1976:11) says, development should not be viewed as an end in itself but it must be viewed as a means- an instrumental process that can help in overcoming persistent poverty, absorbing the unemployed and reducing inequality.

Seers (Todaro, 1985:85) makes a comment that is closely related to this when he says that questions to ask about a country's development are therefore: "What has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality?" This means that without an improvement in any one or all of the above conditions, one cannot talk of development. Todaro (1985:85) tells succinctly what development is when he says that "...development must be conceived of as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the reduction of absolute poverty. Development, in its essence, must represent the whole gamut of change by which an entire social system, tuned to diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups within the system, moves away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory and toward a situation or condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually better".

To add to this view of development, it could also be mentioned that education should aim at the balanced development of the human being, that is, education should not aim to develop only one aspect of a person, for example, the aesthetic function or the ethical function. Man is not merely a religious or a thinking (rational) being; he is also a moral being. In particular he also has a social function. He also has the ability and power to create, and is therefore a creative being. Furthermore, the development should be relevant in the sense that the education provided should be such that it enables the learner to make a contribution to the life of his times (he must be able to realize his particular aim in life), prepares him for life now and in the future (future-oriented), and equips him to make his contribution as a member of his community (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:33).

#### **2.4.4 Education, society and development**

Ellis *et al.* (1986:134) comment that "...education is the sum total of one's learning experiences during a lifetime... It is a process by which a person gains understanding of self, as well as of his environment". According to this view education is not a one-off thing that is experienced at only one particular time and is then forgotten. It actually embodies the whole of a person's experiences in life, and is therefore a process. Education, from a sociological perspective, does not only involve the self in relationship with society and the interactions between the various sections that form society. The economy, the people and the politics of the nation all interact and all have an effect on education variously and individually. The French sociologist Dürkheim (Williamson, 1979:2) therefore maintains that "...education is the influence

exercised by adult generations on those not yet ready for social life..." Society therefore attempts, through education, to consolidate from one generation to another its norms, values and political beliefs as embedded both in its culture and politics. Ramatebele (Crowder, 1984:4) therefore conceptualises an education system as a "reflection of the society in which it exists; that society, and the political and economic forces within it give rise to the education system." Steyn (1992:3) concurs, maintaining that "the educational system is created by people to answer the educational needs of people and therefore the educational system emerges from the educational needs of the particular group of people".

However, while society may have particular educational needs, there are other needs as well contending for attention, especially related to finance. It is important to note that where the financing of public education is concerned, economics is primarily concerned with the allocation of scarce resources (money) to competing consumers (social institutions, including schools) (Ellis *et al.*, 1986:253). With limited resources societies can provide just as much education and educational facilities as competing priorities permit. As Illich (1971:107) stated, referring to Puerto Rico, this widening discrepancy between aspirations and resources can result in a deepening frustration among those excluded from the education system and consequently from employment.

Education also has to look at the needs of the economy so as not to overproduce or produce skills unnecessary for the economy in particular and therefore leading to unemployment and the possible consequent social discontent. Education is not only a basic human right but it is also a basic component of social and economic development.

#### **2.4.5 The role of education in development planning**

After World War II, and particularly in the 1950's and 1960's developed countries injected a lot of money into Third World countries for the purpose of helping in development. However, it was only later that they realised that they had to invest in human beings as well (Altbach *et al.*, 1982:54-57).

In the 1950's and the 1960's great emphasis was put on the modernisation of the economy as well as on achieving an expansion of Gross National Product (GNP), Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and Gross National Income (GNI). According to Tlou and Youngman (Crowder, 1984:1) the assumption was that such benefits of economic growth would spread or trickle down to the whole population. These were

the decades of decolonisation and there was a great concern not only for planning for that development but also for the founding of new nations. Planning was seen as a means of accelerating the process of economic development and also for preparing a sound economic basis from which the colonial territories could launch out as independent nations (Conyers & Hills, 1984:43).

In the 1960s there was growing disillusionment with this emphasis on planning for economic growth. There was now a growing awareness that development meant far more than economic growth and might include such goals as social equity. Development planning was then seen more as an integral part of a much more complex and continuous process which results in real and actual change of conditions rather than as a mere preparation of plans on paper. Also, plans have to be realistic in that they should not ignore the social, economic and political environment in which they will have to be implemented. Planners should be aware of resources available, in particular the financial and human resources, as well as other constraints which will determine what can and cannot be achieved. In other words, plans should represent what can realistically be achieved, not what the planners would ideally like to see (Conyers & Hills, 1984:43-44).

Thus the notion of development has now come to be bound up with education and with planning, as development now requires a proper planning system and an equally sound education system. Education has to be included in national planning because of its role in production, in human resource development and because of the proportion of national resources that is devoted to education (Forojala, 1993:1-2; Samoff, 1993:181).

#### **2.4.6 Investment in education**

Until World War I and the period just after that there was little emphasis on education for the developing countries (which were in general still colonies then). Education was regarded as a spending service. Even after World War II education was still regarded as essentially an item of social consumption, largely distinct from considerations of economic investment. It was assumed that the developing countries would quickly follow the path of the industrialised nations catching up quickly with them (Forojalla, 1993:v-xvi).

Disillusionment with this approach started setting in the 1950s. The period of independence (1957-1965) saw new governments with great faith in education as a



remedy to social, economic and political ills, and justified the clamour of their populations for more and more educational opportunities. The World Bank as well started realising that education was a productive investment in human capital (Graham-Brown, 1991:36-37).

As time went on disillusionment with the economic value of education started setting in. It soon became apparent that the skills shortages of the 1960s were being replaced by the growing unemployment of the educated. As Forojalla (1993:8-10) contends, the belief that more education leads to better jobs, i.e. that there was a direct relationship between years of schooling and occupational attainment had to dissipate as it was soon realised that with the expansion of educational provision, the number of educated persons has outstripped the absorptive capacities of most African economies, resulting in large numbers of educated unemployed. Also, poverty and enormous disparities of wealth persisted despite the massive expenditures on education (Conyers & Hills, 1984:43-46; Samoff, 1993:181-184).

## **2.5 SUMMARY AND FURTHER PROGRAMME**

The education system, being a logistical framework for the provision of educative teaching to meet the educational needs of the community, is important for purposes of study. While education systems are not identical, they do have several uniform characteristics that give them similarity, and thus make it possible to study national education systems. The uniqueness that the various national education systems may have is due to such factors as the politics, the history and the economy of the country. The education system of each country is determined by the educational and development needs of that country. It is important to understand that development should not be one-sided but should be complete, that is, it should include social, cultural, skills, and economic development. The human resources of the country should be attended to as these are important for development, and for the quality of education provided. In the light of this the next chapter will look at what human resources are, what human resource development is, what human resource planning means and at how human resource development can function as a determinant of educational needs, with particular reference to the human resource situation of Venda.

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## **CHAPTER 3**

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### **3. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AS A DETERMINANT OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF VENDA**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter dealt with the education system, both defining it and examining its structure and components. The chapter also looked at the determinants of the education system and the relationship between the education system and development needs.

This chapter will therefore examine how human resources development functions as a determinant of the education system. This means that the term human resource development will have to be carefully examined and in so doing human resource planning and its function in human resource development will be examined. The influence of human resource development on the education system will be examined carefully to determine how human resource development influences the education system.

The human resource situation in Venda will also be examined, and this will necessitate a brief analysis of the economy of Venda.

### **3.2 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AS A DETERMINANT OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM**

#### **3.2.1 Human resources**

The term human resources implies the use of people or the human factor, their skills, and their capabilities to work and produce, that is, the utilisation of people or the human factor in economic growth and development. The term also implies human capital, which is "the productive investments embodied in human persons" (Todaro, 1985:589). These include the skills, abilities, ideas and health of people that are a result of expenditures in education, on the job training and medical care. Salvatore and Dowling (1986:101) concur with Todaro and define human capital as "...the productive qualities embodied in the labour force. These refer to the level of education, skills, health and nutrition of the labour force". A country's potential for

economic growth lies not only with its wealth in physical resources, e.g. land and minerals. but also with its human resource wealth, i.e. both the numbers and particularly the level of skills of the human factor (Murray-Thomas, 1992:24).

An excellent example of a country which has managed to develop quite well despite its relative lack of physical resources is Japan. According to Shimuzu (1992:109), Japan owes its extraordinary economic success to the human resources that its education system develops. Despite their lack of natural resources, the Japanese are rich in human resources because the Japanese education system develops and produces human resources that are remarkably able to adapt non-Japanese techniques and technology. From early on, and particularly since the 1960's, Japan has sought to fully develop its human capital potential in order to compete well in the world economy, an aim they have achieved with distinction. As Lee (1991:19) says, "the National Income Doubling Plan of 1960 asserted that the development of human abilities, involving education, training and research, was of paramount significance". Hence, "...improving human capacities and encouraging education in science and technology should become a principal goal of a country's development". Thus not only did the plan aim at improved technology, but also realised that educational standards have to be improved as without this the human resources could not be developed well. The 1962 White Paper on Education, "Japan's growth and Education", suggested similar ideals, and so did subsequent education and development plans, including the New Economic and Social Development Plan of 1970-1975 and the Ad Hoc Council on Educational Reform's First and Second Report on Educational Reforms of 1985 and 1986 respectively (Lee, 1991:19-22, Blinco, 1993:171).

However even if a country had many skilled people it would not be enough if their skills were not relevant to the country's needs and if their attitudes towards work as well as their desire for self-improvement were negative. Culture as well as the technology available for the labour force will also affect productivity (Freeman, 1979:49, Adams, 1987:97).

To sum up, human capital is the acquired ingenuity or skills of the human resources, and together with physical capital can contribute to economic growth (Vaizey, 1984:313). This implies that there should be planning, and thus leads to the next section, which is human resource planning.

### **3.2.2 Human resource planning**

#### **3.2.2.1 The meaning of planning**

According to Klatt (1986:17) planning represents a series of actions established in advance in order to achieve a desired result. Conyers and Hills (1984:4) concur and define planning as "a continuous process which involves decisions, or choices, about alternative ways of using available resources, with the aim of achieving particular, goals at some time in the future."

The above definitions incorporate what can be regarded as the main points that can be included in any definition of planning. From the above definitions and the latter definition in particular, four elements of planning can be recognised (Klatt, 1986:17; Conyers & Hills, 1984:4):

- \* Firstly, to plan is to choose. Certain things have to be given priority while others are not given that priority.
- \* Secondly, there should be alternatives between which to choose. Planning also means allocating resources and making decisions about how to make the best use of available resources.
- \* Thirdly, there should be a goal. Planning is therefore a means of determining and achieving those goals. Thus the planner will have to formulate the goal and not grope about in the dark.
- \* The fourth and last element of planning emerging from the above definitions is that planning is future orientated. The planner has to forecast both the goal as well as the sequence of events leading to the final achievement of the goal, in order to ensure an orderly and logical progression of such activities aimed at the achievement of goals.

#### **3.2.2.2 The meaning of human resource planning**

Investing in human capital, which Salvatore and Dowling (1986:101) define as "...the act of increasing the productive qualities of the labour force by providing more education and by increasing skills, health and nutritional levels", is not a risk-free proposition, hence the need for human resource planning. There is always a possibility that the market for those who possess or are educated in a particular skill may change dramatically. There is also the possibility of a change in the demand for

labour by employers, including both industries and government. For this reason occupation forecasts are important.

Human resource planning, like all planning, should be future orientated. The question is the time span between the plan and the expected yields. In educational terms one cannot plan for the very short term as it is often true that the time span between the initiation of education and training and the production of trained human resources is lengthy. For example, the time span between the completion of the construction and equipping of a teachers training college and the production of the first teachers by that college and that of the completion of the construction and equipping of a medical school and the production of the first doctors and specialists by that medical school will be between three and four years or more, and seven and ten years or more respectively (Freeman, 1979:48-50). White (1992:32-33), writing about the introduction of new subjects, into the curriculum of Venda schools and therefore teachers training, concurs with the above assertion by Freeman. According to White, if new courses were to have been introduced at first year level in 1993, they would only be able to produce new teachers in 1996. In the same vein, if new subjects had been introduced to the school curriculum in 1993, it would only have been possible to provide newly qualified teachers for these subjects in 1996. Thus great care should be taken in planning education as it is often a lengthy process in educational terms between the start of training and the production of trained human resources.

Human resource planning is done both to avoid the problem of acute shortage of skilled workers which can result from inept human resource planning. It is also done to avoid the oversupply of workers with a certain skill, which is as much of a problem as the acute shortage of workers but can carry dire consequences as the educated unemployed clamour for jobs. This is why Todaro (1985:595) defines human resource planning as "the long-range planning of skilled and semi-skilled human resource requirements and the attempt to gear educational priorities and investments in accordance with these future resource needs".

In order to properly forecast the required total of skilled human resources it is necessary, among other things,

- \* to establish the educational attainments of the stock of skilled human resources;

- \* to determine the relationship between the possible growth of the national economy and the requirements for skilled human resources;
- \* to estimate changing technological relations in the future, and
- \* to determine how the future demand for skilled human resources may be affected by future mortality and retirement rates (Vaizey, 1984:313).

However it is very difficult to make an accurate forecast of future human resource requirements and to gear education to produce people with a particular type of skill using the above factors alone. People preferences for a particular type of education play a role just like expected wages and salaries employers are ready to pay for a particular skill. However, despite this, it is proper for the education system of a country to offer proper education and relevant training for the human resource needs of that country.

### **3.2.3 Development planning**

Development planning is closely related to economic planning. In economic planning there is an economic plan, which is a set of economic targets to be reached in a given period of time. As Todaro (1985:464) says, "...economic planning may be described as a deliberate governmental attempt to co-ordinate economic decision making over the long run and to influence, direct and in some cases even control the level and growth of a nation's principal economic variables in order to achieve a pre-determined set of objectives".

This is a purely economic way of looking at development planning. However, since people are involved and it is towards people that government development plans are directly or indirectly targeted, it is important to first choose a set of social objectives as well as various targets to be aimed at and then to organise a framework for the implementation, co-ordination and the monitoring of a development plan (Todaro, 1985:464). Development planning should therefore take into account not only economic aspects of planning but also political and social aspects as well as the physical environment.

### **3.2.4 Human resource development**

#### **3.2.4.1 Defining human resource development**

According to Hallak (1990:1) human resource development can be broadly defined as "the education, training and utilisation of human potentials for social and economic progress". It is therefore the process of preparing people for a productive employment role, improving their skills and abilities and therefore contributing to their potential for producing goods and services that are preferred for their society's and their own social and economic progress.

#### **3.2.4.2 The case for human resource development**

As early as the 1970's it had already been hinted at that an education that is geared to a particular task or skill is not useful for proper and long-term human resource development.

