I declare that A SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN: THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL HEAD IN BOTSWANA is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

A SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN: THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL HEAD IN BOTSWANA

B. MOSWELA

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

PROMOTER: DR R J BOTHA.

(B Moswela)
21 May, 2001

The Registrar
UNISA
P.O. Box 392
PRETORIA

Dear Sir/Madam

I enclose three copies of my thesis entitled A School Development Plan: The Role of the School Head in Botswana. One copy is not bound. The other two are.

Yours faithfully

Bernard Moshwela
SUMMARY OF THE THESIS

The study was carried out to investigate the role of the secondary school head in Botswana in respect to four themes, namely: staff development; classroom supervision; school culture building; and conflict management.

Basically, school development planning was defined as a strategy that can be employed to improve the teaching and learning processes. This could be achieved by on-going staff development programmes that equip staff with new knowledge and new classroom teaching techniques. Details of strategies that could be used to achieve this were examined and discussed in this thesis.

Two chapters of the literature review were made in this thesis. Chapter II (Part I) made a direct link between the literature review and the research questions on the main topic of this thesis. Chapter III (Part II) on the other hand provided, a comparative analysis of school development planning between Botswana (as the focal point) and the United Kingdom and Australia (as examples). The analysis was concerned with three issues of: human capacity; budget allocation and its control; and accountability. The inclusion of this second chapter on the literature analysis was to add weight and to raise the analytical standard of the thesis.

Closed responses and open-ended questionnaires were used to gather data. A total of 60 respondents comprising heads and teachers from 10 junior and five senior secondary schools participated in the investigation. Summaries of the findings from both the empirical and theoretical components for each of the themes are that:
• There cannot be development without developing the developer.
• Classroom supervision is essential because it provides the basis for staff
development and subsequently improved teaching.
• School development planning must be a staff co-operative effort leading to the
formation of a sustainable school culture of working teams.
• Conflict is always there in organizations, what is important, however, is for the
administrator to manage it such that it benefits the organization.

Basically, the empirical and theoretical components, supported each other on the
majority of issues.

The United Kingdom and Australia, being developed countries, do not experience the
problems of funding, staffing, and other supportive resources to effectively implement
school development planning to the extent of Botswana.

**Key terms which describe the topic of the thesis.**

- Staff development
- Supervision
- Culture
- Conflict
- School development planning
- School effectiveness
- School improvement
- Budget
- Staffing
- Accountability
- Principal/Headteacher/School Head
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am indebted to the following people who immensely contributed towards this thesis in many important ways:

DR R J (Nico) Botha, my promoter, for his invaluable professional guidance of the thesis. I extend my love to my wife, Boitshoko, for having been at my helm throughout the period of my study and for having facilitated my studies in many more ways than one. Professor John Honey most willingly and professionally edited the thesis. I owe him immense gratitude.

My gratitude also goes to my son Khumo, my two daughters Kushatha and Kudzani and to Olivia, my brother’s daughter, for offering the technical skills of the computer I did not possess. Thanks to my other daughter Kuneni who was often by my side very much unconscious of the moral boost she was giving me.

My visits to UNISA would have been extremely difficult had it not been for the company of my brother-in-law Kenanao Losho. Josiah and Monty, my brothers, C B Mahube, my uncle, and a friend Dr Mgadla who are all educationists and academicians, have always encouraged me to ‘soldier on’. Their encouragement is appreciated. When I most needed someone to talk to about studies at that level, Pedzani Monyatsi, a fellow UNISA student, was always available. My gratitude to him. My thanks are also due to Isobella Roberts, a former school management advisor in secondary schools (Botswana) for her suggestion to me to consider school development planning as a possible thesis topic.
My late parents - Mbuke and Moswela - though they did not specifically encourage me to pursue a doctoral degree, their inspiration to their sons to value education has somewhat influenced my decision to enroll for the degree.

This thesis could not have been possible without the support and cooperation of my colleagues in secondary schools - the teachers and school heads - who so willingly participated as respondents to the empirical survey. Their names are just too many to list here.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## CHAPTER I

**ORIENTATION TO STUDY**

1.1 Background to study ......................................................... 1
1.2 Actuality of research .......................................................... 11
1.3 Statement of problem ......................................................... 14
1.4 Objectives of study ............................................................. 16
1.5 Methodology and methods ................................................... 16
1.5.2 Population ........................................................................ 18
1.5.3 Sampling procedures ....................................................... 18
1.6 Planning the study ............................................................... 19
1.6.1 Staff development ............................................................ 20
1.6.2 Supervision of classroom activities ................................... 20
1.6.3 School culture building ..................................................... 21
1.6.4 Conflict management ....................................................... 22
1.7 Definitions of terms ............................................................ 23
1.8 Conclusion ........................................................................... 24

## CHAPTER II

**LITERATURE REVIEW (PART I): SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

2.1 Introduction ........................................................................ 26
2.2 Concept of a school development plan .................................. 27
2.2.1 Construction of a shared vision ......................................... 30
2.2.2 Review of current practice ............................................... 35
2.2.3 Establishing priorities ................................................................. 36
2.2.4 Action planning ................................................................. 38
2.2.5 Taking action ................................................................. 38
2.2.6 Evaluation ................................................................. 40
2.3 Staff development ................................................................. 44
2.3.1 Delegation ................................................................. 54
2.3.2 School-based workshops ..................................................... 58
2.3.3 Resource by a colleague in the same school ...................... 58
2.3.4 Resource by a teacher from another school ...................... 59
2.3.5 Consultancy ................................................................. 60
2.4 Supervision of classroom activities ........................................... 63
2.4.1 The classroom as the centre of instruction ......................... 63
2.4.2 The school head as instructional leader ......................... 64
2.4.3 The school head as facilitator ........................................... 66
2.4.4 Teacher empowerment ...................................................... 68
2.4.5 Need to discuss lesson plan ............................................. 69
2.4.6 Need to delegate classroom supervision ............................... 71
2.5 School culture ................................................................. 74
2.5.1 How culture, vision and values impact on one another .......... 75
2.5.2 Situational approach to school culture ............................... 79
2.5.3 Promoting effective learning ........................................... 84
2.5.4 The effect of staff turn-over on school culture .................... 85
2.5.5 Strategies for culture building for school improvement ...... 87
2.5.5.1 Induction ................................................................. 87
2.5.5.2 Teams ................................................................. 88
2.5.5.3 Punctuality for school ............................................. 94
2.5.5.4 Recognition of students’ academic achievement .......... 94
2.6 Conflict management ................................................................. 97
2.6.1 Causes of conflicts ............................................................... 98
2.6.2 Value of conflicts ................................................................. 99
2.6.3 Strategies for resolving conflicts .......................................... 102
2.6.4 Strategies: specific examples ............................................. 105
   2.6.4.1 Compromise strategy .................................................. 105
   2.6.4.2 Collaborative strategy .................................................. 107
2.7 Conclusion ............................................................................. 110

CHAPTER III ................................................................. 115

LITERATURE REVIEW (PART II): SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN THE UK, AUSTRALIA AND BOTSWANA CONTEXTS: A COMPARATIVE REVIEW ANALYSIS

3.1 Introduction ........................................................................ 115
   3.1.1 Human capacity ............................................................. 115
   3.1.2 Budget allocation and control ....................................... 116
   3.1.3 Accountability .............................................................. 116
3.2 School development planning in the UK and Australia:
   A Background .......................................................................... 117
   3.2.1 School development planning in the UK ....................... 119
   3.2.2 School development planning in Australia .................... 123
3.3 The introduction of school development planning
   in Botswana ........................................................................... 129
3.4 Human capacity for school development planning in Botswana in relationship to the UK and Australia ..................................................... 133
   3.4.1 Qualification for school head to lead school development
CHAPTER IV ................................................................................. 168

RESEARCH DESIGN: METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

4.1 Introduction ................................................................................. 168
4.2 Sampling ................................................................................... 173
4.2.1 Rationale for schools sampling ................................................. 177
4.2.2 How the study subjects were selected ....................................... 178
4.2.3 Summary of sampling ................................................................. 180
4.2.3.1 Research participants ............................................................... 180
4.2.3.2 Criteria for involving participants............................................. 181
4.3 Data collection ............................................................................ 182
4.3.1 Rationale for using a closed response questionnaire ................. 184
CHAPTER V ............................................................ 196

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction ......................................................... 196
5.2 Presentation of empirical findings ......................... 197
5.2.1 Closed-response questionnaire (Appendix I) .............. 197
5.2.1.1 Staff development ................................................. 198
5.2.1.2 Classroom supervision .......................................... 203
5.2.1.3 School culture building ........................................ 206
5.2.1.4 Conflict management .......................................... 209
5.2.1.5 Other ................................................................. 211
CHAPTER VI ................................................................. 251
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS
6.1 Introduction ................................................................. 251
6.2 Staff development .......................................................... 252
6.2.1 School head’s training needs ........................................... 252
6.2.2 Who should be trained? ................................................... 254
6.2.3 On what should training be based? ..................................... 257
6.2.4 Who should conduct workshops? ....................................... 258
6.3 Classroom supervision .................................................... 261
6.3.1 Importance of classroom supervision ................................. 261
6.3.2 Views on experienced teachers with regard to classroom supervision ................................................... 262
6.3.3 Implications of head’s duties on classroom supervision .......... 265
6.4 School culture building .................................................... 267
6.4.1 Collaboration ............................................................... 268
6.4.2 Recognition ................................................................. 270
6.4.3 Team teaching/peer observation ....................................... 271
6.4.4 Situational approach to culture ........................................ 272
6.5 Conflict management ....................................................... 276
6.5.1 Favouritism ................................................................. 278
6.5.2 Personal differences ....................................................... 279
6.5.3 Gossip ................................................................. 279
6.5.4 Approach to conflict ......................................................... 280
6.6 Conclusion ........................................................................... 282
6.6.1 Staff development ............................................................ 283
6.6.2 Classroom supervision ..................................................... 284
6.6.3 School culture building .................................................... 285
6.6.4 Conflict management ....................................................... 286

CHAPTER VII ............................................................................. 288
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
7.1 Introduction ........................................................................ 288
7.2 Conclusions ....................................................................... 289
7.3 Recommendations ............................................................. 295
7.4 Closing remarks ............................................................... 303

APPENDICES
APPENDIX 1 .............................................................................. 305
APPENDIX 11 ............................................................................ 311
APPENDIX 111 ......................................................................... 312
APPENDIX 1V .......................................................................... 322
APPENDIX V ............................................................................. 330
APPENDIX V1 ......................................................................... 331

BIBLIOGRAPHY ....................................................................... 332
CHAPTER I

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND TO STUDY

School development planning was first introduced in the Botswana Secondary Education system in January 1993. It was introduced under the auspices of the Secondary Schools Management Project which was sponsored by the British Overseas Development Agency (ODA). Six British officers spearheaded the project, one as team leader, to work as secondary school management advisor. For each British officer, including the team leader, there was to be a carefully selected Botswana counterpart (British Council 1991:1) who would take over when the British counterpart eventually leaves. The team leader held the post of School Head Advisor and was posted at headquarters in Gaborone. Each of the other five officers served in a region as School Management Advisor. The project, which was to end in December 1995, took two more years, ending in 1997. The Botswana counterparts have since localized the posts. Some of the objectives of the project according to (British Council 1991:1-2) were:

- To raise the standard of secondary school management in Botswana, and to ensure that all school resources (human, physical, financial, and material) are used carefully and cost-effectively. This would be ensured by providing systematic professional support and training for school heads and deputies on a regional basis.
- To improve school teaching/learning conditions and create educational opportunities for students and teachers in terms of optimizing the use of teaching time and the physical and human resources.
• To initiate, plan and implement a structured programme of pre-service training by producing support materials appropriate to secondary school management development in Botswana.

There is in every region a minimum of 43 junior and senior secondary schools (Republic of Botswana 1997:12). Regular and effective monitoring of the development planning activities in schools by one school management advisor is therefore difficult to do single-handed. The task of regular monitoring then unavoidably becomes the responsibility of the supervisor at the scene of operation, that is, the school head. The circumstances and demands of the school development planning, particularly with regard to school staff development, instructional supervision, culture building, and conflict resolution, are therefore a big challenge to the managerial capabilities of the head (Roberts 1994:3-5).

The school head's managerial tasks are made even more difficult by the general perception held by teachers about management. This perception is that management is not a group function, rather, it is an individual's task, practised by the school head alone (Bottery 1992:91). An example is given of a school head who unsuccessfully tried to involve teachers in management tasks other than their usual classroom practices. Teachers remarked: Just leave us alone, so that we can do what we are supposed to do - teach children (Bottery 1992:91). This statement has connotations of hostility and resentment. Such reactions could be due to a work relationship that exists between the head and the teachers. It could also be triggered by the belief among teachers that the head earns more money than they do, has a more glamorous title and enjoys more status in the community than most teachers do (Weinbach 1990:4) and therefore must earn these ‘perks’ by performing management functions alone.
To further illustrate such a perception: at one secondary school in Botswana, teachers unanimously agreed on a decision to end examinations two weeks before schools closed that term. During the two weeks, after the examinations, students' absenteeism from school and late arrival for classes became a matter of concern. Also, the teachers did not find it easy to control the students in class. The students simply adopted a lax attitude towards lessons. Although the teachers were privy to the decision to end the examinations two weeks before the end of term, blamed the students' behaviour on the school head. In order to avoid a repeat of that situation, the end-of-term examinations for the following term were ended on the closing day so that teaching time should not be wasted. Still, the school administration, in this case the school head, was accused of being insensitive to the teachers' needs. Teachers charged that they needed time to mark the examination scripts before schools closed so that they could take their full holiday. This scenario emphasizes that indeed there are some teachers who strongly hold that management or discipline is the sole responsibility of heads and who believe that their duties should be confined strictly to teaching and not even to extend to class discipline.

The perception by Bottery that heads manage, and which also implies that teachers should be restricted to classroom teaching only, does not augur well for school improvement generally nor does it help develop the individual teacher in the profession. Teachers can gain useful experience and develop professionally by doing additional school tasks other than classroom teaching. Social workers in Weinbach (1990:4) are of a view similar to that held by Bottery that management is the business of the manager alone and is not for subordinates. Weinbach (1990:5), however disagrees with the social workers' view. Management, he
contains, is a group function that involves all workers in the organization. Further, he says, management is not the sole responsibility of a certain elite group of senior individuals in an organization such as directors, administrators or managers (ibid.).

While the author of this thesis does not necessarily support the view that managers manage and that subordinates should perform only specified tasks, such a view may find support from the managerial behaviour of some managers or administrators. Some managers believe in making decisions without consulting their junior officers and then require the decisions to be implemented without questioning their rationale. In this regard, statements such as 'managers manage and teachers teach' cannot therefore be simply dismissed as unfounded or as myths. Also, where one person makes a decision, without general participation, there usually prevails in the organization a 'we-they' dichotomy. People begin to speak in terms of 'his/her' decision rather than 'our' decision. This is particularly the case when the implementation of 'his/her' decision fails to work.

In schools, teachers who are of the view that management is for the head only fail to see the important relation between their involvement in school decision-making and their classroom practices. Ironically, it is this type of teachers who, when faced with classroom discipline problems, run to management for help. It is argued here that if teachers work in isolation, independent from each other, and from the school management, teaching and learning cannot take place properly. Each party dearly needs the other. To be able to make informed decisions that can benefit the teaching/learning processes, the school head needs feedback on the behaviour of the students from the teachers.
However, there are teachers who do not consider their tasks as ending in the classroom. Given the opportunity, encouragement and the right support, they are always willing to do extra duties. While some may accept additional responsibilities mainly for reasons of self-development in the job, others do it for recognition and for consideration for job promotion. Some among them do it for both reasons.

The introduction of the school development plan in Botswana Secondary Schools came as a challenge to school heads to diversify their approaches in the running of schools. School heads need to know and appreciate that good management, accomplished at all levels in the school, can contribute greatly to achieving students' performances (Dunham 1995:46-47). The involvement or non-involvement of teachers in the school decisions can serve either to support or frustrate the delivery of effective teaching and learning. For example, a decision jointly made by the head and the teachers and well communicated to the students regarding the giving of rewards to high achievers has a higher chance of success than a decision made by the head alone. By involving teachers in school decisions, the head can gradually get rid of the 'we-they' dichotomy as 'they' may begin to appreciate their involvement and may start to speak in terms of 'our' and not 'their' or 'his/hers'.

In this study, strategies that are regarded as contributing to effective school management and performances are explored. For example, the building of staff teams that will be able to develop shared visions and shared responsibilities of school issues is discussed. The development of teams that have the ability to develop shared visions . . . , brings in the element of training the teachers to
improve their quality of thinking and improving their capacity for reflection and team learning (Fullan 1993:98).

The need for collaborative effort was indirectly emphasized by the National President of Botswana when he addressed the Commission on the long-term vision on Botswana entitled 'Vision 2016 and Prosperity For All', in July 1997. He underscored and described the sense of the country's education system as undergoing a metamorphosis. And indeed it is. The curriculum reforms, the physical and numerical expansion of secondary schools, the change from the two-year to the three-year Junior Certificate programme, the change from the three-year Cambridge Overseas School Certificate curriculum to the two-year Botswana General Certificate for Secondary Education curriculum at the senior level and the paradox of admitting more students into the secondary education system while at the same time emphasizing quality education (Republic of Botswana 1993:142 and 167) are some of the challenges of an education system undergoing a metamorphosis.

The expansion of the Botswana Secondary School system necessitates teacher involvement and participation in the things that affect them in their job. As Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1992:157) put it, the catchwords in educational reform nowadays are visioning together, teacher empowerment, interactive development and collegiality. Implicit in the educational reforms mentioned above is the teacher-empowerment factor. That is, the realization by the school head that teachers are key players in the life of the school. They can influence the course of events to a greater extent than in the past (Caldwell 1992:13) and their involvement must not be ignored.
The exclusion of teachers from involvement in decisions on the affairs of the school is now a thing of the past, at least as far as the things that affect them directly (and indeed a lot of things in the school affect teachers directly). The need for teachers' active participation in the decision-making processes of the school should not be neglected. Studies conducted on American high schools by Rutter, Maugham, Mortimore and Ouston (1979), Lurkin (1985) and Casner-Lotto (1987) on students' behaviour confirm a correlation between teachers' active involvement in school decision-making and students' behaviour and achievement (Moswela 1995: 7-8).

Taylor and Bogotch (1994:77) hold a similar view to this. They say that if teachers are happy because they see themselves as having a significant say in the school decision-making process, they do their work well. This, they say, has a positive effect on students' behaviour and achievement. Vandalism, gangs, and fighting substantially declined, students' attendance improved, drop-outs were significantly reduced and school achievement improved, (Taylor et al. 1994:77-78).

