

CHAPTER 2

DETERMINANTS OF SCHOOL SUCCESS IN DISADVANTAGED ENVIRONMENTS: A LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

If school improvement in a disadvantaged environment is to be effective, it is essential that all determinants of school success are identified. To realise this aim, the researcher did an extensive preliminary literature study. This resulted in a comprehensive list of elements contributing to school success in disadvantaged environments. The researcher deemed it necessary to group the identified determinants for school success into a taxonomy.

In this chapter, the taxonomy will be presented, whereafter the elements of the taxonomy will be discussed with reference to literature data.

2.2 TAXONOMY OF DETERMINANTS FOR SCHOOL SUCCESS IN DISADVANTAGED ENVIRONMENTS

The following sources were consulted in identifying determinants for school success:

Bayne-Jardine & Holly (1994); Beck & Murphy (1998); Cairney (2000); Department of Education - Whole School Evaluation (2000); Fields (1993); Fullan (1992); Gewirtz (1998); Glickman (1998); Goldberg (1999); Gonder (1983); Herman (1993); Hertzke & Olson (1994); Herzog (1994); Holman (1989); Horne & Brown (1997); Joyce, Calhoun & Hopkins (1999); Kaufman (1995); Maaka (1999); Mercure (1993); National Commission on Education (1996); Paine Turner & Pryke (1992); Parsons (1994); Raham (1999); Reid, Hopkins & Holly (1987); Reilly (1995); Ribbins & Burrige (1994); Richardson, Blackburn, Ruhl-Smith & Haynes (1997); Scheetz & Benson (1994); Smith (1995); Solo (1997); Stiggins (1999); Storer (1995); Thomson (1998); Townsend (1997); Van der Westhuizen (1991); Visscher (1999); Wendel, Hoke & Jockel (1996); West-Burnham (1992); Wilson & Corcoran (1988); Zetlin (1998).

From the above-mentioned sources, the following determinants of school success were identified:

1. Leadership styles.
2. Motivation on the part of learners and teachers.
3. Sharing the vision and mission statement.
4. Staff and learner involvement.
5. Partnership for change.
6. Initiating planning, organising, guiding and controlling.
7. Open door policy (learners, staff, parents and community).
8. Commitment to excellence (raising standards).
9. Appraisal of teachers, self-assessment of learners and whole-school evaluation.
10. Learner behaviour policy (conflict resolution).
11. Safety and security: an orderly and industrious climate.
12. Extra-curricular activities.
13. Monitoring.
14. Collaborative participatory decision making.
15. High consistent expectations.
16. Focus on TQM.
17. Fostering teamwork.
18. Good communications skills.
19. Negotiation and listening skills.
20. Receiving feedback.
21. Parent and community involvement at all times.
22. Mentoring and an appropriate training target.
23. Rewards and incentives encouraging learners to succeed.
24. Building good relationships with everybody.
25. The encouragement of external critical friends.
26. Accountability.
27. Management by Wandering Around (MBWA).
28. Brain storming.
29. Setting targets for learners and teachers.

30. Time management.
31. Delegating responsibility to staff members.
32. Giving feedback to learners and colleagues to enhance learning and teaching.
33. Linking school and staff development policies.
34. Using parents and community in teaching support.

These determinants were then categorised into four themes, namely Management, Motivation, Sharing and Assessment, as shown in the following taxonomy:

TABLE 2.1: TAXONOMY OF DETERMINANTS FOR SCHOOL SUCCESS IN DISADVANTAGED ENVIRONMENTS

1. MANAGEMENT
1.1 Principles
1.1.1 <i>TQM</i>
1.1.2 <i>Leadership style</i>
1.3 Practice
1.3.1 <i>Planning</i>
1.3.2 <i>Organising</i>
1.3.3 <i>Guiding</i>
1.3.4 <i>Controlling</i>
2. MOTIVATION
2.1 Principles
2.1.1 <i>High expectations</i>
2.1.2 <i>Commitment to excellence</i>
2.2 Practice
2.2.1 <i>Learner and teacher motivation</i>
2.2.2 <i>Training and mentoring</i>
2.2.3 <i>Safety and security</i>

3. SHARING

3.1 Principles

3.1.1 Vision and mission statement

3.1.2 Partnership for change

3.2 Practice

3.2.1 Staff and learner involvement

3.2.2 Teamwork

3.2.3 Communication and negotiation

3.2.4 Parent and community involvement

4. ASSESSMENT

4.1 Principles

4.1.1 Accountability

4.2 Practice

4.2.1 Teacher appraisal

4.2.2 Learner appraisal

4.2.3 Whole school evaluation

In the following sections each element of the taxonomy will be briefly discussed.

2.3 MANAGEMENT

There are many diverse events that take place in schools and in order to make them function. Certain people have to complete certain tasks in a certain way. This chapter concentrates on the roles educational managers have to assume, as well as the kinds of leadership styles that are the most successful and effective. Koontz and O'Donnell (1964:1) postulate: "Management is defined here as the accomplishment of desired objectives by establishing an environment favourable to performance by people operating in organised groups". The following descriptions are also valuable for the purposes of this research:

- Management is defined as the process of planning, organising and controlling an organisation's operations in order to achieve a coordination of human and material

resources essential in the effective and efficient attainment of objectives (Trewatha & Newport 1976:22).

- Management is “... getting things done through and with people” (Morgan & Turner 1976:8).
- Management may be defined as the process of activating and integrating the capacities of an enterprise to attain optimum results with a minimum expenditure of resources. Management is one of the four categories under which the identified determinants for school success in a disadvantaged environment are grouped (Kolde 1973:26).

2.3.1 Principles

2.3.1.1 Total Quality Management (TQM)

William Deming (1900-1993) is generally regarded as the originator of TQM. What exactly is Deming’s philosophy and how well does it translate to education? The essence of his philosophy is embedded in his now famous 14 points, set forth in Deming’s most well-known work *Out of the Crisis* (1986). The 14 points are listed below, followed by a brief explanation of some of the ways these principles have application in education (Paine et al 1992:10-13; Bonstingl 1992a:66-70; Latzko & Saunders 1995:45-115; Sallis 1995:48-49; Richardson et al 1997:78-82).

1. Create constancy of purpose for improvement of product and service. In school this means to develop a plan and method to validate the school’s role in education. It requires innovation; research in education and the continuous improvement of learners, staff and school services (Paine et al 1992:11).
2. Adapt the new philosophy.
 - a. All members of the staff are able to contribute to the development and implementation of the strategic plan.
 - b. The lead-management, not the boss-management leadership style should be followed.
 - c. A consensus on priorities should exist (Richardson et al 1997:78).

3. Cease dependence on mass inspection.
 - a. It costs more to fix a problem than to do it right in the first place; the better way is to build in quality from the beginning.
 - b. Observing and interacting with learners is the only way to get a full and accurate picture of their needs and what they have learned.
 - c. Teachers must provide learning experience that produce quality performance. Learners should strive for quality and realise that if they do not produce quality, their customers (teachers, parents, fellow learners) will not be happy with their work (Paine et al 1992:11; Richardson et al 1997:78).

4. End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag alone.
 - a. Decisions should be based on quality, not cost; hiring high-calibre teachers and purchasing excellent teaching materials for example, is wise, because the personal and social costs of poor education are greater in the long run.
 - b. A positive relationship between teachers and principals will reinforce quality.

5. Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service.
 - a. Teamwork is critical at all stages.
 - b. Every employee works continuously to improve the system.
 - c. Quality circles, involving teachers, parents, learners and principals can be formed to solve the problems. Relevant data are collected, processed and evaluated, resulting ultimately in a permanent change.
 - d. Each child is unique; he or she deserves full attention.

6. Institute training and retraining.
 - a. New teachers should not be left to their own devices; a top-quality induction programme must be developed with the input and involvement of teachers and administrators.
 - b. A good mentorship programme should be created for all new and early-career teachers and administrators.

7. Institute leadership.
 - a. Leadership is the principal's responsibility and he or she must find any barriers to teachers, classified personnel, and learners taking pride in their work.
 - b. Principals must reduce the distance between themselves and the classroom, periodically teaching classes themselves.
 - c. Indeed the most important prerequisite for becoming a good principal is having first been an excellent teacher.
 - d. Principals should stay up to date on new instructional practices.
 - e. Leading involves assisting, not threatening or punishing.

8. 'Drive out fear'.
 - a. Fear is as counter productive in school as it is in the workplace.
 - b. Fear is destructive of the school culture and everything good that is intended to take place within it.
 - c. Fear breeds distrust, cynicism, divisiveness, apathy and disaffection, all of which lead to declines in productivity.
 - d. A school should be a secure work environment, one with an atmosphere of excitement, possibility and productivity, not one with the spectre of fear in the air.
 - e. Fear stifles motivation and discourages effective learning.

9. Break down barriers between staff areas.
 - a. Teacher and learner productivity is enhanced when departments combine talents to create more integrated opportunities for learning and discovery.
 - b. Create cross-departmental and multi-level quality teams to break down role and status barriers to productivity.
 - c. Productivity is enhanced when departments view themselves as partners in progress and work to maximise their potential (Bonstingl 1992a:66-70).
 - d. Collaborative, team relationship are in order. Competition should be eliminated.

- e. Barriers that exist between classified and certificated personnel, learners and teachers, or English and Mathematics departments, are all counterproductive (Richardson et al 1997:80).
10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations and targets for the work force.
- a. Teachers, learners, administrators, families and community members may collectively arrive at slogans and exhortations to improve their work together, as long as power, responsibility and rewards are equitably distributed.
 - b. When educational goals are not met, fix the system instead of fixing blame on individuals.
 - c. Internally motivated personnel who have helped set the school's and school system's goals will be more likely to achieve those goals.
11. Eliminate numerical quotas for the workforce and goals for people in management.
- a. Assignments and tests that focus attention on numerical or letter symbols of learning and production often do not fully reflect the quality of learners' progress and performance.
 - b. People should not be reduced to statistics.
 - c. Teacher ratings cause frustration, lead to jealousy and generate adversarial relationships between teachers and principals.
 - d. Setting numerical quotas or goals often leads to marginal work.
12. Remove barriers that rob people of pride in workmanship.
- a. Teachers want to do a good job. Arbitrary goals, outdated equipment, irrelevant curricula and other barriers to good teaching are discouraged.
 - b. Principals should work directly with teachers, asking them what they perceive need improvement, and then act on what they have learned.
 - c. The principal should remove barriers that rob teachers, other staff and school executives of their right to pride of workmanship.
 - d. The principal should try to identify things that form barriers to learners having pride in their work.

13. Encourage education and self-improvement for everyone.
 - a. People in the organisation must constantly be acquiring the new skills required to deal with new materials and new methods of teaching and learning.
 - b. New skills, techniques and information are needed constantly, even if preservice education was exceptional.

14. Take action to accomplish the transformation.
 - a. Individual teachers cannot change the system. The principal must help teachers chart a course for change.
 - b. Administrators and teachers must have a shared mission.
 - c. There must be enough support built into the system that the drive for needed change is not short-circuited or derailed along the way.
 - d. Change is never-ending. Restructuring of schools can never be fully accomplished.