According to Curle (1970:142), "...the underdeveloped nations can only change through the development of their people. This means people whose education has made them free and flexible, not those who have merely learned to perform a task, however useful". Hartshorne (1986:24) concurs, and, talking about the South African situation, he says that South African school education should be changed from its emphasis on "rote-learning to problem solving". Both Curle and Hartshorne therefore realise that for human resource development to be successful people should not only learn certain tasks and facts but they should also be adaptable. They should be able to adapt when there are changes within their jobs and when they may need to move to other jobs. This is similar to the recommendation by the Board of the Association of Canadian Community Colleges on Canadian human resource development strategy. It recommended that career path training should accommodate the concept that members of the labour force experience changes not only with the jobs they presently hold but will also need to change jobs. If they have learnt skills for only one particular job they might find it difficult to adapt if they decide to change jobs (Luterbach, 1990:269).

It has been realised in Taiwan that in order to maintain the success that they have had with their utilisation of human resources, and therefore to keep their success in development and to have development in the future, the most important human resource policy measures in the future will be how to adjust the labour supply to co-ordinate with the structural changes of industries and to develop adequate quantity

and quality of human resources to meet the needs of economic development (Chang, 1989:2-3). This leads to what can be called the case of education and human resource development.

#### **3.2.4.3 The case for education and human resource development**

The United Nations Development Programme recognises five "energisers" for human resource development. They are education; health and nutrition; the environment; employment; and political and economic freedom. They are interlinked and interdependent. Education can be seen as the basis for all the other energisers of human resource development. It is essential for the improvement of health and nutrition, for the maintenance of a high quality environment, for the expansion and improvement of labour pools, and for the sustenance of political and economic responsibility. All countries thus place major emphasis on educational policy in designing their plans for accelerating development (Hallak, 1990:1).

Education and the development of human resources should receive special attention from governments aiming at economic growth and human development. Education and development should also receive special attention for the sake of individuals and societies themselves. Education is considered a human right for it not only leads to individual creativity but also to improved participation in the economic, social and cultural roles in society, and in this way to a more effective contribution to human development. It can also lead to the improvement of health and nutrition by increasing the income of parents and also by making parents more aware of better nutrition conditions of the children. While none of the presently rich industrialised countries was able to achieve significant economic growth before attaining universal primary education, yet cross-country analyses suggest that high performance in literacy and schooling are not automatically followed by sound and sustained economic development. For example, Japan and Korea have performed well not only because of their successes in literacy and numeracy but also because of socio-economic regulation, land reform, and modern economic management. Thus education is a necessary but not sufficient condition for economic development (Hallak, 1990:47).

Education and human resource development policy must be integrated with general development policy and supported by a favourable national and international environment for them to become driving forces of development. Primary education of a poor quality impedes human resource development as it discourages demand for



schools, lowers efficiency and contributes to wastage of resources. Poor countries find it difficult to embark on proper human resource development, but poverty should not be used as an excuse to halt progress in human resource development. Hallak (1990:52) cites the case of a Burundi school which had remarkable success in increasing access to primary and secondary education between 1979 and 1985 because of a strong and expressed intention on the part of the government, as well as the parents and local communities that participated actively in financing the programmes (Hallak, 1990:47-52).

Educational planning and the planning of human resource development become more successful if the statistical base is sound. Apart from this proper planning of human resource development is more successful where there is accurate planning of economic development on the basis of which human resource needs can be properly forecast. However, in all countries, both developed and developing it is difficult to have accurate economic development planning because external factors which are difficult to control can affect the behaviour of internal factors (Kigue, 1984:11).

Success in human resource development cannot be achieved overnight. Even where there are enough technicians, scientists and engineers there cannot be success if the level of literacy of the population has not been raised to a point where it can foster and promote economic and social development. Investment in human resource development is a continuous process which is to be maintained even when economic development appears to be on a safe footing, otherwise knowledge obsolescence will cause the country to slip back (Hallak, 1990:51).

#### **3.2.4.4 Vocational education and human resource development**

According to Vaughan (1991:449), "vocational education is no longer an alternative to academic skills. It is vital for everyone's career preparation". He says that vocational education should become part of the secondary school curriculum. This is because, as he says, although all students aim at achieving the same types of competence, not everyone learns skills in the same way. Many will be more successful in the applied setting offered by vocational education programmes. Students must not all be pushed into the academic track. Similarly, not all skills training must be delegated to employers as they cannot afford to invest in basic occupational training, because trainees are free to sell their new skills to other companies, particularly if such companies offer higher wages. Thus technological training and occupational training

must start no later than high school and be offered to all students (Vaughan, 1991:449).

Other arguments in favour of vocational education were advanced by Watson (1994:85). It is argued that vocational education can provide specific skills for employment in a wide range of job categories. Another factor is that vocational education can help to alleviate mass unemployment by helping the young to acquire skills for self-employment. Vocational education also provides an alternative to academic education. These arguments in favour of vocational education have led to arguments for the introduction of vocational and technical subjects on the curriculum at primary level and/or at secondary and tertiary levels. Arguments for on the job training have also emerged. For example, one criticism that has been levelled at the education system in Venda by employers and those seeking manpower for development has been that far too few pupils have the opportunity of studying technical, commercial or agricultural subjects at any level. There are two technical colleges (vocational education institutions) and two technical schools. Other schools do not offer technical education at all, and if they do, they have virtually no teachers qualified to teach such subjects. This means that according to these critics there is not enough vocational education taking place in Venda (White, 1992:26).

However there is a growing awareness that the arguments that have been made in favour of vocational education may not only be unrealistic but that there are problems that not only can not be solved by vocational education but may be worsened because of it (Watson, 1994:85-86). For example, in answer to the demands made on the Venda education system by employers. Hartshorne's (1992:57) argument when referring to employers in South Africa as a whole could be useful. While industry and commerce have the right to stress the need for skilled people, it is their responsibility to produce most of the skills they demand as they are the primary beneficiaries of the skills. What industry and commerce can rightfully expect from the education system is that the people that it produces have a good basic education so that they can be trainable in an effective and a financially viable way, and that at a higher level of schooling, such as Standard 10, that schooling is of a quality that ensures that the "basics such as language, mathematics and science are effective and relevant to their needs" (Hartshorne, 1992:57).

As Psacharopoulos (1991:193) says, "perhaps the main reason vocational education at secondary level fails is because students forced into the technical vocational stream would never choose, let alone accept to enter a manual occupation". Many students

and parents will not choose vocational education. They would rather choose for themselves and their children a secondary education that can lead to a university and therefore an expected higher status job (Gould, 1993:117-121).

Technological change occurs very rapidly and very unpredictably so that it is very difficult for any planner to predict. Human resource forecasting often fails to predict the changes in skills even a few years ahead. Also, in the event of the planner being able to predict technological change five or ten years ahead, it is difficult to give a person occupational training that will last for his whole working life. Nor should people blame the school system when there is a sudden unpredictable demand for people with a certain skill; the only expectation that people should have regarding the school system is that a proper school system will have produced some people who can easily adapt to the new demand for that particular skill (Psacharopoulos, 1991:194-195; Wirth, 1993:361-363).

Proper human resource development policy will therefore not merely seek to train people in particular skills, but will also particularly look at an education that makes human resources more adaptable to the changing needs of the economy. As Murray-Thomas (1992:272) says, it is difficult to make accurate predictions for labour requirements five or ten years ahead and also to control who takes which jobs. Thus skills training will be futile if one is taught one particular skill that cannot be adaptable to different job requirements as they come.

Hartshorne (1992:55) concurs with the sentiments expressed by Psacharopoulos and Murray-Thomas. To Hartshorne the debate on education and work should not be contained within a simplistic discussion of 'academic' versus 'vocational or career' education. To him, this is a false dichotomy. An academic education that is relevant and effective should provide the background of language, mathematics, science and social skills that many modern work situations demand. "What matters is how they are learned and taught, and whether they are capable of being used outside of the school", i.e. whether they are adaptable to different work situations (Hartshorne, 1992:55).

Germany has an interesting way of solving the vocational training problem, particularly at upper-secondary level. There is a close link between apprenticeship, which lasts for about three years and is offered by privately and/or publicly owned enterprises in accordance with overall economic and technological trends as perceived by these enterprises, and part-time vocational training of a more general and

theoretical nature which is offered solely by state-run schools. A student can advance from this initial vocational training stage to polytechnic colleges, and subsequently to university and university-level institutions (Postlethwaite, 1989:296) While this might seem a long-winded way of solving the image problem of vocational education in Africa, South Africa, and therefore Venda, it might go a long way in helping lift the image of vocational education both in the eyes of the parent and the student.

In Taiwan vocational training was in the past done through pre-employment training programmes for the main purpose of training skilled workers for industries, through mostly short-term in-service training. It has now largely become the duty of vocational education. The latter's duty is to provide training opportunities for employed adults and training programmes for job losers and the handicapped. The training for the upgrading of skills is regarded as the responsibility of businesses (Chang, 1989:21; Liu & Michael-Armer, 1993:305-308).

#### **3.2.4.5 Summary**

Sustained development of a nation can only be achieved if the human resources of a country have also been developed. Education can be a very important tool in the training and development of human resources. It is therefore important that the influence of human resource development on the education system should be examined.

### **3.2.5 The influence of human resource development on the education system**

#### **3.2.5.1 Introduction**

Human resource development has an influence on both the education system policy and the structure of teaching of that education system. This section will examine how human resource development influences the education system as well as the structure for teaching of that particular education system.

#### **3.2.5.2 Influence on education system policy**

Steyn (1992:4) defines educational policy as "the expression of the way in which identified educational needs of the target group are to be realised. The educational system policy ...represents the basis, the starting point for the establishment and co-ordination of the education system to meet the educational needs of the target group" (see par. 2.3.2.2). It is therefore the instrument for ensuring the practical realisation

of set goals and objectives of a specific education system, as it arises both from the needs of the society as well as from the ideals for education which society sets for its members. It sets the aims and objectives of the education system and may even become law. "Educational policy ... is the first and most basic requirement in the provision of education" (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:42).

In paragraph 3.2.4.3 it was stated too that education is regarded as a human right since it leads to individual creativity, greater participation in the social, cultural and economic roles in society and thus to greater human development. Human resource development cannot be done haphazardly, but should be based on set aims and objectives. This is also true of other kinds of development like economic development. Education receives a large share of national resources, and there should be a determined way of allocating such resources, whether they are physical or human. "A policy of human resource development becomes a successful driving force for economic and social development only when it is integrated within an overall development policy and when both policies are implemented in a favourable national and international setting" (Hallak, 1990:54).

Policy-makers in the education system therefore have to take into consideration the prevailing human resource/manpower needs of the country as well as the needs of individuals in the society. They also have to examine the international situation in order too be able to formulate educational policies that would be in step both with local and international condition (Hallak, 1990:54).

Educational policy which aims at developing the human resources of a country will be rooted in quality general education and in line with the national economy's needs. Human resource development should be a major factor in educational policies, as both education itself and the broader economy and society at large depend on quality human resources which are largely products of the education system. What is important is the choice and determination of educational priorities and strategies, and therefore in the formulation of education system policy, is an integrated policy approach which considers educational, economic and social aspects. For example, the aim of Japanese education is to serve the community (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:11). For this reason, embodied in the principles of its education is the idea that education should provide students with necessary knowledge and skills, should be flexible so that students can adapt to the changing world, and should be relevant to the Japanese environment, so that the workforce is prepared too carry on the work of the world as well as to improve the physical and social environment (Lee, 1991:26). Subjects such

as mathematics and the sciences are highly valued for the promotion of technology and industry, art and technical education for enhancing creativity and professionalism, and social studies for instilling a sense of nationalism. The economic system plays a great role in influencing education system policy in Japan, as it does in other countries. Japan's greatest asset is its human potential and therefore for prosperity the education system has to produce skillful and able workers with high ethical standards. Japanese education policy shows the influence of these demands of manpower development on the education system (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:11).

### **3.2.5.3 Influence on the structure for teaching**

According to Steyn (1992:26) "... the structure for teaching (with regards to the national education system) indicates the structural combination of all educational institutions at all four educational levels, namely the pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary level, and also the possibilities of pupil movement within and between the different educational institutions according to their differentiated educational needs". Its primary function is the creation and arrangement of teaching and learning situations that would make it possible for the provision for different abilities, interests, and choices of learners as well as for the demands of society and/or the target group.

Human resource development has an influence on curricula (subjects), content (of the subjects) as well as institutions and levels in the structure for teaching. Many Third World countries, realising their problems in human resources, decided to embark on universal primary education for their citizens. This was hugely successful in that there was a great improvement in the basic literacy of the people. This however also brought problems as there was a rising demand for higher levels of education. This became a problem as many countries sought to limit access to secondary and tertiary education. Such policies had been formulated without anticipating the great demand for higher levels of education as people needed better qualifications to get modern sector jobs (Hallak, 1990:54; Robinson, 1986:184).

In most countries of the world the modern sector of the economy is usually dominated by government and multinationals. In the Third World, where the state is usually the biggest modern sector employer, this sector of the economy is most attractive since it, more than any other sector, guarantees a regular monthly salary. There is therefore a high demand for jobs in this sector, and as economists will contend, the higher the demand for a fixed amount of supply of particular goods, the higher the prices of those goods will rise. In this instance the price is education credentials like high

school certificates and technikon and university diplomas and degrees. "Schools become factories for credentialism, schools in the first cycle producing certificates necessary to enter the second cycle, the latter the certificates necessary to enter the tertiary sector. What is taught in school is of secondary importance because the critical area is the level of qualification not the type of education received" (Robinson, 1986:184). This is a fallacious way of thinking and when this situation prevails in a country then the education system suffers as what is taught at school becomes trivial and irrelevant to the needs of the country.

Curricula and content are important in the structure for teaching and for human resource development, and should be such that they do not only examine the importing of skills and knowledge but also achieve the important factors of adaptability, creativity and problem solving (Psacharopoulos, 1991:194).

Educational institutions within each community differ in accordance with the type of education they offer. Each community has its own specific institutional pattern that is determined by the various educational needs and requirements of individual pupils and individual societies (Vos & Brits, 1990:36).

Thus, according to the level of sophistication and cultural development of the society, each society creates a system of schools and curricula to meet the needs for organised education. "In a developed society in the West a great variety of educational institutions is needed. For example, for the purpose of catering for the diversified interests and abilities of pupils, and the social and economic (including human resource) needs of the country, various types of education, including technical, trade, commercial, agricultural, art, music and academic education are provided. In Nigeria, where there is a great demand for technicians, technical schools abound, ranging from junior trade school requiring a primary school-leaving certificate as an entrance qualification to the senior technical school (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:9-12).

Human resource development not only influences education system policy but it also influences the structure for teaching. In this way it influences the system of schools and curricula in a community. The German education system has been highly differentiated in order to cater for the human resource development needs of the country.

The structure of teaching of the German educational system was made with the educational aims of the education system in mind, amongst which are the following:

- \* to add to knowledge and develop skills;
- \* to improve independent, critical judgement and encourage responsible actions and creative activities;
- \* to orientate pupils according to the requirements of the world of employment (Van Schalkwyk, 1989:37).