Irvine (1995:1), a school management advisor in Botswana stresses, in his paper, the sense of collaborative effort as follows: It is vital to understand that school development planning is a collaborative exercise. This means that a head, or a head and deputy together, cannot devise a whole school development plan and publish it to the staff as a final product which they have to implement. Ownership of the school development plan by the staff is extremely important.

Beare et al. (1992:157) further emphasize the need to have the input and effort of all involved in the implementation of the development plan. That is, it requires the head to work closely with and through others to achieve to the greatest extent
possible a quality education for all students. Involving teachers in school developing planning is highly necessary because quite often it is the teachers who possess technical information rather than the head. The decisions should also come from those who possess information instead of looking at those with authority. Such an approach to the implementation of the school development plan is likely to enhance genuine ownership of the plan by the teachers.

OBrien (1979:7) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:17) have a similar point of view to that of Irvine and Beare et al. They hold that the successful achievement of the goals of school development relies, to a considerable extent, on the understanding that management is not a unique task of those on leadership positions only. Rather it is a shared responsibility of all those who are involved in the school. To this extent, (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1991:12) further say, participation by all involved is crucial at the planning stage. This is the level that requires that teachers should know why they are being asked to contribute. It is here that the plan should be made as successful as possible since it is where real success can be built upon. OBrien's (1979:7-8) perspective below appropriately summarizes the sense of a head who adopts a collaborative management posture thus: *His role becomes less that of the master of the school and more of a servant of the learners . . . . The principal's task will become that of ensuring the smooth management of learning environments.*

Also, the Botswana Secondary School curriculum and its administration, like those in many countries the world over, is run and controlled through central government at the Department of Education. Restrictions are made on management practices to all schools through the 1967 Education Act (1967:58:01:2) which lucidly states that: *An act to provide for the proper development of education and for matters incidental thereof or connected*
therewith shall be followed. Compliance to this act is ensured by an extensive inspectorial system that monitors and evaluates the educational activities in schools.

However, the rapid upsurge in recent years in school sizes and numbers without a corresponding growth in the inspectorial unit in the Ministry of Education, has affected the effectiveness and efficiency of school inspection. In 1980 there were seventeen senior secondary schools and ten junior secondary schools in Botswana with a student roll of 15435 and 2890 respectively. The seventeen senior secondary schools were unified schools (form 1 to form 5). This accounts for the seemingly higher students' roll in the senior secondary schools than in the junior secondary schools. The number of senior secondary schools grew to twenty seven in 1995 while in the junior secondary it rose to 177 in the same year. The corresponding students' rolls in 1995 were 32242 for the senior secondary schools and 70917 for the junior secondary schools (Republic of Botswana 1995:12).

Any expectations and assumptions, therefore, that complete and effective control of these schools can be managed from the top is simply an illusion (Fullan 1993:100). Central government simply no longer has the capacity in terms of the human, physical and time resources to do so. Even if the resource conditions allowed, it would be professionally unethical and devaluing to the school head and the teacher to rely on 'outsiders' to meet the curriculum needs of the students. The present sizes of Botswana secondary schools, coupled with the need to expedite functions at school level, now requires that conditions be created for schools to develop their own capacities to run themselves on a daily basis without feeling inhibited or threatened by an impending inspection. But while some
autonomy is being advocated for schools, on the other hand, school inspection exercises should continue as they provide checks and balances on what goes on in schools. Also, inspection can be useful as an antidote to complacency for both the school top management and teachers and even for the inspectors themselves.

The schools' growth in sizes and numbers has brought with it growing and varied ability ranges among students. There is need for a differentiated and specialized teaching approach to address this new challenge (Republic of Botswana 1997:14). The individual students' academic strengths and weaknesses are becoming better diagnosed and attended to by the teacher. It is only ethical and appropriate therefore for the teacher to develop for his/her students, remedial teaching strategies that would appropriately address the problem of wide ability ranges.

The idea of letting go of some of the powers and functions that reside in central government to schools should not however, be regarded as an advocacy of a loose educational system without control. Control it must have, but the school head as the 'centre of gravity' in the context of a school development plan, needs a substantial but reasonable degree of autonomy and flexibility to explore and effect school management practices as long as he or she is operating within the ambit of the central management bureaucratic requirements or within the national policies and initiatives. Caldwell (1992:11) sums up this idea thus: . . . schools to be empowered to manage their own affairs within a centrally-determined framework of direction and support.

A school development plan is intended to improve the quality of teaching and learning processes in a school through improved management practices. It can, if properly introduced and handled by the head, enable the school to organize what
it is already doing and what it needs to do in a more purposeful and coherent way (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1991:3).

1.2 ACTUALITY OF RESEARCH

A school development plan helps the school to set out its strategies clearly for achieving better outcomes in terms of effective learning programmes and efficient management (Dimmock 1990:198). This study is about improving the quality of education in schools. A school development plan, as a strategy meant to improve the teaching and learning processes, has assumed a mainstream perspective and is at the centre stage of discussions on school effectiveness in developing and developed countries.

In Australian schools, though the different states use different nomenclature to refer to the strategy, the basic principle is the same. The aim is that of improving the delivery of education to the students through improved teaching methods. In Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia it is called school development plan. In the Victorian and the Northern Territories, the strategy is known as school renewal plan, whereas in New South Wales it is referred to as school improvement plan (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:27). At least in Britain, America and Denmark, the school development plan is one of the modern strategies that is used to raise the standard of education in schools. In England and Wales for example, Inspectors are using the school's development plan and associated documentation as the basis of the school's planning and management, and expecting clear evidence that what is in the plan is actually being implemented and evaluated (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:3).
When first introduced in Botswana, a school development plan was not obligatory to schools. Rather it was advisory. However, it is becoming very clear, although there is no written policy on it as yet, that a school development plan will soon become mandatory to schools. For example during their rounds of school inspection, inspectors insist upon the physical document. Also, school management advisors schedule school visits on school development plans and require schools to adhere to the plans. These are some of the gradual moves and indicators to have school development plans eventually made mandatory in schools.

Not only are development plans considered important by those who directly monitor the performance of secondary schools, their importance is also recognized by other sections of the Ministry of Education. For example, in its advertisement for the Masters of Education awards, the Department of Teacher Training and Development emphasized to applicants that: *They should also show evidence that they have been actively involved in Staff Development Programmes at their current schools, preferably as Staff Development Coordinators or members of Staff Development Committee* (Republic of Botswana 1995:1).

Also, the study is relevant and significant in that the present Botswana Secondary Education system is undergoing structural and curriculum reforms as already mentioned, the junior secondary school shifted from a two-year to a three-year programme of schooling (Republic of Botswana 1993:147-154). The senior secondary school changed its structure, effective from 1998, from three years to two years of schooling (Republic of Botswana 1993:166-170). New syllabi to cater for the wider abilities and interests of students are being developed following the introduction of the national curriculum and increased students
enrolments. The overall aim of the curriculum changes is to provide for lifelong education which will prepare Batswana for the transition from a traditional agro-based economy to an industrial economy that the country aspires to (Republic of Botswana 1998:2).

A curriculum change such as the one described above requires the re-training of teachers in order for them to cope with new classroom management and teaching strategies that are inevitable. A change in the curriculum affects all the teachers and therefore it is not feasible to take away all the teachers from the school for re-training at the same time. Teaching has to continue while teachers are at the same time being re-trained. This could be achieved by designing staff development programmes in such a way that they take place in the afternoons when there are no lessons. Development planning is more than just the school head's ability to involve teachers in implementing a centralized reform initiative. It is also about the head's ability to identify and use teachers' talents to generate new ideas for new strategies. This is consistent with one of the aims of a development plan, that is, to tap local talent and use it to benefit others. This can be achieved through workshops led by fellow-teachers with special talent. School management advisors encourage individual schools to come up with something different provided the ideas are congruent with the central national policy governing education. In the words of Irvine (1995:6): The School Development Plan is not such a fixed and permanent structure that it cannot be altered during the year. It should be thought of as having the flexibility to accommodate sudden and urgent new needs, as well as having strategies changed if new and better ways of achieving an objective are seen.
The sense of tapping talent for new ideas and new strategies implied in the above perspective by Irvine is very pertinent for the school head. Since this study focuses on the role of the head and his or her managerial practices, the theories discussed and the recommendations made as a result should have some significance in strengthening the position of the head particularly over the internal organization of the school as he or she strives to make the school functionally 'ticking'. The study should also enhance any changes and innovations which may have already been started by schools through school development planning.

Since the concept of a school development plan was only introduced in 1993 in Botswana secondary schools, it is therefore relatively new to teachers, school administrators and to other educational practitioners involved with the provision of education on a daily basis. It is hoped that the study will add to a body of knowledge in educational management, at least to the knowledge of the researcher. Future researchers on the subject, including research leading to higher academic qualification, may make reference to this study. In this sense, the study is regarded as relevant to the general educational reform in Botswana.

1.3 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM
The following questions are central to this study. What is the role of the school head in the school development plan with regard to:

- staff development?
- the supervision of classroom activities?
- school culture building?
- conflict management?
The above themes were chosen for the following reasons:

The successful role of the school head in the supervision of the implementation of a school development plan can be achieved through many ways. Four factors have been chosen, which, in the opinion of the researcher, are central in arguing the role of the school head in a school development plan.

The reason for the introduction of the school development plan in secondary schools in Botswana was to raise the standards of teaching and learning. In order to improve the quality of teaching, first the areas which need to be improved should be identified. These needs assessment can best be conducted in the classroom where the teaching activities mostly happens. One effective way to do this is through classroom supervision by the school senior management. Appropriate inservice training for teachers to address the identified shortcomings can then follow. Hence the researcher’s choice of staff development and classroom supervision as some of the important themes for the study.

Teachers need to plan teaching strategies together if effective learning is to take place. As they interact with each other during this cooperative planning, differences in personal and/or group goals and opinions may trigger conflicts between them. When this happens, it becomes necessary for the leader to intervene before the conflicts can become dysfunctional to the aims of the school. This can be more easily achieved if, in the organization, there exists a culture of team-work and a sense of togetherness among the staff. The choice of school culture and conflict management as important themes to the study was made in this context.
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study is to investigate and discuss the role of the school head in managing the school development plan. In examining the main theme, relevant sub-themes naturally emerge. Particular focus on them is made to:

- investigate and critique the role of the head in staff development.
- investigate and argue the head's role in a school development plan with regard to the supervision of classroom activities.
- identify and discuss factors contributing to a school culture that can support the school development plan.
- investigate and discuss factors contributing to group conflict in a school set-up.

1.5 METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

1.5.1 Data collection:

The topic under study has extensive literature distributed in books and journals. Substantial contributions have been made by authorities in the areas of school development plans, school improvement and school effectiveness. These different terminologies are used by different writers to mean the same thing, that is, the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning. In America for example, development plans initiatives are referred to as creating school effectiveness (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:43). To this end, books and journals were generously used as important and reliable sources (by virtue of their publication) of literature study particularly in Chapters II and III to enhance the data collected using other methods.
To facilitate the collection of data in order to answer the research questions asked in 1.3 above, three investigative methods, which supported each other, were chosen as being the most suitable for this research. The three methods are the questionnaire, the semi-structured form and the interview. Questions on these methods were devised after drawing on ideas from the literature surveyed.

**The questionnaire:** It has the advantage of being fast and efficient at collecting large amounts of information using many respondents without much cost involved. Its disadvantage, however, is in its relatively lower rate of response return. The questionnaire consisted of one response questions in the Likert-type scale.

**The semi-structured form:** This was preferred in that it allows respondents to express themselves at some length, but offering enough expression to prevent aimless rambling (Preedy 1989:145).

The researcher decided to elicit respondents' perceptions by conducting a series of interviews with a sample of heads and teachers. However, the number of respondents involved in the interviews were less than those involved in the one-response questionnaires and than those involved in the semi-structured schedule. The same interview schedule was applied to both the heads and the teachers. The advantage of the interview as a strategy used for data-gathering over the other two methods used in this research is that it makes up for the possible problem of misinterpretation of the questions by the respondents. The interviewer and the interviewee are engaged in a face-to-face dialogue. In this case a clearer and broader perception of the problem under consideration is made. Also, it offers the researcher the chance to get more, and more specific, information on the study.
This is because both the interviewer and the interviewee are able to seek clarification from each other on the questions posed.

1.5.2 Population:

School heads and teachers were used in the study because they are the people, by the nature of their job, readily involved in school development plans. The desirable situation in schools is that the head and the teachers should work together right from the first stages of the development plan and throughout. If they work in isolated patterns, an excellent innovation like a development plan will fail (Sunday Times RSA 1996:12). The head and teachers should both identify the problems and together work out strategies to address them.

The researcher's self-imposed limitation to the research study population (the involvement of teachers and heads only) does not, however, affect the quality of the research. If anything it helps to bring the research into a sharper focus than if other school clientele had been involved. However, future researchers on the subject may want to extend the population to include the students, parents and others related to the business of education and schools on a regular basis.

1.5.3 Sampling procedures:

At the time of beginning the study in 1997, there were twenty-seven government and government aided senior secondary schools in Botswana. Five of these schools were selected for the study. During the same period, there were two hundred and five junior secondary schools. Ten schools from this group were selected for the study.
In each of the fifteen schools selected, the head and three teachers were involved in the study. One of the three teachers from each school was the coordinator of the staff development programme. The other remaining two were selected from those actively involved in the school development plan programme. The schools were selected on account of their performances in school development planning as recommended by the school management advisors in their respective regions. Also, in selecting the schools, a consideration of each school's location and its size relative to the others was made so as to obtain a representative sample of the schools targeted for the study. Secondary schools in Botswana range from large to medium and small. By involving the different schools the study was not meant to be a comparative study of schools but meant to get perceptions of participants on the subject being pursued. However, the element of the individual head's active involvement in the school development plan, to strengthen the quality of responses, was not overlooked.

1.6 PLANNING THE STUDY

In Chapter II literature from various sources and relating to the topic under discussion was reviewed. From the arguments advanced and discussions made from the relevant literature, it was inevitable that sub-themes would emerge which the researcher thought relevant and which, if included, would enhance the quality of the discussion of the main theme. However, care was exercised that the discussion of the sub-themes should always border on the central aim of the thesis, that is, ‘the role of the school head in a school development plan’. Chapter II is divided into four sections as follows:
1.6.1 Staff development

The need for refresher courses, through nationally or regionally organized inservice training workshops or school-based workshops cannot be overemphasized and are any school's imperative in a school development plan process. By being exposed to workshops teachers are given the opportunity to gain new experience, ideas, information and new knowledge from colleagues and from resource persons. School-based and regional workshops are emphasized in this chapter because there is a limit to the number of teachers government can release for long-term courses at any one time.

School-based training seems a cheaper option and one which would not take teachers away from classes for long periods of time. Such workshops constitute staff-development programmes to a significant extent. To a head who is committed to the success of the school development plan, this is an area which he/she cannot afford to take lightly. However, the discussion on staff development is not only confined to one-off workshops at the school level but to external courses leading to certification or higher qualifications as well. The school head has a significant input here. Emphasis however, is on school-organized staff-development programmes.

1.6.2 Supervision of classroom activities

Workshops on school development plans are organized to equip participants with new teaching approaches that can improve the teaching and learning processes. It is, however, likely that some teachers may return from the workshops only to continue using old teaching methods, simply ignoring the new and more effective ones. As one teacher said: The state law says I have to use this teacher's manual.
But it doesn’t say how I have to use it. I’m using mine as a paperweight (Carlson and Ducharme 1987:932).

In the Botswana secondary schools there is a diverse group of teachers. Some do not have teaching qualifications. These are employed on temporary terms. Some are certificate or diploma holders but with considerable experience in the job, while some with similar qualifications have little or no teaching experience, having recently joined the service. Others are degree holders with short or long experience in the job. All teachers, whether qualified or not, whether having high or low qualification and whether experienced or inexperienced, will at one time or another need the help and advice of the school head. For such help and advice to be meaningful, the helper or advisor should know how the teacher is performing in the classroom. It is against this backdrop that the role of the head in classroom supervision is considered highly crucial if the intended goals of the school development plan are to be successfully accomplished.

1.6.3 School culture building
Discussions under this theme centre around the assumption that institutional success, such as in a school, heavily depends upon a climate of group effort and commitment to tasks by members. That is, if there is a strong collegiality coupled with a commitment to continuous improvement (Fullan 1992:23), success can be assured. In this section the role of the school head as a 'think tank' in a school development plan is examined.
1.6.4 Conflict management

Conflicts of interests, useful or dysfunctional, are inevitable where a group of people interact with each other for a common purpose. Schools are typical such places. Schools which are staffed with teachers of different educational backgrounds, varied cultural values and beliefs and with different lengths of teaching experience, as is the case in Botswana, are likely to be more prone to dysfunctional conflicts. The chances of conflict can be even higher particularly where an innovation such as the school development plan has been introduced. The role of the head in managing conflict while at the same time striving to build teams that are committed to a common goal is discussed.

In Chapter III a comparative review of a school development planning in the United Kingdom, Australia and Botswana was made. This was in particular reference to the aspects of human capacity, budget allocation and control and accountability. This chapter was included in order to enhance the quality of the literature review made in Chapter II and to also raise the analytical standard of the thesis generally.

Chapter IV was concerned with methodology and the actual methods used in the study. The type of research design undertaken here is described as a qualitative design chiefly concerned with the data that describe the participants' perceptions about the problem being investigated (Bell 1987:4). A description of the different methods used to gather data is made and reasons why they were selected given. The procedure and criteria used in selecting the subjects of the study are outlined. It is also in this chapter that limitations to the study were noted.
In Chapter V, the presentation of the data collected was made. The data were then analyzed and presented mainly by means of 'words' and where appropriate in tabular and/or in figure form. This was followed by the interpretation and discussion of the results in Chapter VI.

Chapter VII provided the conclusion of the thesis where key points were highlighted and ideas from the discussion of the thesis drawn together and synthesized. Conclusions of the study and recommendations on what the role of the head ought to be were dealt with in this chapter. These were based on the relevant and significant theoretical and empirical findings of the study. The conclusions and recommendations were preceded by the re-stating of the problem and outcomes (objectives) of the study. The significance of this is that the essential aspects of the findings were brought to the forefront of the reader's attention.

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS
In this section, the terms used in the title of this study are defined.