Fields (1993:13) states the following principles for Total Quality Management (TQM):

1. Total management commitment is essential. This implies making management's role in TQM clear to everyone and to avoid any confusion or conjecture about the change towards quality. Cohesive followership relies on board of education, administrator and parent commitment to this step.
2. A customer first focus, always to ensure that internal customers are serviced to their requirements so that external customers receive satisfactory service. The "customer first" philosophy demands an open communication loop from the school to the customer and back, which reflects an adjusted curriculum and instruction to meet changing customer requirements.
3. Commitment to teamwork. A team is led by members and composed of anyone in the school community who has a concern. It is committed to team goal setting, as well as measurement and display of achievement.

4. Commitment to self-management and leadership. Learning is something only the learner can be accountable for, but it can be aided by others. Effective learning is solitary. Clearing obstacles to learning requires help from others in the form of leadership.
5. Commitment to continuous improvement requires the ‘kaizen attitude’ of improving open communication and information systems and creating an environment that induces growth through continuous training and learning of everyone.
6. Commitment to belief in individual and team potential. This is reflected in all processes, services and requirements. Everyone is an enabler of others and this is shown in his or her own behaviour and personal contribution to the quality effort. High expectations are the norm because people reach them all the time.
7. Commitment to quality. A major role of our life is to serve others by knowing and meeting their requirements. Commitment to quality means helping others. Negotiation, conflict resolution, communication, and information sharing are expected practices (Fields 1993:69).

2.3.1.2 Leadership style

The key differences between leading and managing are indicated in Table 2.1.

TABLE 2.2: LEADING AND MANAGING (West-Burnham 1992:102)

Leading is concerned with	Managing is concerned with
Vision	Implementation
Strategic issues	Operational issues
Transformation	Transaction
Ends	Means
People	Systems
Doing the right things	Doing things right

A successful school leader must be more than a good manager. Educational leaders provide direction for their schools. They set goals and hold people accountable for reaching them. They have high expectations for both personnel and learners. They care about people and they care about results. Effective school leaders need to be able to create a feeling of belonging,

involvement and a sense of personal control among the school community, learners, staff and parents. Everyone involved with the school needs to believe he or she has a responsibility for the success of the entire organisation and an ability to influence the goals and the direction of the organisation (Wendel et al 1996:75). Managing the educational enterprise is not telling people what to do and then looking over their shoulders to direct them. Management and leadership should be getting closer together - moving from supervision to networking, from directing in a hierarchy to finding a common destination and toward known objectives, identifying where and when needs (gaps in results) do or might occur, and knowing precisely where to make responsive and responsible changes. Leaders influence group activity, determine what needs to be done, organise how it is done and know when it has been successful. Pondy et al (1976:94) explore this in greater depth and suggests that the success of leaders lies in their ability to make activity meaningful; not to change behaviour, but to give others a sense of understanding of what they are doing. The leaders should, if they are effective, be able to recognise the tasks to be undertaken and how to achieve these tasks, be aware of the needs of the staff team as a whole and how to build and maintain these teams and be able to recognise the needs of the individual within the staff team and know how to develop each individual potential. Traits which characterise effective leaders include: a sense of responsibility; concern for completing tasks; energy; persistence; capacity to handle stress; capacity to influence; and capacity to co-ordinate the efforts of others.

Leadership styles can be categorised as follows:

(i) Democratic leadership (group-centred leadership)

This type of leadership involves the staff by means of mutual consultation in decision making. Decisions are made by means of voluntary and spontaneous communication and the leader plays an active role in this process. This type of leadership provides staff with the opportunity to make a contribution. Definite efforts are made to create positive interpersonal relationships (Getzels et al 1968:37). This leadership style offers opportunities for original and creative contribution by staff members and in this way they may contribute to attaining goals. New perspectives are opened up during group discussion and staff are free to choose with whom they would like to work (Reynders 1977:47).

(ii) Autocratic leadership (leader-centred leadership)

This type of leader wants to have his or her own way and he or she alone determines the policy. All decisions are taken by the leader and only certain tasks are allotted to staff. He or she takes full responsibility for the decisions made and ensures that set goals are attained. There is only one-way communication between the leader and the group. The leader creates needs among the staff which previously did not exist. These needs are the leader's needs which he wants to realise through his staff. The leader is the sole ruler and commander. The leader gives instructions to staff members individually, instead of delegating via a pyramid structure. That is why the authoritarian type of leader tries to be personal in his praise and criticism but stands apart from the group. This type of leader is inclined to dominate and has difficulty in working with others (Van der Westhuizen 1991:190).

(iii) Free-rein leadership (Laissez-faire or individual-centred leadership)

The leader does not make his or her presence felt. Staff have the freedom to make individual or group decisions. The leader guides staff by appealing to personal integrity. A situation is created by this type of leadership in which the individual feels totally trusted and decides for himself or herself. The leader is minimally involved and remains in the background (De Witt 1979:78).

(iv) Bureaucratic leadership

A bureaucratic leader occupies the position of leader in a bureaucratic system. The style of leadership is a combination of democratic, autocratic and 'free rein' leadership. His or her ability to integrate, blend, balance and adapt components of his or her own style of leadership in harmony with the situation, the group and his or her own humanity, will largely determine success as leader of the school. This type of leader adheres strictly to the letter of the law, rules and regulations and such leaders try in their way to maintain their position but does as they choose (Owens & Evans 1977:135).

In sum: The educational leader should have a clear view of the needs, possibilities and duties of leadership. Leaders cannot influence teachers by their personality alone. They have to develop a ‘we’ approach to common school problems. A leader should cease to speak of ‘my school’ and ‘my teachers’. A democratic leader will not limit others, will not force his or her will on others, will not oppose change, will welcome co-operation, will not fear that differences may arise, will provide leadership by means of conviction and reason, will not seek his or her own gain, will use his or her authority to serve common progress, and will maintain and respect the ideals of those he or she is leading (Van der Westhuizen 1991:193). Leadership as a management task also implies that educational leaders work with people (colleagues) within the context of the organisation. The people have to be mobilised and put in motion to achieve the desired goals.

While it would be the aim of every competent manager to merge both the achievement of results and the maintenance of good relationships into a coherent whole where they would be equally successful, it is not always possible to do this. Certain processes take place between these two ‘opposites’. This is illustrated in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.3: RESULTS VIS-À-VIS RELATIONSHIPS IN MANAGEMENT (Smith 1995:5)

RESULTS			RELATIONSHIPS
Autocratic	Paternalistic	Consultative	Democratic/Collegial
(Tell)	(Sell)	(Involve)	(Co-determined)

Many effective schools will operate along the full length of such a continuum and by doing so will be able to create a decision-making structure and a management organisation that is capable of initiating effective results, as well as motivating staff and developing sound working relationships (Smith 1995:5).

2.3.2 Practice

2.3.2.1 Planning

Marx (1981:211) regards planning as the management task which is concerned with deliberately reflecting on the objectives of the organisation, the resources, as well as the activities involved, and drawing up the most suitable plan for effectively achieving these objectives.

By means of planning, the affairs and activities of people are directed and arranged according to those that are urgent and less urgent, those that can be dealt with and completed immediately and those that will be dealt with at a later stage. Therefore planning as an action is systematic and continuous (Van der Westhuizen 1991:139).

The importance of planning is stated by Marx (1981:215-216) as follows:

- It is the starting point of the management action.
- Planning is the means of establishing whether the school is still moving in the direction of set objectives.
- It provides time for reflection.
- It causes one to think ahead.
- It reduces the chances of overlapping.
- It can be adjusted through effective control.

The requirements of good planning (Van der Westhuizen 1991:139) are:

- It should provide enough internal and external information to plan meaningfully.
- Planning requires much attention before an activity is initiated.
- Various people may contribute to planning.
- Write down everything which must be done.
- Determine the priority or order in which the tasks must be done.
- Compile certain time schedules for feedback of results.

Planning is one of the most important tasks of the educational leader and forms the basis of all other management actions. How well the other management actions will be carried out will depend to a great extent on the quality of planning.

2.3.2.2 *Organising*

Marx (1981:235) gives a description of organising. It is the management task which deals with arranging activities and resources of the institution by allotting duties, responsibilities and authority to people and divisions, and the determination of the relationship between them, to promote collaboration and to achieve the objectives of the undertaking as effectively as possible.

In the school, this means that organising as a management task sub-divides various tasks and allots them to specific people so that educative teaching may be realised in an orderly manner. It follows that in the process of organising all duties and tasks, as well as responsibility and authority, are allocated.

The purpose of organising is the ordering of related tasks so that more may be achieved by fewer people. To do this there must be collaboration between the people concerned. This is no easy task as each person has a will of his or her own and cannot be forced physically (Cloete 1980:51-52).

The key characteristics of organising are the following (Marx 1981:234):

- Objectives are realised in an orderly fashion.
- The smooth running of the school should be ensured.
- Effective communication channels should be created.
- It is concerned with grouping tasks.
- It is concerned with allocating duties, authority and responsibility without abdicating final responsibility.
- It is concerned with a common effort to achieve set goals.

The advantages of good organising (Van der Westhuizen 1991:163) are:

- It promotes team spirit and group morale.
- It prevents overlapping of activities.

- It facilitates internal communication.
- Guiding is easier.
- There is a system for getting work done.

2.3.2.3 Guiding

Guiding may be regarded as the management task which gives direction to the common activity of people to ensure that they execute the tasks to achieve the set goals. Guiding is a creative, initiating and activating activity. Guiding is the work which an educational leader must carry out to allow other people to operate effectively (Reynders 1977:45). The importance of guiding is that it is the management action that not only ensures the completion of a specific task but also that the work is well done. Effective guiding can be achieved if attention is given to the following (Marx 1981:276-278).

- There should be a healthy and objective relationship between the educational leader and the staff.
- Educational leaders must be motivated by and achieve their personal needs and ambitions.
- It must be ensured that work is initiated and remains in progress.
- Recognition should be given for good work.

The ability to guide is not only an inborn facility. There are also specific techniques and skills which are needed in this respect to carry out a particular task. Although leadership as such is not a management task, it is important to look at leadership when studying guiding as a management task, as the educational leader's style of leadership plays a specific role in the management task. Motivation and communication are some of the various actions embodied in the process of guiding staff to carry out specific tasks. Guiding is an action of influencing through which leaders constantly inspire, guide and equip their followers for fulfilment of their calling (Hanekom 1978:25).

2.3.2.4 Controlling

Control presumes the right to give instruction, to command, to advise, to sanction and to adapt behaviour (Reynders 1977:131). By exercising control, the educational leader is assured that tasks are effectively carried out, and he or she remains the one responsible for the use and execution of delegated authority. Whenever management planning is not adhered to, it may be set right by management control.

De Wet (1981:86) describes control as the umbrella term which includes all management activities and has as its aim to determine whether the activities of the organisation still coincide with the goals of the organisation. This means that the educational leader ensures, by means of control, that all inputs are being used in optimum fashion to achieve the set objectives and that planning, organising and guiding are correctly implemented.

The purpose of control is to realise planning, to evaluate planning, and, if necessary, to make the necessary adjustments. The purpose is also to establish if the actual activities are the same as the planned activities (Vegter 1980:267).

Positive control ensures that the staff will do their preparation, that learners will be taught and evaluated, and that tasks will be carried out. Positive supervision does not merely mean to find fault or to punish. Its sole purpose is to ensure efficacy through the school. The purpose of supervision is to encourage progress on the part of teacher and learners.

For the effective exercise of control the following three guidelines should be taken into account (Marx 1981:307):

- The most effective way of exercising control is when things are happening or where work is being done or completed.
- The best control measure is control carried out by a person himself or herself, in other words, self-control. People have to correct mistakes themselves and this leads to greater work satisfaction.
- Attention should be given to those matters which are necessary for the completion of work before other matters receive attention.