German education is said to be one of the most differentiated in the world (Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:9). There are pre-school and nursery school facilities. After this there is the primary level, which consists of the first four grades, which is followed by a two year orientation stage, after which comes the secondary school education level, with great consideration for human resource development. It has three types of schools, namely, the Hauptschule, the Realschule and the Gymnasium:

- \* Graduates of the Hauptschule usually go on to part-time vocational schools and apprenticeships. The Hauptschule has nine, sometimes ten grades, and is attended by about 36% of people of lower secondary school going age.
- \* The Realschule has ten grades, and is attended by 36% of the people in secondary school. Its curriculum is more academically demanding, and its graduates can enter apprenticeships or full-time vocational schools which can lead later on to polytechnic colleges.
- \* Thirdly, there is the Gymnasium, which is predominantly academic in its orientation. It caters for about 27% of the lower secondary school population. Graduates can continue to university-level institutions or polytechnic colleges. Vocational training is at the upper secondary level.

The tertiary level consists of polytechnic colleges, universities and other university level institutions. Thus the structure for teaching and its levels are differentiated with particular emphasis on proper human resource development (Postlethwaite, 1985:294-297).

#### **3.2.5.4 Summary**

The above discussion has shown that human resource development should not merely involve the individual, but the community as a whole. Vocational education, with its role in human resource development was also discussed with an examination of the German education system in order to see how the structure for teaching of the



education system of Germany is geared towards the realisation of the human resource development goals of the country. The next section will examine recent and current ideas relating to education and human resource development in South Africa.

### **3.3 RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA REGARDING EDUCATION FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

#### **3.3. Introduction**

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) is the policy framework of the present South African government. It includes the most recent policy framework for human resource development. The government's White Paper on education has therefore also considered the aims of the RDP. This section will examine the views of the RDP on education and human resource development, and in doing so will also examine other important recent ideas (i.e. developments in the 1990s) on education and human resource development in the Republic of South Africa.

#### **3.3.2 The ERS on education and human resources development**

The Education Renewal Strategy (ERS) was formulated by the former government in the early 1990s with literature on this being released in 1991 and 1992. The previous South African government had realised then that the education system was flawed and needed to be reformed. The education planners and policy-makers within the state had become aware that there were complex global economic changes taking place and in particular that a higher level of general education was becoming more important among the working population. In addition there was some recognition of the limitations of a school-based vocational education and a greater sensitivity to the demands of the population at large for a general education of good quality (NEPI Human Resources, 1992:21-22).

The ERS has the following major proposals for education (Department of National Education, 1991:18; NEPI Human Resources, 1992:23-24):

- \* a general formative education for all children during the first nine years of schooling which emphasises mathematics, natural sciences and languages;
- \* secondary education of three types:
  - \*\* generally orientated education which is merely the extension of general formative education into standards 8, 9 and 10;

- \*\* vocationally orientated education which entails the acquisition of knowledge, but puts greater emphasis on knowledge exposition, value and attitude inculcation, as well as the transmission of skills that can be used in one or more broad vocational direction. When a learner leaves school he/she will be trainable for the purpose of entering a career. Students here combine both general and vocational education;
- \*\* vocational education will teach pupils the skills and attitudes required for certain occupations. It is formal training mainly in skilled manual occupations such as fitting-and-turning and secretarial work.

The Education Renewal Strategy (ERS) was an attempt to provide better education for all with one of its aims being education towards the needs of each individual learner as well as the manpower needs of the country (Dept. of National Education, 1991:35; Dept. of National Education, 1992:7,17).

The ERS, however, did not receive much approval. For example, while acknowledging that the emphasis on mathematics and the natural sciences for the first nine years of education as well as the recognition of the importance of multilingualism and good language acquisition are positive features of the ERS, NEPI (Human Resources, 1992:22) criticises it for its clinging to a differentiated 'tripartite' form of education provision as well as its emphasis on technology awareness, economics and life-style education. Another criticism is that it emphasises vocational education at secondary level, which amounts to job-specific training and also can lead to the "channelling of large numbers of students from the high status university route to second-rate post-secondary institutions" (NEPI Human Resources, 1992:22).

The NEPI documents on education, which include the one on education and human resource development, were written with the Education Renewal Strategy suggestions in mind.

### **3.3.3 NEPI on education and human resource development**

According to the NEPI Report (NEPI Human Resources, 1992:1) human resource development should not be seen as a mere projection of future human resource requirements as it is often difficult for human resource planners to precast with any degree of accuracy future occupational requirements for all sectors. This is because changes in the demand for skilled human resources are often rapid, a result of "fast-

moving technologies and unpredictable fluctuations in economic output" (NEPI Human Resources, 1992:2).

Human resource development concerns itself with the processes by which people acquire such skills and knowledge as are necessary for the performance of both specific tasks required by their occupations and other social, cultural, intellectual and political roles that their country requires. The NEPI documents give vocational education and training (VET) a central role in this process. VET policies should in future (NEPI Human Resources, 1992:2-4; NEPI Support Services, 1992:176):

- \* balance adequately economic development and equity implications of the VET models proposed;
- \* emphasize the necessity of a solid balance between state and private sector training;
- \* address issues of cost and resource constraints which fundamentally limit choices available and result in the failure to prioritize key VET programmes (NEPI Support Services, 1992:176).

The NEPI report envisages a situation where the state and the employer are highly involved in education and training, where there is little 'social stratification', where skill formation is continuous for all workers and where levels of educational attainment are high. However the fact that NEPI puts VET (vocational education and training) at the centre of its education and human resource development policies could prove to be a drawback. Vocational education often leads to job specific training, which may lead to low levels of adaptability should the job situation change for the worker (Psacharopoulos, 1991:194-195; Wirth, 1993:361-363).

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) is the policy document of the present government of the Republic of South Africa. The book dealing with the RDP, and published in 1994, devotes a whole chapter to human resource development.

### **3.3.4 The RDP on education and human resource development**

#### **3.3.4.1 Introduction**

The accepted Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) envisaged the upliftment of the South African community in all its facets. All the aspects of

community, e.g. social, economical and technological aspects, are of relevance within the RDP.

#### **3.3.4.2 Why the RDP is concerned with human resource development**

According to the RDP document (ANC, 1994:5), "... people ...are our most important resource. The RDP is focused on ... people's most immediate needs, and it relies, in turn, on their energies to drive the process of meeting these needs." This means that in order for the aims of the RDP as a whole to be met, people's capabilities have to be developed. In developing the potential of individuals then the whole community will be developed since individuals together form a community, and communities together form a nation. In satisfying the needs of communities through meeting the needs of individuals in that community, the needs of the nation will be met (ANC, 1994:5; Department of Education, 1995:61).

Because of its recognition of the importance of humans for overall national development, the RDP spells out its vision and objectives in the development of human resources as the following (ANC, 1994:59-60):

- \* People are, and must remain, the architects of the RDP as it unfolds. They should be given opportunities to develop themselves because this will help them to improve the quality of their own lives and the standards of living of their own communities, meet the basic needs of the people, and thus help towards making the economy grow.
- \* There should be a massive expansion and qualitative improvement in the education and training system, the arts, culture, sport and recreation.
- \* Human resource development should develop human capabilities, abilities and knowledge so as to meet the need for goods and services so that people could improve their standards of living and the quality of their lives, as well as "develop the knowledge and skill necessary for occupational tasks and for other social, cultural and intellectual ... roles that are part of a ... vibrant society".

Thus the RDP recognises the importance of education in the development of human resource, which are the people of the country.

### **3.3.4.3 The RDP on Education and Training**

According to the White Paper on Education (Department of Education, 1995:61), "education is the key to the realisation of the personal aspirations of individuals and the socio-economic programme of the government". One prerequisite for enhanced productivity in the economy is a better educated and skilled workforce. A better educated and skilled child, youth or adult becomes a better citizen who helps improve the quality of lives of people rather than destroy them (Department of Education, 1995:61).

The RDP realises that education and training are important for human resource development, and therefore regards the following as the guiding principles for education and training for human resource development (ANC, 1994:60):

- \* An integrated system of education and development that provides equal opportunities to all and addresses the skill and knowledge development in order to produce high quality goods and services that will enable the country to develop the various cultures within it, as well as the society as a whole and the economy.
- \* An education directed towards the full development of the individual and the community as well as promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all South Africans.
- \* A new national human resource development strategy which embraces all the citizens of the country.
- \* A human resource development policy in which government realises that it has the ultimate responsibility for ensuring that the human resources of the country are developed to the full. However, while government should play its role by providing education, training and development opportunities for the human resources of the country, however society as a whole should play its role by participating in "the provision of learning opportunities as part of the national human resource development strategy".

### **3.3.5 Summary**

The Education Renewal Strategy (ERS), the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI), and the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) are recent

developments in the thinking about education and human resource development in the Republic of South Africa. Venda is now (since 27 April 1994) part of South Africa, and the discussions above are relevant to it. Even before Venda became part of South Africa, i.e. at the time when the ERS and NEPI documents were published (i.e. 1991 and 1992), their impact would have been felt in Venda as its education system was highly intertwined with the South Africa system of education. Schools used syllabi provided by the Department of Education and Training of South Africa, and Standard 10 pupils wrote examinations of the Department of Education and Training. The three documents discussed in this section, i.e. the ERS, NEPI and the RDP documents, recognise the importance of education and human resource development in national development. The next section will look at the human resource situation in Venda in relation to its needs.

### **3.4 A DESCRIPTION OF THE HUMAN RESOURCE SITUATION IN VENDA**

#### **3.4.1 Introduction**

"The development of a country and a people requires the utilisation of all the resources and potential resources which that country can muster. In almost all countries, developed and developing, the role of human resources is more important than anything that can be obtained from other sources" (Benso & RAU, 1979:86). This therefore implies that the labour force needs to have skills and knowledge, and for this education and training are essential. While parents and children alike demand more education, a lack of employment opportunities or unrealistic expectations often lead to disappointment. Despite this the demand for education in developing countries and in Venda continues to rise.

Education can be regarded partly as an investment in human potential and partly as a consumption good. "To the extent that it contributes towards increasing the productive potential of the labour force, it should be regarded as an investment in the development of a country" (Benso & RAU, 1979:87). Human resources and the economy are inter-related. Because of this it is necessary to describe the economy of Venda in order to clarify the human resource situation of Venda.

### **3.4.2 A brief description of the economy**

#### **3.4.2.1 Introduction**

Venda is situated in the interior of Southern Africa. It is geographically situated far from the main markets and communication routes. Situated in the far northern part of the present Northern Province, it is about 450 kilometres away from the Gauteng industrial region. The nearest city is Pietersburg, 180 kilometres away from Thohoyandou and itself not an industrial powerhouse. Louis Trichardt is 70 kilometres away from Thohoyandou and 30 kilometres away from Makhado Town (see Figure 3.1).

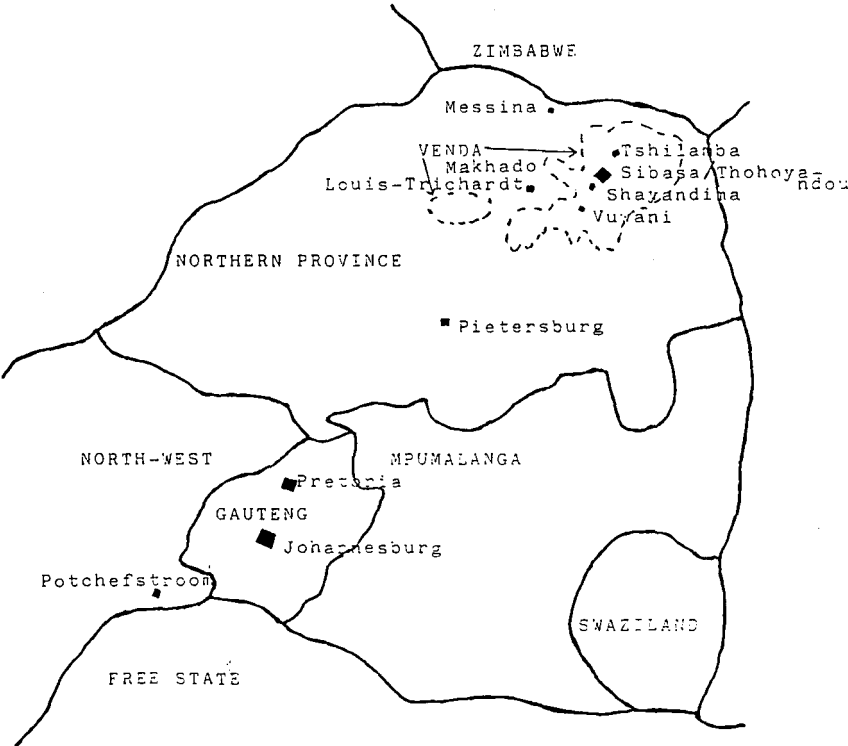
#### **3.4.2.2 Infrastructure and communication**

There is no railway line into the major areas in Venda, with the railway line from Gauteng to Zimbabwe passing through Louis Trichardt. There is also no regular airline service between Thohoyandou and any other major centre in South Africa (VNDC, 1994:1).

Within Venda there are few tarred roads. Luckily they span the routes connecting the major towns of the land, which are Thohoyandou, Sibasa, Shayandima (all within a radius of 10 km), Vuwani, about 25 km south-east of Thohoyandou; Makhado, about 45 km west of Thohoyandou, and Tshilamba, about 30 km north-east of Thohoyandou. Beyond these towns and the routes that link them, the roads are largely gravel, often mere dust roads. These roads are often potholed, dusty, and very slippery during the rainy season. There is a telephone and telegraphic link with areas outside of Venda. However, this link is far from perfect as only a few areas have automatic telephone lines, making communication from beyond these areas in Venda very difficult. The areas with automatic telephones are the Sibasa-Thohoyandou-Shayandima area and Nzhelele. Beyond these areas the telephones are farm-lines (VNDC, 1994:23; Venda, 1979:88).

**Figure 3.1** The geographical siting of Venda (Maskew Miller Longman Calendar, 1995)

0 50 100 150 200 Kilometres



LEGEND

- Local boundaries
- Provincial and international boundaries
- ■ Towns and cities



### **3.4.2.3 The economic system**

The economy of Venda is free enterprise market economy with a large but diminishing subsistence sector. Venda is predominantly rural, with the only towns worthy of mention being, as already stated in paragraph 3.3.2.2, Sibasa, Thohoyandou, Shayandima, Makhado, Vuwani, and Tshilamba. These towns are predominantly residential areas situated around a shopping centre each. Each shopping centre is the commercial hub of each town, containing both formal and informal sectors of the business community. The only industrial site worthy of note is Shayandima (VNDC, 1994:4).

### **3.4.2.4 Agriculture**

The economy of Venda is built on subsistence agriculture as well as limited market agriculture. Venda has great agricultural potential but achievement is still modest. There is also a high potential for animal husbandry, even higher than that for crop production. The potential is such that if exploited, Venda could produce all its major staple foods, particularly maize, every year, yet more than all of the maize used here is imported. This is still the case today. However some agricultural products are exported. These are sub-tropical fruit, tea, coffee, and timber (Venda, 1979:88).

### **3.4.2.5 Mining**

A variety of minerals are found, such as coal, graphite, copper sulphides, phosphates and magnesite, but only a few of these deposits can be regarded as viable. Coal is the most viable mineral found in Venda. It is mined by Iscor in the West of Venda, near Makhado Town and in the north-east, near the Kruger National Park. The Tshikondeni Mine in the east is still a trial mine, and produces 208 000 tons of coal per annum (1989 figures). The coal is used in Iscor furnaces in the RSA (Venda, 1979:116-117; VNDC, 1994:5).