School development plan: In this study a school development plan involves the retraining of staff so that their teaching standard and teaching methods should match the demands of a constantly changing curriculum. This is discussed under staff development. Other emerging issues such as the need to have, in a school, collegiality between staff and the school head and between staff themselves, to promote a culture of cohesive teams that are able to work together and that can resolve personal and interpersonal problems amicably for the benefit of school development planning aims are raised under the themes school culture building, classroom supervision and conflict management. In this context, the definition
of a school development plan by Dalin (1993:ix) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:13) is that it is a strategy that can enhance the teaching and learning processes through improved school management practices that can be sustained.

1.8 CONCLUSION

In Chapter I change is introduced as having caught up with the education system in Botswana. The new junior and senior secondary school curricula call for new teaching approaches and strategies to address, among other problems, that of students’ wide ability-ranges, interests and special needs. The wide-ability ranges and special needs are a consequence of the increased intake of students into secondary schools. The changes have direct implications to the re-training of teachers in order for them to contend with the new challenges of change.

It is hoped that the school development plan, a strategy that is regarded as holding promise for the improvement of schools performances will, among other things, address the problem of teaching students who have wider levels of achievement than those previously experienced by teachers. This could be achieved by exposing teachers to remedial and mixed-ability teaching strategies. The role of the head in the school development plan is viewed as critical in making the plan a success through a meaningful involvement of teachers in school decisions and tasks in the areas of curriculum and management.

It was further argued that the successful achievement of a development plan can come chiefly through the head’s ability to mobilize a culture of team effort and his/her ability to identify individual teachers’ shortcomings through close supervision and staff development. The type of supervision proposed for adoption
is the collegial and positive approach where the supervisor is understood by the
teacher as being a colleague working for the common good.

Also, in this chapter, the significance and relevance of the study is discussed in
light of national (Botswana) and international educational reform trends. The aims
of the study are outlined as revolving around the role of the head in the school
development plan. This is briefly discussed under four main themes, namely: culture building; conflict resolution; staff development and classroom activities supervision. Research methods used to achieve the aims of the study are described. Chapter I also included a chapter by chapter organization of the thesis.

In the next chapter on the literature study, the concept of the school development plan is investigated. The concept forms the heart of the discussions; focusing on the role of the head in the school development plan and how the head can exploit the relevant and useful ideas from the literature to the advantage of the development plan. Other concepts associated with the concept of school development plan, namely: staff development, supervision of classroom activities, school culture, and conflict management, are proposed as critical to the understanding of a broad literature survey on the development plan. These concepts are introduced and discussed separately in greater depth than it was done in Chapter I. However, the close link and mutual interlocking nature of these themes are discussed and this should not be regarded as a repetition. Rather, it should be seen as arguments supportive to the intricately linked themes. Such a relationship exists particularly between the concepts of school culture and conflict management and between staff development and classroom supervision. The overlapping effects between these themes will be discussed in the concluding chapters.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW (PART I): THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the concept of a school development plan is introduced and examined. Its value to school improvement, especially to the teaching and learning processes, is discussed. The different stages of the school development plan are considered, using selected models from authorities on the subject. Its examination and discussion are made in the context of four themes, namely; staff development, classroom supervision, school culture building and conflict management. In particular, a link is made between the relevance and importance of the role of the school head and the themes under consideration.

The overall theme of the chapter, however, revolves around the premise that as leader of the school, the school’s head’s job is to guide the implementation of the development plan in the school (Bottery 1992:178), with teachers being in the forefront in implementing the plan. Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi (1986:84) argue in support of Bottery’s view that successful achievement of the school development plan is best done with and through teachers. Further, its success is dependent largely on the relevant skills teachers possess that can help support the performance of the school development issues. Teachers may be willing but may lack the capabilities to perform to their optimum. Hence the need for ongoing staff development programmes. However the provision for teachers performance skills alone, cannot guarantee success. A continuous monitoring exercise of the classroom teaching activities, to support the teacher, needs to be done.
The promotion of team work within and across departments in the school can further enhance the successful achievement of the development plan goals. But in trying to do so, reasons related to the needs and motives of individual members rather than the needs of the total group (Davies, et al. 1982:281) make conflicts of interest between teachers unavoidable. To this end, the role of the head in identifying and understanding the events that trigger the conflict, and the reasons that prevent its resolution (Johnson and Johnson 1987:283), become very crucial.

2.2 Concept of a school development plan

Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:2) define a school development plan as a strategy that is able to improve the quality of teaching and learning processes in a school through improved managerial styles and change. If properly introduced and well articulated to teachers, they further argue, it enables the school to organize what it is already doing and what it needs to do in a more purposeful and coherent way (ibid:3). A similar view is held by Hopkins, Ainscow and West (1994:2-3) particularly on the aspect of students’ performance, that school development planning is about raising students’ achievement through focusing on the teaching-learning practice and the conditions that support it. Rogers (1994:12) say this of a school development plan, that through the plan, the school is able to identify its priorities and focus on them. In the process, he further contends, the staff gain new skills. By implication, then, a school development plan develops staff.

The definitions of school development planning above have the common aim of improving the students’ achievement. The little difference in their definitions is that Hargreaves and Hopkins and Hopkins et al (1994:2-3) are very direct in their definitions on the students’ performance improvement, whereas in Rogers’ definition (1994:12), the students’ performance improvement is implied in...
staff gain new skills. The new skills gained by the staff, it is assumed, will subsequently benefit the students’ learning.

The definitions make assumptions that if teachers participate they will automatically ‘own’, and be committed to, the decisions. But people’s behaviour can be complex and unpredictable. Mathematical or logical conclusions do not always apply to situations where human beings are involved. The success of a school development plan can be situational and dependent on a number of factors such as the individual’s ability to work with others and the uncertainties a teacher may have about the support he will receive from the head.

Writers on development plans use models or diagrammatic representations to illustrate and explain the different stages of the process. Roberts (1994:7-8) uses a model she calls the CREATE model to explain possible stages that can be followed to achieve the aims of a school development plan. The word CREATE is used as an acronym as follows:
According to the above model, teachers should not only be involved but fully participate in all the six stages of the school development plan, particularly the early stages. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:92) make a distinction between involvement and participation. They argue that involvement may mean a positive feeling associated or not with an activity whereas participation means the actual taking part in an activity like writing a school development plan. From the distinction between the two terms one gets the sense that one can achieve more by participating than by mere involvement.
The definition of participation here suggests more determination and commitment to a given task. A teacher who participates is thereby more likely to value the decisions thereof and may go straight forward into implementation of decisions he/she contributed to. They hold that the danger of expecting teachers to pursue goals they have not helped formulate lies in the fact that they can easily dissociate themselves from the school development plan document (ibid:93).

The different levels of the CREATE model are used in this thesis as a basis for discussion of the school development plan. Other writers' views on school development plans are used to critique Roberts' CREATE model. Holly and Hopkins (1988:221), for example, share the same view about the importance of a shared vision in a school development plan with Roberts. Rogers (1994:13), on the other hand, has a different approach towards the evaluation of the development plan. The different steps in the development of a school plan (according to Roberts 1994:7-8) will now be discussed.

2.2.1 Constructing a shared vision

A school development planning vision means a departure from the way things have been done before. This could mean a change in pace, a change in methodologies, that is, new methods being adopted to new objectives, a change in working teams and in team leadership as a result of new roles and a call for extra time to learn and implement new tasks. The new roles emanating from the new vision can be a threat to the teachers' work. In schools, besides classroom teaching, teachers are also required to periodically do lunch duty, gate duty, afternoon and in some cases evening study duty, remedial work, detention duty, cleaning duty and other extra curricular related duties. Teachers may therefore feel that an innovation that demands more of their time and attention would be the
straw that threatens to break the camel’s back (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1991:6).

To allay the above fears and threats, the teachers need to be intently involved in vision-creation from the initial stage. They should first understand why a new vision is needed in the school, otherwise if excluded from the onset, their commitment in its implementation may be minimal, as they may view it as a paper exercise which has little impact upon their working practices (Potter and Powell 1992:141). The articulation should be able to answer questions such as:

- What will students benefit from the school development plan?
- How will they benefit from the plan?
- What will individual teachers benefit from the development plan?
- What benefits will the school get from the plan?
- How will the school achieve the benefits?

Harris, Jamieson and Russ (1996:32) hold that the school vision should be formulated based on the learning needs of students, and that anything falling short of this purpose is bound to be directionless and empty. They are also of the further view that a vision statement should make it clear what the priorities and commitments of the school are. This statement is a measure by which a school wishes to be judged and it should follow from this that the most important indicators of a school’s performance should focus on teaching and learning (ibid).
By inference, the school curriculum is therefore at the centre of a school vision. The school head, as the person who is responsible for ensuring that the school curriculum is being implemented, has the opportunity to know better the problems, progress, and prospects of the school. Because of this central position, he/she has the experiences and information about the school on which to be able to base the school vision. Teachers, also, believe that the school head’s experience and his/her privileged information about the school places him in a better position to forge the school vision, (Hart and Bredeson 1996:231). School heads also hold a similar belief to the extent that they exclude teachers from important decisions on whole-school planning. Even if school heads wanted to involve teachers, because of the beliefs teachers have about school heads and decision-making, it would be difficult for the teachers to suddenly participate in an area known to be the school head’s preserve. Changing people’s attitudes, routine practices, beliefs and values is not an easy feat that can be accomplished overnight. It becomes even more difficult if the people involved have different work experiences, belong to different-age cohorts and are from different cultural backgrounds.

The central position of the school head in the curriculum implementation process is viewed by Peters (1976:66) as making him/her responsible for policy decisions, directing the school this way and that, and determining objectives, rather than simply seeing that they are met or policy decisions carried out. In the Botswana secondary school system, it is the expected responsibility of the school head to ensure and articulate a sound education for learners (Education Act 1967:58:01:2). This, together with similar perspectives as set out above, confirm the importance of the school head in curriculum issues and therefore the important role he/she ought to play in directing the creation of the school vision.
According to the perspectives on the school head’s influence in the school innovations above, a school vision comes as a result of one person’s mental journey from the known to the unknown (Hart and Bredeson 1996:245). The ‘known’ in this case, are the experiences and information the school head has about the school. The ‘unknown’ on the other hand, represent the ‘dreams’ he/she has about how the school could be improved so that it can have more impact on the students’ learning.

If a school head is to initiate or ‘dream’ a vision about the school in order to be able to sell it and for it be ‘bought’ by the staff, he should employ salesman tactics. The product (vision) must appeal to the prospective buyer, in this respect the teacher. For it to make an appeal, it must be relevant and focus on the teaching and learning activities of the school. It must also be realistic and achievable (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:133-134). If from the point of view of the teachers these conditions are satisfying, then the vision has a good chance of being ‘bought’.

The debate on selling and buying is premised on the central nature of the school head’s position in the school which allows him/her easily to collate information from the different areas of the school. This debate should not, however, wrongly suggest that the school vision can come about through the school head. What the argument stresses is that the school head is in a position of better advantage to forge a school vision. One of the most effective ways to sell one’s idea to others is through networking, using smaller groups of influential people in the organization. In the case of a school, this could be through the middle managers, or ‘senior teachers’ as they are commonly called. The idea or vision could then be networked to the junior teachers at the department level, by inviting their
perceptions of the vision and their contributions sought so that what started as 'my school vision' should be turned into 'our school vision'. This approach is more likely to put the vision into a zone where it can get more acceptance than had it been taken to a large gathering like a staff meeting the first time. It is only after the big majority of staff would have 'bought' the vision that it can be said to be a shared or collective vision. Once agreed and firmly anchored among teachers in the school, it can then be expressed in the form of a mission statement, stating what the school intends to achieve or what it stands for (Oakland 1993:28, 29 and 32).

A school vision should not involve only one subject or only a few subjects and neither should it involve one department. It should be whole-school focused (Holly and Hopkins 1988:221). A school vision, Rogers (1994:10) states, is a way of thinking and acting across all areas of the school. However, individual subjects or departments can be free to formulate their own visions and mission statements for as long as the mission statements are aligned to the main school vision.

The argument on the need to involve others in the vision from the beginning, and the need to have the vision which transcends all areas in the school, is emphasized thus: Many excellent innovations have failed in their intent simply because they were performed in isolation... There is a new realization that the organization is an inter-connected whole which demands a holistic approach to business transformation (Sunday Times 1996:12). Though not specifically written for schools, this view offers a practical advice that is applicable to school circumstances and to school development planning in particular. Appropriately involved, teachers - even students for that matter - can make extraordinary contributions towards school improvements. A school head who involves,
provides a positive leadership, motivates and supports teachers stands a fair chance of selling the school vision (Heck 1991:71), (Bell 1992:141-143) and (Tancredi 1994:16). In order to create a credible school vision, it needs a school head with a vision him/herself.

2.2.2 **Review of current practice**

At this stage of the development plan, the staff together attempt to answer the question: Where are we now? Information is gathered on the successes and shortcomings of the school. As the teachers collaborate together they understand better in the process what is going on in the school and gain insight and opportunity to influence the needed change. Put another way, *as they engage in dialogue with the head and in discussions with each other, they have more access to information about change* (Bell 1992:51).

It is at the review stage that the school pauses and takes stock of its performance and decides on what action to take in order to improve. It is also here that it decides either to change its direction or to proceed forward. The role of the head here is to encourage an atmosphere where all members can freely contribute ideas and opinions. The review of current practice stage is the level where people put aside any personal grudges and trivialities and concentrate on the way forward using the present achievements and failures. An open and frank discussion can be encouraged with the head listening intently to what the teachers have to say. While the head will give his/her opinions, he/she should learn from others' experiences and appreciate their perceptions about the development plan for future improvements. Events that are likely to hinder the achievement of the goals should be identified and solutions to them found (Armstrong 1992:223).
Public examination performances, students' behaviours, untoward relations between students and teachers, achievements in extra-curricular activities, stay-on rates, teachers' absenteeism and students' truancy are some of the indicators used to judge the performance of the school. Oakland (1994:180-181) suggests that these school-effective analysis indicators should be made in comparison with other schools of the same level. This idea of bench-marking is to search for the best practices from others that lead to the best results, he argues. A review of the school practices as described above can be made using the 'SWOT' analysis method as suggested by Rogers (1994:39). The method seeks to answer the following questions, namely:

- What are our strengths?
- What are our weaknesses?
- What opportunities are available?
- What threats are apparent?

Once the school's strengths and weaknesses have been identified and opportunities and threats established, remedial measures to address the weaknesses could be devised. New strategies to maintain the existing strengths would be worked out. The threats to school improvement could be eliminated and the opportunities utilized.

2.2.3 Establishing priorities

Because everything cannot be done at the same time due to limiting factors such as manpower, time, skills and materials (Rogers 1994:31), the objectives set at the vision formulation stage, need to be prioritized. But a priority for one person may not necessarily be a priority for another. Priorities may also differ between
subject departments. The English department in a school can have, as its priority, the improvement of speaking fluency. Other departments may show little or passive support and commitment to the campaign on English fluency. Such conflicts of interests are common and inevitable in schools. It is the role of the head to make individual teachers and departments understand that the interests of the school as a whole override individual teachers’ and departments’ interests. Of equal importance is for the head to emphasize to teachers that it is not always possible to enmesh and bolt individual’s and departments’ needs on the whole school’s priorities.

For example until 1999, in the Botswana education system, a student who failed the English Language examination could not be awarded a full Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (Republic of Botswana 1997:8-11). Also, English Language is the official medium of teaching in all the subjects bar the vernacular. In the circumstances it became imperative that the English Language be accorded a priority status since it determined failure or success to all students in terminal examinations. Poorly handled, the issue of priorities such as that on English use can have the danger of causing division of loyalty to the school development plan. The school head can easily be accused of favouring other areas in the school to the exclusion of others. The accusation can be even more damaging to progress if the area he/she is alleged to favour happens to be his/her teaching area.

A possible method of prioritizing objectives or tasks is to ask teachers to brainstorm on school objectives as a group. The teachers are then divided into smaller groups, randomly chosen, and are asked to rank the objectives in order of priority. The groups compare their priorities. The prevalent objectives are further ranked by the groups. The ranking is scaled down until only a few objectives are
arrived at. Priorities arrived at in this way invariably reflect the most desirable and necessary school concerns that need to be addressed. The fewer the objectives or tasks to be implemented at a time, the easier the evaluation of their achievement. This method is based on some ideas by Rogers (1994:33). One of his ideas called *arms length*, allows participants to brainstorm on priorities but within certain limits. In another, *the staff decides*, the senior manager assigns full responsibility to the staff, who decide, through a brainstorming exercise, the urgent priorities to be implemented.

2.2.4 Action Planning
The action plan stage reviews the objectives previously set, and sets out the targets and tasks on how to achieve the objectives. It is the stage where the staff ought to agree on what they are going to achieve and within what time-scale. Responsibilities are distributed in the form of group assignments and time-lines set for the completion of tasks (Roberts 1994:8 and Rogers 1994:53-54). The time-scales will often differ according to whether the task objectives are short-term or long-term (Roberts 1994:10). Also, the times scheduled to fulfill the objectives are determined by the availability of resources that are needed to support the task activities (Rogers 1994:53-54). For example, inadequate funds can significantly delay the completion of a campaign on a reward system for students, or affect the time agreed to complete a project on the improvement of school grounds and the general school’s beauty and grandeur.

2.2.5 Taking action
The principal sets the climate for the staff. *The way that he/she relates to the staff influences the ways in which teachers will relate to their students . . . . It is hypocritical to expect teachers to allow their students to be active participants*
in their classroom if teachers are not able to be active participants in their school (Fullan 1992:12).

Precisely put, school heads ought to behave as they expect their teachers to behave in the classroom. The view by Fullan (above) serves as advice to school leaders to lead by example if they expect teachers to take the school development plans seriously. The level of commitment by teachers to the school development plan can be largely determined by the teachers’ perception of the school head’s commitment. If the school head shows token participation in the school development plan, teachers are likely to go back to their usual teaching methods, thus rendering the school development plan process yet another innovation that has come and will simply pass. The same can be said of senior teachers. By virtue of their positions, senior teachers directly supervise teachers. If they are perceived by teachers as showing inertia in the implementation of school objectives, in turn the teachers are likely not to show commitment to the school development plan.