The principal's leadership style is seen as being extremely important, as is the involvement of school governors and teachers in creating a workable plan that would not only identify the school's strengths but would recognise weaknesses and make plans to change them. An effective school with a positive ethos will by auditing its successes and failures, draw on a wide variety of sources and collect evidence from teachers, parents, governors and learners while always bearing in mind its own broad and general aims. There is a relationship between the quality of leadership and the success of those with specific managerial roles and the effectiveness of the school. The styles of leadership and the roles leaders have to perform are linked quite closely to the management of change and the process involved. To make change to work effectively, depends on high-quality leadership from the head and also from the colleagues. The idea of shared responsibility is important and the quality of leadership within specified management roles, especially that of managing change is not one person's responsibility. Successful leaders are in line with key administrative and organisational targets of innovation, quality and improvement. They seek continuous improvement of programmes in their school so that educational opportunities can be further extended to all learners. Leaders who foster change enlist support from others to effect substantive change, and focus upon the future by encouraging experimentation, developmental growth of staff members, and innovative efforts. Successful leaders develop strategies for building a quest for improvement into the climate of their schools because they acknowledge the inevitability of change.

2.3.3 Summary

Management consists of various management tasks such as planning, organising, guiding and controlling which in turn are made up of various management activities.

It was shown that the execution of management tasks is an interactive activity which should take into account the dynamism of teaching and education. One can agree with Cloete (1980:163) in his view of administrative processes when he states that there is a realisation that administrative activities in schools require a unique competency which cannot be acquired merely by experience. In education, more specifically a school, there are various management areas which vary according to the different levels of management at which an educational leader carries out his or her calling.

2.4 MOTIVATION

2.4.1 Principles

2.4.1.1 *High expectations*

Teachers come into the profession to help young people learn, and it is the leader's job to help them succeed. Helping teachers do their best for learners is a very noble venture. Teacher expectations can exert a strong influence on the academic performance of children in classrooms. Learners then perform as they are expected according to these expectations and fulfil self-fulfilling prophecies (Reid et al 1987:92). The meaning of high expectations, however, is not always clear. There is a tension between the push for higher standards and the need for teachers to motivate individual learners.

In studies of effective schools, expectations refer to the attitudes of staff, parents and learners concerning academic achievement. When expectations are low, it means that members of the school community expect less effort and less achievement from learners. High expectations mean that the staff expects and demands more from learners than is typical of other schools serving similar populations. With time, the learners can perform more and more closely to the behaviour expected of them. Successful schools are characterised by efforts to set clear expectations and standards and to apply them uniformly.

In effective schools there are opportunities for teachers to discuss standards and strong professional norms that define what is expected of the staff and therefore what is expected of the learners. In schools where there is teaming, teachers may regularly work together to develop tests and even share the responsibility of grading them. Teachers from different departments may grade the same learners but apply different criteria. Teaming helps build uniform standards and expectations and to ensure that school wide standards are clear and applied to all learners. Teaming techniques help create a strong academic climate and an ethos of high expectations and reduce the confusion learners experience when faced with varying standards (Wilson & Corcoran 1988:18; 100; 102). In order to encourage high expectations from learners, a good starting point

within any given department is to promote subject specific staff development (National Commission on Education 1996:83; 124).

An effective school might be described as one that meets and exceeds expectations. High expectations are created both co-operatively and individually. They are created, first and foremost, through the ethos of the school as a whole. Within that whole-school ethos high expectations are conveyed on an individual basis to learners and to their parents. One avenue to raising of parents' expectations is by providing opportunities for parents to come in, to observe and to work with their children. Expectations are high but they are consistent too, at least in the sense that they are not arbitrary and shifting. They are not consistent, however, in the sense that they apply uniformly to all. Learners have very different levels of latitude and tolerance and it is part of the 'curriculum' that all members of the school community come to understand and accommodate these differences. The goals and starting points for learning are so individualised that it means treating each child as unique and trying to find a key to their learning.

The success of what is learned is always tested by its value in the 'real world'. Children have to learn to fit into that real world. But the school also has to help the real world to accommodate these children and it has to persuade people that they share some responsibility for the children's welfare. The wider the variety of social setting, the greater the opportunities for learning by learners, teachers and the local community. Expectations affect everyone involved with the school and are reflexive in their nature, they work in both directions. The governing body, for example, has expectations of the principal but the principal in turn has expectations of the governing body. Similarly both staff and learners have expectations about the way the other party will behave towards them. The involvement of learners in the formulation of the policy on expectations is an indication of the strength of the school's collective confidence (National Commission on Education 1996:83; 124; 161; 181).

2.4.1.2 Commitment to excellence

Excellence may be unreachable yet unless educators pursue excellence, they will neither approach it nor approximate much of a semblance of it. A principal should be totally dedicated to academic excellence in education. The principal should feel strongly that all learners can learn

and that the sole reason for a school to exist is to give learners the best education possible. It should be the principal's belief that the teachers are the core of a good education and the principal should constantly try to improve morale, keep teachers abreast of current educational trends, allow the staff to travel and attend workshops, seminars and so on, evaluate and supervise them as often as possible and make a conscientious effort to act immediately upon any request received from teachers (National Commission on Education 1996:88).

No compromises should be made on excellence. The charge of a 'rising tide in mediocrity' in education can and should be resisted by principals in their pursuit of excellence. There is no place for procrastination in a successful administrative role. Principals should have high expectations and should strive to achieving them by collaborating with all involved. High learner achievement plays a large part in a school improvement plan. Visionary leaders should step forward to 'break the mould' and should continually strive for excellence in schools. Whatever success principals have had, was centred around a drive for excellence. The philosophy focusses on success, not failures, potential and not limitations, strengths and not weaknesses and positives, not negatives (Wendel et al 1996:10; 49).

2.4.2 Practice

2.4.2.1 Learner and teacher motivation

Higher expectations and standards are frequently coupled with a strong rewards system. It is simply not enough to increase demands on learners. There is a need to recognise their accomplishments. The school should use diverse and multiple means to provide this recognition. Structures should be created to reward the positive behaviour that was the result of encouraging high expectations. The programme for recognising outstanding learner accomplishments should begin in all grades. At the end of each year there should be superior levels of success. Recognition for learner achievement is a high priority. The school should have certificates for high achievement given every month with copies of certificates and pictures of the learners posted in the corridor outside the main office. Learners should be recognised in every class by displaying work on the walls, special teacher recognition awards, thank you notes and personal

acknowledgements. The principal should make it a point to recognise outstanding achievement through the morning announcements (National Commission on Education 1996:184).

The term motivation is derived from the Latin verb *movere* which means ‘to set in motion’ (Steers & Porter 1979:5). Motivation is the spark which ignites and influences the course of human action. Marx (1981:193) states that motivation is all the efforts used by an educational leader to encourage the staff and colleagues to willingly achieve to the best of their abilities. Motivation is essential in the management action and leadership task.

To be able to understand motivation, the needs which initiate behaviour and action in people should be understood. Motivation rotates to a great extent around the idea of an action and the action of people carry the stamp of purposefulness, direction and perseverance. De Wet (1981:213) maintains that in spite of knowledge of human motives, the research in the field of motivation is still vague and speculative, because people now and again change as they grow older and each person is a unique being. Effective motivation depends largely on the philosophy of life and religious convictions. Where tasks must be executed is where the educational leader should use motivation in its fullest. The principal requests, orders, directs, motivates and convinces staff towards the fulfilment of a goal. The staff should observe the delegation of authority at this point. By delegating authority co-operation is obtained and a person may be able to express himself or herself (Gorton 1976:55). A person does something because he or she has a reason for doing so.

This may take the form of a need which he or she wishes to satisfy or something which he or she fears (Marx 1981:192).

An educational leader will make use of the link between a person’s actions and his or her motives by using it in a positive way to achieve educative teaching. It is necessary to pay attention to the motivational theory of Maslow. Maslow bases his theory on the following three assumptions regarding human behaviour (Kohn 1977:338-345; Flippo 1971:389-390):

- There is always something for which someone is striving overtly or covertly, something he or she would like to have or an ideal he or she would like to fulfil.

- A need which has been fulfilled is no longer as compelling as when unfulfilled.
- Needs can be arranged in hierarchical fashion in order of priority.

When needs such as clothing, food, shelter and rest in the 'physiological' column have been satisfied, needs on a higher level of the hierarchy immediately appear. A certain order can be observed in the satisfaction of needs which exerts an influence on individual motivation. The intensity of primary needs lessens as they are satisfied (such as food or shelter) but never totally disappear. It is the same also in the higher levels of the hierarchy, for example, longing for power and status. It is not always the case that a need be totally satisfied before the next need becomes a compelling motivational factor. According to Maslow's theory, the longing for acceptance and status only acquires a strong motivational value when the other basic needs have been satisfied. It will be valueless if a person is appointed in a higher post, but with lower salary. This will not motivate him or her. The educational leader should know all the human needs. The three highest levels such as socialisation, appreciation, achievement, prestige and, particularly, self-realisation can be used to motivate staff to the maximum extent. The educational leader can make use of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to motivate staff for the purpose of realising education and teaching (Van der Westhuizen 1991:197).

People not only differ in their skill and capability to carry out tasks, but also with regard to their will to do them; in other words, with regard to the intensity and quality of their motivation. Management activities such as planning, organising, and decision-making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them toward their goals. Motivation is the spark which leads to action and therefore determines the direction as well as success of human activity. A high premium on goal-directed motivation in the management activity on the part of an educational leader plays a very important role. Motivation focuses to a great extent on goal-directed human activity and thus bears the stamp of dynamic perseverance and vocational satisfaction (Gannon 1977:225).

A successful educational leader will make use of the connection between an individual's actions and his or her real motives by employing it in a motivated way to achieve the aims of educative teaching. Motivation refers to the desire and willingness of a person to take some action in pursuit of some goal (Visscher 1999:135). Intrinsic motivation arises from satisfiers such as

achievement, recognition work itself, responsibility, advancement and possibility of growth. Several research results underline the importance of intrinsic job factors as powers of job satisfaction of teachers. Appropriate environmental circumstances are necessary to activate this motivational potential and turn it into motivational behaviour. There is a noticeable shift among teachers in the relative valuation of classroom-based (intrinsic) rewards in relation to extra-classroom-based (extrinsic) rewards. Motivation theory in schools concerns expectance theory. It suggests that the effort people put into their work will depend on their expectations of the results that are likely to occur.

It is obvious that whatever the skills, enthusiasm and expertise of the principal and senior managers and however successful the selection strategies are when recruiting new staff, no school can survive effectively without well-motivated teachers. If the selection process has been effective, a 'new' teacher should begin working in the school in a highly motivated frame of mind. There is no doubt that motivation is difficult. Different people react in different ways to the situations in which they find themselves. The school ethos and how colleagues are expected to relate to each other will have implications for motivation because, although the senior staff and the head teacher have the hierarchical power to initiate change to the management structures and the organisation which may or may not help to motivate individuals, it is also true to say that motivation should come from working together as part of an effective team (Visscher 1999:135).

In managing motivation, principals should be aware that teachers who are recruited to a school need to have a job that is satisfying and which offers them the kind of rewards and encouragement that will continue to motivate them. They need to be told that they are effective teachers and are doing a good job to increase their self-esteem and ensure that they are able to work towards their objectives, make their own decisions and select their own goals. Well-motivated colleagues can not only enhance their own individual careers but they should through their own enthusiasm, increase the enjoyment and hopefully the productivity of the group or team they are working with. They will be higher achievers than those who adopt a less positive role and are less well-motivated (Smith 1995:133-134).