### **3.4.2.6 Industry and manufacturing**

Industrial development is difficult in Venda as Venda is situated far from the main markets and the main communication routes in Southern Africa. The Venda National Development Corporation (VNDC) therefore believes in promoting agro-industries producing mainly for the local market (Venda, 1979:117). Shayandima is the major industrial growth point, and Makhado is the secondary industrial growth point. There are 34 relatively major industries and their activities range from clothing to food and

timber processing. There are 276 manufacturing establishments, which are mainly small labour intensive firms with total employment of 5340 (VNDC, 1994:5).

### **3.4.2.7 Commerce**

There are 1924 establishments excluding hawkers. The most note-worthy establishments are the OK in Thohoyandou and Shoprite in Sibasa. Others include PEP, Sales House, Smart Centre, Dan Hands and Dunns. There are many small entrepreneurs engaged in commerce since this requires limited capital to enter. Many are one man/woman enterprises. Commerce employs 7654 people (this figure excludes hawkers (VNDC, 1994:5).

### **3.4.2.8 Government services**

Venda's domestic economy before independence was nullified in April 1994 relied on the expansion of government and community services, which were financed from government income which came largely as development aid from the Republic of South Africa. Government services then and now include health services (three general and two maternity hospitals, two health centres, clinics in many areas of Venda, one chronic ill-health institution and one nursing college). There is also one infants' home and several crèches (VNDC, 1994:5).

## **3.4.3 A brief description of the utilisation of human resources**

### **3.4.3.1 Introduction**

Venda is endowed with only a few resources, one of which is labour. One of Venda's greatest exports, perhaps the biggest, is labour, with 83 000 workers working outside of Venda in 1989 (VNDC, 1994:4). However, even if a country has a high potential labour force, if that labour force is not well utilised or improved it is still not so worthwhile. For full labour utilisation there has to be improved labour production which is a function of, among other things, education, training and motivation.

### **3.4.3.2 Government**

At present Venda's economy can provide employment for only a fraction of its newcomers to the labour force. The greatest single employer is the state, employing more than 24 000 people as administrators (administrative officers/clerks), teachers, nurses, agriculturalists, soldiers, policemen/women, and labourers amongst others. There were also 12 532 temporary workers before the April 1994 elections. However,

these workers were laid off soon after the new government had come to power, thus increasing the number of people without jobs (VNDC, 1994:4).

Despite this, the state is actually still the biggest absorber of new labour that comes into the labour market. Also, when young men and women go to school and other educational institutions, they are most likely to be employed by the state or a government related organisation/parastatal (if they get any employment at all). In other words, a pupil in Standard 10 in 1994 will, if lucky enough to get an opening in 1995, most likely become either a student nurse, a student teacher (at a teacher's training college or at a university), a soldier or a policeman/woman, or a clerk. The situation does not seem to have an immediate prospect of improving, as there is little industrialisation within Venda and within commuting distance of Venda. The state will therefore for the foreseeable future remain the largest employer of the relatively educated human resources of Venda.

The minimum level of education required today for any government job except labourers is Standard 10. To be considered for a post as a clerk or an administrative officer one needs to have passed Standard 10. In the past however even a Standard 8 certificate was accepted for entry into a government clerical job. The raising of the standards from Standard 8 to Standard 10 has to do more with an attempt to reduce the number of applicants for a particular job rather than an improvement in the quality of service. However, it is still an improvement in that the average person with a matric pass will be more able, for example, to read and understand a memo than a person with only a Standard 8 certificate. In the same manner the minimum Standard required for entry as a student teacher and as a student nurse is now Standard 10. The same applies to the prisons, the police and the army. Labourers, however, may be of any education level.

#### **3.4.3.3 Industry and manufacturing**

Industrial development being so low in Venda, industry does not employ a very large number of people. Even those employed in industry are usually unskilled people as the industries that are found in Venda are usually small-scale industries. The most notable industries are found at the Shayandima industrial area. There are textile industries engaged in the making of jerseys, tracksuits and T-shirts for shops like Edgars and Jet (none of these shops is found within the borders of Venda). There are industries that deal with metalwork and furniture making, to name but a few. The largest of these industries employs no more than 200 people, and many employ less

than 10 people. The employment in this sector is 5 340. The workers here are usually unskilled and poorly paid, with salaries of R180,00 per month not being uncommon. These workers would jump at the chance of getting a permanent government job, even as labourers, as such a job will be more secure and certainly better paid than at the industries. In other words, workers in industry are usually there because they have failed to get employment in government services. Jobs in industry and manufacturing are largely labour intensive. People employed in industry and manufacturing are people with a Standard 10 education and those without a Standard 10 education. Some have only a primary education. For most workers here, though, the ability to read and write is a recommendation although it is not an overriding criterion for employment as most instructions are verbalised (VNDC, 1994:5; Venda, 1979:117).

#### **3.4.3.4 Mining and commerce**

Mining is still in its infancy and its impact in the relief of unemployment is still negligible. Retailers like the OK and Shoprite, however, have had some impact. Together with other retailers like Sales House, Pep Stores, Smart Centre, Dan Hands, Bergers and other clothing, furniture and grocery shops they employ a significant number of people, many with matric certificates. Banking also plays a role in the employment of young school-leavers.

Like manufacturing, commerce employs people with and without Standard 10. Those who work as cashiers, for example, need to be able to read and count in particular. A person with only a primary education will not be very suitable for such jobs, so cashiers usually have Standard 10 certificates, particularly at large enterprises like the OK and Shoprite. Merchandisers and other such workers also need to be able to read, write and count. Many stores here are managed by local Venda people, who too must be able to read, write and count as well as speak the other official languages here. Memos from Head Office need to be read, understood and acted upon, and so a higher than basic level of education is required here (VNDC, 1994:5).

#### **3.4.3.5 The informal sector and domestic work**

Other sources of employment are the informal sector and domestic work. The informal sector includes street-vendors. These people are usually self-employed, and, in Venda, they are usually engaged in selling agricultural goods like tomatoes and bananas. They are significant in that many a Venda farmer depends on these people for survival. Usually such businesses are owned and run by one person, sometimes

two, and rarely beyond these numbers, though sometimes there might be up to five people or slightly more in such businesses. Often they are family businesses engaging members of the family alone and rarely an outsider. However, they do form a great absorption of potential members of the unemployed pool of people. The informal sector is growing and it is likely that it will continue to function as one person businesses, needing no formal training to enter, though basic arithmetic skills will be a great boost to a person in the informal sector. Many teachers, nurses and government officers employ domestic work, usually women. Again here there is no formal training necessary, job security is very low, and salaries are very poor (VNDC, 1994:4-5).

#### **3.4.3.6 Migrant labour**

Migrant labour and commuting between boarders absorb some of the newcomers to the labour market. Often these migrant labourers are unskilled people who work in Gauteng and only go to Venda at intervals during holidays.

### **3.5 SUMMARY AND FURTHER PROGRAMME**

The above discussion has thus shown that human resource development is not just for the individual but involves complete community development. The discussion also highlighted the fact that it may be necessary to integrate general education and vocational education. It was also shown that the workplace functions best if it receives employees who can adjust to the workplace and be trainable, rather than those who already have rigid job training and find it difficult to adjust to new technologies. Recent and current ideas in South Africa regarding human resource development were also examined. A description of the human resource situation in Venda was also provided. The following chapter will therefore look at general educational needs and thus the knowledge, skills and attitudes that can be regarded as necessary for the workplace.

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## **CHAPTER 4**

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### **4. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND THE GUIDELINES TO IDENTIFY EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE TARGET GROUP**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter has looked at human resource development and its importance for the development of the nation as a whole. When human resource development is implemented, the needs of both the country and the individual have to be taken into consideration. It was also shown that the education system plays a very important role in the realisation of human resource development, and thus the educational needs of the country will have to be taken into consideration. As Peterson (1982:1) argues, "developing the productive capacities of students is a valid function of schooling and is not in conflict or competition with other educational purposes, such as academic excellence". In other words, while the school should develop the productive capacities of students, this does not mean that the schools should abandon their responsibility to serve social values that are not related to economic growth, such as the preservation and enrichment of culture as well as the production of good informed citizens, and the development of each student's potential for personal fulfillment. Schooling is geared towards the satisfaction of economical needs as well. For this reason economical needs will be examined in this section from the perspective of various authorities, and from their arguments the researcher will glean the guidelines that can be used to identify educational needs of the target group of this research.

#### **4.2 EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ACCORDING TO R.M. PETERSON**

##### **4.2.1 Introduction**

Peterson (1982:2) argues that "attributes critical to productive capacity can be acquired through academic studies if the school is organized and managed as a workplace in which learning is the work to be performed". However, this does not mean that the school is the only agent responsible for or with the potential to develop the productive abilities of children and adolescents. The responsibility for producing good workers is shared by several institutions, which include the schools, the home, the public media, and the workplace itself (Peterson, 1982:2-3).

#### 4.2.2 Criteria for determining educational needs

Peterson (1982:3-4) calls these criteria personal attributes related to individual productivity. He recognises twenty-one attributes which make a good worker and he groups them into six categories. They are:

- **Basic skills**

The basic skills are reading, writing, oral communication and computation.

According to Peterson (1982:3), "basic skills are probably the most frequently cited requirements in jobs that call for no more than a high school diploma". Although many jobs do not require reading, writing or computation directly in the performance of job tasks, at least some minimum competency seems to be almost a universal requirement for simple orientation and functioning in any organisation. Such skills are also necessary for education beyond secondary school, specialized job training, and occupational advancement.

- **Functional skills**

Functional skills include problem-solving, learning and inquiry, interpersonal skills and task management.

This means that the person should be able to, among other things, define problems, identify alternative solutions, anticipate possible consequences as well as evaluate solutions or courses of action to be taken. He/she should also be able to recognise when something needs to be learned as well as apply information to specific tasks. Furthermore the person should also be flexible, analyze needs, set priorities and objectives as well as plan the required activities (Peterson, 1982:4).

- **Social knowledge**

This involves knowledge of major social institutions; understanding of systems of authority, rank, and status; and understanding of formal and informal expectations and obligations that govern social interactions (Peterson, 1982:4).

- \* **Social maturity**

The competencies involved here are authority (dealing effectively with supervision), performance (ability and willingness to meet standards of quality) responsibility, cooperation and adaptability (Peterson, 1982:4).

In short, functional skills, social knowledge and social maturity embody various competencies that have to do with fitting into an organization, adaptability to variation and change, being constructively independent, and behaving as a good citizen within the organizational community.

- \* **Self-development**

This category is a close relative of social maturity and adds self-understanding and purpose. It is also related to career choice and is a reflection of the concern expressed by some employers that "many young workers seem to lack a sense of direction and a personal commitment to work, possibly because they are in the wrong job or occupation" (Peterson, 1982:3).

- \* **Work-content skills**

This involves mastery of a particular vocabulary, procedures or subject matter that is specific to a particular occupation or employer. These are the specialised abilities that are involved in the performance of the collection of tasks for a specific job or occupation, e.g. welding, programming a computer or analysing numerical data (Peterson, 1982:3-4).

#### **4.2.3 Summary**

"Employers want young adults, not over-age adolescents" (Peterson, 1982:3). Adults are called upon to be, among other things, workers, citizens, parents and neighbours. Employers, according to Peterson (1982:1-5), require workers who have basic and functional skills, the motivation, understanding and habits of conduct that enable them to fit into the organisation and grow into productive contributors to its social and economic health. Employers require from the schools motivated people with the understanding and maturity to fit into an adult organization, and the basic and functional skills that enable them to grow. If these skills are lacking, technical job skills are of very limited value to the young worker, his/her employer or to the nation's long range needs for a more productive workforce (Peterson, 1982:5).



### **4.3 EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ACCORDING TO I.N. STEYN**

#### **4.3.1 Introduction**

Steyn (1987b:21-26) recognises skills such as basic education or academic skills, basic career skills, career preparation skills ("voorberoepebevoegdheid"), daily-life skills and career-specific skills. This is because it is the task of the school to prepare the pupil for the course of his life, viz. all the roles that the pupil has to fulfil in his life as an adult. The role of the successful worker in the workplace constitutes one of the crucial roles in society. "Development of basic knowledge, skills and attitudes which the pupil as a young worker might need in the workplace therefore constitutes an important part of the aim of the school and should be present explicitly in the school curriculum" (Steyn, 1987a:4). Steyn thus recognises such skills as the skills that can be regarded as the criteria for finding educational needs. He also examines the ordering of content in accordance with the class standards at school.

#### **4.3.2 Skills recognised by Steyn**

##### **4.3.2.1 Basic education or academic skills**

These are the skills of reading, writing and counting (arithmetic or basic mathematical skills). Such skills are highly regarded to the extent that in Wisconsin one of the most common questions asked by employers is "Can you read?" (Steyn, 1987b:21). These are abilities to read with understanding, write, speak and listen and do general communication in the language that is used, e.g. English or Afrikaans.

##### **4.3.2.2 Basic career skills**

These are non-career-specific skills which employers expect the first job-seeker to have. These include interpersonal skills and personal management skills. Interpersonal skills involve trustworthiness, flexibility, honesty, loyalty, enthusiasm and responsibility. Personal management skills include sensitivity to and skills in the exercising of responsibility in the everyday work situation, effective time management, understanding of the correct type of clothing for the work situation and personal hygiene (Steyn, 1987b:22-23).

#### **4.3.2.3 Career preparation skills (voorbereidingsvaardigheden)**

These skills should be implemented in the phase between schooling and the career situation. The development of a lifelong career path, the search for, finding and keeping of a job all form part of career preparation (Steyn, 1987b:23).

#### **4.3.2.4 Daily life-skills**

The handling of adult life requires far more than only career skills. These are life survival skills which include the handling of money, the choice of and care for a home, food preparation, care for clothing, and the ability to live well as a citizen and a member of a community, obeying the laws and the regulations that govern that community (Steyn, 1987b:23).

#### **4.3.2.5 Career-specific skills**

Here the learner is led directly into career-specific skills that will fit into the career chosen, e.g. technical education (Steyn, 1987b:23-24).

### **4.3.3 The ordering of content**

Having examined the skills that can be used in the determination of educational in relation to career-preparation needs, Steyn (1987b:25-26) also examines the ordering of content in accordance with class standards at school.

#### **4.3.3.1 Grade 1 to Standard 5 Career awareness**

Awareness of the self and careers. Development of work conduct, education and the economy. The foundations for basic skills as well as the basic life skills are laid during this phase (Steyn, 1987b:25).

#### **4.3.3.2 Standard 5-6 Career orientation**

The observation of career groups and the gauging of rules and characteristics of the chosen career. The learner informally tries to fit himself into a certain career. Basic education knowledge increases and the learner is also made aware of the role of science and technology in the economy. Education and training play a great role here (Steyn, 1987b:25).

#### **4.3.3.3 Standard 7-8 Career exploration**

Career-planning and decision-making through personal planning. Career-orientation and exploration are very important in this phase. Career-preparation skills must already be introduced here since there might be pupils at this stage who might for various reasons, including age, have to leave school here despite all efforts to make them get the final school year certificate. Such pupils must then already be equipped with the necessary skills (Steyn, 1987b:26).