A common problem that affects the successful implementation of tasks in the Botswana education system is lack of follow-ups. This is often the result of a mistaken assumption that once mission statements and priorities are agreed or policies written, then their implementation is automatic. If change agents fail to monitor the implementation process, they may find themselves ‘flying solo’. For example, a written school rule barring students from leaving the school compound without permission is like a ‘dog-chase-tail pursuit’ if there are no monitoring mechanisms. Similarly, to have a written policy on homework in the staff manual is not enough. A regular physical check on its implementation is necessary. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:8-9) lament the lack of follow-ups to educational
issues thus: *Our educational history is littered with examples of good policies that were never put into practice because reformers thought that the formulation of the policy was the most important part of change, and that if it was not successfully implemented then someone should be blamed for obstructing the policy.*

A school head who abdicates his/her duties of monitoring the processes of the school development plan usually resorts to blaming others for the plan’s failure. The head’s active participation to ensure that plans are being carried out cannot be over stressed. At the action level of the development plan, teachers have the opportunity to try and test the skills and strategies learnt from workshops. Practising what one has learnt can be a very effective way of testing whether one has understood the new approaches to teaching learnt at the workshop, for *to know and not to use is not yet to know* (Blanchard, Zirgami and Zirgami 1986:101) warn.

2.2.6 Evaluation

The evaluation conducted in a school development plan is for purposes of bringing about improvements in teaching and learning activities. It ultimately focuses on the students’ learning outcomes by measuring whether the school development plan has had any profound impact on their performances. Although students’ outcomes are the prime indicators to the successful implementation of objectives, it is important that the conditions that influence such success should be evaluated (Holly and Hopkins 1988:230-231).

The conditions that need to be evaluated include, among others, staff development or school-based inservice programmes, appropriate utilization of resources allocated to the individual departments and whether the ‘shared
ownership' of the objectives and empowerment of teachers are being sustained. Holly and Hopkins (1998:229) call this type of evaluation, where the evaluation is integral to the implementation process, *formative evaluation*. The method is based on the premise that a school development plan consists of parts that make up a whole. The evaluation of these parts or set of activities should therefore reflect the whole and not be done in isolation (Holly and Hopkins 1988:238). Also, it is at this stage where appropriate evaluation methods that would be used at the different stages of the plan are agreed. Staff agree as to who will do what, at what stage, and how it will be done (Roberts 1994:6-8). Rogers (1994:13) also has a model for school development planning. The model is shown in the diagram below.
Diagram 2.1 Model for a school development plan (Rogers 1994:13)
The models by Roberts and Rogers sufficiently address the basic questions by Harris, Jamieson and Russ (1996:15) about a school development plan. The questions are:

- Where are we now?
- Where do we want to go?
- How do we go there?
- How will we know we have got there?

The model by Rogers has an in-built evaluation process at all its stages. The diagrammatic representation clearly shows this by having the ‘review’ stage at the heart of the process of the school development plan. The advantage of an ongoing evaluation exercise is that any departures from the plan, or any factors working against the plan at its different stages, can be detected and corrected before the plan gets affected by then.

This strength, however, is not so evident in the CREATE model. The evaluation in Roberts’ model is done at the end of the development process (summative evaluation). It may be too late to rectify things if evaluation is not formative. The use of the words ‘our’ and ‘we’ in the Rogers model is stakeholder-friendly. The words have an appealing and inviting connotation of ownership of the school development plan by the teachers. Ownership, though implied, is not so highlighted in the CREATE diagrammatic representation in Roberts’ model. However, both models are well founded and can direct the achievement of school development planning goals.
Following the introduction and discussion of the concept of a school development plan and the proposed stages that a school development plan can go through, the conditions that support its successful achievement are examined and discussed. It is argued that for school improvement to take place effectively, teachers, as well as the school head, would need technical and managerial skills to perform new challenges inherent in a school development plan.

The next section looks at staff development in school development planning.

2.3 STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Previously, in this thesis, the concept of a school development plan was defined as a strategy that can improve the quality of teaching and learning in a school. According to Carnall (1995:26), quality can be achieved through efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency, he says, is the carrying out of the stated and prioritized goals within given resource constraints (ibid:26); whereas effectiveness according to (Potter and Powell 1992:5) is the expectation of the community and the parents to do well against comparable institutions in key areas of public examination performance.

A feature related to the above perspectives by Carnall and Potter and Powell is the fact that in Botswana, public examination results are the main performance indicators of schools. Schools with the highest percentages of passes - and not necessarily with the highest number of quality passes - are highlighted in the public media and congratulated at the annual parliamentary budgetary debate sessions. While this practice may be motivating to the students and teachers, there is a danger of schools teaching for examinations (teaching the syllabus only) and denying the students the breadth of knowledge associated with education.
The teacher, as the direct implementer of the school tasks related to examinations, is the key person in the efficiency and effectiveness factors under consideration. To efficiently and effectively accomplish these tasks, the improvement of teachers' classroom skills becomes imperative. It could, however, be argued that trained teachers do not need such skills as they already have them from universities and colleges. But no matter how good the training institutions may have been, the training obtained are not likely to address current needs of the country implicitly enmeshed in the school curriculum. These are needs related to manpower and the economy. The issue of teacher development should be at the heart of classroom performance improvement therefore. Ongoing inservice training programmes to update the teacher's teaching approaches are therefore necessary. In this regard, the school head, being the key figure in promoting change (Fullan 1992:82), needs to intently enlist teacher improvement programmes to address the efficiency-effectiveness dichotomy.

Wideen and Andrews (1987:13) stress the importance of inservice for teachers by countering the argument that trained teachers do not need inservicing. They are of the view that . . . even the very best of teacher education cannot equip one for a lifelong career. Whether one thinks in terms of simply maintaining existing programs or introducing new ones, it is inconceivable to assume that our initial preparation, whatever it may have been, was adequate.

By implication, Wideen and Andrews, rightly advise that individual learning is a never-ending process. That is, one cannot rely on teaching methods learnt during the pre-service stage and expect to cope with the new classroom challenges enshrined in the prevailing curriculum. Also, pre-service professional training does not always match the circumstances of classroom situations. The textbook
stuff at the training institutions does not always provide solutions to what actual prevails in schools. A practical classroom situation can be a different experience from what theories claim because a classroom is made up of people who have changing behaviours, divergent personalities and abilities. Caldwell (1992:7) further adds support to Wideen and Andrews' view on staff development programmes by saying: *Being principal is a challenging and complex assignment; pre-service teacher education programmes offer inadequate preparation, and ongoing professional development and training are critically important* . . . .

In Botswana, secondary school teachers are prepared at the local university for degree qualifications and at four (now five) colleges of education for diploma qualifications (Republic of Botswana 1997:348). The colleges puts more emphasis on teaching methodologies and child psychology while the university puts more emphasis on content rather than teaching methods. But at secondary schools both aspects are necessary. This then justifies inservice training for both types of teachers. Also, classroom teachers are the ones who will in future assume new roles as senior teachers, deputy school heads and heads. There ought therefore to be a link between progression into higher positions and teacher development, with the main priority to increase knowledge and skills for the aspirants.

Sparks (1984:72), in Wideen and Andrews (1987:2) writes that sometimes the term staff development is used interchangeably with in-service training to mean training activities that help teachers improve their teaching skills. Wideen and Andrews (1987:2 and 33) define staff development as school development and teachers' professional growth or adult education. The two definitions of staff development above take into account the fulfillment of both the needs of the
organization and those of the teacher. Both definitions also make clear that a close and useful link exists between teacher development and school development. In Preedy (1989:246), however, a view that makes a distinction between teacher inservice training and staff development is put forward. She holds that inservice training is about addressing the needs of schools while staff development is concerned with the needs of the teacher.

Preedy’s view separates the close link between developing the teacher and the resultant benefits that accrue to the school thereby. But equipping the teacher with skills that can improve his/her teaching directly affects the performance of the school. The teacher and the school are hand-in-glove. Their progress is pari passu. Schools are there for students’ learning. The skills gained by the teacher through inservice training in turn benefit the students’ learning.

The training activities that help teachers improve their teaching skills referred to by Sparks in his definition of staff development represents a change in the teachers’ classroom delivery of instruction. Staff development, logically, means change. On the other hand, the ‘professional growth’ and ‘adult education’ referred to as synonymous to staff development by Wideen and Andrews come about as a result of learning. It can therefore be said that change, by implication, is learning. If staff development is synonymous with change and change is synonymous with learning, staff development is therefore synonymous with learning. The logic of the argument can be summarized thus:

- Staff development = change
- Change = learning
- Staff development = learning.
The discussion in this chapter on the literature on staff development centres on the understanding that it is key to school improvement, and that the school head’s capacity to promote the development of teachers holds the key to staff development. Put another way, . . . there can be no development without the development of the developer (Wideen and Andrews 1987:107).

A similar perspective about the crucial role of the head in school development is held by (Glickman and Esposito 1979:13) that: Most successful innovations can almost always be traced to the strong leader. In those projects that started well but nose-dived, it usually was the result of the leader leaving the school and being replaced by someone not as strong. It can be immediately said that effective heads are those who develop and empower their staff so that if they leave the school, it should continue its activities normally. Schools which nose-dive as soon as the head leaves could be those whose heads had not been involving staff in school policy.

Hart and Bredeson (1996:191) also believe in the key role a head plays in school improvement. They are of the strong view that In schools where achievement was high . . . invariably the principal made the difference. Hopkins et al. (1994:153) express the same sentiment about the school head and school development planning that: what effective school all have in common is effective leadership and a climate that is conducive to growth . . . . Emphasis is laid on consultation, team work and participation, but without exception, the most important single factor in that of these schools is the quality of leadership of the head.
From the views by Hart and Bredeson (1996:191) and Hopkins et al. (1994:153) about the role of the head in school effectiveness, it means that, a school head faces challenging and complex responsibilities. If his/her role is so important, as indeed it is, in contending with the inherent complexities of school development, he/she needs to have a sound academic background and strong management qualities. Before developing the teachers to meet the demands of the school development plan, there is a need to develop the school head first so that when he/she plays a catalytic role of encouraging and motivating teachers, this will be done from a more informed position and with proper confidence.

Even during the implementation stage he/she should be able to change his/her managerial style to suit the requirements of the situation. A head who has not been trained in management may not effectively help guide and involve teachers in the decisions affecting them in the school. Yet, as we have seen, collaborative decision-making is so crucial for the achievement of organizational goals. It is the basic assumption in conventional literature on effective schools. More than ever before, school heads are called upon to adopt a pluralistic style of administration away from hierarchical leaderships towards public participation (O’Brien 1979:8). To fulfill this important role, heads need to be trained to be knowledgeable in strategies which can promote collaboration among teachers.

In Botswana secondary schools, there are heads who are degree-holders but without educational management training, degree-holders with training in educational management and diploma holders without such a qualification. Though not sufficient, efforts are however being made by the Ministry of Education to upgrade the heads’ professional training in school management. School heads and their Staff Development Coordinators will be trained for more
effectiveness as instructional leaders (Republic of Botswana 1997:366). Non-degree-holders are given priority for further education leading to higher certification. Also, a deliberate programme has been made between the government of Botswana and the University of Bath in England for a Master of Arts degree in Educational Management for those heads with first degrees but without training in educational management.

However, training efforts by government cannot possibly include all potential school heads. Personal professional growth should not be the responsibility of the employer alone. If everybody were to wait for their turn for a government sponsorship, the opportunity may never arrive at all, given the number of teachers that need to be developed and the financial resources that are never enough. Instead of waiting for a chance that may never come, school heads (and potential school heads) should take it as part of their responsibility to initiate their own professional growth. The feeling that learning is only associated with youngsters rather than with mature adults is often the reason why some people show reluctance in engaging in self-development initiatives. Self-development initiatives could be on part-time basis with the local university or with outside universities. The importance of self-development should be seen not only as the acquisition of higher qualification, but also as an ongoing culture of reading to enable the recipient to cope with current educational trends.

The sense of initiating self-professional growth by school heads is thus highlighted by (Canniffe 1993:259): The willingness of the principals to carry out this training, at their own expense and in their own time, indicates that they see a responsibility for their own continued professional development as a part of the role of the principal. The result of this training is that the principals have evolved sophisticated models of management in their schools and that theory
and practice are constantly being tested by them. This is indeed analogous to the reflective teacher in the classroom who constantly applies theory and modifies it with practice. If teaching is the facilitating of the students’ learning by the teacher, then the principal teacher must facilitate the teacher and the student so that this learning process can be at its most efficient.

Canniffe’s statement was made in the context of a case study conducted on five Irish principals who were involved in a career development by attending either monthly lectures on management methods or seminars or courses two or three times a year. In the American and Japanese examples of self-development, corporate managers know that it is their own responsibility to keep up in their fields, just as doctors, lawyers or any other professional groups do. They engage in distance studies at their own time although at corporate expense. The Americans call it individual initiative and corporate support (Handy 1993:240).

Senior teachers, the majority of whom were promoted from the ranks of good classroom teachers, need management skills to effectively run their departments. At the teacher level, they were not sufficiently exposed to management issues before being elevated to senior post positions. They need skills in communicating and in interpersonal relations. Middle managers as they are, they provide a useful link between the teachers and the school head. School tasks and goals need to be well articulated down to the teachers from the head through the senior teachers. Also, the interaction between the senior teachers and the teachers under them is more regular than between the head and the teachers. Hence the need for interpersonal skills for senior teachers which would enhance their supervisory and managerial capabilities. The acquisition of skills would enable them to shoulder higher responsibilities and perform better in their present positions. The
acquisition of such skills would also fulfill the purpose of personal development, motivation, and career development (Republic of Botswana 1987: 61-62).

The purpose of staff development is to increase the teachers' knowledge base so that they can implement school development plans with ability and confidence. It improves their quality of thinking and their capacity to reflect on experiences and practice. As they reflect, they are able to relate new skills learnt from workshops or courses to school and classroom situations (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994: 5 and 8). Staff development, according to Stein and Wang (1997: 171-172), is based on the belief that the quality of the teacher is central to the successful achievement of the school development plan.

Inservice training for teachers leading to certification in the Botswana secondary education system is centralized. This responsibility falls under the Department of Teacher Training and Development in consultation with the Departments of Secondary Education and Teaching Service Management (Republic of Botswana 1997: 349). The school heads' input here stops at making recommendations. Regional and national teacher inservice training which last only a few days or weeks is organized by the Departments of Secondary Education and Curriculum, while inservice training by heads is confined to school-based workshops run on a shoestring budget. The funds allocated to schools for this purpose are just enough to provide snacks during the sessions. With regard to materials to support workshops, schools depend on what is already available in the schools. The role of the school head in staff development that follows was discussed within the framework of school-based workshops.
Before workshops can be organized for teachers, it is essential that a needs assessment exercise be conducted. The needs assessment must necessarily be whole-school focused and not based on the individual teacher's needs. Importantly, what is perceived as needs by the school head should be congruent with what the teachers perceive as needs. The ideal situation should be that, while the individual teacher's professional development takes place, the aims of the school are achieved (Bell 1992:141).

A fit between the two, that is, the teacher's and the school's needs, is more likely to generate commitment and active participation from teachers during workshops, thus positively influencing the intended outcomes. To achieve congruent needs, the teachers and the school head should together first discuss and agree on what they want their school to be like. Action plans that are appropriate to the accomplishment of agreed intentions can then be formulated. In schools where such dialogues exist between the school head and the teachers, (Wideen and Andrews 1987:33) argue that staff development becomes an ongoing participatory problem-solving component of school life.

There are specific examples in the Botswana junior secondary school curriculum which teachers need to receive training in. A teacher who has not necessarily specialized in history or geography or development studies or civics during training is required to teach elements of all these disciplines under the subject social studies. At the senior secondary school level, the same is the case with teachers who teach combined science. They teach the biology, physics and chemistry aspects in the combined science.
The new senior secondary school curriculum introduced in 1998 in Botswana schools is another case that calls for the re-training of teachers. Each subject has the extended and core elements. A teacher who teaches mathematics to one class for example, is required, because of teacher shortages, to teach both the core and extended core to the different students in the same class during the same period (Republic of Botswana 1997:5-6). This is a case which requires teachers to gain skills in mixed ability teaching.

Some of the approaches a school head can use to develop teachers in their job are discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.3.1 Delegation

A school head's work day is often characterized by many interruptions such as telephones, unscheduled 'walk-ins' by staff, students and parents. McHugh and McMullan (1995:27) describe the school head's office as *marked by a series of brief face-to-face encounters on a variety of issues demanding immediate attention*. Weindling (1992:25) expressing a similar view, states: *Being head in the 1990s is like competing in a marathon race held on a high sand dune and carrying a heavy load. As the race develops, the organizers reduce the number of feeding stations, increase the slope of the hill, and move the winning post. The racers have to be efficient for the run on less calories.*

Weindling's perspective above can be compared to the situation in Botswana secondary schools. It is made as equivalents, as follows:
• Heavy load = the increased work load as a result of schools expansion, for example declining students’ discipline standards and the new curriculum challenges.

• Organizers = education policy makers

• Reduction of feeding stations and increasing the slope of the hill = increase in the students enrolments without a corresponding teacher increase

• Moving the winning post = change in curriculum targets

• Racers = school heads

• Less calories = inadequate heads’ management skills

An attempt to attend to all these interruptions and to the day’s planned tasks would result in the whole day spent with very little to show for it except stress. The need for the school head to be selective in what he/she should do and what to delegate to others can therefore not be over-emphasized. The school head ought to spend time on what teachers cannot do, i.e. what cannot be delegated. Properly used, delegation can constitute effective staff development. Delegating, however, does not mean opting out of the work by the leader (Markham 1993:123) and neither does it mean that only tasks that are inferior or unpopular should be given to the subordinates.

In delegating, it should be clear what the task is all about and what the teacher is required to do. It needs to be stated how much freedom and authority the officer delegated will have in performing the delegated assignment. The time to be spent on the delegated task is also essential to specify (Hunt 1992:232-233). If things are left loose with no control and checking mechanisms, the whole exercise of delegating may result in vagueness and a waste of time, argues (Fullan 1992:91). The monitoring of delegated functions can enable the head to know what the
teacher can do well and what he/she cannot do well. In the process, the teacher to whom the task is delegated can learn the ‘nuts and bolts’ of performing certain tasks as he/she gives feedback in the form of questions, or an appeal for further help and guidance, i.e. ‘learning the ropes’.

The interaction between the teacher and the head, and the interface between the teacher and the task, can be part of staff development. To many leaders, delegating tasks, and supervising and guiding their completion, can be considered as spending more time than if one had done the task oneself (Markham 1993:126). Perhaps this concern can be expressed by leaders in small organizations where the volume of work is small, but certainly not by senior secondary school heads. The frequency at which heads are out at meetings, or busy with other commitments in the school, makes the delegation of duties a must in their day-to-day running of schools. The sizes of schools does not allow the head to keep hour-by-hour tabs on everything happening in the school and have things running smoothly. To do so needs unusual stamina and expenditure of time by the head. An attempt to do everything single-handed may result in one doing only a little of everything.