Obviously these strategies and the techniques that are used to motivate colleagues should prove to be useful managerial tools. If staff are not motivated and have low morale, there may be

indicators such as arguments between colleagues, deadlines not being met, unexplained absences or lack of interest at meetings. If colleagues' basic needs are not being met, they will probably talk frequently about their earnings, seek reassurance about job security, follow instructions but never show initiative, frequently express concern about working conditions, and show little interest or enthusiasm for the job in hand. As far as possible, those who work need reassurance about what is fair. High motivation and morale cannot exist if there is no system for handling promotions and job changes so that everyone has the feeling that they are needed (Smith 1995:133-134).

Teachers, however, have motivational needs centring around achievement, friendship and power. Indicators of these kinds of needs might include such things as a highly competitive spirit, pride in certain skills, an enthusiasm for working alone, a need to set goals and deadlines, a need to be liked but also a need to persuade and influence people, an ability to take charge in times of crisis, and an eagerness to take on greater responsibilities (Smith 1995:133-134). One of the expectations of good interpersonal relations among leaders and staff members is that motivation to work will be increased because of good report, amity, and harmony within the organisation. The job of principals is to get their work done on assigned tasks as well as on non-duty ones. At times their job also requires them to be able to motivate learners, volunteers and parents, for example, and to work on committees, projects and other school-related activities (Wendel et al 1996:97).

All leaders must develop a basic understanding of personal motivation, recognising its complexity and theoretical foundations. Individuals will respond differently to motivational strategies based upon their experiences, the work environment, and the situation. Principals must take these factors into consideration when seeking to motivate staff. Having the ability to understand the distinction between satisfaction and motivation is also critical.

To fulfil the function of motivation effectively, the principal should have extensive knowledge about human needs and how to satisfy them. A principal who has this knowledge will not only be a more sympathetic, caring person but he or she will understand people better and handle them better too. In addition, he or she will be able to motivate his or her colleagues better and in this way raise and maintain staff morale. Motivation in the school management situation reflects a principal's ability to give expression to the staff's full potential in the pursuit of the goals and

objectives of a school and this ability to motivate will help him or her to be a more effective leader.

To be able to motivate people effectively a principal should be aware of the real inner needs and desires in each individual which make him or her act in a certain way in certain circumstances. A principal who works closely with many types of people, ought to have deeper insight into the origin and manifestation of the entire range of human emotions and needs. He or she should also have in-depth knowledge of how these needs can be satisfied in an acceptable way, otherwise he or she may run the risk of 'reading' someone incorrectly. A principal should be thoroughly aware of the various ways of motivating individuals to carry out their work effectively, but also know how to help them get the greatest pleasure from their work and professional satisfaction in the working situation. The principal should be aware of when intrinsic and when extrinsic motivation should be used to obtain the best results (Van der Westhuizen 1991:295-297).

2.4.2.2 *Training and mentoring*

Personnel induction endeavours to help the various categories of new personnel to fit into, and adjust to a new working environment as quickly as possible and with the minimum disruption (for the individual and the school) so that the goals of the organisation can be achieved as effectively as possible. This presupposes that all 'new' staff have adjustment problems in varying degrees

which justifies the planning and implementation of integration or orientation programmes. New staff members do not have homogeneous needs with the result that individualised integration programmes are justified for the different categories of new personnel (Horne & Brown 1997:58-64). If this is accepted the following categories of personnel can be distinguished:

- Newly appointed, recently qualified teachers, in other words, beginners.
- Teachers who have become a little rusty because of interrupted service.
- New staff with teaching experience but no experience of how things are done in a particular school, and
- Teachers with experience of a certain school, but who have been allotted new tasks because of a new division of work.

In the researcher's own experience, there are three problem areas which are applicable in particular to the beginner teacher, namely classroom management and discipline, interpretation of the curriculum and relationship problems with fellow teachers.

Teachers in their first year of teaching usually flourish if they are given plenty of support. A mentoring system helps new staff to settle into the job, find their feet and develop personally and professionally. Schools with good mentoring systems help new teachers become productive members of staff early on in their careers and encourage them to stay on and contribute to the school.

Mentoring, coaching and other similar arrangements usually involve pairs or small groups of teachers working together. Coaching can be intentionally designed as a strategy for increasing the collaborative work culture of the school (Fullan 1992:104).

2.4.2.3 *Safety and security*

Effective learning simply cannot take place in an environment that is not safe and secure. Learners, teachers and parents alike must feel that the school is a haven, where learners are free from fear and where they can concentrate on learning. The successful school is one that promotes an environment of safety and security. This promotion includes not only the school, but each classroom, the hallways, the playground and all school environs. This is a particularly critical issue today as increased community and social violence seems to be sweeping into the schools.

The schools are the responsibility of parents and teachers to the extent that violence in the schools is a community problem. The parents must exert the leadership to prevent it from entering the schools. It is also the collective responsibility of teachers to assure that no teacher within the school allows an atmosphere of fear to pervade his or her classroom. Effective learning cannot take place in a climate of fear. A classroom environment and climate that is based on fear will not be as conducive to successful learning as one that promotes feelings of safety, security, acceptance and warm support. Just as it is the parents' responsibility to assure

that the school is safe, it is the teachers' responsibility to assure that the classroom climate is free from fear (Reilly 1995:113).

Reducing fear increases the rate of change. Fear paralyses organisations and often pits people against each other. Principals can help staff deal with it by either accurately contemplating the staff's concerns or by being sensitive and asking what the source of fear may be. If assurance of success is in doubt then teachers may react with fear. Teachers may also fear that if they accept some new and different responsibilities, they will not be able to return to their original teaching assignment or may be transferred to a different building. Pathways to 'retreat' should be left open, and people should be reassured of their value in either the new or old role (Hertzke & Olson 1994:26). In this way, the school will be a safe and secure environment for learners, teachers and parents.

The school should fully comply with the regulations and legislation in force regarding the state and safety of the building, learners' rights and their protection, particularly with regard to health and safety and for monitoring and evaluating how well it implements them. The laws and regulations should be displayed in suitable places and appropriate guidance should be provided for learners and educators. The staff and learners know what is expected from them. A member of staff should be designated as health and safety officer. The regulations and procedures should be displayed in certain parts of the school, especially in laboratories. Child protection procedures should be proactive in identifying and dealing with instances of abuse (DoE 2000:22).

It is clear that learning does not take place without an orderly, productive climate. Discipline is the foundation of an effective school. It is also clear that the principal bears the responsibility for discipline in the school.

Increasing effectiveness by driving out fear and increasing quality and productivity will improve if teachers feel secure about what they are to do, are not afraid to ask questions and are encouraged to try new and better methods of performing their jobs. Disruptive, rude, angry, fearful or frustrated learners, parents, teachers, intimidators and others with unresolved problems create demanding situations for principals, who often face confrontations without warning. A

successful climate should be accommodative and conducive to teaching and learning at all times and levels (Wendel et al 1996:145).

2.4.3 Summary

In essence, motivation concerns the following:

- Motivation takes place when an educational leader is at the point where tasks must be executed. The educational leader requests, orders, directs, motivates and convinces staff towards the fulfilment of his or her goal. Therefore it would seem that to motivate staff an educational leader should have knowledge of the needs of the people, their work circumstances, the requirements of the community and effective management style.
- Motivation is such an important management task of an educational leader that it led Gannon (1977:225) to remark: “Management activities such as planning, organizing and decision making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them towards their goals. Motivation focuses to a great extent on goal-directed human activity and thus bears the stamp of dynamic perseverance and vocational satisfaction.” A successful educational leader will make use of the connection between an individual’s actions and his or her real motives by employing it in a motivated way to achieve the aims of educative teaching. Because motivation in the school management situation reflects a principal’s ability to give expression to the staff’s full potential in the pursuit of the goals and objectives of a school, the ability to motivate will help him/her to be a more effective leader.

School principals have to vary their motivational techniques. They should provide incentives for some of the personnel intrinsically and others extrinsically, while others will contribute to effective education if they are motivated by the desire to achieve self-determination.

2.5 SHARING

2.5.1 Principles

2.5.1.1 *Vision and mission statement*

Bennis and Nanus (1985:89) propose a useful and broad definition of vision. They suggest a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organisation, a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation, a condition that is better in some important ways than what now exists. Schools have their own ‘feelings and attitudes’ that set them apart and make them unique.

What does vision have to do with successful school leaders? Nanus (1992:53) emphasised there is no more powerful engine driving a school toward excellence and long-range success than an attractive, worthwhile, and achievable vision of the future, widely shared. No discussion of outstanding school leaders would therefore be complete without attention to vision, a key ingredient of leadership in highly successful schools. Visionary leadership is a prominent trait of high-performing leaders. Effective school leaders have broad visions that are clear, active, ambitious and performance-oriented. Vision is the force that propels effective leaders to strive to shape their individual schools for success. A vision unifies a school and increases the emotional support of those in the school. Vision begins with the individual and totally guides those who are involved in a school. Vision helps establish the climate for the school because when the vision is clear and shared, expectations, purposes and goals are clear (Wendel et al 1996:63-64).

Successful schools have explicit values which are shared by all members of the school community, explained to all those who come into contact with the school and used as the basis for all aspects of the life of the school. Successful schools know where they are going and how they are going to get there. The mission statement serves a number of practical purposes (Smith 1995:35):

- It characterises the school to its community.
- It provides a sense of direction and purpose.
- It sets the school culture.
- It generates consistency of action.
- It identifies clients.

- It serves to motivate and challenge.

The vision must be challenging and inspiring and should act as a focus for motivation. The vision must reinforce success and celebrate strengths. The vision must be capable of being communicated, and becoming meaningful to everyone to whom it applies. The process of actually articulating the vision requires high level reflection and introspection - the outcomes of this meditation need to be shared, tested and refined and, crucially, responses listened to (West-Burnham 1992:103).

The first step in creating a vision is the clarification of personal visions by examining individual beliefs and mental models, and asking the following questions of principals and staff members (Wendel et al 1996:68):

- What do we want the organisation to accomplish? For learners? For staff? For the community?
- What will the result look like? From the point of view of learners? From the point of view of staff? From the point of view of the community?
- How different are individual views of success from others?

It is important to move toward the creating of a shared vision with clearly articulated desired results in a school organisation. A shared vision is much more than a statement of mission or collection of descriptors. It is a governing force guiding each member of the organisation, as measured by the consistency of the beliefs, values and assumptions with the everyday decisions and behaviours of the members. A shared vision is not stagnant but dynamic as the organisation develops and evolves (National Commission on Education 1996:77).

Committing oneself to that vision and sharing it with others are necessary to refine and shape the vision further into specific goals for the school. Everyone comes to understand where the school is going, that is, what its aims are and what the school will be like when those aims are reached. Furthermore, putting a vision into action by being an innovator and risk taker, initiating change and always looking to the future and what can be, is common among successful school leaders as they work with staff, parents, learners and the community (Wendel et al 1996:69).