#### **4.3.3.4 Standard 9-10 Career-preparation**

Work-exploration is important here. Further development of skills in the search and keeping of careers is also involved. The learner also learns elementary career-specific skills in the context of the school and/or career milieu. Evaluation profiles of learners must be made weekly, and practical work, which is still under the control of the school, is worked into credits. All the acquired knowledge and skills, which were acquired in the previous phases of the curriculum, are still emphasised and made applicable to the actual post-school life. The more strongly the learner experiences the relevance of the school, the more are the chances that he/she will stay at school and get a senior certificate/matric certificate (Steyn, 1987b:26).

### **4.4 SUMMARY**

The above discussion revolved around the ideas of Peterson and Steyn regarding the skills that can be used for the determination of educational needs. Steyn further examined how content can be ordered according to class standards in accordance with the skills discussed and therefore in accordance with educational needs. The next section will examine the general aims of education in Venda.

### **4.5 GENERAL AIMS OF EDUCATION IN VENDA**

#### **4.5.1 General aims of primary education in Venda**

According to the Commission Report (1981:96) Venda primary education should be built around the following four main concepts:

- \* The nurturing and development of the powers of reasoning and communication.
- \* The maintenance, development and renewal of Venda culture.

- \* The maintenance, development and renewal of the social economic and political context.
- \* The promotion of health in all pupils.

The content of the curriculum should be based on the nine areas outlined below:

- \* Communication
- \* Mathematical skills, reasoning and their application
- \* Environmental studies.
- \* Scientific and technological ways of knowing.
- \* Socio-cultural and civic studies.
- \* Moral reasoning and action; value and belief systems.
- \* Health education.
- \* Arts and crafts.
- \* Work, leisure and life-style (Commission Report, 1981:95).

The first level of education in Venda is aimed at the facilitation of individual development towards a healthy personality. Values, knowledge, skills and a sense of self-worth are integral to this healthy personality. A primary school "graduate" should master basic skills in literacy and numeracy, be self-confident, self-reliant, realistic and productive, as well as be able to socialise well with his peers and adults. He/she must also have sound and solid work habits, e.g. punctuality, honesty and responsibility (Commission Report, 1981:94-99).

#### **4.5.2 General aims of secondary education in Venda**

While primary education is expected to lay the foundations of basic learning, secondary education is expected to help young people identify and develop their special gifts and interests with a view to fulfilment in their life's work and activities" (Commission Report, 1981:111). The broad aim of secondary schooling should therefore be to help the pupil to advance from dependency to maturity.

Secondary schooling should not be solely geared towards the preparation of the youth for employment, neither should it ignore the world of work and the economic facts of life in Venda. The outcome of secondary schooling should be three-fold:

- \* self-reliance and maturity;
- \* aptitude, knowledge and skills for employment;
- \* capacity for further or alternative paths of learning  
(Commission Report, 1981:116-117).

Secondary education should develop and polish reading, writing and oral communication skills. Skills like information-getting, storage and retrieval as well as problem analysis and solving are important for secondary school. No job specific training should be done in secondary schools. Pupils must merely be motivated and familiarised with the job market and the requirements of career employment (Commission Report, 1981:117-123).

#### **4.5.3 Summary**

This section has looked at general educational needs and thus the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are necessary for the workplace from the perspective of Peterson, Steyn and the report of the Commission of Inquiry into the System of Education in Operation in Venda. It is now necessary to collate some of the ideas from those sources into a functional unit that can be regarded as a set of criteria to be used for the purpose of this research.

### **4.6 GUIDELINES TO IDENTIFY EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE TARGET GROUP**

#### **4.6.1 Introduction**

From the work of both Steyn and Peterson and the aims and objectives of both primary and secondary education in Venda (see paragraphs 4.2., 4.3 and 4.5), guidelines for the determination of educational needs of the target group of an education system have been derived for the purposes of this research. In order to put the guidelines into proper perspective the following have been used as scholastic entrance requirements for the people in the workplace. This is because not all people leave school at the same level, and therefore do not enter the job market and thus the

workplace with the same level of scholastic achievements. The scholastic entrance requirements for the purposes of this research are as follows:

- \* Standard 5: those with a school education of up to Standard 5;
- \* Standard 8: those with a school education of up to Standard 8;
- \* Standard 10: those with a school education of up to Standard 10.

The guidelines to identify educational needs include the following groups of knowledge, skills and attitudes:

#### **4.6.2 General skills, knowledge and attitudes**

As Peterson (1982:1) says, "the development of general skills, understanding and habits of conduct should be recognised as legitimate and essential preparation for productive adult employment and should receive higher educational priority than the development of specialised occupational skills". When a worker has the basic and functional skills, is motivated, has understanding and possesses good habits of conduct, he will be more able to fit into the place of work and to develop into a productive employee and worker. The general skills, knowledge and attitudes can be divided into basic skills and social skills.

##### **4.6.2.1 Basic skills**

According to Steyn (1987:4), "development of basic knowledge, skills and attitudes which the pupil as a young worker might need in the work place,... constitutes an important part of the aim of the school and should be present explicitly in the school curriculum". NEPI (Adult Basic Education, 1992:2) recognises three basic skills, which are reading, writing and calculation - the set of basic skills upon which any programme of education and human resources must be built. Steyn (1987:21) concurs with NEPI and recognises reading, writing and counting (arithmetic or basic mathematical skills). Singer (1985:411-412) regards the basic skills as "tool subjects, including reading writing and arithmetic". They are used for learning from printed materials, communicating through the written word and carrying out assignments in all other subjects. They constitute tools for school learning as well as for informal learning at all ages, in and out of school. Thus the basic skills will be useful to both the learner at school and the worker at the workplace. For this reason Peterson

(1982:4) adds oral communication as the fourth basic skill, in addition to reading, writing and computation.

#### **4.6.2.1.1 Reading**

Reading implies the ability to get information from printed matter. It is the ability to read with understanding in the language that is in use, e.g. English or Afrikaans (Steyn, 1987:21).

- \* Standard 5: Those with an education of up to Standard 5 can be expected to read simple instructions or notices of the length of one or a few sentences. This is because, as Herbst (1988:95) says, second language learners only have formal reading instruction as from Standard 2; below this standard they are being prepared for formal reading instruction.
- \* Standard 8: Those with a Standard 8 education will be able to read full paragraphs and even letters.
- \* Standard 10: Those with a Standard 10 education may be expected to be fully literate as far as reading is concerned. They must be able to comprehend the explicit and implicit meanings of written discourse, as well as skim and scan in rapid reading and to extract information respectively (Steyn, 1987:4,21).

#### **4.6.2.1.2 Writing**

Writing implies the ability to communicate using the written word (Singer, 1985:411-412). This means the ability to write in the language that is in use, e.g. English or Afrikaans (Steyn, 1987:1). This therefore implies the ability to write down one's ideas, thoughts, observations and instructions.

- \* Standard 5: For the one who has gone to school up to Standard 5, he/she will be expected to be able to write a note in which he requests for something, even if he is only able to write a few sentences and not be able to write a letter in more than one proper paragraph.
- \* Standard 8: For those with a Standard 8 education the ability to write comprehensive paragraphs, whether it be notices or letters may be expected.

- Standard 10: The ones with Standard 10 should be fully literate in this aspect as well. This means that they should be able to spell correctly as well as punctuate correctly (Singer, 1985:411-412, Steyn, 1986:1).

#### **4.6.2.1.3 Computation**

Computation implies solving quantitative problems (Singer, 1985:412). This implies the ability to count, add, subtract, multiply and divide. It involves the mastering of arithmetic skills or basic mathematical skills.

- Standard 5: To those with an education of up to Standard 5 it will mean they will be able to count, add, subtract, divide and multiply numbers on the level as used in society.
- Standard 8: Those with a Standard 8 education will be expected to be almost fully literate as far as basic arithmetic or computation is concerned.
- Standard 10: Those with a Standard 10 education should be fully able to count, add, subtract, divide and multiply, however, big the numbers (Singer, 1985:412; Steyn, 1987:21).

#### **4.6.2.1.4 Oral communication**

Oral communication will be expected from all categories. This is the person's ability to express himself or herself orally clearly and in a manner in which he/she can be understood. Steyn (1987:21) adds the dimension of listening and says that oral communication involves the ability to speak and listen with understanding in the language that is in use e.g. English or Afrikaans. This therefore means that the pupils' auditory perception should be developed and they should be made aware of sounds of the second language as well as be encouraged to speak the second language, even at Junior Primary, should there be another language of communication in the work place e.g. English and/or Afrikaans.

- Standard 5: those with a Standard 5 education will be expected to understand basic oral instructions as well as speak a few comprehensible words or sentence, even though they may not utter every sentence of the second language correctly.
- Standard 8: Those with a Standard 8 education will be expected to be able to hold brief conversations in the language of the workplace.



- Standard 10: Those with a Standard 10 education will be fluent in both their mother tongue and the official language of the place of work, e.g. English and/or Afrikaans. They should be able comprehend explicit and implicit meanings in spoken discourse (Steyn, 1987:21).

#### **4.6.2.2 Summary**

This section examined basic skills as part of the general skills, knowledge and attitudes that will be used for the purposes of this research. The next section will examine social skills that also form part of the guidelines to identify educational needs.

#### **4.6.2.3 Social skills**

##### **4.6.2.3.1 Introduction**

According to Brandhorst (1985:4640-4641) social skills are "those social behaviours, interpersonal and task related, that produce positive consequences in the classroom setting and outside the school, including at the place of work". Social skills further imply the ability to select and exhibit certain behaviours at appropriate times and specific, situations. For the purposes of this research the following will be regarded as the necessary social skills.

##### **4.6.2.3.2 Problem-solving**

Problem-solving implies identifying and defining a problem by identifying discrepancies; generating alternative solutions; anticipating probable consequences; selecting an alternative; and evaluating the outcome or solution or course of action (Brandhorst, 1985:4641; Peterson, 1982:4).

Within the scope of the duties that each worker in the workplace is given, he/she will need the problem solving ability, whether he/she has only a Standard 5 education, a Standard 8 education or a Standard 10 education. This means that regardless of the educational level of the worker, the problem-solving skill is necessary but will be more complex the higher the level of education of the worker becomes.

##### **4.6.2.3.3 Interpersonal skills**

Interpersonal skills involve being flexible, adaptable, and able to take a variety of perspectives into account, and thus being able to resolve disputes for the purposes of

reconciliation. They also include the ability to listen attentively and speak effectively as well as being tactful and courteous (Peterson, 1982:4). Cooperation with others is also important for interpersonal skills. A primary school graduate should also be able to socialise well with his peers and adults (Commission Report, 1981:94-99). Within the scope of duties that each worker in the workplace is given, he/she will need the interpersonal skills, whether he/she has been to school up to Standard 5, Standard 8 or has a Standard 10 education. The higher the Standard of education the better the ability should be to understand the requirements of good interpersonal skills.

#### **4.6.2.3.4 Task management**

Task management involves the analysis of needs and the setting of priorities and objectives as well as the planning of activities. It also involves the management of time, efficient resource management for the purpose of accomplishing goals, following through on planned activities; self discipline and the acceptance of responsibility for own decisions and actions. Task management is necessary for all workers according to their duties, regardless of whether they have an education of up to Standard 5, Standard 8 or Standard 10 (Peterson, 1982:2). It should, however, become even better the higher the level of education of the worker becomes.

#### **4.6.2.3.5 Authority**

Authority involves the ability and willingness to act according to rules and norms as well as deal effectively with supervision, constructive criticism, and requirements of deference. It also implies the understanding of systems of authority, rank and status (Peterson, 1982:4)

This attribute is necessary for all workers regardless of their duties and their scholastic levels, i.e. regardless of whether they have an education of up to Standard 5, Standard 8, or Standard 10. It should, however, become even better as the level of education of the worker improves.

#### **4.6.2.3.6 Responsibility**

Responsibility involves being ready and willing to be trusted with time and material resources, as well as being able to accept and fulfil responsibility (Peterson, 1982:4). A primary school graduate must have sound and solid work habits, e.g. punctuality, honesty and responsibility (Commission Report, 1981:94-99).

This is also a common attribute for all workers regardless of their duties at work and their scholastic levels, i.e. regardless of whether they have an education of up to Standard 5, Standard 8, or Standard 10. The higher the level of education becomes, the better should be the ability to understand the acceptance of responsibility.

#### **4.6.2.4 Summary**

The above discussion has shown that social skills are necessary in the workplace, and that they are required of all workers regardless of their scholastic levels. The next section will examine occupational skills as part of the criteria to be used for the purposes of this research.

#### **4.6.2.5 Occupational skills**

These can also be called work-content skills since they imply some kind of job-specific knowledge and skills. They involve the mastery of a particular vocabulary, procedures or subject matter specific to a particular occupation or employer. According to Vaughan (1991:447) "shifts in what industry considers to be 'well educated' mean that schools can no longer simply offer more of the same curricula". Technology-related skills will be needed by many employers and employees. Technology training must start no later than high school and be offered to all students. In other words, high schools should not only concentrate on basic skills and leave it to employers to train their employees in the occupational skills they need. High schools should also get involved in occupational training. Kolde (1991:455) concurs and says that "to meet the needs of the workplace, education must change".

The classroom of the future is one that integrates technical and academic knowledge and skills. Such skills include general office skills like filing and basic bookkeeping as well as the use of typewriters and computer literacy, which should have been mastered by the time the pupil completes high school. In the same manner pupils have to be motivated to learn and teachers to teach by emphasizing relationships between the curriculum and the needs of today's workplace and by actively encouraging students to acquire personally meaningful work values (Hoyt, 1991:452).

Work experience programmes can also help in giving pupils the necessary skills for the workplace. Pupils take part in projects through which they perform duties of the worker without taking the identity of the worker (Departement van Nasionale Opvoeding, 1988:53).

A worker with an education of only up to Standard 5 may be expected to be able to perform routine, predictable work that requires limited theoretical knowledge and motor skills, under supervision; for example, gardening, scrubbing, and tool maintenance. Those with an education of up to Standard 8 can be expected to have the skills and demonstrated capacity to perform self-directed tasks involving the use of theoretical knowledge and motor skills under limited supervision. Such people can, for example, be expected to have some knowledge, skills and the required attitude concerning profit and loss, the use of tools such as grinders, general office work and the basic use of typewriters and computers. Those with an education of up to Standard 10 can be expected to perform complex tasks involving substantial applied theoretical knowledge and motor skills. They do not need constant supervision since they can perform tasks without supervision. They can also engage in some supervision of others (Steyn, 1982:69). Examples of jobs such people can be expected to do are general office work such as filing and bookkeeping, the use of typewriters and computers, as well as profit and loss management.

Punctuality, a very important occupational skill, is closely related with responsibility (paragraph 4.3.2.2) which implies being able to be trusted with time and material resources, and being able to accept and fulfil responsibility. Punctuality will be expected of all workers, regardless of whether they have an education of up to Standard 5, Standard 8, or Standard 10 (Burton, 1983:18).