Failure to delegate duties is often the reason for poor performance in some schools. This argument emphasizes that given the many reforms in education, it is difficult to cope single-handed with all the functions that need to be performed. There is need to share the reform overload with others. Doing more does not of itself mean doing better. If one does too much, nothing gets done properly and one may quickly get exhausted and then what was going well deteriorates (Hopkins et al 1994:12). Apart from sharing responsibilities, delegation can give
others the opportunity to try their talents and skills. In the process, they are also afforded the chance to learn new skills by being exposed to new tasks.

Hunt (1992:232) suggests that one way to improve delegation is to overload managers so that they are forced to delegate. This suggestion may only serve to encourage managers who are reluctant to delegate, to get rid of those tasks that are unpopular or boring. Most likely these would be tasks that do not need following up after delegation. To do so is not genuine delegation leading to staff development and teacher empowerment. Empowerment is when the teachers feel they are doing important work that has the support of the boss. With a feeling of empowerment, teachers can positively influence the successful implementation of school development plans (Fullan 1992:91).

The school head needs not only to be selective in the tasks he/she delegates but also to be selective in the teachers to whom he/she delegates tasks. Delegating involves finding the person who is best able to do a particular aspect of a job, briefing him on what is required and then letting him get on with it (Markham 1993:125). The more experienced, reliable and mature teachers are best suited to take jobs that require authority and less supervision. It encourages and motivates the teachers more if they are acknowledged and commended on the successful accomplishment of tasks delegated to them. However, the head should not hesitate to rebuke those who are not pulling their weight in the given tasks. A principal needs to encourage continuous growth in his staff. Pressure and support must go together in order to achieve results (Tancredi 1994:17).
2.3.2 **School based workshops**

Workshops organized and run at school level can take three forms. Firstly; by involving an experienced teacher with special talents or skills in the area of concern in the same school. The second option is to engage a teacher with similar attributes but from a different school. Thirdly, by involving a consultant, usually from a university, to resource teachers in a specific area. However, each of these approaches has advantages and disadvantages for staff development. The advantages and disadvantages are discussed under each of the methods suggested below.

2.3.3 **Resource by a colleague in the same school**

Schools have perhaps done teachers a disservice by assuming that curriculum implementation concerns can be decided by others. Engaging outsiders to find solutions to problems identified by teachers can only damage their morale and devalue their competence. Among a group of teachers considerable talent can be found. All what the head needs to do is to tap it for the benefit of others and the school. A good school head would know his/her individual teachers’ strengths and use these appropriately. In schools, talented teachers are not necessarily those holding posts of responsibility. After all, the talented may have joined the school after all posts of responsibility had been already filled.

Also, in Botswana secondary schools, while there is a considerable number of knowledgeable and experienced expatriate teachers, local teachers hold the large majority of senior posts. The reason for this situation is that expatriate teachers only remain in schools for only a short time then leave at the expiry of their contracts. Those who are experienced, skillful and knowledgeable but not necessarily in positions of responsibility can have expert power and can readily
be respected by other teachers. Also, the fact that the resource person is resourcing on a problem he/she helped identify and is familiar with, can enhance the teachers’ cooperation and support for him/her.

However, the disadvantage of engaging a fellow teacher with talent is that of a general lack of recognition of local talent and a belief that local is inferior to external, for example the belief that reading a book on ‘Modern Management Techniques’ is usually less exciting than a three-week overseas course on that same topic or a series of meetings on ‘Management Techniques’ within a school confers less recognizable accreditation than a postgraduate diploma (Republic of Botswana 1987:62). With such a belief, the engagement of a colleague to lead others in a workshop can be met with resentment.

2.3.4 Resource by a teacher from another school

A school head, after admiring a continuously good performance by another school, may decide to invite a teacher from that school to come and lead a workshop in what is an area of concern to a group of teachers in his/her school. The search for best practice from counterparts needs not be restricted only to schools doing similar things, but with schools doing different things, even opposites (Oakland 1993:180-182). Going outside one’s framework of doing things can be a great source of learning and improvement, further alludes Fullan (1993:88).

In the researcher’s view, the idea of bench-marking by bringing an outsider needs a cautious approach as teachers can be sensitive if they are not consulted the first time. It may result in their not cooperating with the outsider. Also, it may create a feeling from teachers that the school head under-estimates their capabilities in
solving their own school problems. It is important that teachers first understand why a teacher from another school should be called upon to run a workshop for them.

2.3.5 Consultancy

Brooksbank and Anderson (1989:149) write that consultants are usually “professional tutors who are able to fulfill important staff development functions, not only for newly qualified teachers but also for teachers in mid-career”. Weinbach (1990:145-146) adds to the above view that people engaged in consultancy should be people with reputable professional standing. These people are hired because of some specific expertise that is needed. Consultants are hired because they are believed to have objectivity, he further says.

Invariably, people with such qualities, particularly in developing countries, are found in universities and colleges. In developed countries, consultants can be found among the ranks of retired academicians of the ranks of professors and doctors.

The problem with consultants may be that they can be out of touch with secondary schools’ real classroom problems as experienced by the teacher. The classroom needs of teachers are situation-specific. There are possibilities that consultants may generalize solutions to problems. Their advice may therefore be far removed from the everyday classroom practices. As such, they may fail to adequately address the actual problems (Balla and Gow 1988:92). McLaughlin and Marsh (1978:237-238) sum up the disadvantage of consultancy as having a philosophical approach to problems which need practical solution.
Whereas it is popularly held that inservice training is an effective strategy for staff development, Dalin (1993:139) contends that *inservice training is the least productive form of staff development*. . . . He argues that while such courses may be good for personal growth and career advancement, they are seldom effective in relation to school development programmes. This view differs from those held by Carnall (1995:26) and Wideen and Andrews (1987:2-3) that inservice courses fulfill the needs of both the organization and those of the teacher. It can be argued that, in fact, inservice courses are the most effective forms of staff development. Taking a teacher out of the classroom for retraining, whether it be for a few days, a few weeks, a year or more is still inservice training.

The term inservice suggests training a person while they are already in the job as opposed to pre-service training. Upon completion of an inservice course the teacher brings back to the school new teaching skills. In this way the teacher has been developed. He can approach the classroom tasks better than before and with more confidence. The benefits to the students are also benefits to the school. In this regard, teacher development is indirectly school development.

Inservice training can be more effective than pre-service training as the teacher can directly relate what they learn to known classroom/school situations, whereas pre-service training offers essentially theory to the student who has never been exposed to the realities of the classroom. Dalin (1993:139) does not, however, suggest an alternative to inservice training that is more effective. This argument is made on Dalin's assumption which compares inservice training with pre-service training. In support of inservice training as having a lot to do with staff development, Bell (1992:141) holds that staff development takes account of the needs of the school and the individuals within the school. This view is similar to
that held by Carnall (1995:26) and also held by Wideen and Andrews (1987:2-3). Bell (ibid), further says that the link between the two should be such that the teacher’s personal growth should take place while still ensuring that the aims and objectives of the school can be achieved.

The role of the school head in school-based workshops ought to be that of a supporter, a facilitator, an organizer and an active stimulator. His/her active participation, moral support and commitment can serve to encourage the teachers to regard inservice workshops as worthwhile ventures. If he/she does not, then half-hearted or token participation may prevail. Teacher exposure to inservice training can help improve their quality of thinking. Also, it can help them to pause and reflect on their work as a team and come out with a better understanding of the problems encountered and possible solutions to them.

The discussion in this section centred around the need for both the school head and the teacher to be developed in their job in order for them to cope the better with the changes and challenges of the school curriculum. A few methods, including delegation, short- and long-term training programmes and self-development by school heads, were proposed and their pros and cons discussed. Although it is not always feasible, the underlying principle on the training of both the school head and the teachers was discussed on the basis of ‘first things first’ notion that before leading others one should have first received adequate training oneself. In respect to teachers, their competencies and skills in areas of teaching are a prerequisite as these would lead to improved students’ learning and performances. The discussion on staff development was focused and linked to the classroom needs assessment. Such staff development should be based on identified areas of concern in the classroom.
This finally leads to the next section on the role of the head in classroom supervision.

2.4 SUPERVISION OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Even when change is received enthusiastically, there is no guarantee that it will be satisfactorily implemented or it will result in enhanced outcomes for teachers or students or for the school generally. Hence the need for monitoring mechanisms to the implementation process. The classroom is one area through which the implementation of school development plan objectives can be monitored.

2.4.1 The classroom as the centre of instruction

During the process of a school development plan, it is critical that the head should constantly remind him/herself that its main business is about improving the standards of students' learning and performances. According to Harris et al. (1996:32), students' performance can be determined at four levels, namely: at the school level, at the department level, at the classroom level and at the student's individual level. Harris et al, however, do not say which level is the most important of the four. But in the researcher's view, the classroom, where things actually happen, is the most important level of the four. The school head's primary instructional concern should therefore be in classroom activities.

It is argued here that performance at the other three levels is dependent on the level of interface between the student and the teacher - the classroom level. This is the level where real learning takes place as compared to the other three levels. Real learning is enhanced by the communication of ideas, information and
knowledge between the learner and the teacher and among learners themselves. The classroom set-up offers such an environment. The head’s supervision of classroom activities is therefore critical in ascertaining the accomplishment of school development plan goals.

2.4.2 The school head as instructional leader

The reason for the supervision of classroom teaching should be to help the teacher to be more effective in his/her lesson delivery. This he/she does by coaching, guiding and facilitating and not by telling what ought to be done or not done (Hart and Bredeson 1996:137). The assumption made here is that the head as overall supervisor, has greater expertise, knowledge and is more experienced in classroom management than the teacher he/she supervises (Caldwell 1992:10). Ideally this ought to be the case even if the area where the head is supposed to offer advice is not his/her area of specialization. But in reality it is not always the case.

In the Botswana set-up for example, school heads are not necessarily the most experienced and the most knowledgeable in school management. The factor of localization has made a significant contribution to this state of affairs. It is commonplace to find, in schools, a considerable number of teachers with higher professional qualifications and with more experience than the school head. While qualifications and experience are prerequisites, they are not, however, the only attributes that make an effective school head. The ability to work with others and to mobilize the teachers into a team is more important than individual qualifications and experience.
Regular close working distances between the head and staff can ease and make classroom teaching observation by the school head more natural. But if the working distance between the head and teachers is wide and aloof, problems may arise if suddenly the head appears in the teacher’s classroom. There can be feelings of resentment on the part of teachers, viewing the whole exercise of observation as witch hunting. Also, such management behaviour by the school head may discourage a willingness by staff to open up to their views on general school issues. This sense is put thus by Glickman (1985:104-105): *We may prefer formality and distance and may be able to document that such privateness accomplishes certain results. On the other hand, we must also accept that our privateness will be reciprocal, and that staff may not easily discuss personal situations that may affect teaching performance.*

Arguably, one of the reasons for maintaining a distance between subordinates, notwithstanding the personal traits of the leader, can be traced to inadequate training in management. Lack of training can be associated with a feeling of self-doubt and inadequacy and lack of confidence. Fullan (1992:135) advises that even if lacking in some areas, heads should be at least be familiar with issues of the school curriculum so as to offer expert guidance. He states that: *The principal has to become directly involved. He may not know mathematics per se or science or history; but he can (be) and the teachers can see him as an expert in curriculum planning. That’s the one thing he has to do is develop and acquire some expertise in this area. I think he has to work with the departments in helping them plan what they are going to do with that guideline. He has to meet with them, he has to sit down with them; he’s got to be familiar enough with the document that he can discuss it. He has to be prepared to give some of his time to that group of teachers, let’s say the English Department, and be involved in not all their meetings, but some of them, keeping informed, being knowledgeable*
about what they are doing . . . But if the principal detaches himself from it, and says. Go ahead fellows, and that what happens too often, then I don't think it will happen effectively . . . (ibid:135).

The supervision of the classroom activities cannot be a haphazard exercise. Rather it should be planned, based on what was originally agreed upon, that is, to bring about desired students' academic behaviour. In the development planning process, decisions ought to be made at the planning stage (Dean 1993:33) about how the monitoring of tasks would be done. Perhaps a desirable approach to classroom observation is for the observer and the observed to discuss the lesson plan together prior to its delivery. Glickman (1985:128) calls this approach collaboration. A similar observation was made in section 2.2.1. The discussion of the school development plan by the head and the teacher before the lesson, Glickman contends, helps to promote a frank exchange of ideas.

2.4.3 The school head as facilitator

The supporting, facilitating and the creation of a conducive atmosphere for improvement enunciated by O’Brien (1979:6) supports the collaboration perspective by Glickman in section 2.4.2 above. During collaboration, the teacher’s opinion is encouraged rather than suppressed. Both the head and the teacher listen to what each has to say about the lesson preparation. Such a climate helps eliminate any tension that may exist between the supervised and the supervisor. Given the relaxed, collegial and supportive atmosphere, the teacher can psychologically prepare his class in advance of the impending head’s class visit. This is important because not only can classroom observation cause anxiety to the teacher, but can also affect the students’ natural attention and responses to the lesson.
Classroom supervision ought not to be carried out with the intent to ‘find the villain’ or find fault with the observed or as discussed earlier, teachers should not have reason to view classroom supervision as a witch-hunting exercise. Rather, the role of the supervisor should be that of a guide and a provider of an enabling work environment. His/her role should be like that of a shepherd to his flock. The good shepherd lets his flock wander freely and only guides them if they go astray. Undue interference to the academic freedom of the teacher by the head can only lead to the devaluation and underestimation of the teacher’s professional capacity. The fact that teaching is a profession means that teachers have something to ‘profess’. The teacher should then be given the chance and freedom to practise what they are trained in and good at, that is, teaching.

In the context of classroom teaching and supervision, the school head should play the role of a manager and not of a leader. Harris et al (1996:3) make a distinction between a leader and a manager. A leader, according to the authors, is concerned with doing the right things. This is a person who does things the bureaucratic way by ensuring that routines and procedures are being followed to the letter. Such behaviour, they challenge, is not liberating, instead it only serves to block innovation. They define a manager as someone who does things right (ibid:3) The latter definition supports the argument made earlier about the school head and his/her role in classroom supervision; that of providing an enabling environment. Harris et al.’s definition of manager encourages independent thinking. The freedom of thought and of doing things are in themselves an empowerment and can promote professional growth in the teacher. On the other hand, too much of unguided independence in doing things can be detrimental to a common cause pursued by all teachers.
Put simply, teachers should be allowed some margin of freedom to plan their work, to use a variety of teaching methods and to exercise classroom control without undue interference as long as they do not overstep guidelines on teaching policy. A free-for-all situation is not good, in the same way as a dictatorial management system is bad. But while these authors make an important point about what ought to be the behaviour of the superordinate to the subordinates, it should be noted that it is important that the school head, to a considerable extent, should insist upon agreed procedures in his leadership or management. Insisting upon procedures does not necessarily mean one is suppressing teachers’ ideas and initiatives. These procedures may be what was agreed by all the teachers at the different stages of the development plan. The school head’s role here should be seen by teachers as that of coordinating what all have agreed to do.

2.4.4 Teacher empowerment

Empowerment to the teacher to do things to his/her full capabilities may pose a threat to the school head. He/she may feel his/her role has been diminished is status. This is likely to happen to a head whose power base resides in legitimate or formal authority only, and not on expert power (Hoy and Miskel 1991:83-84). However, confident heads should not be threatened by their teachers’ empowerment (Peters 1976:13) and (Everard and Morris 1990:167). It is expected of people in higher and responsible positions such as school heads that they should be able to know when a teacher departs from the norm in their teaching practice. When this happens, an intervention by the head becomes necessary. In this case the assumption of a leader’s role as per Harris et al.’s (1996:3) definition can be justified. That is, becoming directive as the circumstances may demand. For instance, a teacher who resists a school policy to
integrate computer teaching in Design and Technology teaching can be told to comply or suffer the consequences.

Problems that stand in the way of effective learning are likely to occur during lesson delivery. These are practical problems which may have been overlooked by both the head and the teacher during the lesson plan stage. The problems may be related to some handicaps of the class as a group, to individual students, to part of the class or to the teacher himself/herself. It could be a case of poor class control by the teacher. It could be the teacher’s inability to use teaching aids or non-use of them. It could be a problem of a wide ability-range class with the teacher pacing all the students together at the same speed.

But whatever the problems and obstacles to effective classroom achievement, the supervision would have offered a basis for the school head to address them. This offers a reason for the supervision of classroom activities in order to develop the teachers by helping them cope with any problems they may have in their teaching. In the above examples, workshops on mixed ability teaching and on the use of teaching aids can be mounted if the above are concerns affecting the school or department.

2.4.5 Need to discuss lesson plan
Judging whether a teacher is effective or not in the delivery of classroom instruction can be very difficult to make. It can be controversial too. Making a judgment of the effectiveness of a teacher or lack of it, on the basis of students’ responses can sometimes be value-judgmental and misleading. Often, effectiveness is associated with achievement. The students can display enthusiasm without getting anything worthwhile from the lesson. Some teachers
can be good at arousing students' enthusiasm on an 'empty' lesson. Glickman (1985:207) suggests that classroom observation has the act of noting and judging and that it is a two-part process. The first describes what has been observed. The second involves interpreting what it means. He notes that *when we lose the description of the event and retain the interpretation, difficulties arise* (ibid:207).

Similarly, it could be added that classroom observation, in a different way, is a two-part process involving the supervisor on the one hand and the supervised on the other. The two ought to evaluate the lesson together soon after it has been taught. If both can agree on what happened during the lesson, they are more likely to agree a strategy for improvement of the lesson in the future.

Finally, it is essential that classroom supervision is linked to the school's mission agreed at the initial stage of the school development plan. Linked to that mission statement, classroom supervision becomes easier for the supervisor to carry out. The school head's role in the supervision of classroom activities can have a multiple effect on the educational effectiveness of the school. His influence on the teachers' instructional delivery can be indirectly passed on to the students' learning and performance. This influence lies to a significant extent in his/her close collaboration with the teachers.

Collaboration cannot be guaranteed by virtue of the official relationship between head and teacher. A special effort is required, particularly by the school head, to initiate it. It takes tolerance, endurance, negotiation, compromise, effort and time to achieve. Teachers cannot be expected to implement new skills without having a chance to understand and appreciate the benefits to themselves of such efforts.
They will not be committed either, to change until they themselves see the need for and value of it (Glickman 1985:294). For them to understand, accept and be committed, they need to be involved.