2.5.1.2 *Partnership for change*

Much of leaders' successes depend upon their ability to maintain honour and respect for the status quo and to create and foster a desire for change that leads to improvement in learning and other aspects of education. Leaders must be as knowledgeable about and skilled in the installation of change, or the change process, as they are in the nature of the innovation itself (Senge 1993:39). For example, leaders who see a need for change to a whole-school evaluation or for outcome-based education must battle on two fronts: convincing people of the worthiness of the change and training staff to implement the change. The complexity of introducing change is compounded when staff members who are to implement a change are negative toward the change.

At the end of each school year, the principal should distribute an 'End-of-the-year suggestion sheet', inviting suggestions for improvement and recommendations for change. The principal should carefully read and evaluate these and make some changes if feasible. All suggestions and recommendations are addressed at the first meeting of the year so that the teachers know why or why not their input was acted upon. Not only do the activities include teachers in the decision-making process, but they also encourage the expression of new ideas and serve to further open the lines of communication between staff and administration (Wendel et al 1996:111).

Schools need to improve not only their change process capacity, but also their understanding of the dynamics of change. The goal is effective implementation of innovations; it is the effecting of change. Schools are encouraged both to recognise this fact and to support their teachers in adopting and implementing desired changes effectively. Effective approaches to managing change call for combining and balancing factors that do not apparently go together: simultaneous simplicity - complexity; looseness - tightness; strong leadership - participation or simultaneous bottom-up and top-downness (Reid et al 1987:12).

Successful improvement can be best thought of as a process of mobilisation and positive contagion (Fullan 1992:24-26). The prospects for successful implementation are greater when those expected to carry out a change agree on the need, on the appropriateness of the innovations selected, and on the priority of the change effort relative to other local concerns. Teacher

acceptance and commitment can develop during implementation when other conditions are favourable, (e.g. effective innovations, administrative commitment, adequate assistance).

Innovations are more likely to get implemented when they result in visibly improved learner outcomes. The chances for successful change are also greater when the technical certainty of the innovations is already known, and when at least some of the benefits for learners are immediately apparent to teachers. Hall et al (1980:26) state that the degree of implementation of the innovation is different in different schools because of the actions and concerns of the principal. Planned change, school improvement, effective schools and staff development all bear the mark of the principal as central for leading and supporting change. The school is the centre of change and that is where focus, coherence and consistency must be forged. That is why the principal is so central to successful school improvement and reform (Fullan 1992:96).

Leaders and managers need to recognise the complex web of role expectations, institutional constraints, professional experiences, teaching attitude and approaches and personality factors that may influence the responses of teachers to any form of new idea. It is increasingly important to involve all the participants in the school so that they feel that they have some vested interest in the change and ownership of it. Sharing information and allowing opportunities for discussions and, where necessary complaints, will allow the change to be more successful (Smith 1995:61).

2.5.2 Practice

2.5.2.1 *Staff and learner involvement*

When the entire staff makes an initiative the effects are far greater than when just a few people are involved or when various groups select different aspects of an initiative to pursue. ‘Whole-school’ and staff development programmes often achieve higher rates of change in classroom practice than do staff development programme where teachers participate as individuals or as small groups of volunteers (Joyce, Calhoun & Hopkins 1999:123). The best approach in general terms involves setting up a process which starts where people are. It is necessary to find out where teachers are in relation to proposed new changes (Fullan 1992:78).

If learners are interested and involved in their lessons, they will be full of ideas. Learners will ask questions and offer suggestions. If learners know the criteria for assessment of any particular piece, with practice and guidance, they are quite capable of making accurate judgements on their own levels of performance. This is an excellent learning strategy. Active learning styles tend to involve all learners, so time should be spent in devising activities to promote learning and to build on their knowledge.

Involvement offers the best chance of success in bringing about positive change. Face to face relationships and influence can be brought to bear on the daily needs and problems of the improvement process. In this approach the principal's knowledge, skills and power are used to combat the insecurities and fears of the participants. It is usually the leader, cast in the role of mentor, who holds the ship together in the first stormy sea of change. In this condition participants provide security, enhance the environment, and provide the encouragement to initiate the first steps toward continuous improvement (Richardson et al 1997:246).

Sharing results with learners and helping them to come to clear understanding about what they have learned is essential. Even more motivating is bringing them into the process of selecting the next activities based on the results of the previous ones. The empowerment and attention to performance can accelerate the speed and thoroughness with which learning takes place. Effective cooperative learning also requires teaching learners the skills of cooperation and following a basic five step process to assure that all involved learners are successful at the particular task. Attention to continuous improvement and appropriate measure of progress will help produce continually improving results. The team can also work effectively in environments where technology is not available to every individual learner. There is a profound change in the quality and nature of learner involvement with learning. Learners talk in groups and solve problems, they work at their own pace and are challenged. They are engaged with real-world problems and feeling their worth as contributors to information (Hertzke & Olson 1994:9; 21; 129).

2.5.2.2 *Teamwork*

Collegiality and team work do not just happen but do need to be present if schools are to be effective. Teamwork is important throughout any school organisation. When people work in isolation, they tend to stay behind a closed door, locked in with their learners. While all teachers are individual and autonomous beings, it is not enough that they simply stay in their classroom and work in isolation. Teamwork allows for a cross-fertilisation of ideas and an expansion of skills. Handy (1976:155-156) suggests several reasons why organisations use groups or teams of people rather than individuals:

- For the distribution of work - to bring together a set of skills, talents, responsibilities and allocate them their particular duties.
- For the management and control of work - to allow work to be organised and controlled by appropriate individuals with responsibility for a certain range of work.
- For problem-solving and decision-taking - to bring together a set of skills, talents and responsibilities so that the solutions to any problem will have all available capacities applied to it.
- For information processing - to pass on decisions or information to all those who need to know.
- For information and idea collection - to gather ideas, information or suggestions.
- For testing and ratifying decisions - to test the validity of a decision taken outside the group or to ratify such a decision.
- For co-ordination and liaison - to co-ordinate problems and tasks between functions or divisions.
- For increased commitment and involvement - to allow and encourage individuals to get involved in the plans and activities of the organisation.
- For negotiation or conflict resolution - to resolve a dispute or argument between levels, divisions or functions.
- For inquest or enquiry into the past.

These criteria suggest that team-building should form an important part of a manager's role, especially when decisions need to be taken. A school without teams of teachers working together

would be far less effective when taking decisions than one with a structure which values teachers' contributions.

Teams are built so that they can be effective at taking decisions, ensuring that the school runs smoothly and manages change successfully. Most schools employ more than one teacher. It would thus be logical to expect all teachers in such schools to agree that they and their colleagues work together, teach together and that they are successful in what they do. Macbeth (1989:54) argues that "without a central sense of unity, schools, like all other organisations, are no more than a collection of people who would rather be somewhere else because they lack effectiveness and conviction in what they are doing." There is a high degree of consensus in an effective school. The ideals that the staff try to promote are supported and put into action by simple rules and clear procedures that are followed by all who work in the school. This will work if the procedures and decision-making structures are seen as necessary and appropriate by all the participants, as Handy (1976:184) suggests.

When schools work in a collegial and democratic way, there are two major ingredients: content and process. The content deals with the subject matter, or the task allocated to the groups of teachers. It deals with such issues as morale, feeling, atmosphere, influence, participation, styles of influence, leadership struggles, conflict, cooperation and competition. A similar content will generally exist in most schools. It has been suggested that everyone is a manager and should have an interest in the success of the school in which they work. Recognising some of the ways groups behave when they work together will help to ensure success (Smith 1995:6).

Another aspect of teamwork concerns the assessment of a learner's work and regular attendance in classes by members of the senior management team and curriculum leader, to observe and then give feedback (National Commission on Education 1996:101). Real success in a Total Quality Education (TQE) environment will result in more teamwork and less individual recognition. As teamwork takes hold in a school, it has been observed that more teams qualified for recognition and fewer individuals. Criteria for recognition had to be changed and aligned to match the emphasis on improvement based at team level (Hertzke & Olson 1994:96). In this vein mention can also be made of quality circles. A quality circle (QC) is a group of people with a common

work interest, who meet voluntarily on a regular basis with the encouragement of the management of the organisation. These meetings take place to study, discuss and solve teaching problems. Quality circles use the skills and know-how of the staff who daily face the typical problems and those efforts determine the quality of the service. The main purpose of quality circles is to involve individuals in a meaningful way to improve communication, solve problems and make effective decisions (Paine et al 1992:44).

In order to develop a successful school, interested parents and teachers might consider the development of a team to guide the formation of a coalition effort. The team, or at least a significant majority of it, should understand the principles, practices and processes of effective planned change (Reilly 1995:201). The evidence of collaborative planning and strong collegial relationships among staff and between teachers and administrators in more successful schools has been shown. The nature of relationship among the adults who inhabit a school has more to do with the school's quality and character and with the accomplishments of its learners than any other factor (Education Week 1984:24). Collaborative planning requires school leaders who are willing to participate and to listen. It also takes time as a precious commodity in a school. Collegiality requires regular allocations of time, it does not happen naturally (Wilson & Corcoran 1987:17). Egos need to be refashioned into a bonded collaboration between parents, teachers, learners, leaders and all others.

Smith (1995:11) states that effective teams have:

1. A shared vision which everyone knows, which everyone has agreed to, and toward which everyone has commitment to success. Team members understand the goals because they have participated in setting them. Every member has a feeling of ownership and that he/she is making a difference.
2. A climate of trust and openness. The team concept creates an informal atmosphere where members feel comfortable. Trust is established only when fear and rejection are eliminated and members see the advantages of risk taking.

3. Open and honest communications. Participants feel free to express their thoughts and ideas without fear of uncontrolled criticism. Members listen to each other's ideas and offer feedback pertaining to its relevance.
4. A sense of belonging. Individualism is present but the good of the team outweighs the good of individual gain.
5. Diversity valued as an asset. Members are viewed as unique with valuable skills and resources necessary to look at the whole picture. Diversity of opinions, ideas and experiences offers flexibility in analysis of decisions and offers differing views from the traditional opinions.
6. Creativity and risk-taking. The value of team diversity is that options which may not have been considered are now a viable part of the process. Progression comes from change.
7. Ability to self-correct. Since the team is constantly seeking different avenues for improvement, the team must be able to discern appropriate action from inappropriate actions.
8. Members who are interdependent. Members become dependent on each other's knowledge and skills. Group action supersedes individual wants.
9. Decision-making is made by consensus. Decisions are made by the group only after alternatives are presented, discussed and analysed for merit.
10. Participative leadership is practised. An individual does not dominate or influence group operations. Each member of the team has an equal share in the group process.

There can be no individual development without teamwork. Therefore, school improvement depends critically upon collaboration. It is a good idea for all members of a group or department to support and encourage each other. This clearly applies to new teachers who need help and support. But all individuals like to feel part of a team. It gives a sense of belonging. All members of a department have to share the same vision about their subject, their aims and their expectations. It develops a collegiate responsibility.

2.5.2.3 *Communication and negotiation*

Van Schoor (1977:13) describes communication as the mutual exchange of ideas and interpretation of messages. He adds that this mutual exchange of ideas and interpretation of messages are not only the basis of all forms of communication, but are also at the root of man's existence. Communication is a way of life, an ontological concept of being. No management can take place without communication. The importance of effective communication on the part of education leaders can be seen in recent research on the management work of school principals.

From this research it would seem that educational leaders spend 80 per cent of their time each day in situations of interactive communication. The importance of good communication can hardly be overemphasised. The following four concepts can be seen to have importance in communication for educational leaders: making contact, informing, interpretation and messages (Van der Westhuizen 1991:205). Informing implies planning and intention on the part of the one who is informing, also known as communicator. Interpretation points towards active participation on the part of the receiver of the message in all the communication events. Message is at the heart of the meaning of communication, in other words, it is what a teacher wishes to carry across to a person so that it can be interpreted.