#### **4.6.2.6 Summary**

The criteria discussed in this section are those that are regarded as necessary for the workplace by various authorities as mentioned and discussed above. They realise that school has to fulfil its role as the basis of training not only for the workplace but also for imparting social values.

### **4.7 SUMMARY AND FURTHER PROGRAMME**

This chapter has examined general educational needs as well as the criteria regarded by various authorities as necessary for the workplace. The aims of education in Venda were also discussed. The next chapter will be a design of the research as well as the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results.

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## CHAPTER 5

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### 5. AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN VENDA

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous three chapters dealt with the theoretical guidelines with regard to the relationship between the education system and the human resource needs of communities in developing countries. They also examined how human resource development functions as a determinant of the education system. An examination of the human resource needs in Venda with regard to human resource development was also conducted, and in so doing general educational needs as proposed by various authorities have been examined, and from those needs guidelines have been established for the empirical examination of educational needs in Venda.

The present chapter will deal with the design of the research and the presentation, analysis and interpretation of results.

#### 5.2 DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

##### 5.2.1 Research methods

Educational research can make use of various research techniques and methods, amongst which are the postal questionnaire and the interview (Ary *et al.*, 1990:419-427). Use has been made here of the postal questionnaire.

Questionnaires can be classified into two types according to the nature of questions asked, namely, the structured or closed form and the unstructured or open form. A structured questionnaire is that type of questionnaire that contains questions with alternative answers to those questions. It thus consists of a set of questions which the respondent can reply with a 'yes' or a 'no' or 'no opinion', or is requested to select from a short-list of possible responses by placing a tick in a space provide for, by making a circle around what he considers to be the appropriate response or by underlining a response; sometimes he can be requested to insert brief answers of his own (Charles, 1988:86; Ary *et al.*, 1972, 170).

In the open questionnaire the respondent can reply as he wishes as the respondent is not limited to a single alternative. The respondent is not given a set of alternative answers to choose from and the answers have to be supplied and written by the respondent, i.e., there are no suggested answers given (Lovel & Lawson, 1971:88; Ary *et al.*, 1990:419-423).

The postal questionnaire was chosen here for the reasons set out below:

### **5.2.2 Reasons for selecting the structured postal questionnaire**

- Because questionnaires are sent through the post "the expenses involved in training interviewers and sending them personally to interview each respondent are diminished" (Sax, 1979:244). The cost per subject surveyed is low (Galfo, 1975:26).
- Postal questionnaires are also less time-consuming (Cohen & Manion, 1986:108).
- More people can be reached through the use of the postal questionnaire than through the use of the interview since the postal questionnaire can be sent over a far wider geographical area than is possible with the interview. As Ary *et al.* (1972:169) say "the written questionnaire allows for the use of a larger sample".
- "Each respondent receives the same set of questions phrased in the same way" (Sax, 1979:245). This makes the data yielded by the questionnaires to be comparable.
- Because the same Standard instructions are given to all subjects, "the personal appearance, mood, or conduct of the investigator will not colour the results" (Ary *et al.*, 1972:170).

The questionnaire may, however, present some problems:

- There is a possibility that the respondent may misinterpret the questions (Ary *et al.*, 1972:170).
- There is often a low return from postal questionnaires (Babbie, 1990:187).

- \* Some respondents might falsify their answers in order to please the researcher or to conform to certain socially acceptable norms or forms of behaviour (Charles, 1988:86).
- \* Certain questions may be ignored.
- \* The assumption that all subjects are literate may be a problem in some populations.
- \* the motivation of the respondent is difficult to check (Sax, 1979:245; Behr, 1988:157-158).

Despite the disadvantages stated above the structured questionnaire was, however, chosen. The researcher, knowing the problems, tried to avoid them as much as possible. For example, an attempt was made to eliminate the problem of the misinterpretation of questions by doing a pilot study in order to discover and eliminate ambiguity in questions (Bell, 1991:65). On the other hand the problem of low returns was dealt with by constantly reminding the non-responding subjects of the need to return the questionnaires. Also, a coloured paper was used in order to increase the visual appeal of the questionnaire.

### **5.2.3 The final questionnaire**

The questionnaire is structured in such a way that it will shed light on the aim of the research, which is, to determine whether the education system of Venda satisfies its human resource needs.

There are 19 questions in all. The questions are designed for the following purpose:

- \* To determine what knowledge, skills and attitudes employers expect from their employees with regard to different educational levels.

The final questionnaire consisted of four parts. The division of the questionnaire into parts one, two, three and four was done in accordance with the criteria used for the purposes of this research as set out in section 4.6. The questionnaire was structured in the following manner (see Appendix I):

### **Part one: Biographical data (see Appendix I)**

Question 1 and 2:

Data concerning the respondent, viz. sex and position held.

Question 3 and 4:

Data concerning the organisation, viz. the type and size of the organisation.

Question 5 and 6:

Data concerning the posts/jobs in the organisation, viz. the posts/jobs available to employees according to their educational levels as well as the number of employees employed according to their educational levels.

### **Part two: Basic skills (see Appendix I)**

This part consisted of four questions, i.e. questions 7,8,9 and 10. the questions were included in the questionnaire in order to find out which basic skills employers regarded as important for employment for people of different educational levels.

Question 7 was concerned with reading ability.

Question 8 was concerned with writing ability.

Question 9 was concerned with computational ability.

Question 10 was concerned with the ability to speak the language of the place of work.

### **Part Three: Social skills (see Appendix I)**

Part Three consisted of three questions, viz. questions 11, 12 and 13. The question were aimed at discovering what employers regarded as the necessary social skills for the workplace for people of different educational levels.

Question 11 was concerned with problem-solving.

Question 12 was concerned with social interaction.

Question 13 was concerned with respect for authority.



#### **Part Four: Occupational skills (see Appendix I)**

This part was concerned with what occupational skills employers regarded as necessary for employment for people of different educational levels. It consisted of six questions i.e. questions 14, 15, 16, 17,18 and 19.

Question 14 was concerned with punctuality.

Question 15 was concerned with performance of duties requiring only the use of basic tools e.g. spades and brooms.

Question 16 was concerned with the performance of duties requiring the use of higher level basic tools, e.g. grinders.

Question 17 was concerned with higher skills tasks such as typing and the use of computers.

Question 18 was concerned with the understanding of the functioning of commerce and industry.

Question 19 was concerned with job performance when there is no supervision.

Except for questions five and six, which were to be answered by naming the posts at each level of education and the number of employees employed at each level of education, all the questions were to be answered by making a circle in the applicable block. This reduces considerably the time each respondent has to spend answering the questions as he/she only has to make a circle around what he/she regards to be the appropriate response (see paragraph 5.2.1).

#### **5.2.4 Target group and area delimitation**

The target group for the postal questionnaires was the employers who make use of the products of the education system.

Venda is situated in the Far Northern Province. Venda is divided into five districts namely, Thohoyandou, Vuwani, Mutale, Dzanani and Tshitale. Thohoyandou district is the most populous and contains the major towns in the area. Since the researcher resides and works in the Thohoyandou district and since Thohoyandou district contains the major towns in the area and by implication the most employers the questionnaires were distributed within the district, which includes the following areas:

- \* Thohoyandou School Inspection Area
- \* Mutshindudi School Inspection Area
- \* Thohoyandou Town
- \* Shayandima Industrial Area and Town
- \* Sibasa Town
- \* Tshitereke Rural Town.

Because of the large number of employers involved a decision was taken to sample 133 of the 689 commercial employers, 56 of the 150 industries and one government (since there is only one government and it employs all civil servants) as shown in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1      Distribution of questionnaires**

<b>Type of organisation</b>	<b>Number of organisation</b>	<b>Expected sample size</b>	<b>Actual returns</b>	<b>%</b>
Commerce	689	133	104	78%
Industry	150	56	39	70%
Government	1	1	1	100%
Other (did not mention whether commerce or industry)	1	0	1	0,7%
<b>Total</b>	<b>841</b>	<b>190</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>76%</b>

Firstly a list of the names and addresses of the various establishments in the Thohoyandou district was obtained from the Department of Inland Revenue at Thohoyandou. A random selection was done in order to arrive at the stipulated number of subjects for each type of establishment. This was done by writing down the names of the institutions of each establishment.

The names of those institutions from commerce were then put into a jar. They were then vigorously shuffled and then 133 names were randomly selected from the jar. The same procedure was repeated for industry and manufacturing in order to arrive at the required 56 names. The procedure was not done for government as it is the sole

employer of government employees. A total of 190 questionnaires was therefore posted (see Table 5.1 above).

As shown in Table 5.1, 79% of the questionnaires sent to commerce were received back, with a response rate of 70% from industry and 100% from government. The overall response rate was 76%. This is a very good response rate as, according to Babbie (1990:183), "a response rate of at least 50% is generally considered adequate for analysis and reporting where postal questionnaires are involved. A response rate of at least 60% is considered good, and a response rate of 70% or more is very good".

### **5.2.5 Statistical technique**

The results of the research questionnaires were processed by the Statistical Consultation Service of the PU for CHE using the SAS computer programme (SAS Institute, 1985 and 1988). The results reflect the frequencies and percentages of responses to each question item.

## **5.3 PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS**

(Refer to questionnaire: Appendix I).

The responses in this study have been divided into four parts related to the four parts of the questionnaire as set out in paragraph 5.2.3.

### **5.3.1 Interpretation of data for Part One Biographical data**

#### **5.3.1.1 Introduction**

This section deals with the sex and position of the respondents, the type and size of the organisation as well as the posts in an organisation and the number of employees of a particular education occupying a particular post.

#### **5.3.1.2 Interpretation of data for question one**

Question one (see Appendix I) required the respondents to mention whether they are male or female. The responses were as follows:

**Table 5.2 The sex of the respondents**

Sex	f (frequency)	%
Male	103	71,0
Female	42	29,0
<b>Total</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100,0</b>

Most respondents (71%) were males, with females only constituting 29% of the 145 respondents.

### 5.3.1.3 Interpretation of data for question two

Question two (refer to Appendix I) required the respondents to state the positions they held in the organisation. The responses were as follows:

**Table 5.3 Position in the organisation**

Position	f	%
No response	01	0,7
Owner	50	34,5
Director	35	24,1
Manager	44	30,3
Personal manager/officer	12	08,3
Other	03	02,1
<b>Total</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100,0</b>

Most respondents gave their position as either owner (34,5%), director (24,1%) or manager (30,3%; total 88,9%). Looking further down at the size of the organisation (question 4), 75,2% of the respondents gave the size of their organisation as being 20 employees or less. Most organisations in this region are therefore small ones and will therefore be small employers. The figure for those who gave their position as owner is 34,5% and that of organisations with less than six employees is 31,0%.

#### 5.3.1.4 Interpretation of data for question three

Question three (see Appendix I) required the respondent to state the type of organisation/establishment they owned or which employed them. The responses were as follows:

**Table 5.4** Type of organisation/establishment

Type	f	%
Industry and manufacturing	39	26,9
Commerce	104	71,7
Government	01	0,7
Other	01	0,7
<b>Total</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100,0</b>

Most of the respondents were from commerce (71,1%) while industry had 26,9% of the total number of respondents. From the percentages it would seem as if the responses would be biased towards commerce. To offset this effect, a t-test was done. The t-test revealed a small to medium effect size or d-value (practical significance) for all questions on basic skills, social skills and occupational skills. This means that the responses to these questions did not differ significantly, whether the responses came from industry and manufacturing or from commerce.

One questionnaire was sent and received from government since the public service commission is the one that sets employment criteria and standards for public servants and also employs them. One respondent did not mention whether he/she belonged to commerce or industry.

#### 5.3.1.5 Interpretation of data for question four

Question four (see Appendix I) required the respondents to give information regarding the size of their organisations. The following were the responses:

**Table 5.5      Size of organisation**

Size	f	%
Under six employees	45	31,0
6-20 employees	64	44,2
21-50 employees	15	10,3
51-100 employees	11	07,6
101-200 employees	08	05,5
201-500 employees	01	0,7
501-1 000 employees	00	0,0
1 001 employees and above	01	0,7
<b>Total</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100,0</b>

Only one respondent (government) had more than one thousand (1 000) employees, with only nine respondents having between 101 and 500 employees, eight of which had between 101 and 200 employees. Most organisations are therefore small and employ few people.

One important point to mention is that no statistically significant differences were identified between the size of the organisation and their responses on part two of the questionnaire; therefore there are no differences in responses with regard to size.

#### **5.3.1.6 Interpretation of data for question 5**

Question 5 (see Appendix I) was meant to discover the posts in an organisation/establishment that are/can be occupied by people of different scholastic levels. The responses to the questions were as follows (see Table 5.6).

**Table 5.6: Posts/jobs according to educational qualifications**

**Commerce**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5														
Std 8	63	60,5	22	21,2	1	1,0	3	2,9	5	4,8	10	9,6	104	100
Std 10	27	25,9	11	10,5	46	44,4	5	4,8	5	4,8	10	9,6	104	100
	8	7,7	5	4,8	28	26,9	33	31,9	11	10,5	19	18,2	104	100

**Industry**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5														
Std 8	27	69,3	7	17,9	1	2,6	0	0,0	2	5,1	2	5,1	39	100
Std 10	4	10,3	20	51,3	7	17,9	2	5,1	4	10,3	2	5,1	39	100
	2	5,1	6	15,4	12	30,8	11	28,2	7	17,9	1	2,6	39	100

Most employers, both in commerce and industry, employ people with a Standard 5 education or less in pure labour jobs like cleaning (60,5% in commerce and 69,2% in industry). Most people with an education of up to Standard 8 are found in higher order labour jobs and clerical or sales jobs in both commerce and industry. However, in industry more people of an education of up to Standard 8 are in higher order labour jobs (51,3%) than in clerical and sales jobs (17,9%). This can be attributed to the fact that in industry jobs like panelbeating and knitting, for example, are labour jobs, yet they require higher order skills of precision (see question 16). On the other hand, most commercial establishments employ people of up to Standard 8 education as salesmen, typists and till operators.

In both commerce and industry those with an education of up to Standard 10 are employed in positions that can be described as sales and clerical as well as managerial positions. This indicates that both commerce and industry regard people of up to Standard 10 education as more able to handle higher skills tasks like typing, computer skills and filing. They also regard such people as having a better knowledge and understanding of commerce and industry. This concurs well with their responses to questions 17 and 18.

Government also concurs with these responses as given by commerce and industry, giving jobs of those of up to Standard 5 education as, for example, general assistants and gardeners; those of up to Standard 8 education as, for example, typists, registry clerks and administration clerks; while jobs for those of up to Standard 10 education are given as, for example, administration clerks, accounting clerks, senior, principal, and chief clerks. This means that in government as well people with an education of up to Standard 5 or less also largely get pure labour jobs; those of up to Standard 10 education get higher skills jobs as well as those jobs that have managerial duties.

#### **5.3.1.7 Interpretation of data for question 6**

Question 6 (see Appendix I) required the respondents to indicate with reference to question 5 the total number of employees on each level. The responses were as follows (see Table 5.7).