2.4.6 Need to delegate classroom supervision

The need for classroom supervision is that, unlike the case in organizations like industry, much of the work of teachers is done alone with students in the classroom. It cannot be easily ascertained therefore that new teaching methods from workshops are being implemented. The acid test of whether indeed these methods are being practised lies in classroom supervision. Given the other important duties the school head has to perform, there is obviously a limit to the number of classroom supervision he/she can do. The large students' and teachers' rolls in secondary schools in Botswana do not allow regular classroom supervision by the school head. For example, in 1999 each of the 27 senior secondary schools had student enrolments exceeding one thousand and a teacher population more than sixty. The 42-stream schools had a minimum of 1470 students and some 95 teachers or so. And among these, every school has its weak and outstanding teachers (and doubtless the same applies to their school heads). The classroom supervision has therefore to be selective. But the new and the less experienced teacher should be supervised in order to support and encourage them to anchor their confidence in the job. Selection should be made to the teachers longer in the service basing it on their performance. The whole thing should be situational. It is a question of different strokes for different folks (Blanchard 1986:28).
The outstanding and more senior ones can be trusted to lead and guide others through classroom supervision. Usually, the outstanding are teachers with extensive educational background, who have demonstrated competency and the ability to motivate others (Glickman 1985:85). In the Botswana education system such a crop of teachers, though rare to find, are often found among the ranks of Senior Teacher grade one or Heads of Department. If school heads fail to delegate classroom supervision and attempt to do everything themselves, they may not find time and may find themselves playing bit-parts in the school development plans with little to show of in terms of real achievement.

The problems experienced by individual teachers, the progress they make, and the opportunities that exist for their career progression need not only be identified through classroom supervision. The school head can get to know about these through ongoing discussions with the heads of the subjects. The subject head can provide the school head with information pertaining to the individual teachers’ classroom management, the quality and effectiveness of the lesson plans, the frequency at which the teacher assigns homework to students and marks it, whether teachers arrive on time and stay throughout the lesson and whether teaching aids are being used effectively. Through such meetings with subject heads, the school head gets the opportunity to identify those areas and teachers which need the most assistance. The subject head would already have observed the teachers in action to be able to give such details to the school head.

But before adopting this method, the school head should first be convinced that the subject head has the ability to supervise others. His/her delegation to senior teachers to perform such important tasks would therefore be based on the subject heads’ technical competencies, knowledge base and interpersonal skills
(Glickman 1985:80), known through previous classroom observation or through dialogue.

Sometimes it is not necessary for the school head to sit in the teachers’ lessons. An out-of-class collaboration between the teacher concerned and the school head may sometimes have a greater impact than had the school head sat in the teacher’s class. Also, not all cases need classroom observation anyway. It may not help much if the school head were to sit in a class whose teacher experiences problems of class control. That day the students may decide to play good because of the physical presence of the school head in the lesson. The same is the case with a teacher who arrives late to class or who leaves the lesson before time. The most effective way in this respect, would be to have an out of class dialogue with the teacher.

In summary, the section on classroom supervision argued that the classroom is the main centre where practical activities of the school development plan happen. Through the supervision of classroom practices, the strengths and weaknesses of teachers can be identified and appropriate staff development programmes instituted. As such, it was held that in order to create an enabling environment to the teacher and his/her teaching practices, the school head should pay particular attention to what goes on in the class. The important link between classroom supervision and school development planning objectives was recognized and such classroom supervision should be done with this in mind. The focus of a school development plan, is after all, on the improvement of the teaching and learning processes which take place in the classroom. If teachers’ skills are improved, student performances are more likely to improve. If this happens, the major
objective of the school development plan to improve the teaching and learning practices would be easily achieved.

It was further observed that due to the relatively large numbers of teachers in Botswana secondary schools, delegating classroom supervision to senior teachers is necessary. Emphasis was laid on the need to do classroom observation in the most consultative and collegial manner with those involved.

In the next section, a link is made between school culture and school development planning.

2.5 SCHOOL CULTURE

Culture is a concept with a wide usage in wide contexts. Statements such as, that group of people has a culture of hard work; discussions on sexual issues with children is a taboo in that culture, and, he is an uncultured politician are often made in everyday general conversations. The concept of culture can be discussed from an anthropological and from an aesthetic point of view, among others. But in this section of the chapter, the concept of culture is approached from a social dimension or interaction viewpoint. That is, from the position where members in a school organization interact with the prime function driven by a common vision about improving instruction and learning.

The definition of culture, in this context, by different authors is examined and ways on how school heads can build, support and sustain a culture that can enhance school effectiveness are proposed. In the examination and discussion of the concept, other related concepts such as team building, values and others that naturally interlock with the concept under review, creep in. The persistently
explicit and implicit creeping in of these other themes is, however, a common phenomenon with management generally. The nature of management is that one theme draws from several related others. These ‘sub-themes’ are also discussed in this section, albeit fleetingly.

2.5.1 **How culture, vision and values impact on one another**

Following are some of the definitions on culture. Johnston (1987:78) says this about culture. It is *the integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action, . . . and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations*. Culture is the glue that holds the actors together (Deal and Kennedy 1983:14) and (Hunt 1992:116). *Every school has informal norms and expectations or a code of ‘dos’ and ‘don’ts’ which define appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. They are not written and are therefore only learnt by experience in the institution*, says Dalin (1993:97) in respect of school culture. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:97) simply define culture as *the written and unwritten rules that regulate behaviour in an organization*. While Deal and Kennedy (1983:14) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:15) define culture as an informal understanding of the way things are done in the organization.

From the definitions given above, explicitly and implicitly, emerge key words and phrases like, common value, a common belief, culture as a uniting force, the act of transmitting knowledge to new comers, a collective vision and team work. A little difference and perhaps a contradiction is by Hargreaves and Hopkins where they define culture as the *unwritten and written rules* . . . (ibid. 1994:97). In another definition they speak of culture as an *informal understanding* . . . (ibid:1991:15). The word informal suggests not written. The rest of the authors speak of culture as informal or as unwritten rules of an organization.
Among the characteristics of a school development plan are found attributes of culture such as common action, team work, a common vision resulting in a common value (Dean 1993:25 and 31). From the concepts of culture and school development plan, the key word or phrase is ‘common value’. Johnston (1987:81) says values provide a common direction and are guidelines that influence everyday behaviour. He further states that values tell what an organization stands for and what it thinks is important. An example of value is given in the following statement: “We believe that student achievement is our most important product (ibid:81). Similarly Hunt (1992:48) says values are deeper-seated concerns about standards.

It can be said, from the concept of value, that there is a close relationship between the concepts of vision and that of value. For in vision, there is the aspect of a common belief, a common direction and what the organization stands for (Beare, Caldwell and Millikan 1989:107-109). The main feature of culture is what people value most, as has been enunciated earlier. Culture and vision are therefore closely linked, that is, if culture is related to value and value is related to vision. From this reasoning it follows that there is a relationship between the sub-theme ‘culture’ and the main theme ‘school development planning’. In the context of the synonymous relationship between the concepts value, vision, culture and school development planning, a school whose teachers’ and students’ values are congruent with the academic aims of the school is likely to achieve its educational goals better. This is likely to be the case because values can form the bedrock of an institution. They guide the way in which the organization can go about achieving success as members’ efforts are likely to be directed to that value (Johnston 1987:80).
Culture exists in all organizations, all groups generate a culture. The question is whether if it is bad, it can be changed. It is true that some people view education as only offering the opportunity for a good job and thereby good living. Quite a considerable number of successful business people in Botswana, particularly from villages, are not role models for education to the students whose view of education is wealth related and who think they can have an alternative for education. Their level of education has been limited to basic literacy and numeracy. If there is no common thread between the values of the teachers and the students, then the educational aims of the school stand to fail. Indeed, in Botswana secondary schools, a significant number of students’ behaviour shows a mismatch between their values and those of the school. Teachers complain that students do not take their studies seriously. Their indifferent attitudes towards schooling show that their values lie elsewhere other than in schooling and what it purports to offer.

Notwithstanding their little publicity in the paper media, and hardly any in the electronic media, the Thomas Hardys, the Chinua Achebes and other literacy figures, are not the students’ heroes. Sportsmen and artists with heroic exploits like Tyson on boxing, Bruce Lee on martial arts, Celine Dion on rhythm and blues music, Maradona on soccer, Schwarzenegger on action films, are their esteemed heroes. This is confirmed by pictures of these heroes found pasted on students’ lockers, on books as covers and on the classroom walls. Diagrammatic or pictorial academic learning aids have a very short lifespan on the classroom boards. They are removed sooner than later only to be replaced by what the students value most; pictures on sports and popular music stars.
The discussion on values reminds us of what was discussed under ‘constructing a shared vision’: that the vision must be the product of negotiation among all school staff including students where appropriate. Further, all must feel that they have made a contribution to the development of the vision (Diugnam 1987:210). Similarly, without consensus on values, the school will be aimless for teachers, confusing for students, and will send contradictory messages to its community (Johnston 1987:82).

Each school can be different and unique. School heads, teachers and students may leave the school and be replaced by new others. But there will always be a distinct characteristic about the school which will remain. This is not necessarily the physical structure of the school, but something invisible and intangible. If an analogy with a less formal organization (culture not being peculiar to more formal organizations like schools and business enterprises only) like a football club were to be made, players, coaches and management may eventually leave the team. But the original character of the team will always remain the same for a long time. In both analogies of a school and a football club, the sustained character is the result of the impact of the ‘transmitted behaviour to succeeding generations’ as described by Johnston in his definition of culture. Influential in the transmission of culture from generation to generation in an organization are its ‘inactive’ members in the field of play. Not the teachers, students nor the head in the case of schools. Not the players, the coaches or management in the case of football. But the parents or the community and the supporters of the football club respectively.
The school, although it is the unit of change, it is not an island. It is responsible and accountable to the parents and the community it serves. The people who can best directly influence the community’s perception of the school’s image are the teachers and the students. It is these groups and not the school head that most provide a formal and informal link between the community and the school. When there are problems in the running of the school, it is the teachers and the students who freely talk to outsiders. In addition to judging the school by its public examination results, the outsiders also judge the school by the teachers’ and students’ behaviour, from what they say and what they do not say - the verbal and non-verbal behaviour (Dalin 1993:57).

Connell’s (1985:141) viewpoint on this argument is that students can be more influential than teachers in revealing what goes on in the school. This, however, should be expected since students meet their parents every day. By virtue of their relationship, the child-parent relationship, secrets about the school are hardly kept. Schools are transparent places. Anyone can walk in and see what is going on. Teachers may spend much of their time in classrooms isolated from their fellow workers, but in each of these rooms are 33 or so pairs of eyes and ears, the 33 or so tongues to talk about is afterwards. At tea or lunch break all adjourn and discuss how things are going. Information and rumour pass around a school easily; and most kids talk to their families about what they do and hear in school (ibid:141).

2.5.2 Situational approach to school culture
Staff meetings can be suitable formal gatherings where school culture can be built. The success of culture building depends on what the teachers know what is expected of them and how they should relate their actions to school improvement endeavours. The absence of such knowledge and understanding is the reason why
in a school there is sometimes found a series of sub-cultures of small groups based on their immediate parochial interests, argues (Carnall 1995:150). Put another way, *Left to their own devices, each group tends to develop its own culture, its own beliefs, sets its own work patterns, attitudes and values* (ibid:150).

This viewpoint serves to re-emphasize the important role the school head ought to play in the articulation of the school vision to all concerned parties in the school. This the school head can achieve by encouraging decisions made on the basis of facts and discouraging discussions on characteristics of individuals at staff meetings.

Often, little agreements on issues are the result of people arguing to satisfy their individual or small group convenience on the basis of their wants, needs, beliefs, and abilities or lack of them (Bolman and Deal 1984:21). Insisting on rational and objective arguments by the school head may be taken as constraining individual liberty by those who pursue irrational arguments. In such circumstances, it is necessary for the head to be very cautious, tolerant and sensitive to the individual arguments but without necessarily compromising objectivity. For, by insisting upon objectivity, he/she can help develop individual thinking capacity and this can be beneficial to the promotion of a culture of objectivity in the school. A disunited staff can strongly undermine innovations. *When culture works against you, it’s nearly impossible to get anything done . . . but it can produce dramatic results when it channels energy in positive directions*, caution Deal and Kennedy (1983:15).
This thinking by Deal and Kennedy is appropriate and can yield results if taken heed of by school heads as they implement development plans or any school-related innovation. In as much as it applies to all school heads, it applies more particularly to the newly appointed head or heads arriving at a school for the first time. Getting the basics of a situation right first is very important. The familiarization of oneself with the culture at play in a school before introducing new initiatives should not mean keeping oneself locked away from the daily business of the school. The school head should be seen as a colleague and not a stranger. The situation can be better studied and understood from within, and by a personal interaction with the teachers. From this position, one can easily detect and address any behaviour by teachers which can hinder school progress.

A situational approach to culture discussed above is illustrated in the following case study. A school head transferred from a town secondary school where girls’ slacks were items of the school uniform. The slacks were not uniform items at his new school, a village school. At his first meeting with the students’ council, a few students who purported to represent the views of all the students, strongly argued for the introduction of slacks as part of school uniform. The wearing of slacks had been refused by the previous head. The issue had been re-activated apparently to take advantage of the new school head who allowed slacks at his former school. The matter was taken to a staff meeting. A small pressure group dominated the discussion, vehemently arguing that girls should be allowed slacks and making utterances to the effect that We should not be such fuddy-duddies. Most women wear trousers these days. Just fifty kilometres away other schools allow girls the wearing of trousers. No school is an island. We are sitting on a time bomb. If we do not act now, we will be overtaken by events before we know it.
A survey was carried out to all students and teachers. The parents' views and opinions on the issue were sought at a general Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) meeting. The results were interesting. The outcomes of the survey were indirectly inverse correlation to the arguments advanced at the students' council meeting with the school head. The teachers' response was similar to those of the students. Large numbers of both the students and teachers did not support the idea of slacks by girls. The results showed a strong cultural bias against the wearing of trousers by girls. At the parents' meeting with teachers, remarks such as *it is not in our culture for women to put on trousers* were commonplace.

Such a case study can serve as an advice or caution to school heads. The caution lies in the view that management patterns cannot simply be lifted and transplanted from one situation to another. Management systems are like sensitive plants, which flourish in one type of soil but do not necessarily do well when moved to a different type (Bottery 1992:146). For instance, sorghum thrives better in loam soil while groundnuts do better in a different type of soil.

In the context, Weindling (1992:71) also cautions that *The shadow of a headteacher past has a major influence on the school’s culture. It probably takes from three to five years before the new head’s influence has much effect on the ethos of the secondary school.* . . . *One of the biggest problems for a new head is not what you do or not do, but rather something which is out of your hands, namely what sort of relationship existed between your predecessor and the staff. It is annoying because there is nothing you can do about it.* School heads are therefore advised to ‘test the soil’ before introducing innovations in their schools, particularly new school heads to determine their suitability to the new environment. Taking time to understand the existing teachers’ working patterns and building school improvement efforts into the existing culture can also
prevent future implementation problems. Another lesson that can be learnt from the case study is that important decisions need the involvement of all the concerned parties in the school. Had the new school head rushed the decision to allow the use of slacks by girls as a result of pressure from the few students and from the teachers’ pressure group, he would have been rudely reminded by the majority of the school that, *this is the way we do (or don’t do) things here* (Deal and Kennedy 1983:14).

A third important and useful point to school heads from the case study is that a few vocal ones at meetings do not necessarily represent the views of everybody no matter how loud they shout. Such characters can easily intimidate into submission others who do not necessarily agree with them and can also, by their behaviour, threaten others into holding back their opinions on the subject under debate.

The Japanese, in their work culture, do not believe one person can solve a problem on their own. They believe in team effort or collective decision-making. The scenario by Bottery (1992:142-143) illustrates this point. He states that at a Japanese firm, a new expatriate manager introduced a suggestion box inviting individual comments on how to increase production at the work place. He promised rewards to individuals who made workable suggestions. By the end of the day the box was still empty. No suggestions had been made. He wondered. He was advised that according to the Japanese psychology of rewarding work, no one person deserved a reward. The manager changed his strategy, he promised group rewards. Suggestions started to flow in. Before long the box was full.
This illustration tends to highlight two points earlier stressed about organizational culture. First, how a belief in teamwork can enhance productivity. Second, the importance of a situational approach to management: the 'do as the Romans do' approach upon arrival at an institution in order to learn better from within, before introducing any new ideas applies here. The discussion on a situational approach to culture in order to win members' support in an organization, is beautifully put by Connell (1985:133): *In exercising your authority and freedom to run your school as you think fit, of necessity you must have the backing of your staff. Without their support and participation and their adequate preparation, any departures from tradition will have little chance of success . . . . Staff members will readily follow a course of action if they have been taken into confidence and have shared in formulating the policy.*

2.5.3 Promoting effective learning

An effective school is usually one where staff work harmoniously with each other, with the school head and with the students. It has the attributes of an orderly environment conducive to effective learning. Everard and Morris (1990:167) describe a good school in the following terms: *With good schools you can almost smell the calm and quiet purposefulness when you walk in the door. Their heads reflect some higher purpose than the 'getting ahead' mentality. They confront their staff as to standards, notwithstanding 'academic freedom' and are highly intolerant of the irredeemably incapable teacher.*

While a lot of the characteristics may describe a good school, some fit the description of a different school, a bad school. Effective learning does not always take place in a quiet classroom where the students jump when the teacher says jump, so the best education need not be happening in the most orderly schools (Connell 1985:135-136).
Modern teaching requires the teacher to be a facilitator with the students playing an active role in the learning process. Some reasonable amount of noise in an effective learning environment is natural and unavoidable, whereas the ‘quiet and calm’ in a school may be because the head is a dictator. Students may behave in such a manner due to being ‘policed’ at study time by teachers. Students who cannot work on their own and who need the teacher’s close supervision all the time do not have a culture of achievement. Academic work is not their number one value. Well motivated students work on their own even at their homes away from the teachers.

2.5.4 The effect of staff turn-over on school culture

A problem faced by secondary schools in Botswana is the preservation and sustenance of good practices by schools due to high staff turn-over. Teachers leave schools to go for further training or to assume new posts with increased responsibility elsewhere. Mobility for deputies is for them to gain experience necessary to become school heads. School heads are also affected by transfers. While the reasons for staff mobility are all credible, however, they have a disruptive effect on school development plans. The new teachers in the school may not share the value of the school culture as they were not part of the planning process (Fink and Stoll 1994:158-159).

A school development plan’s results can take years before they are felt by the school and by the external community. Also if teachers transfer and new ones come in before the process can yield results, there is a chance that the process may be retarded as new teachers may take time to adjust to the new culture. The new teachers may also bring with them their own ideas about school development
plans. The same argument holds with school heads. A school head who has been successful elsewhere may influence teachers into his/her approach to a school development plan, particularly if the school he is joining does not have a good track record of achievement and cohesive teams dedicated to school improvements.