The principal should create communication channels for transferring instruction and commands and receiving feedback. Communicating is a way of exerting influence. It is essential for motivating people, implementing, providing the necessary guidance, and transferring ideas of the educational leader to other people.

The school is the educational partner of the parental home and serves the community but is not subservient to the parental home and the community at large. Formal, planned or organised education is the precise purpose of the school and to provide effective school-centred education, communication must take place within the context of those community links which make school education possible and which maintain it. Effective communication can also contribute greatly towards establishing and building up healthy school-community relationships. The principal is responsible for planning, organising, guiding and control of school-community relationships but the eventual success of this activity is jointly determined by everyone involved in it at the school, namely the principal, teachers and learners. Communication is a continual management function

and is vital to all cyclical management functions. Therefore, the quality and effectiveness of management communication will determine the success of the school as an organisation. In the researcher's experience the best school managers are those who have a better understanding of communication and have the ability to communicate effectively in interpersonal and group situations. The ability to deal with people is an integral part of the communicating abilities of the school manager. Educational leaders should understand that they must have the vision to set realistic goals; the interpersonal skills to achieve consensus and the verbal capacity to communicate enthusiasm to teachers and learners.

Communication styles are determined by perceptions and impressions of others, as well as others' perceptions and impressions of the communicator. It is important that the school manager has adequate individual knowledge about each of the teachers on the staff, but it is equally important for the school manager to provide adequate information to teachers so that they may know him or her. According to Puth (1994:63), self-disclosure is a communication process whereby an individual teacher or educational manager voluntarily shares information about him or herself in a personal way. The communication climate can be improved by the use of self-disclosure

because there will be less secrecy, more openness and transparency and more effective mutual problem solving.

The day-to-day activities of school managers place a high value on interpersonal communication. School principals provide information which must be understood; they give instructions and they make efforts to influence and persuade the staff. Therefore the way in which school principals communicate, both as senders and receivers, is crucial for obtaining the best performance and realising educational objectives. Principals who communicate in dogmatic know-it-all ways usually do so to minimise teacher's contributions or to invalidate their perspectives. Validating communication on the other hand is egalitarian, worthwhile, competent, to be involved in problem solving and not to project a superior position. Validating communication relays the message that the principal values the teachers, and that he or she regards their involvement and participation as essential to the success of interpersonal relationships (Van der Westhuizen 1991:429).

Communication is about the sharing of information, attitudes, beliefs, feelings and the passing on of knowledge. Within schools this can cover both internal and external events involving speaking, listening, meeting, writing, discussing and reading. The mastery of communication is inseparable from effective leadership. It is important to establish processes and structures which make communicating in schools effective because attitudes, feelings and complex issues of leadership contribute to bringing individuals into conflict with each other (Smith 1995:142). These conflicts are more likely to arise where channels of communication are blocked or where individuals do not have the opportunities to share ideas and debate educational issues. However, being an effective communicator is no help at all if no one is receiving the message. Communication in school has to be managed carefully so that information is provided on all aspects of the school for everyone who needs to be involved, including staff, learners, parents and community. For communication to be effective, it must be appropriate to its purpose, the situation in which it is taking place and the audience and readership for whom it is intended.

Another interpretation of communication is that it has to happen so that jobs get done. This is simplistic but true, and it begins to reinforce the importance of making sure that the right messages reach the right people at the right time. By doing this effectively colleagues should receive information which they can act on. The information that schools deal with are of three types: long-term, medium-term and short-term communication (Barnard 1982:195-198).

Long term communication consists mainly of policies and documents that are the umbrella under which the school works as well as being the linchpin of the school's development plan and the aims and ethos of the school. If they are not communicated to teachers and other adults, then individuals would be working alone with their own agendas and the school would be fragmented without any coherent policies or any continuity of styles, beliefs and ways of working.

Medium-term communication refines the long-term issues into something more immediate. In translating long-term issues into action plans, medium-term communication involves communicating what is expected to be achieved by teams and is essential for continuity and for the school's common goals.

Short-term communication is about the day-to-day messages that have to be given to individuals and groups because without them the structure of each day and week would be chaotic. Informing colleagues that someone is ill is necessary, or that a meeting scheduled for 10h15 has been changed to the following day, is obviously important for the smooth running of the school. However, all communication will be just that little bit more effective if all the staff of the school recognise that they have a responsibility to ensure that the system works.

Teachers in schools experience the greatest sense of accomplishment when obstacles to communication are eliminated. In an atmosphere of open communication teachers feel that there is no decision too difficult to tackle (Peel & Norton 1993:41-42). The greater the distance in time, space, frequency and degree of interaction between leaders and others, the greater the difficulty in developing and maintaining effective communication. Regardless of the channel used to communicate to others, opportunities should be provided for interactive, two-way communication.

Although creating an atmosphere of trust, mutual respect and collegiality seems like a relatively simple tenet, it is actually very complex and requires continual adaptation in order to be a vital component of school climate. Communication with parents and guardians, service groups, and other external audiences requires much effort, planning, attention to detail and preparation of content and method of delivery. The need to share views and to reach common understanding is basic to effective communication. Communication is a critical ingredient for success. In order to be an effective communicator one must seek out audiences. For the school leader this includes learners, staff, parents, board members, state policy makers and community. The purpose of the communication is to move the organisation towards its goals. Formal and informal conversation and discussions between school officials and key communicators can forge effective communication. Leaders need to pay even greater attention to their words and body language in communicating with individuals from other cultures so that their intent and meaning are neither improperly communicated nor misinterpreted (Van der Westhuizen 1991:420).

Teachers' needs for feedback, reward, motivation, and support are tied directly for communication with leaders. Communication between leaders and all staff members is essential for job satisfaction, development of staff, site-based management and school improvement. How leaders deliver their messages is as important as what they say.

2.5.2.4 *Parent and community involvement*

The principal should always operate an open-door policy for all parents. Securing more active participation by parents both in children's own progress and in the life of the school is encouraging and motivating. The school can play a role in enabling parents actively to enhance their work in fostering learner progress. The first step would appear to be engaging positive interest, cooperation and supportive relations between the home and the school. Parent's reasons for coming in are that they want to support school activities, look at learner's work, attend school events or simply keep in touch. Most of the schools put great effort into breaking down barriers to parents' access to the school (National Commission on Education 1996:85). There needs to be a free flow of information to and from parents. The school must keep parents informed both about the school itself and about the progress of their own children. Parents should receive monthly progress reports covering not just academic achievement but also attendance, behaviour and punctuality, with parts of the reports completed by the learners themselves. Schoolwork or homework diaries, as well as keeping parents informed, improve communication between learners and their parents about school.

Making education more of a partnership in which individual families and communities can exert their voices and demonstrate their loyalty is of prime importance. Schools with higher community involvement are associated with better learning outcomes. In this era of reform many scholars are calling for increased collaboration between schools and other groups, and accounts of how bonds between the school and community have fostered excellence (National Commission on Education 1996:134). Learner activities and relationship with their parents predict grades more surely than do all the other indicators. Involvement of the community helps its members better understand the world that learners face in school. It also offers them insights into the problems of making such a complex organisation more productive. Involvement by the

community communicates to learners the importance of the learning process. If outsiders are willing to devote their energies to helping schools improve, there is increased probability that learners will become more committed to the process as well. Community organisations can provide volunteers, tutors, equipment space, and access to new experiences for learners and staff (Wilson & Corcoran 1988:110-112).

There is a need to awaken and arouse parents and teachers to a common cause: the need to work in a concerted, coordinated and cooperative manner to gain the power necessary to influence and direct the future direction of education. Parents and teachers must wake up and assume the responsibility for directing education's future (Reilly 1995:192).

Everard and Morris (1996:123) talk of 'fruitful relationships' whereby problems are jointly resolved by the home and the school and of reservoirs of talent and goodwill among parents waiting to be tapped. The most beneficial result of greater involvement is increased confidence, in parents who feel that they have a role to play in the decision making process. Children also feel an increased sense of control through knowing that their parents are more involved (Parsons 1994:37).

Parents and other community members are important stake-holders in the vision and desired results of the school. In many ways, the support and understanding of the parents is as important as the commitment and the follow-through of the staff. Because members of the community are often asked to demonstrate support through their votes, their attitudes about the school can also influence success. Involvement of representatives from parent and community groups in both personal visioning and development of a shared vision is wise and appropriate.

The following vehicles for communication can be used (Frase & Hetzel 1990:89):

- Newsletters
- Parent meetings or open houses
- Fliers sent home with learners
- Before-school letters to parents

- Homeowners association meetings
- Area newspaper articles
- Parent seminars on specific aspects of the vision
- Discussions led by parent group representatives

A meeting with parents can be a pleasant and useful sharing of ideas, as well as an opportunity to discuss learner progress, future needs and to offer any advice on matters of concern. It is also a part of the school's process of accountability. Parent involvement in the life of the school is a positive influence on learner's progress and development.

There will sometimes be a need for informal meetings with some parents, but at set times there should be pre-arranged open evenings with individual appointments for parents. These meetings represent the main opportunity to discuss progress and to share concerns. For teachers they are a golden opportunity to 'sell' the schools and their own professional skills by conveying information to parents about each learner. Well-prepared teachers will meet each parent with all the necessary facts at their fingertips. They should use the right body language and tone of voice and should meet visiting parents in an appropriate place.

Most parents meet professionalism with professionalism but there will be occasions when someone will not behave within the bounds of normal convention. Rowland and Birkett (1992:96) found that due to some sense of stress, parents may shout, bluster, threaten, profane, cry, retreat into silence, become inarticulated, make false accusations, become hysterical or act in some other unusual way. It is possible to handle emotional outbursts and personal attacks in such a way that there will not be a complete breakdown in communication between teacher and parent. It is also possible to be successful in most meetings with parents. Most of the following attributes need to be appreciated when meeting and dealing with the parents (Smith 1995:148):

- Do not try too hard to be liked.
- Always be a good listener.
- Try hard to develop a sensitivity to other people's motivation and wants.
- Try to be open-minded in the face of complaint or criticism.
- Never threaten someone even in an implied way.

- Try not to feel uncomfortable when facing conflict. Analyse signals and determine reasons behind them.
- Try to think clearly under pressure or defer the topic until you are better prepared.
- Commit yourself to trying to give reasonable satisfaction.

Parents' fears are more likely to focus on whether their children will succeed to the next level or qualify for college. Changes should relate closely to outcomes and information for parents should be prepared in 'noneducationese' terms so it can be understood. It is important to remember that parents have gone through a school system and therefore may believe they are educational experts. If it was good enough for them, it should be good enough for their children. Parents deserve to be presented a strong case for change and reassurance that children will be monitored carefully to assure success. In many instances, parents and other citizens can be participants in the change process (Hertzke & Olson 1994:26).

2.5.3 Summary

School leaders constantly reflect their values in whatever they do. They must keep in mind that they are models others look to for leadership. The successful school leaders should have no doubts that being a visionary is necessary for effective schools. School leaders' success begins with a vision based on personal beliefs and values. Committing oneself to that vision and sharing it with others are necessary to further refine and shape the vision into specific goals for the school. Everyone comes to understand where the school is going, that is what its aims are, and what the school will be like when those aims are reached. Furthermore, putting a vision into action by being an innovator and a risk taker, initiating change and always looking to the future and what can be, is common among successful school leaders as they work with staff, parents, learners, and the community.