**Table 5.7: Total number of employees at each level**

Level	Up to Standard 5									
Number of employees	1	2	3	4	5-10	11-20	21-70	71 and above	No response	Total
f	21	40	10	12	19	9	5	2	27	145
%	14,5	27,6	6,9	8,3	13,0	6,2	3,5	1,4	18,6	100

Level	Up to Standard 8									
Number of employees	1	2	3	4	5-10	11-20	21-70	71 and above	No response	Total
f	24	37	10	12	18	9	5	2	28	145
%	16,6	25,4	6,9	8,3	12,4	6,2	3,5	1,4	19,3	100

Level	Up to Standard 10									
Number of employees	1	2	3	4	5-10	11-20	21-70	71 and above	No response	Total
f	37	14	5	11	19	4	11	7	37	145
%	25,5	9,6	3,4	7,6	13,2	2,8	7,6	4,8	25,5	100

Less than 5% of the employers had more than 71 employees at each level of education (see Table 5.7). This means that most employers are small employers, and concurs well with the responses on question 4 on the size of the organisation (see paragraph 5.3.1.5).

### **5.3.2 Interpretation of data for Part Two Basic Skills**

#### **5.3.2.1 Introduction**

This part of the questionnaire consists of four questions. The questions were aimed at discovering what the employers regarded as the necessary basic skills for employment, as well as which basic skills will be regarded as important for people of different educational levels.

#### **5.3.2.2 Interpretation of data for question 7**

Question 7 (see Appendix 1) was aimed at discovering the level of reading ability employers would expect of job seekers with different education levels.

The responses here concur with what has been indicated in the literature study (paragraph 4.6.2.1.1). According to Table 5.8 42,8% of the respondents said that they expected the reading abilities of employees with a Standard 5 education or less to be either non-existent or weak. 9% said the Standard 8 workers would be weak in reading abilities, while none of the respondents expected a Standard 10 worker to have no reading ability or to be weak in reading ability, with 72,4% saying that such people should be excellent in their reading abilities, compared with 39,3% for those with an education of up to Standard 8, and 34,3% for those with an education of up to Standard 5. This indicates that employers expect the reading abilities of employees to be of a high quality if they have an education of up to Standard 10.

#### **5.3.2.3 Interpretation of data for question 8**

Question 8 (see Appendix 1) aimed at discovering the level of writing ability which employers expected of job seekers with different education levels (see Table 5.9).

**Table 5.8: Reading skills of employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	23	15,9	39	26,9	19	13,1	50	34,5	9	6,2	5	3,4
Std 8	-	-	13	9,0	66	45,5	57	39,3	4	2,8	5	3,4
Std 10	-	-	-	-	28	19,4	105	72,4	6	4,1	6	4,1

**Table 5.9: Writing skills of employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	25	17,2	38	26,2	20	13,9	51	35,2	6	4,1	5	3,4
Std 8	-	-	10	6,9	67	46,2	59	40,7	4	2,8	5	3,4
Std 10	-	-	-	-	30	20,8	102	70,3	6	4,1	7	4,8

43,4% of the respondents said that they expected their employees of up to Standard 5 education to have no or weak writing ability. On the other hand, 70,3% of the respondents expected that the writing abilities of those with an education of up to Standard 10 should be excellent, compared with 40,7% for those with an education of up to Standard 8 and 35,2% for those with an education of up to Standard 5. Employees therefore expect not to meet any problems as far as writing ability is concerned with people of an education of up to Standard 10 education, while they expect some problems in those with an education of up to Standard 8 (6,9% responded "weak" for writing ability for those of up to Standard 8 education. They expect that those with an education of up to Standard 5 should have more problems in this (17,2%) responded "none" and 26,9% responded "weak" writing ability for those with an education of up to Standard 5). This is in line with the comments made by Steyn (1987:1) as indicated in paragraph 4.6.2.1.2.

#### **5.3.2.4 Interpretation of data for question 9**

Question 9 (see Appendix I) required employers to indicate what levels of computation skills they expected from employees with different education levels.

More than half of the respondents, i.e. 53,1% expect the computational skills of job seekers with an education of up to Standard 5 to be either weak or non-existent. This indicates an increase of about 10% in the responses for similar questions concerning the reading and writing abilities of people of an education of up to Standard 5 (see paragraphs 4.3.2.2 and 4.3.2.3 respectively), thus indicating that employers regard computational skills as being more difficult to acquire than either the reading and writing abilities. Only 11% of the respondents expected a weak ability to write for people with an education of up to Standard 8, compared with only 0,7% for those with an education of up to Standard 10 (see Table 5.10). This concurs well with the comments made in the literature study (see par. 4.6.2.1.3).

#### **5.3.2.5 Interpretation of data for question 10**

Question 10 (see Appendix I) expected the respondents to indicate what levels of ability in speaking and understanding English communication they expected from employees with different education levels (see Table 5.11).

**Table 5.10: Computation skills of employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	34	23,4	43	29,9	9	6,2	41	28,6	11	7,6	7	4,3
Std 8	-	-	16	11,0	67	46,2	55	37,9	4	2,8	3	2,1
Std 10	-	-	1	0,7	31	21,3	100	69,0	4	2,8	9	6,2

**Table 5.11: Oral communication skills of employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	28	19,3	28	19,3	18	12,4	60	41,4	4	2,8	7	4,8
Std 8	1	0,7	13	9,0	58	40,0	66	45,5	3	2,1	4	2,8
Std 10	-	-	1	0,7	28	19,3	101	69,7	6	4,1	9	6,2

38,5% of the respondents expected the ability to speak and understand English of people with an education of up to Standard 5 to be either non-existent or weak, compared with 9,7% for those with an education of up to Standard 8. Only 0,7% (i.e. one respondent) expected the ability to speak and understand English of those with an education of up to Standard 10 to be weak. On the other hand, 69,7% of those respondents expected an excellent ability to speak and understand English from those with an education of up to Standard 10 compared with 45,5% for those with an education of up to Standard 8 and 41,4% for those with an education of up to Standard 5. This is in line with what has been stated in the literature study (see par. 4.6.2.1.4).

There is one important difference that needs to be mentioned between the literature study and the results of the empirical study as far as basic skills are concerned. While the literature study indicated that the basic skills of those with an education of up to Standard 5 should be weak, it did not say that such basic skills could be entirely non-existent. The literature study also did not expect any of those with an education of up to Standard 5 to be excellent as far as any of the four basic skills are concerned as indicated in the responses to the questionnaires (see par. 4.6.2.1 and 5.3.2). The fact that 34,5%, 35,2%, 28,3% and 41,4% of the respondents indicated that they expected the skills of reading, writing, computation and speaking English to be excellent even for those with an education of up to Standard 10 indicates that some employers expect the education system to deliver good quality products despite the scholastic level at which the person leaves school.

### **5.3.3 Interpretation of data for Part Three Social skills**

#### **5.3.3.1 Introduction**

This section consists of three questions. The questions were aimed at finding out which social skills the employers regarded as being necessary for employment, as well as which social skills will be expected of employees at different educational levels. Except for the problem-solving skill, the responses to the questions on social skills yielded a similar result (see Tables 5.12, 5.13 and 5.14).

#### **5.3.3.2 Interpretation of data for question 11**

Question 11 (see Appendix I) required respondents to indicate what level of ability in problem solving they expected from employees with different education levels.

**Table 5.12: Problem solving skills of employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	6	4,1	31	21,4	38	26,2	56	38,7	6	4,1	8	5,5
Std 8	1	0,7	5	3,4	69	47,6	62	42,8	3	2,1	5	3,4
Std 10	-	-	1	0,7	34	23,5	97	66,9	5	3,4	8	5,5

**Table 5.13: Social interaction skills of employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	-	-	5	3,4	52	35,9	75	51,8	5	3,4	8	5,5
Std 8	-	-	2	1,4	56	38,6	79	54,5	3	2,1	5	3,4
Std 10	-	-	-	-	49	33,8	85	58,6	4	2,8	7	4,8

Only 38,7% expected that those with an education of up to Standard 5 should be excellent as far as problem-solving is concerned, while 42,8% expected the same for those of an education of up to Standard 8. The figure jumps to 66,9% for those of an education of up to Standard 10. This shows that employers regard problem-solving as a higher order social skill than social interaction and respect for authority. With the latter the responses were almost the same, for example, 64,8% and 65,4% felt that they expected excellent respect for authority from those with an education of up to Standards 5, 8 and 10 respectively (see par. 5.3.3.4 and Table 5.14).

#### **5.3.3.3 Interpretation of data for question 12**

Question 12 expected respondents to mention the level of ability to interact with others they expected from employers of different education levels (see Appendix I).

All the respondents expected some form of ability in social interaction from their employees whether they have an education of up to Standard 5, 8 or 10. An average of 91% of the respondents expected all workers to be either good or excellent in their social interaction or interpersonal skills. This concurs with what has been argued in the literature study (see par. 4.6.2.3.3) where it was argued that interpersonal skills/social interaction skills will be expected of all workers regardless of their education levels.

#### **5.3.3.4 Interpretation of data for question 13**

Question 13 required the respondents to indicate how much respect for authority they expected from their employees (see Appendix I).

All the respondents expected some form of respect for authority from their employees regardless of their scholastic levels, with an average of 91,6% of the respondents expecting the level of respect for authority to be either good or excellent in all employees regardless of whether they have an education of up to Standard 5, 8 or Standard 10. This concurs well with the literature study (see par. 4.6.2.3.5) where it was indicated that respect for authority will be expected of all employees regardless of scholastic levels (see Table 5.13).



**Table 5.14: Respect for authority by employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	-	-	3	2,1	36	24,8	94	64,8	4	2,8	8	5,5
Std 8	-	-	1	0,7	42	29,0	95	65,4	3	2,1	4	2,8
Std 10	-	-	1	0,7	35	24,1	97	66,9	4	2,8	8	5,5

**Table 5.15: Punctuality by employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	-	-	5	3,4	30	20,7	96	66,2	4	2,8	10	6,9
Std 8	-	-	1	0,7	40	27,6	95	65,5	3	2,1	6	4,1
Std 10	-	-	-	-	34	23,4	97	66,9	4	2,8	10	6,9

### **5.3.4 Interpretation of data for Part Four Occupational skills**

#### **5.3.4.1 Introduction**

This section consists of six questions. The questions were aimed at discovering which occupational skills the employers regarded as important for employment as well as which occupational skills will be expected of employees at different educational levels.

#### **5.3.4.2 Interpretation of data for question 14**

Question 14 (see Appendix I) required respondents to state the level of punctuality they would expect from their employees with different scholastic levels (see Table 5.15).

None of the respondents expected no punctuality from any of their workers. Only 3,4% expected those with an education of up to Standard 5 to be weak as far as punctuality is concerned and only one respondent (0,7% of the respondents) expected weak punctuality from those with an education of up to Standard 8. An average of 66% expected all workers regardless of their education to be punctual. Punctuality is therefore regarded as a necessary factor as far as the workplace is concerned regardless of whatever job the worker is employed to do and whatever educational level he/she has completed. This concurs well with the literature study (see par. 4.6.2.5).

#### **5.3.4.3 Interpretation of data for question 15**

Question 15 (see Appendix I) asked the respondents to indicate the level of ability in the performance of tasks/jobs that required the use of basic tools like spades and brooms and basic abilities like measuring and estimating they would expect of workers with different scholastic levels (see Table 5.16).

**Table 5:16 Use of basic tools by employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	1	0,7	23	15,9	47	32,4	61	42,1	6	4,1	7	4,8
Std 8	2	1,4	7	4,8	80	55,2	45	31,0	6	4,1	5	3,4
Std 10	4	2,8	14	9,7	40	27,6	73	50,3	6	4,1	8	5,5

**Table 5.17: Skills of precision by employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	8	5,5	37	25,5	34	23,4	47	32,5	12	8,3	7	4,8
Std 8	1	0,7	10	6,9	79	54,5	41	28,3	8	5,5	6	4,1
Std 10	1	0,7	17	11,7	37	25,5	72	49,7	9	6,2	9	6,2

Only one (0,7%), two (1,4%) and four (2,8%) of the respondents expected no ability in the use of basic tools for any of their workers with an education of up to Standard 5, Standard 8 and Standard 10 respectively, while the use of basic tools such as brooms can be said to be routine work (see par. 4.6.2.5). Those with an education of up to Standard 10 were rated as the most able in the use of basic tools (50,3%) compared to those who have an education of up to Standard 8 and those with an education of up to Standard 5, who were rated to be excellent in the use of basic tools by 31,0% and 42,1% of the employers respectively. The rating of excellent is higher for those with an education of up to Standard 5 than for those with an education of up to Standard 8, and this can be attributed to that employers see basic tools as being more in the domain of work for those with an education of up to Standard 5 than for those with an education of up to Standard 8.

#### **5.3.4.4 Interpretation of data for question 16**

Question 16 (see Appendix I) required the respondents to indicate the level of ability in the use of tools such as grinders and skills of precision they would expect from workers with different educational levels.

5,5% of the respondents expected no ability in the use of skills of precision in people with an education of up to Standard 5. Only 0,7% of the respondents expected no ability in skills of precision for those with an education of up to Standard 8 and up to Standard 10. In this skill, just like in the use of basic tools, more respondents expected those with an education of up to Standard 10 to be more able to use skills of precision (49,7%) than either those with an education of up to Standard 8 (28,3%) and those with an education of up to Standard 5 (32,5%). Those with an education of up to Standard 5 education were expected to be more able to use skills of precision than those with education of up to Standard 8, which contrasts with the literature study (see par. 4.6.2.5) which indicated that the skills of precision and the use of grinders will be more expected of employees with a Standard 8 education. This contrast can also be attributable to the fact that some employers might have regarded grinders as falling within the domain of the most basic tools and therefore according to them more relevant to work that should be done mostly by those with an education of up to Standard 5 than by those with an education of up to Standard 10 (see Table 5.17).

**Table 5.18: Higher skills tasks performance by employees**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	32	22,1	32	22,1	14	9,7	46	31,6	13	9,0	8	5,5
Std 8	1	0,7	15	10,3	62	42,8	58	40,0	4	2,8	5	3,4
Std 10	1	0,7	5	3,4	29	20,0	97	66,9	4	2,8	9	6,2

**Table 5.19: Functioning of commerce**

	None		Weak		Good		Excellent		N/A		No response	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Std 5	7	4,8	41	28,3	23	15,9	56	38,6	9	6,2	9	6,2
Std 8	2	1,4	10	6,9	54	37,2	69	47,6	4	2,8	6	4,1
Std 10	-	-	2	1,4	32	22,1	98	67,6	5	3,4	8	5,5

#### **5.3.4.5 Interpretation of data for question 17**

Question 17 (see Appendix I) asked the respondents to state what level of ability they expected of their workers with different education levels in the performance of higher skills tasks, for example, typing, computer skills and general office skills like filing.