The other problem of continuity is related to the system of student intake into secondary schools especially in senior secondary schools. It is not uncommon for one senior secondary school to have students from more than seven junior secondary schools, and coming from different cultural backgrounds. These students may bring into their new school, varied behaviour patterns towards schooling, thus posing a threat to the creation of a cohesive culture of learning. The problem of building a culture of achievement from such a diverse group is exacerbated by the short time (two years) they stay at the senior secondary school. In support of this concern, Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:20) allude that, *perhaps the most crucial challenge facing schools to-day is how to balance change and stability effectively; how on one hand to preserve what is already admirable and fine in a school, . . . .*

However, despite the inherent problems associated with staff turn-over and students’ system of intake, the school head can always make efforts to ‘sell’ the good aspects of the school to the new-comers. School assemblies are suitable gatherings to introduce and socialize new members into the school culture, that is, ‘the way things are done around here’. The school successes, the academic and behavioural expectations are but some of the things that could be said at assemblies to both the students(particularly) and the staff joining the school for the first time. Good school heads pay particular attention to details like these
because it is little things like these which can in the long run create a strong culture that can support school performances.

2.5.5 Strategies for culture building for school improvement

2.5.5.1 Induction sessions meant to familiarize or orientate new members to the new environment can, however, be more effective ways than brief remarks made at school assemblies. Again, induction sessions have the advantage of dealing with the small number of relevant people. Emphasis at induction sessions is usually on procedures and not so much on content. It is a process meant to introduce new members to the organization, and the organization to the new members (Dunham 1995:89). The teachers are introduced to their future colleagues, to the staff manual, to the school profile, to any staff social clubs in existence; while the students are introduced to the general curriculum, the school rules and regulations, the school prospectus, to key staff members and can be taken around on a tour of the school. Through this exercise, the new members are being settled into the school culture within which they are going to be a part. First impressions are important as they can have a lasting impact on the new-comer’s attitude to the organization. School heads need to take induction exercise with such importance.

The outcomes of the socialization process of new teachers and students to the culture of the school can depend to a significant extent upon the dedication the school head attaches to it. But school inductions usually last only for a short time, a day or so. The participants cannot therefore possibly remember everything important about the school in this short time. To make up for this shortcoming, teacher orientations can be extended to their specific departments for specific
details and more information about the school. The students can be further
referred to their class teachers, the sports department, the boarding department (if any) and/or to the students’ council.

2.5.5.2 Teams

School improvement can be supported by the existence of teams in the school. Yukl (1981:154) defines a team as a group of people who get along well with each other, share information, ideas and are friendly, helpful and cooperative. This definition of a team is somewhat incomplete for as long as the group of people is not committed to a common purpose. Owens (1991:281-282) and Oakland (1994:337) add a dimension that can significantly contribute to the individual member’s identity and belonging to the team. They are of the similar view that strong teams can be built through the genuine participation of members in a given task. Participation, Owens argues, should be throughout the different levels of the school development plan and not at certain levels only. Limiting participation to expressing views and opinions in low-level problems and reserving important decisions to school heads is not real participation, he further contends (ibid:282).

In Botswana secondary schools (and I believe in most schools elsewhere), the hierarchical organizational structures is mapped in such a way that it does not always encourage ‘genuine participation’ as advocated by Owens and Oakland. Important issues are often discussed, and decisions formulated, by the senior school management before they are taken to the level of senior teachers. At the senior teacher level, it may be tentatively adopted or finalized. If final, the decision is passed down through the ranks to the level of implementation. If
tentative, it is likely to suffer a manipulative effect at its next level of discussion, caused by those who have had the occasion to discuss it earlier.

But whether it is taken to the level of senior teachers, or teachers, as a final product for implementation or as tentative pending endorsement or approval by teachers, the process, in the light of Owens and Oakland’s perspectives on genuine participation, is not genuine participation. Presented to teachers as final, the decision may receive ‘an extra-mild’ or even a cold acceptance and a mechanical rather than an internalized compliance. “Ladies and gentlemen, at the senior management meeting, it was decided that all students who fail to submit assignments on time should not be allowed to attend lessons for that particular day. Any comments on this decision?” the school head may announce. The school head is actually saying “buy the decision”. But even if he/she succeeds, the teachers would not, strictly speaking, have participated in the decision.

Teachers may thus feel the decision has already been made for them, and may find it pointless to comment, instead they may consider it prudent to remain silent. Their silence in this regard may not mean consent but could be a protest against their exclusion from the outset on an issue that requires their implementation. A decision arrived in this manner has the risk of potential implementation failure. The teachers may adopt a resigned attitudes towards work and even decide not to take action against students who fail to do their work. The school management will have little information on students’ performance if this happens. Arguing from a moral point of view, it is better to be frank to people than to manipulate them. It could be argued that it is morally wrong for a school head to make a decision on a issue and take it to teachers for debate pretending the debate on the issue is fresh and open. The danger is that this manipulative behaviour can
backfire on the school head if the teachers propose a completely different
decision from his/her secret one.

A paradigm for a participative decision-making process that would support team
building is proposed below. The idea is from Owens (1991:284) but modified to
suit schools.

Diagram 2:2 Paradigm for a participative decision-making process
(Owens 1991:284).

In work settings, there is the ideal or the desirable situation and the real or
practical. The prevailing circumstances in an organization at the time can
determine whether it is appropriate to involve all staff or to be selective, because
in certain conditions it may not be necessary - or it may be time consuming - to
seek everybody’s participation in a decision-making process. Practically, people
do not always want or expect to be involved in everything. Selection can be based on the preparedness of the individual to participate in the task, level of maturity, experience, dedication, individual or group ability, or on a combination of some of these variables. Often, such attributes can be found among the ranks of senior teachers. A considerable number of them were elevated to this level on account of these qualities. But in the case of a school development plan, it is almost imperative that all stakeholders be actively involved as much as possible at all the levels of the plan, particularly the first stages to increase the sense of ownership and subsequent commitment.

The sense of participative decision-making that can perpetuate a culture of team work among teachers is advocated by Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:17). They state that: *The task of deciding priorities is best undertaken by a team, chaired by the head. This helps develop the much needed ownership.* A similar perspective is attested as follows: *In effective schools management is not the unique task of those at the apex of a hierarchy, but a shared responsibility of all those who are involved in the school* (ibid:17).

A number of activities not directly related to the students’ learning process but supportive of it in one way or any other, take place in schools. Among such are sporting activities, school policies and procedures to be followed and complied with, that is, rules and regulations that guide the students’ behaviour in and, for some purposes out of school. Examples here are the queuing for meals by students, the general school cleaning exercise and the students’ uniform. But whatever other things schools do, the real reason for schooling is one. Parents send their children to school to partake of formal classroom learning. Teachers, whether they work as a group or as individuals, have the common goal of
ensuring effective learning. For the purposes of this important goal, the teachers ought to work as a team if they are to achieve this. The centrality of the teaching process in working towards a common goal can be analogous to a ball game where the ultimate aim is one, i.e. to score goals and win the game. This can be achieved if the players adopt a team approach to the game rather than an individualized one.

In the context of the pursuance of a common-goal approach towards improved students' achievement, working teams are more essential at the subject or department level. It is at this level where teachers discuss and agree common scheming, discuss and agree effective teaching methods, discuss and decide on policies on students' homework, examinations and marking schemes and keys. More than at staff meetings, the need for cohesive teams at the subject or department level is essential because smaller groups are involved and for a clearer goal focus.

In well organized departments, strong cohesive teams can emerge on which the implementation of the school development plan tasks can be firmly entrenched. But subject departments are run by senior teachers. They run them on behalf of school heads on delegated functions. What then is the role of the school head in encouraging a culture of team work at department level when he/she does not directly supervise teachers in their respective departments?

The answer lies in Fullan (1982:135) that the school head need not be an expert in all the different subjects, but that what is important is the practical involvement and support to the individual departments. Teams can also be built on cross-departmental lines using the significant overlapping of subjects that exist in the
curriculum. For example, there is a lot of biology in agriculture and vice versa, a lot of mathematics in physics and an overlap of geography and chemistry topics. The integration of topics in the teaching of these subjects which involves duplication in content is necessary and can be effectively done through cross-curricular team spirit. This integration of subjects can serve to encourage and stimulate the teachers’ talents and thus promote teacher development.

Dunham (1995:53) makes a seven point guideline which school heads can use to motivate and maintain a culture of team work in their schools, providing an acronym for the word motivate:

- **Make a point of being accessible to team members and have mutually agreed areas of responsibilities.**
- **Opinions, contributions and experience should be valued.**
- **Treat colleagues as equals in the team and treat them as individuals in a professional capacity.**
- **Improve communication in teams by showing respect to others in the hope of reciprocal respect, not by showing a position of authority.**
- **Value team and individuals by fostering responsibility.**
- **Allocate time for planning and discussion.**
- **Team members appreciate praise and constructive criticism.**
- **Encourage initiative taking and the need to work together, that is, for all to contribute.**
Once the teachers’ commitment, their confidence and working patterns in a school development plan have been established in a culture of achievement, the school head can exploit such positive behaviour to establish within the existing culture, sub-cultures that can enhance students’ achievements. Two such aspects that can help improve students’ learning are discussed in the following sections.

2.5.5.3 Punctuality for school
There are many reasons that affect students’ punctuality to school. To promote punctuality in the school, teachers need to make the students understand the value for punctuality to their schooling. Follow-ups by the school head at public assemblies in the form of support to the teachers’ efforts can help improve punctuality to school. Persistent late-comers could be followed up with the parents to determine the reason(s) for lateness to school. For excuses such as “I woke up late” (and they are frequent among students), the parents could be persuaded to buy the student an alarm clock. Reasons like “the minibus collects us late” could be investigated and relevant parents approached and advised to get together and agree with the transport people to make earlier morning departures than usual. Also, some students stay alone and as a result there is not that push from the parent to wake up earlier. This view is not based on researched literature per se but it is the researcher’s practical experience of a situation observed over a number of years.

2.5.5.4 Recognition of students’ academic achievement
... the most convincing sign of a strong achievement motivation is the tendency of a person who is not being required to think about anything in particular, that is, who is free to relax or to let his mind wander, to think about ways of
accomplishing something (Everard and Morris 1990:32). Also, trinsic rewards can be effective if tied closely to results (Handy 1993:232).

Although Everard and Morris and Handy's perspectives are not directed to students per se, they, however, have a practical application to students in a school. It is my view that students in our schools are generally not highly motivated in their academic achievement. They lack that competitive spirit. They are generally relaxed and their minds, as argued in section 2.5.1, seem to be preoccupied with other things other than academic matters.

The reward system as suggested below by the researcher below is based on the above perspectives by Everard and Morris and Handy. It is also based on the view by Lawrence and Lee (1989:54) that, people can be self-motivated and self-controlled and will work towards organizational goals if management creates suitable conditions and opportunities. The idea of a reward system is to bring the students' minds to an academic focus and encourage a culture of hard work among them. Also, by recognizing their achievement by awarding tangible prizes, students may feel better about themselves (Handy 1993:232) and be motivated into regular work patterns.

A reward system where high performers are awarded prizes could be introduced. The prizes could be certificates and/or small trophies awarded at the end of each term and at the commonplace annual prize giving ceremonies. Although it can be argued that ex-trinsic rewards like money are not the most effective motivators (Owens 1991:118), to teenagers, tangible things can be motivating, sometimes more than that 'excellent' remark by the teacher about a student's impressive performance. Students can make a direct comparison with others (Handy
1993:52-55) using certificates and trophies. A more regular performance award than the one-off end-of-year prize-giving ceremonies can motivate students better. It gives them a chance to reflect sooner than later on their performances with a view to improvement before the next prize ceremony (Everard and Morris 1990:32) and it gives those receiving prizes a pat-on-the-back to-day rather than at the end of the year.

The constraints faced by schools with regards prizes is the non-availability of a special allocation for prizes in the school budget. Schools usually have to struggle using time-consuming ways to source for funds for these occasions. But, if given ample time, the local business community is often willing to sponsor prize ceremonies. The school’s parent-teacher association (PTA) is one possible source of funding for such occasions although it usually prefers to channel its funds towards physical projects such as buildings and towards the purchase of school buses. However, the rewards need not only be extrinsic. Names of top performers, say twenty, in individual subjects can be posted on notice boards around the school. This system takes into account more students and can even better stimulate competition better than the prize system which caters only for a few. Perhaps an even better way is to have both the ex-trinsic and in-trinsic forms of reward as described above used to motivate students’ performance.

The disadvantage of a reward system as a motivating factor is that it can work against its intended purpose. If not designed to cater for all groups of students in the school, it can have demotivating effects on students. Often, the students who have cause to expect rewards are the academically gifted as opposed to the average but hardworking. In this sense, rewards are not a recognition of effort but rather a recognition of natural giftedness. In schools, the gifted are in the
minority. The chances are therefore that the rewards will always rotate among these few. Also, in schools, competitors are so poorly matched that some cannot win and others cannot lose even if all worked hard. The moral dilemma with a reward system lies here. There are those who no matter how hard they try, will never be top of the class, and this can be discouraging. There is a need, therefore, to diversify a reward system which would include those who make the most effort but do not come top of the class.

In concluding this section, it is appropriate to draw together the link between school improvement and the culture of the school. It was suggested in this section that central to school improvement efforts lies a close working relationship among teachers themselves, between the school head and teachers and between teachers or head and others who have influence in the school activities. Simply put, there is an imperative need for a culture of togetherness if the common good is to be realized. Different strategies for the development and sustainability of a cohesive school culture were proposed and discussed. Linked to cohesive teams is how conflict can be managed for the benefit of the school.

In the next section we turn to conflict management. Having established teams, we look at how the head can manage the inevitable conflict resulting from teacher interaction in the school development planning implementation.

2.6 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

This section examines the concept of conflict and relates it to an organization. The organization specifically involved is a school. In schools teachers make interactions with each other in pursuance of the goal of implementation of a
common curriculum. The discussion is focused on how school heads can manage conflicts between staff more effectively for schools’ improved performance.

Two operational definitions of conflict will form the bases of the discussion. Conflict of interest is defined by Caldwell and Spinks (1988:185) as *the active striving for one’s own preferred outcome which, if attained, precludes the attainment by others of their preferred outcome, thereby producing hostility. It is the hostility which is usually seen as the harmful aspect of conflict.* Handy (1993:300) defines conflicts as differences in goals and ideologies between individuals and groups of people.

2.6.1 Causes of conflicts

A school development plan, whose implementation requires a collective effort by teachers, naturally lends itself to conflict situations. First, if the teachers fail to see the compatibility of the school development plan to their normal school practices and only view it as an imposition from elsewhere, then this can lead to disagreements with issues of the school development plan under consideration. This reaction is more likely to be the case if from the outset the school vision vis-à-vis school development planning was not articulated well enough or teachers were excluded from its formulation.

Secondly, even if the new change may have received acceptance from the teachers generally, others may resent it because it may have implications of *an extra burden that comes on top of all their other tasks* (Dalin 1993:101). The other tasks here could be those listed in section 2.2.1. Thirdly, controversial pay differentials between teachers can be a source of conflict in a school organization. For example, in Botswana, teachers who have degree qualifications in science-
related subjects receive much higher incomes than those in other disciplines. The former are said to be offering a scarce skill. Forthly, competition for limited resources needed to support the teaching and learning activities can be cause of conflicts between teachers. Another reason why conflict can happen in an organization, according to Markham (1993:59), can be the differences staff may have on how organizational goals should be achieved. Some may prefer to stick to their ways which have always produced results, while others may want to try new approaches.

In the course of interaction, some teachers may behave in a manner that can retard progress. When this happens, it marks the beginning of a conflict situation. Dysfunctional behaviour can be marked by digression from the topic, dominating by asserting a superior position, getting into temper tantrums, or getting so wrapped into what one thinks and does to the extent of failing to consider others' feelings.

2.6.2 Value of conflicts

There are those who argue, however, that not all conflicts are harmful. If properly handled, some conflicts of interest in organizations can be more useful than in situations where there are no conflicts at all. Taking differences of opinions and disagreement over ideas and opinions to constitute conflicts, Handy (1993:291) and Hunt (1992:100) argue that differences are a necessary ingredient to a search for improvement. They argue that without differences we would never change and that if conflict were to be eliminated in organizations, relationships would wither and die. The ideas of Handy and Hunt have a practical application to schools. If everyone were to agree and cooperate on every issue raised by individuals or groups or by the school head, the decisions made would be of low quality and
this would badly affect the success of developmental goals. Teachers would be implementing objectives they do not fully understand and agree with. Also, meetings would be lonely and boring.

Also, there would be general teacher complaisance or perhaps complacency, in the implementation of the development school plan if conflict were to be eliminated. Often, solutions to problems or strategies to successful tasks’ implementation come about through different views from different contributors with each having a piece to contribute. Through conflict people can be able to understand better each other’s points of view, respect each other and have their relations enhanced. The understanding of each other’s views and respect for them is usually preceded by heated argument and debate which dig deeper to discover the truth (Handy 1993:309-310).

A similar perspective to that held by Handy and Hunt above is offered by Bolman and Deal who state that: *In schools for example, there is often little agreement among individuals and groups about policies, practices and procedures. Within the same school there may be little agreement between the principal and teachers . . . , among teachers concerning teaching methods, school policies and participation in school decisions.* But little situations of agreement are natural. People cannot always agree on everything. It is a common-place that different people see things differently. Situations of ‘little agreement’ are often a sign of independent thinking and may show participants’ high degree of interest in the issue at hand. The situations of little agreement therefore ought to be encouraged in an organization as they can help make members active and keep the school functionally ‘ticking’.
The role of the head should not be to eliminate the situations of little agreement but to manage them for productive outcomes. If not so managed, the situations of little agreement can deteriorate into big problems which can cause divisions among the teachers and with the head him/herself or among teachers themselves. The danger here is that the differences among the staff may be known by the students and can subsequently send bad messages about the school to the outside community.

If conflicts can be valuable, as indeed they can, school heads should exploit them for good use. The opportunity could be ceased to create and promote collaborative and cohesive teams. A cohesive team is, according to (Hunt 1992:105), *one in which the number and strength of mutual positive attitudes among the members far exceeds the number of negatives*. To manage conflict and make it functional rather than dysfunctional, the leader should manage the ‘hostility which is . . . the harmful aspect of conflict’. For it is the hostility that can cause a swing towards the ‘number of negatives’.