Communication is crucial in building organisational relationships and effective operation of any school. Communication skills are the most important requirements of success as a school principal.

The ability to respond to others in a sensitive fashion is critical to the effectiveness of a principal. No single skill is more important to a school leader than the ability to communicate effectively.

In large measure good staff morale and positive parent support are built on communicating timely, accurate and complete information. Effective communication comes through planning and conscious effort that solicits interactive two-way communication.

2.6 ASSESSMENT

2.6.1 Principles

2.6.1.1 *Accountability*

Accountability in education is a term that has usually been allocated to those individuals who are answerable to the degree of educational success. These individuals are usually the educators. Other members of society may have a somewhat recognised relationship with education but have not or will not share the obligation. Subsequently, accountability implies partitioning of responsibility by a populace who has stereotyped the degree of educational success to individuals affiliated with education - namely teachers and administrators (Richardson et al 1997:15). It has been a conviction that has led to an accountability phobia that is destined to immobilise any true education reform. Perhaps, this phobia has resulted from an ongoing sociological perspective that only educators should be held accountable for learner achievement; perhaps it has flourished because educators have been relatively easy scapegoats. Whatever the rationality, accountability in education cannot be isolated to one particular segment of society; rather all of society must be held accountable for the past, present and future status of education.

Defining a accountability network

By expanding the scope of accountability, a sociological network to determine a hierarchy of responsibility for quality education can be established whereby increased learner achievement is a function of the degree of performance for (Richardson et al 1997:16-18):

- Community members to take an active part in local educational improvement, and for corporate leaders to actively communicate specific needs in order to spawn continuity between the school and business sectors.
- State and local politicians to initiate leadership, to create aggressive clear-cut and long term educational goals, to determine specific objectives, to achieve the established goals, and to construct systematic methods of financing education regardless of which political party is in office.
- University personnel to establish explicit standards for learners that provide high caliber teacher and administrative training programmes in order to supply schools with a skilled work force.
- Administrators to initiate leadership and to establish guidelines and practices that enhance a positive learning atmosphere.
- Teachers to expand classroom opportunity and to inspire learners to discover the potential value of learning and to create effective lines of communication to the home environment.
- Learners to develop productive study habits, to attain a high degree of interest in advancing their level of awareness in education, and to enhance their skills for the duties of citizenship.

This conceptualisation of accountability rests with the premise that to increase performance levels of each segment within the accountability network, the attitude of each segment must be directed toward improving the existing structure. If individual or group attitudes within each segment lean toward irresponsibility the primary effect is incompetency, poor achievement and/or an unconcerned attitude. This improper attitude yields poor performance quality. However, if individual or group attitude within each segment is directed toward accomplishment and responsibility, achievement is usually synonymous with competence, high performance quality and a concerned attitude (Richardson et al 1997:16-18).

In defining and analysing aspects of accountability it is important to pinpoint several distinct and separate areas (Richardson et al 1997:16-18). Three basic types of accountability are identified:

- Moral accountability, where the school is answerable to clients, that is parents and learners

- Professional accountability to colleagues and oneself
- Contractual accountability to employers such as the government, school governors and the wider political masters.

In breaking these down one needs to recognise that certain aspects of accountability are there to 'maintain', preserve or enhance general levels of performance, while other aspects will begin to solve the problems related to areas of possible weakness (cf. Smith 1995:211).

(1) Moral accountability: Maintaining and enhancing levels of performance

This involves written reports to parents and holding parents' meetings to discuss progress and to provide opportunities to see learner's work. It also means making sure that there is a school brochure and that there are other communication measures explaining, for example, policy and curriculum issues (Richardson et al 1997:16-18).

(2) Moral accountability: Problem-solving

This involves parents knowing how complaints can be made and the action that is taken and seen to be taken when parents use the complaints process. There also needs to be an awareness of the kinds of meetings that will take place between teachers and learners when learners have problems in school. This kind of accountability refers to how a school responds and is seen to be successful in meeting the needs of its clients, such as parents and learners (Richardson et al 1997:16-18).

(3) Professional accountability: Maintaining and enhancing levels of performance

This aspect of accountability is concerned with how effective the school is in using, managing and developing all those individuals who work in it. This should involve schools evaluating themselves and monitoring internal standards while at the same time making sure that there are regular reviews of staffing, curriculum, teaching methods, assessment results and methods of planning. There is also the need to establish continuing relationships between primary and secondary sectors and to have sound professional relationships between schools, teachers, government officers, advisers and inspectors (Richardson et al 1997:16-18).

(4) Professional accountability: Problem-solving

This includes using appropriate assessment and monitoring procedures to discover needs of individual learners, providing equal opportunities in terms of the necessary provision for all learners of whatever ability, being aware of the school's weaknesses, anticipating possible future crises, and being able to either prevent them from happening or solving the problem quickly (Richardson et al 1997:16-18).

(5) Contractual accountability: Maintaining and enhancing levels of performance

This will involve observing the instructions of legislation, opening the school to all authorised visits and inspection, being able to explain and justify the curriculum teaching methods and overall aims and policies, as well as to account for learner's standards of attainment (Richardson et al 1997:16-18).

(6) Contractual accountability: Problem-solving

This involves following agreed procedures for unresolved complaints and grievances and developing an effective management structure to deal with problems. It is also concerned with being able to self-audit and recognise problems that are likely to occur. Schools do need to work in partnership with parents and governors rather than to try the almost impossible, and certainly the more inappropriate route of working in isolation (Richardson et al 1997:16-18). Many principals however, are severely pressured by the enormous numbers of financial and administrative tasks that are associated with schools. This, according to Pollard and Tann (1993:289) can compromise their vital role as educational leaders.

Schools are encouraged to work in partnership with the parents and governors and to achieve success. They have to make sure that the ethos of the school promotes an atmosphere where this is able to occur. Schools with closed doors and a division between providers and clients will be less successful. If parents and governors are given more information and increased ownership and choice over what happens in schools, they have the chance to create a structure where there is more accountability to them. The parents should have access to results of school performance,

have more freedom to select the school which their children attend, receive written reports on their child's performance, and an annual report from the school's governors (Smith 1995:213).

Giving increased rights to parents and governors may in some schools, make a 'real' and positive difference to the teaching and learning process. The more discussions that principals and teachers hold with parents and governors about what happens in the school, and the more knowledgeable all parties are about such issues as teaching styles and the curriculum, the more likely it is that they will be able to use this knowledge to influence what happens. Having the fundamental rights which are enshrined in the parent's charter and the Education Reform Act may mean that schools that are not successfully accountable will have fewer parents choosing to send their children to them and because the school's budget is dependent on the number of learners on the roll, the school will be less able to meet its needs and could begin a largely unstoppable downward spiral (Smith 1995:213).

Much of a school's accountability is through the governing body, which has overall control of many areas of school management, even after delegating much of the day-to-day work to principals and staff. More people are now aware of the cost of education and what teachers do all day, and there have been many more public discussions about teaching styles, classroom management and discipline in schools.

If, however, the school is able to utilise the expertise and professionalism of its parents and governors, the management should be co-structured to provide procedures and processes, for example, performance indicators through which accountability can be expressed (Smith 1995:211-214). The school has a fairly typical structure of accountability. The principal is accountable to parents and the governing body. The governing body is accountable to parents, the Department of Education and in certain respects to the government. In practice the principal is the managing director of the school. The issue of accountability in education is a complex one. The underlying shift is the notion that it is the individual school that is accountable for raising standards and not the Department of Education or any other organisation (National Commission on Education 1996:64; 193; 304).

An essential component when dealing with interdependence is developing a sense of personal responsibility, within each and every staff member within the school community (Scheetz & Benson 1994:6). Each individual is accountable for his or her own thinking and behaviour. This is characterised by individual equity and participative creativity through high involvement. The top-down management and lowest-to-top management should be collaborative. This style requires accountability from those at the top and those at the bottom (Fields 1993:102). The principal's aim in this instance should be the creation of a formal network of operations and the delineation of operational parameters. The installation of an accountability advisory committee would then identify the different roles and expectations, initiate effective participation and maximise communication effort to the community. Successful schools will depend not only upon the circumvention of educational malaise but also upon the collective participation and innovative approaches to school operations.

Although adequate funding of school programmes is important, it is not the key to educational success. Principals must communicate a tenacious belief in the cause of public education, must initiate a viable collegiality among the staff and actively solicit the support of the surrounding populace. When a principal can accomplish this, the negative aspects of the contemporary culture can be minimised while academic success can be maximised. The essence of this accountability network premise can be delineated as a long-range effort to improve an organisation's problem-solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organisation culture. The scope of society is too vast and too complex to totally satisfy all sectors. However, the network offers a greater opportunity for establishing a consistent directive for advancing educational opportunity and this is precisely the area where the issues of accountability become paramount.

2.6.2 Practice

2.6.2.1 *Teacher appraisal*

Pollard and Tann (1993:9) use the phrase 'reflective teaching' and in attempting to define what they mean draw on the ideas of Dewey when they suggest that being a reflective teacher involves

a willingness to engage in constant self-appraisal and development. Among other things it implies flexibility, rigorous analysis and social awareness.

The teacher who is effective in recognising his or her own strengths and weaknesses and hopefully changing those weaknesses into strengths often has several well-developed characteristics. These might include: the ability to continuously monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice; approaching their job with an open mind; basing their judgement as teachers on insights gained from many educational disciplines and enhancing the fulfilment and dialogue with colleagues (Horne & Brown 1997:108).

Smith (1994:1) suggests that the most effective teachers have learned from their successes and failures and have always been capable of identifying their own strengths and weaknesses. This process of reflection and self-evaluation leading to action should be part of any teacher's professional development especially now that teachers are becoming accountable to more people. Smith goes on to state that in many ways self-evaluation is a personal analysis that can be stimulating and invigorating, emphasising effective skills, and those that need developing.

The appraisee needs to know what needs to be appraised, what the weaknesses are and what strengths an appraiser should recognise. Without being part of the process and without having taken the opportunity to be self-critical, the initial discussion before the more traumatic event of classroom observation may well be less effective and perhaps weaken the whole appraisal process (Smith 1995:164).

As external demands for quality in education became prevalent, the early leaders of the outcomes assessment movement determined that assessment should serve two purposes. Assessment should show that schools are achieving their intended outputs (the accountability function) and it should provide information that permits school and administrators to improve when they do (the improvement function) (Chafee & Sherr 1992:83-84).

Appraisal is a fundamentally significant process in the context of quality management. Appraisal of managers and teachers in schools may be said to have three essential purposes (Horne & Brown 1997:116):

- Recognition and reinforcement of success and consolidation of effective practice.
- Diagnosis of professional development and training needs.
- Negotiations of personal targets which identify personal responsibility for the implementation of school objectives.

Appraisal is usually operated in an hierarchical way. Thus, at each stage of the school hierarchy there is a clear responsibility to translate the school's mission and objectives into practical outcomes which lead to change. Appraisal is a vehicle for translating principle into practice (West-Burnham 1992:81-82).