A large percentage of the respondents (44,2%) indicated that they expected the performance of higher skills tasks to be either non-existent or weak in those with an education of up to Standard 5, while only 11% and 4% of the respondents gave the same answers for those with an education of up to Standard 8 and up to Standard 10 respectively. On the other hand only 31,6% of the respondents said that they expected those with an education of up to Standard 5 to be excellent in the use of higher skills tasks compared to 40% for those with an education of up to Standard 8 and 66% for those with an education of up to Standard 10 which concurs with the literature study which indicated that those with a Standard 10 education can be expected to be more able to perform higher skill tasks (see par. 4.6.2.5). The literature study also indicated that such higher skills tasks would be expected from those with an education of up to Standard 8. The results of the empirical study therefore concur with the literature study in that a large percentage (44,2%) of the respondents expected no or a weak ability in the performance of higher skills tasks. On the other hand, the result is surprising in that 31,6% expected those with an education of up to Standard 5 to be excellent in the performance of such tasks, thus indicating that a sizeable number of employers expect a good quality of education even at the lowest classes.

#### **5.3.4.6 Interpretation of data for question 18**

The question (see Appendix I) required the respondents to indicate what level of knowledge and understanding of the functioning of commerce and industry they would expect from workers with different education levels, e.g. an understanding of the fact that income and expenditure should remain at such a level that profit can be made and viability maintained.

Those with an education of up to Standard 10 are expected to be more able to understand the functioning of commerce and industry than those with an education of up to Standard 8 and up to Standard 5. The responses were 67,6% for those with an education of up to Standard 10 compared to 49,6% for those with an education of up to Standard 8 and 38,6% for those with an education of up to Standard 5. This

concur with the literature study (par. 4.6.2.5) where people of an education of up to Standard 10 are expected to be good in profit and loss management (see Table 5.19).

#### **5.3.4.7 Interpretation of data for question 19**

Question 19 (see Appendix I) expected the respondents to indicate what level of ability they expected from workers of different scholastic levels at the performance of tasks without supervision.

For questions 15, 16, 17 and 18 fewer than 50% of the respondents rated those with an education of up to Standard 5 and Standard 8 as excellent while for question 19 (supervision) the rating of excellent for these standards was given by 50,4%, 54,5% and 65,4% for Standard 5, 8 and 10 respectively.

This means that while those of an education of up to Standard 10 are expected to be better able to perform their tasks without supervision, and therefore can be given managerial tasks even in the absence of the employers, those with an education of up to Standard 5 and up to Standard 8 are also expected not to be bad as far as the performance of tasks without supervision is concerned. The literature study (see par.4.6.2.5) indicated that those with an education of up to Standard 5 cannot be expected to do their work without supervision, and therefore the result is surprising in this respect.

Those with an education of up to Standard 10 level are expected to be better than both the Standard fives and the Standard eights in the use of skills of precision, the performance of tasks which require higher order skills, the understanding of the functioning of commerce as well as the performance of tasks without supervision. It is also interesting to note that even in the use of basic tools those with an education of up to Standard 10 are still rated as much better than those of an education of up to Standard 5. This implies that a higher education will improve the trainability of an employee even in the most basic skills (see Table 5.20).

**Table 5.20: Supervision**

	<b>None</b>		<b>Weak</b>		<b>Good</b>		<b>Excellent</b>		<b>N/A</b>		<b>No response</b>	
	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>
Std 5	4	2,8	13	9,0	43	29,7	73	50,2	4	2,8	8	5,5
Std 8	2	1,4	6	4,1	50	34,5	79	54,5	3	2,1	5	3,4
Std 10	1	0,7	4	2,8	32	22,1	95	65,4	4	2,8	9	6,2



#### **5.4 SUMMARY AND FURTHER PROGRAMME**

This chapter dealt with the design of the research as well as the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results of the research. Questionnaires were used in order to find out what employers regarded as the relevant and necessary skills (basic, social, and occupational) for employment. The purpose of the empirical study was also to validate the issues raised in the literature study. The next chapter will concentrate on the recommendations that are a result of the present chapter.

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## CHAPTER 6

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### 6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The final chapter, i.e. chapter 6 of the research will first give a summary of the issues dealt with in the previous chapters. It will then give the conclusions and the recommendations as necessitated by the work dealt with in the preceding chapters. Areas for further research will also be indicated.

#### 6.2 SUMMARY

The first chapter of the study gave the aim of the study, which has been to determine whether the education system of Venda satisfies the human resource needs of the area. The chapter also gave objectives of the study. The objective includes the determination and investigation of how the educational needs are affected by the human resource needs of Venda, a comparison of the educational needs of Venda with the aims and objectives of the Venda education system, as well as the making of recommendations as to how, if necessary, the education system of Venda can satisfy the human resource development needs of the area. The chapter also indicated the methodology or procedure to be used for the research, which were literature study and the postal questionnaire. Finally it clarified the significance of the proposed research as well as its feasibility.

Chapter 2 aimed at identifying the theoretical guidelines with regard to the relationship between the education system and human resource needs of communities in developing countries. In order to do this it examined the concept of an education system and what it entails (see par. 2.3) which necessitated a study of the relationship between education, society and the economy as well as the relationship between education, society and development. In this way the first research objective as stated in paragraph 1.3 was realised.

Chapter 3 aimed at examining the manner in which human resource development determined the educational needs of Venda. It therefore examined how human resource development functions as a determinant of the education system (see par. 3.2). It also looked at recent developments in South Africa regarding human resource

development, thus examining the ERS, NEPI, and RDP documents (see par. 3.3). Finally the chapter also examined the human resource situation in Venda.

Chapter 4 aimed at examining the general educational needs as well as the aims and objectives of the Venda education system. The chapter therefore examined the educational needs according to different educational theorists including Petersen and Steyn (see par. 4.2 and 4.3). It also indicated the guidelines to identify educational needs of the target group of this research as discussed in paragraph 4.6.

Chapter 5 was an empirical study of the educational needs in Venda. It therefore dealt with the design of the research and thus the research methods. A postal questionnaire was used in order to gather information from the target group, which was the employers who make use of the products of the education system and therefore would know what skills and abilities would be necessary for employment. The chapter also presented, analysed and interpreted the results of this research as discussed in paragraph 5.3 and its sub-paragraphs.

### **6.3 CONCLUSIONS**

- The education system cannot be divorced from the society which it serves. In other words, education and society go hand in hand, as stated in paragraph 2.4.2. Society has an impact on education just as education has an impact on society. Societies have various needs which should not be ignored when a particular education system is planned and implemented in a particular area or country. Human resource development is not just for the individual but incorporates complete community development.
- Human resource development is an important aim of education systems. The educational system of each country is determined by the educational and development needs of that country (see par. 2.4.1).
- Skills and attitudes towards work go hand in hand. As stated in paragraph 3.2.1, even if a country has many skilled people it would not be enough if their attitude towards work were negative and they had no desire for self-improvement. Paragraphs 4.2.2 and 4.6.2 also concur with this.
- Development should not be one-sided but should be complete. It should include social development, cultural development, skills development and

economic development (see par. 2.4.3). School has to fulfill its role as the basis of training, not only for the workplace, but for imparting social values as well.

- Under-development will be greatly reduced by the development of the skills of the people. Education can be very important to all in the training and development of human resources, as stated in paragraph 3.2.4.2.
- The workplace functions best if it receives employees who can adjust to the workplace rather than those who already have rigid job training and find it difficult to adjust to new technologies (as discussed in paragraph 3.2.4). The education system should inculcate in learners trainability rather than training in only one job or task. A worker is more valuable when he is trainable as he can easily adjust to new job situations and technologies as the situation demands.
- Reading, writing, the ability to express themselves in English and computation skills are regarded as very important. They are regarded as the basic skills for employment. They are expected to be less developed among those with lower levels of education while those with a matric education are expected to be more skilled in these basic skills (see par. 4.6.2.1 and 5.3.2).
- Social skills are important for employment. Paragraph 5.3.3 indicated that employers regarded skills such as problem-solving, social interaction and respect for authority to be highly important and to be expected of all employees and prospective employees despite their education level.
- Occupational skills are expected of all employees. Lower order occupational skills such as the ability to use basic tools like spades will be expected of all employees while higher order occupational skills like the functioning of commerce will be more expected of employees with a higher than basic education (see par. 5.3.4). However, this does not mean that employers regarded employees with lower levels of education to be totally devoid of higher order skills as indicated in paragraph 5.3.4.5, thus indicating that employers expect an education of a good quality even from the lowest level.
- Employers do not expect problems of trainability from their employees with an education of up to Standard 10 or job seekers who have an education of up to Standard 10. Even in the use of basic tools those with an education of up to

Standard 10 are regarded as much more able to use them than those with a lower level of education (see par. 5.3.4.3).

#### **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

- The education up to Standard 10 should include basic, social and occupational skills that will make school leavers more adjustable to the workplace and at the workplace and therefore more employable. In this regard stakeholders such as employers could help if consulted by informing planners about what they regard as a skilled school leaver.
- Social skills such as problem-solving and respect for authority should be emphasised as from the lowest classes as these are highly regarded by employers and are expected from all employees whether they have an education of up to Standard 10 or whether they have an education of only up to Standard 5. Schools in Venda could do this by first emphasising the importance of pupils respecting the authority of their teachers at school as well as teaching them to respect the authority of their parents.
- Basic skills such as reading, writing and computation should also be included in the school curriculum and be emphasised as from the lower class standards as these form the basis of all further education and skills training, including occupational skills training, which can come a little later in the curriculum of schools.
- By the time a pupil completes Standard 10 he or she should be a trainable person who can adjust to various job situations as the situation demands. Employers do not expect problems of trainability from pupils with an education of up to Standard 10.

#### **6.5 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

This study has served to open up areas for further research. With South Africa having moved into a new dispensation not only in the political sphere but also in terms of human resource development and the education system, the researcher recommends that the following could be areas for further research in education and human resource development:

- Restructuring education in the new South Africa, with special reference to school education.
- The role of business in school education, in order to discover how business can play a role in school apart from being merely sponsors of projects.
- Education and human resource development in the rural areas with no big industries or big business.
- Vocational education and human resource development in new South Africa.
- The utilisation of human resources in the schools, to discover whether teachers are being employed to teach where they are qualified to teach.
- Since education competes with other government priorities in getting finance, a further area of research could be the study of how financial constraints have an effect on the provision of education for human resource development.

## **6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter gave a summary of all the previous chapters in this research. The main aim of the research has been to determine whether the education system in Venda satisfies the human resource needs of the area. When the major part of the research was done, Venda was still a nominally independent country, one of the TBVC countries. Venda is now fully part of South Africa within the Northern Province, hence the title of the research indicates the Northern Province. The research done here will be relevant to the new South Africa as Venda's position as an independent homeland is not unique but is shared by three other former independent homelands which are Bophuthatswana, Transkei and Ciskei. Apart from this Venda as a geographical area still exists, with the same schools, towns, industries and commerce.

The chapter also dealt with conclusions regarding education and human resource development, as well as recommendations regarding the improvement of the education system so as to make it helpful to human resource development. In addition, areas for further research were indicated.

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## APPENDIX I

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### EDUCATIONAL NEEDS IN VENDA WITH REGARD TO HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT: AN EMPERICAL STUDY

Questionnaire no				(1-3)
Card no.				(4)

#### *Questionnaire*

#### Instructions

1. Please do not write your name or that of your institution on any of the forms; the information is required for research purposes only.
2. Kindly respond to all questions.
3. Please note that there are no wrong or correct answers; only honest ones.
4. Except for questions 5 and 6 all the questions should be answered by making a circle in the applicable block. Instructions for questions 5 and 6 will be found when you reach the questions.

#### PART ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1.	Sex		(5)
1.1	Male	1	
1.2	Female	2	

2.	Position	
2.1	Owner	1
2.2	Director	2
2.3	Manager	3
2.4	Personnel manager/officer	4
2.5	Other (please specify)	5

(6)

3.	Type of organisation/establishment?	
3.1	Industry and manufacturing	1
3.2	Commerce (e.g. shop, cafe, supermarket)	2
3.3	Government	3
3.4	Other (please specify)	4

(7)

4.	Size of organisation?	
4.1	Under five employees	1
4.2	6 - 20 employees	2
4.3	21 - 50 employees	3
4.4	51 - 100 employees	4
4.5	101 - 200 employees	5
4.6	201 - 500 employees	6
4.7	501 - 1000 employees	7
4.8	1001 employees and above	8

(8)

5. Which posts in your organisation/establishment are/can be occupied by people of the following educational qualifications? Please write them down in the space provided.

5.1 Up to Standard 5 (i.e. no education to Standard. 5)

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5.2 Up to Standard 8 (i.e. Standard 6 to Standard 8)

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5.3 Up to Standard 10 (i.e. Standard 9 to Standard 10)

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6. With reference to the previous question, indicate the total number of employees on each level

	Numbers	
6.1 Up to Standard 5		(9-12)
6.2 Up to Standard 8		(13-16)
6.3 Up to Standard 10		(17-20)



Note: For Part Two, Part Three and Part Four, please answer the questions with regard to the levels required.

Std. 5 refers to entrance requirements up to Std. 5; therefore this category refers to post-levels where school qualifications range from no schooling required to Std. 5 as requirement.

Std. 8 refers to entrance requirements from Std. 6 to Std. 8; therefore this category refers to post-levels where required school qualifications range from Std. 6 to Std. 8.

Std. 10 refers to entrance requirements from Std. 9 to Std. 10; therefore this category refers to post-levels where required school qualifications range from Std. 9 to Std. 10.

N/A stands for not applicable, therefore meaning that there are no positions where these levels of scholastic requirements are required.

## PART TWO: BASIC SKILLS

7. What level of reading ability would you expect of job seekers with the following education levels?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(21)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(22)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(23)

8. What level of writing ability would you expect of job seekers with the following education levels?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(24)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(25)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(26)

9. What level of ability in computation i.e. counting, addition, multiplication and division would you expect?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(27)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(28)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(29)

10. What level of ability in speaking and understanding of English would you expect?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(30)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(31)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(32)

### PART THREE: SOCIAL SKILLS

11. What level of ability in dealing with and solving problems would you expect from a person entering the place of work with the following levels of education?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(33)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(34)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(35)

12. What level of ability should a person have in his interaction with others?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(36)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(37)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(38)

13. How much respect for authority would you expect from a worker?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(39)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(40)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(41)

#### PART FOUR: OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS

14. What level of punctuality would you expect from a worker?						
	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(42)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(43)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(44)

15. What level of ability would you expect from a worker in the performance of jobs requiring the use of basic tools like spades and brooms and basic abilities like measuring and estimating?

	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(45)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(46)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(47)

16. How much ability do you expect from workers in the use of tools such as grinders and skills of precision?

	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(48)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(49)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(50)

17. What level of ability would you expect from a worker in the performance of the so-called higher skills tasks, for example typing, computer skills as well as general office skills like filing?

	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(51)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(52)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(53)

18. What level of knowledge and understanding of the functioning of commerce and industry would you expect from workers e.g. of the fact that income and expenditure should remain at such a level that profit can be made and viability maintained?

	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(54)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(55)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(56)

19. How much ability in the performance of his/her tasks will be expected from a worker performing such tasks without supervision?

	Non	Weak	Good	Excellent	N/A	
Std. 5	1	2	3	4	5	(57)
Std. 8	1	2	3	4	5	(58)
Std.10	1	2	3	4	5	(59)