Appraisals should not be viewed as a series of perfunctory events, but as a continuous and systematic process intended to help teachers with their professional development and career planning, and to help ensure that the in-service training and deployment of teachers matches the complementary needs of individual teachers and schools. Appraisal schemes shall be designed to (Bayne-Jardine & Holly 1994:37):

- help teachers to identify ways of enhancing their professional skills and performance.
- assist in planning the in-service training and professional development of teachers individually and collectively.
- help individual teachers, their principals, governing bodies and local education authorities to see where a new or modified assignment would help the professional development of individual teachers and improve their career prospects.
- identify the potential of teachers for career development, with the aim of helping them where possible through appropriate in-service training.
- provide help to teachers having difficulties with their performance, through appropriate guidance, counselling and training.
- inform those responsible for providing references for teachers in relation to appointments.
- enhance the overall management of school.

The introduction of an effective system of teacher appraisal will rely on the extent to which the school has been successful in (Bayne-Jardine & Holly 1994:40):

- building trust and understanding about the system through a genuine process of consultation with all participants in the scheme.
- presenting a clear and concise statement of the aims of the appraisal scheme and the means to be employed to achieve them.
- establishing a match between the design of the scheme and its stated outcomes.
- providing effective training in preparation for the scheme and subsequently during its formative stages.

The literature on appraisal has highlighted the following key issues (Bayne-Jardine & Holly 1994:41):

- There needs to be commitment and support from the government and the school for the process.
- The purpose of the scheme must be clearly defined and argued.
- The scheme must reflect the differing context in which teachers work.
- The process should be evolutionary.
- The system should be fully understood by all involved in it.
- All staff within the organisation should be appraised.
- Job descriptions should be mutually agreed and updated.
- The process should start with self-appraisal participation.
- Observation of classroom processes should be a central part of the process.
- The appraisal discussion should concentrate on performance in defined areas and not on personality.
- There should be mutually agreed targets for the forthcoming year followed by a review discussion.
- There should be open, frank and immediate feedback to the appraisee.
- Training in the skills of interviewing and observations are required.
- Formal appraisal should be an ongoing process.

Handled unfeelingly, appraisal can lead to frustration, self-justification and demotivation of teachers, resulting in a service which does not meet the needs of its clients. Handled with sensitivity, performance appraisal has the potential to aid the development of teachers and

schools. Moreover, it can provide a vehicle and structure which allows schools, areas, departments, as well as individuals within them, to respond effectively to current curriculum development and other changes embodied in government legislation. Appraisal cannot exist in a vacuum. Its long term impact on the performance and development of teachers depends on the extent to which it can coordinate and bring coherence to major legislative changes as well as other forms of review and development (Bayne-Jardine & Holly 1994:46). Initiatives such as the appraisal of principals and teachers, whole-school review, school development planning and in-service training are all related but must be brought together with skill and precision if they are to really influence school improvement.

Smith (1994:50) offers a broad approach of observing what both teacher and learner are doing. He suggests the following checklist:

- Are books and artefacts displayed so that learners find them stimulating and exciting?
- Is the class managed in such a way that learners are encouraged to find and use appropriate resources without using up valuable teaching time?
- Is there evidence of appropriate teaching styles for differing curriculum purposes, for example, groups, individual, whole class, et cetera?
- Are there opportunities for learners to discuss their work with the teacher and other learners?
- Are questions asked and the problems set open-ended when appropriate?
- Are there opportunities for responses other than writing?
- Is continuity achieved between different activities?
- Does the teacher's personal style, that is, body language, frequency of shouting, position in the room, influence the ethos of the classroom?
- Is the teacher able to tell you what the children are doing, what they are learning and of what use that learning is?
- Is the teacher able to tell you what he or she is aiming for in his or her teaching, what he or she is learning from it and how this experience will be used in future practice?

Van der Westhuizen (1991:268) provides the following guidelines for the classroom visit:

- Punctuality. Keeping the appointment and being there in time not only shows good manners and professional etiquette but also shows respect for the teacher and for the situation to be evaluated.
- Make the teacher and children feel at ease and take an unobtrusive seat among the learners.
- Give your undivided attention and avoid interrupting the class. Stay in the classroom until the presentation is over.
- Thank the teacher and the class after the presentation for the privilege of being able to visit them.
- Discuss the presentation of the lesson as soon thereafter as possible. Ensure that there is sufficient time and a peaceful atmosphere for the discussion.
- On no account must the presentation be discussed in front of the learners.

2.6.2.2 Learner appraisal

The following principles can provide a good basis for effective approaches to assessment (Horne & Brown 1997:42). Assessment should:

- Be manageable. The assessment procedure should make teaching and learning more effective. If it is cumbersome with too much paperwork, it can hinder learner improvement as the teacher's energy is spent in chasing grades rather than teaching.
- Promote learning. All comments and records should be part of the learning process, so that individual learner and group progress can be tracked, and problems identified and dealt with.
- Be appropriate. Assessment will only be valid if the task set matches the specified learning outcomes and the needs of the individual learners.
- Involve learners. Learners need to feel involved in assessment if they are to have some ownership of the process. They need to understand the criteria by which they are being assessed, ideally with opportunities to really get to grips with them by asking lots of questions and rehearsing in trial tasks. This helps them to understand what they are supposed to be doing and encourages responsibility and independent learning.

- Motivate learners. Learners can be motivated by encouragement praise, clear and prompt feedback about how to improve the quality of their work and guidance about specific actions they need to take to remedy errors. Assessment can demotivate learners, because it concentrates largely or entirely on their faults and errors and correction of deficiencies.
- Reward effort. This is an integral part of motivation. Positive feedback that helps learners to understand fully what they have done well, and why it is considered to be good, will help to encourage learners to keep on working well. Positive feedback is equally important for learners of all ability levels.
- Be understood by all. Everyone involved needs to understand the criteria that have been used and the way that the results have been described. Learners and teachers need to understand the marks recording system fully, so that they can make sense of the information this provides.
- Ensure consistency. Staff and learners must be re-assured that assessment is being carried out in a way that treats all learners equally, so that everyone has an equivalent, if not identical, experience of the process.
- Be integral to curriculum design. All curriculum areas need to plan assessment methods and strategies into their curriculum planning.
- Help parents to be aware of children's progress.

Involving learners in their own assessment is good practice that helps ensure achievement for all. Involving learners is a classroom management technique which encourages self-sufficiency. Independence in learning is now a national curriculum requirement in South Africa.

Horne and Brown (1997:54-55) stated the following:

- As a department, identify areas where learners can be involved. Most departments can find some areas where it is possible for learners to be involved in their own and each other's assessment. It helps to have self-determination and it relieves the teacher of some assessment tasks.
- Be prepared to let go. Careful guidelines to learners help them take on some of the responsibility.

- Start with learner involvement in descriptive records. It is easier to start with learners keeping descriptive records relating to the types of tasks undertaken. In English departments, for example, learners can be asked to keep records of the books read, or in science departments, ask learners to record experiments they do. When learners are familiar with recording descriptive tasks, it is easier to progress to evaluation techniques.
- Gradually introduce evaluative tasks. It is not a very large step to add small evaluative tasks. “Why did you enjoy the book?” “How did the experiment work?” are simple questions to start the process. If this is done early on, introducing more complex evaluative tasks becomes a natural part of the education process.
- Give learners clear outlines of what you are assessing. It gives learners security to know exactly what is expected from them. Having started with basic tasks, gradually introduce more complex criteria - let them know what they are hoping to achieve and what indicators to look for in assessing that achievement.
- Get learners to swop pieces of work and mark each others’ work. Learners enjoy reading their friends’ work and quickly take on the responsibility. This is an excellent way of enabling learners to understand assessment criteria.
- Use exemplary material and carry out whole class activities of assessment. When the piece of work being analysed does not belong to them or their friends, it is easier to feel free to comment both encouragingly and constructively.
- Ask learners to set targets. These should be based on the assessment of any particular piece of work, its merits and its shortcomings. If learners understand and know the teacher’s expectation, it is easy to set themselves specific targets.
- Discourage general targets. Encourage learners to avoid general targets such as ‘I must try harder’ or ‘I must spend more time’. Ask them what they must try harder at or what they must spend more time on. Bear in mind the SMART criteria, which suggests that targets should be Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-constrained.
- Make sure learners assess a range of work. This will show them what the best in the class are capable of. This develops a self-awareness and a more realistic approach to their own work. It also raises an individual’s expectation.
- Give learners responsibility. In some assessment exercises insist that it is only the learner involvement that will go on record. This encourages involvement and self-respect.

Critical self-review is the first step in any appraisal system. It is also a necessary ingredient for any personal development. Without a self-review there can be neither individual improvement nor school improvement. Self-appraisal is therefore, a valuable process, not only as preparation for an individual's appraisal process, but as an ongoing, and continuous part of improving teaching and learning skills (Horne & Brown 1997:106).

2.6.2.3 *Whole-school evaluation*

The South African government introduced the National Policy for Whole-School Evaluation (DOE 2000). This complements other quality assurance initiatives conducted under the aegis of systemic evaluations, namely, accreditation of providers, programme and service reviews and monitoring learning achievements. It is designed to ensure that school evaluation is carried out according to an agreed national model. The purpose is to determine what is to be evaluated and who can carry out evaluations. It aspires to be in line with the developmental appraisal of educators. In this case good schools are recognised and under-performing schools supported. It improves the overall quality of education and ensures that all our children are given an equal opportunity to make the best use of their capabilities.

As a process, whole-school evaluation is meant to be supportive and developmental rather than punitive and judgmental. Its main purpose is to facilitate improvement of school performance through approaches characterised by partnership, collaboration, mentoring and guidance. There is a built-in mechanism for reporting findings and providing feedback to the school and to various stakeholders, for example, parents and society generally on the level of performance achieved by schools. It also provides the means by which schools can carry out self-evaluation and so enter into a fruitful dialogue with supervisors and support services. Whole-school evaluation is the first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement. Whole-school evaluation encapsulates school self-improvement as well as external evaluation. It also provides for schools to receive advice and support in their continual effort to improve their effectiveness (DoE 2000).

Whole-school evaluation is the cornerstone of the quality assurance system in schools. Schools and external supervisors are enabled to provide an account of current performance and to show

to what extent the school meets national goals and needs of public and communities. Achievements of a school are acknowledged and areas that need attention are identified.

2.6.3 Summary

Self-evaluation, self-knowledge and the ability to constantly learn from experience are some of the keys to successful teaching and the effective management of schools. In order to plan for both the present and the future and to make appropriate choices, all those who work in schools should aim to understand themselves and know how to relate to colleagues in a way which enhances the professional development of everyone. Just as self-evaluation should be a key part of everyone's appraisal process, it should also be important in examining an individual's role in the management of the school. Positive relationships with colleagues are obviously important and can influence the smooth running of the school and the success of any changes that have to be managed. The art of assessment is to find the best ways to assess what you really want to assess at the right time, so that assessment is valid, reliable, manageable and fit for purpose (Smith 1995:175).

2.7 CONCLUSION

It was indicated in the research that educational management is an all-encompassing action and a specific type of work in education which is intrawoven and interwoven with certain contemporal and successive coherences (Van der Westhuizen 1991:61). There are many factors which can contribute to the debate on what good management is. Successful schools do not just happen. They are effective and popular because all those who work in them have a commitment to making them so. Leadership, teamwork and sound management structures all go together to promote an attitude in schools in disadvantaged environments where constant professional effort helps them to move forward at a time of rapid, frequent and seemingly never-ending change. If we are to promote and ensure high quality learning, the management of schools in disadvantaged environments has to build on its current expertise and develop effective strategies for the future (Smith 1995:226).