Constructive conflict on the other hand can be accomplished by allowing a free collaborative debate to individuals in a meeting, that is, by *letting the emotional blockages out* (Hunt 1992:101). In other words, the conflict is brought into the open so that it can be faced directly. Through this approach, the best solutions to problems are most likely to emerge. A decision arrived at through such an approach promises the development of ownership or a ‘we’ as compared to a ‘me’ feeling by individual members. If a conflict of interest arises, as is inevitable in any group meeting, it should be managed so as to help rather than hinder the group to achieve its objectives (Oakland 1993:379). This is the inevitable
challenge to the school head in pursuance of the achievement of school development planning objectives.

2.6.3 Strategies for resolving conflicts

Handy (1993:300) advises that a strategy chosen to resolve conflict must relate the cause to the symptom. To treat the symptom will be ineffective if the underlying cause is left untouched. It would be like putting a plaster on a boil. Other boils would emerge elsewhere on the body if the underlying condition is not treated. Some examples of the symptoms of conflicts in schools are different teachers arranging to give different tests to the same group of students at the same time. Or different departments in the same school inviting two resource persons to run workshops on a topic that could well have been handled by one person for both departments. The underlying cause of conflict here is more likely to be poor communication in the department, rather than the actions of the teachers. Their action is only a reflection of the communication that exists or that is lacking in the departments concerned.

*When a conflict of interest arises, you will be faced with the decision whether to try to control or avoid; or face it directly and try to resolve it . . . . To avoid the conflict you remove the triggering events and build up the barriers to negotiations. To resolve the conflict, you increase the frequency of triggering events and decrease the barriers to negotiations* (Johnson and Johnson 1987:282-283).

School heads, like other leaders of organizations, often find themselves caught in such dilemmas. Doing nothing about the conflict situation or avoiding it can only work if the people involved in the conflict situation do not interact on a regular basis and when the success or failure in achieving success is not dependent on the
cooperation of the conflicting groups. A conflict of interest with legal implications in its resolution can be another justification for the conflict negotiator to adopt the avoidance strategy.

Also, in a situation where the potential damage of intervening outweighs the benefit to the solution then the leader can avoid to negotiate a settlement. Conflicts whose sources are external can also be difficult to resolve. A conflict case whose triggering events are external, for example, two teachers fighting over a relationship, can put the head in a quandary. If he/she takes the avoidance strategy, he/she risks a poor working relationship between the teachers involved. If he/she intervenes, he/she may be accused of interfering with matters outside his/her jurisdiction (although the opponents can be told to stop bringing private matters into the school). Otherwise the nature of schools requires teachers to work closely together towards common goals all the time. To adopt the avoidance stance where it is appropriate and possible to do something about the conflict can only serve to do harm to a school development plan (Johnson and Johnson 1987:284).

In the case, for example, of two departments intently engaged in a dispute as to who should use a classroom rather than the school hall for teaching purposes, the head ought to intervene and attempt a harmonious settlement to the dispute. If the conflict resolution is put on hold and the head hopes that the situation will rectify itself, it may get worse and have damaging consequences on the students' learning. This view is supported by Handy (1993:312) who holds that: To ignore conflict, often because the apparent cause is trivial, is to permit it to stabilize if not to perpetuate itself. Like weeds, neglected, it can stifle productive work. The 'loser' in this case, may take students to the hall and decide not to teach
effectively, later attributing any students’ lack of progress or poor performance in the examinations to what he/she may call poor teaching conditions or facilities.

It can be very difficult to change a difficult person’s behaviour just because one wants to. The best thing to do in the circumstances can be to learn techniques for dealing with them (Markham 1993:40). Proponents of organizational conflict management suggest a number of possible techniques managers can use to deal with conflicts. The techniques depend on the circumstances that may prevail at the time and on the individual behaviours of the people involved in the conflict. The strategies are argued on the premise that when one is engaged in a conflict of interest, one has a goal that conflicts with the other person’s and he/she is concerned with fulfilling his/her personal goal.

Secondly, the strategies are based on the belief that keeping a good relationship with the other person is important (Johnson and Johnson 1987:285). The view by Johnson and Johnson is simply put by Hunt (1992:101) that, conflicts are based on goals and relationships. The school head as the central figure in a school development plan should be aware that without relationships between teachers the much advocated cohesive teams in a school development plan cannot be possible. This would result in no real work being done. The compromise and collaborative approaches to conflict management feature strongly as the most appropriate and effective for organizations. Their strengths and weaknesses are discussed, in the context of a school, in the following section.
2.6.4 Strategies: specific examples

2.6.4.1 Compromise Strategy

No two individuals think or act in precisely the same way, and because each starts from a different point, conflict becomes unavoidable (Markham 1993:58). Problems may arise when the conflict is allowed to degenerate into emotions rather than rationality and objectivity. In a compromise situation the leader persuades each conflicting party to give up part of its goals and seeks a situation where both parties gain something. The leader uses a bargaining or negotiating technique to look for the middle ground (Yukl 1981:263). By implication, the conflict negotiator is saying: getting part of what one wants is better than getting nothing of it completely and when both opponents give up half of their personal wants, a fair settlement can be arrived at. The proverbs ‘half a loaf is better than no bread’ and ‘scratch my back I will scratch yours’ appropriately summarize the compromise approach to conflict resolution. The diagrammatic illustration of donkeys by Johnson and Johnson (1987:286) below best illustrates a compromise situation by negotiation in action.
Diagram 2:3 Illustration of a negotiation strategy to conflict (Johnson and Johnson 1987:287)
A compromise is only fair where each person involved in the conflict has something to offer. In the school hall/classroom example earlier discussed in section 2.6.3, a compromise settlement to use the hall on alternating basis could be suggested. A compromise settlement may not guarantee deep commitment by the differing parties. The decision by one of the people to compromise may be made half-heartedly to appease the person handling the conflict particularly if the conflict negotiator is a respected boss. At best, the compromise strategy can only make short-term solutions to conflict situations. The other problem with the compromise strategy as a method of resolving conflicts of interest is that its success is dependent upon the preparedness or willingness of one or both of the parties to enter into a compromise. But in verbal aggression behaviours where belittling and embarrassing personal remarks are made, particularly in front of other people, conflicts are difficult to resolve using the compromise strategy. Another weakness of a compromise approach is that the parties involved in the conflict do not emerge from the conflict fully satisfied with the decision that has sacrificed parts of their goals.

2.6.4.2 Collaborative Strategy

While Hoy and Miskel (1991:101-102) call it collaboration, Handy (1993:310) refers to this strategy to the resolution of conflict as confrontation. Dunham (1995:50) calls it the infighting stage of team building. During the collaboration/confrontation/infighting stage, the conflicting parties openly face the problem. This strategy is recognized as sorting out the pecking order by establishing the role of each member, sometimes causing conflict over control and dominance (Henley Distance Learning 1991:90). The conflict manager allows a fair exchange of ideas. The opponents' differences are confronted through unsuppressed discussions. The collaboration strategy to conflict focuses
on issues and facts rather than the dwelling on personalities. It also focuses on individual contribution rather than on group decision (Everard and Morris 1990:37). It is characterized by rationality and objectivity.

Proponents of this approach like Caldwell and Spinks (1988:191) hold that it is the best strategy that can bring cooperation among staff. They consider it as a genuine and fair way of resolving different interests between people. Collaborations are characterized by high degrees of both assertiveness, with energy devoted to attempts to satisfy the concerns of all parties, they further state (ibid:191). According to Caldwell and Spinks, the strategy can have a long life to conflict resolution as through confrontation individuals are informed about their opponents’ view points. Adding to the strategy’s strength, Handy (1993:312) states that solutions made through it are ‘owned’ and ‘internalized’ by both groups rather than felt as imposed on them by the arbitrator. This is likely to be the case only if the issue at stake has been clearly defined, he adds.

However, this approach is not without its short-comings. In schools, (even elsewhere) while the school head may make efforts to create an easy going and friendly atmosphere conducive to a teacher to teacher exchange of experiences and opinions, there will always be an element of dominance by others in the discussion. The dominance may not necessarily be dysfunctional but may be caused by the difference in the level of the individual members’ articulation of their views. It is natural that in any group of people are found who are more articulate than others and some who are more vocal than others. The most vocal, however, do not necessarily have the best working ideas. The collaboration approach to conflict management therefore needs careful handling and reflection by the conflict manager. Otherwise he/she can easily fall victim to the
inappropriate favouring of the more vocal and articulate. The situation can be aggravated if meetings are held in the participants’ second language as is the case in Botswana secondary schools where staff meetings are conducted in English. The shy, and those with limitations in the spoken language, may be inhibited by the more confident and more articulate in expressing their views. Also, once the group norms have been established through the collaboration approach to conflict and members start to work as a team, there is the danger of members developing a group-think mentality at the expense of critical thinking.

Group-think occurs when people are over-cautious about the maintenance of harmony and morale of the group (Handy 1993:163). The group misses on important issues as members’ loyalty to each other overrides a critical approach to issues. When this happens, there is another danger, of an apathetic situation developing where people avoid disagreements with friends, the fear of rocking the boat. Inhibition can cause tension to those who lack self-confidence. It may not be easy for the school head to identify this inner problem by this group, and the more so in that the atmosphere may seem friendly. Even with the best of chairpersons who always try to ensure that everybody’s views are listened to and considered, the factor of articulation will often have considerable limits against the good intentions of the collaboration approach to conflict resolution.

The section on conflict management discussed how conflicts between teachers can undermine school development efforts if they are not carefully managed. Conflict, it was concluded, is a commonplace feature in group dynamics. Though there can be negative and counter-productive conflict, its absence in school organizations can lead to apathy. In order to successfully achieve the objectives of the school development plan the school head should manage the inherent
conflicts and utilize their positive aspects to support the development plan programmes. The collaboration strategy for conflict management was generally viewed as the best among other options.

A general conclusion of the issues discussed in this chapter is made in the next section.

2.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, school development planning was discussed as representing a change in the way things are usually done in the Botswana secondary schools. The changes, as discussed in the literature study, involve, among other things, new teaching methods, school-based workshops and planning together among the teachers and the school head and between the teachers themselves as a team during the implementation process. To be able to implement innovative programmes effectively and successfully, teachers need new knowledge and skills. Not only do the teachers need new knowledge and skills, but school heads also do, in order for them to provide effective professional support to their teachers.

Against the above background, the concepts of staff development, classroom supervision, school culture and conflict management were found relevant as providing enlightenment to the literature on school development planning and the role of the school head therein. These four concepts, which form the cardinal precepts of the thesis, provide sufficient information needed by school heads to introduce and effectively manage the implementation of a school development plan.
A school development plan was introduced in this chapter as a document that is concise, easily understood by all users and above all, relevant to the school curriculum. It is a document produced to improve the quality of education by indicating directions for development. It can be a reference point for action and evaluation by the users. A school development plan must have a statement of intent, collectively made and agreed by the teachers and indicating what the school stands for. Models of a school development plan were selected as examples of a typical school development plan from some professional authorities on the subject. The models were critiqued.

The examination of this concept revealed its close link with staff development. Staff development comes about as a result of the need for new or alternative teaching methods necessary to improve the quality of teaching and learning. This link is stated by Fullan (1991:344) that, as long as there is need for improvement, forever, there will be need for the teachers' professional development. Beneath the important nexus between a school development plan, the need for new or alternative teaching methodologies and the subsequent staff development, lies the pivotal role the school head ought to play. His/her role is chiefly that of a facilitator in these three aspects.

Once the school development plan has been adopted as an integral part of the school curriculum, the classroom as the central place where teaching and learning activities happen was highlighted as a focal point on which the school head must ensure that the two processes (teaching and learning) actually take place. This, it was argued, could be effectively achieved through the regular supervision of the classroom activities. Through supervision, the strong and weak teachers in terms of performance can be identified. The strong in this sense - and not necessarily
those who are in posts of responsibility - can be used to help the weak. This argument brought in the point on selective delegation. Also, the duties of a school head can be too many to carry out single-handed. If he/she tried to do everything alone, he/she would find him/herself playing bit-parts with little to show in terms of real achievement. Classroom delegation in this chapter was discussed based mainly on this factor.

The purpose of classroom supervision in the context of a school development plan ought not only to make sure that effective teaching and learning take place, but also, to ensure that teachers practise new ideas gained from workshops. This is important because teachers can simply dismiss ideas from workshops as theories without any practical impact on classroom practice. The section on classroom supervision argued that the conventional and most effective way to carry this out is by the collaborative approach and that, always, it is important that there should be communication between the teacher being observed and the observer before and after the lesson. The observed should have no doubt in their mind, through the observer’s word and action, that the exercise is not done with some sinister motive but rather to improve the quality of teaching through a collaborative dialogue.

The chapter also made an overview of the concept of culture as applied to a school. A link was also made between teachers’ commitment to school improvement and what their common beliefs are. That is, the belief that if a group of people have a strong bond between them, then agreeing a common vision becomes almost effortless to achieve. However, in the discussion, the school head was advised to be wary of the possibility of a ‘group think’ mentality developing between a group of people too familiar with each other. ‘Group think’ has the
potential danger of discouraging constructive conflict between teachers. The discussion on culture revealed a fine relation between it and sub-concepts such as value and vision. Since cultural beliefs can be hard to break, school heads should adopt a situational approach to change and use their strong beliefs for the establishment of strong school cultures committed to commonly agreed outcomes.

Relevant examples were given of Japanese beliefs on group results and the example from a case study on culture and the wearing of trousers by women. School culture, it was argued, can be enhanced by the formation of teams in the school. Once established in the school, the ‘main culture’ could be exploited to introduce sub-cultures which are more specifically related to classroom academic work. While high teacher turn-over can seriously destabilize a well established culture in a school, formal induction programmes for the new teachers in the school can be introduced as strategies for preserving an existing school culture.

The chapter concluded by discussing organizational conflict in relation to a school development plan and the school head. The inevitability of conflict situations arising where a group of people interact with each other, particularly in schools, where large numbers are involved, was suggested as a fact. The need by individuals or small groups to achieve their own personal or group goals, thus disregarding other people’s goals and the differences in points of view, were found, through literature review, to be the main reasons for conflict to emerge in organizations. The literature also revealed that while conflict can be harmful to an organization, well managed, it can be useful or even more useful than if there were no conflict at all, in that conflict can stimulate thinking in individuals.
Varying strategies on how different conflict situations can be resolved were examined, and offered to school heads for possible productive use though the limitations of such strategies were also emphasised. Inherent in the process of a school development plan are intricacies that require skillful management. To achieve change needs the skills to get things done. Recurring in all the four themes of this chapter is the basic need for the school head to have sound management skills in order to cope with the challenges involved, because such challenges contribute to conflict between members of staff in the school.

In the next chapter a review of school development planning in Botswana, the UK and Australia is made with particular reference to three issues, namely: Human capacity for school development, budget allocation and control for school development, and accountability.
CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW (PART II):

SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN

THE UK, AUSTRALIA AND BOTSWANA CONTEXTS:

A COMPARATIVE REVIEW ANALYSIS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a review of school development planning in the education system of Botswana is made in comparison with school development planning in the UK and Australia. The UK and Australian situations are reviewed only to give information, while the main focus is on Botswana. The UK and Australia school development planning systems were chosen because they are, in the view of the researcher, some of the best developed and information on them is freely available, providing accessible documentation of examples of good practice.

While there are many other factors that can also contribute significantly towards the achievement of school development planning objectives, this review will make reference to only three aspects which are considered vital in school development planning. Their importance is illustrated under the sections that immediately follow:

3.1.1 Human capacity

The underpinning principle of school development planning according to Dimmock (1990:201), is to improve the standards of teaching and teacher performance and to improve the standards of learning and student performance. Dalin (1993:iix) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:13) similarly define the concept of school development planning by also emphasizing its ability to
enhance the teaching and learning processes. This they argue, can be achieved through improved management practices by those involved in directing and guiding the school curriculum. In this context the school heads and those working closely with him/her (ibid:ix). This therefore means that the achievement of the objectives of school development planning are dependent, to a great extent, on the quality of the implementers. The theme 'human capacity' features in this chapter on the basis of this argument.

3.1.2 **Budget allocation and control**

In order to improve the standards of teaching and teachers’ performances, it is necessary to regularly update the teachers’ teaching methods. This can be easier and cheaply done through school-based workshops. Such workshops however, have cost implications. For example, money is needed to purchase materials. Hence the decision to include the theme ‘budget allocation and control’ for discussion in this chapter.

3.1.3 **Accountability**

... the work of schools and teachers should be open to critical scrutiny of others (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:70). Simply put, schools, as providing a public service, ought to be transparent in their work to the people they serve and to those that finance the education. This view cannot be more true. In Botswana, as in the UK and Australia, schools are required to account for the performance of their students. School heads are required under the Education Act of 1988 to be responsible and accountable for the greater effectiveness of the students’ learning and for the development of good management of the school as an organizational institution ... (Botswana Education Act:36). However, although
they are required to account for students’ performance, schools in Botswana have little control over the key resources that support such performance.

In Western Australia, for example, changes in the education system in the 1980s included the devolution of responsibilities to schools. School development planning, performance management, monitoring of students’ learning and financial auditing were introduced in the schools (Dimmock 1990:197). Underlying all these measures is the important relationship between accountability and quality of educational service delivery. The choice of the theme ‘accountability’ was made in accordance with this argument.

Prior to the discussion of the main themes mentioned above, brief background accounts are given on salient features of each of the education systems in the UK and Australia, particularly as they relate to school development planning. These are compared and contrasted with the Botswana situation. Also, though school development planning was extensively covered in Chapter II of the literature review, a brief revisit to the concept of school development planning is made to put the argument of the chapter under a clearer focus without necessarily repeating what was previously discussed.

3.2 SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN THE UK AND AUSTRALIA: A BACKGROUND

In the sense of school-by-school development planning as explored in this thesis, in both the UK and Australia education systems, school development planning started informally in the mid-1970s (Dimmock and Hattie 1994:36). In England it was formally started in 1988 through the Education Act Reform. In Western Australia, school development planning started in 1987. In both cases it started rather earlier than in Botswana which started only in the early 1990s. So, relatively, school development planning is still in its infancy in Botswana.
Despite this earlier start and wider diffusion in the UK and Australia, its effectiveness is yet to be sufficiently established by research. In the UK the Office for Standards in Education reported in 1994, on the basis of information from school inspections, that planning for improvement has not been a strength in the majority of primary and secondary schools (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:ix). But, in spite of this, Botswana can still learn a lot from the UK and Australian systems. The process has not been evaluated in Botswana in ways which allow for an assessment of definite outcomes from it. At least in England, the effectiveness of development planning has been best monitored and evaluated by Her Majesty Inspectorate (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:ix).

To meet the challenges to improve teachers' performances and students' achievements, schools in the UK and Australian introduced new performance strategies. One of these strategies is the school development plan, unique to each individual school in the sense that the needs of one school cannot be identical to the needs of others. Therefore there is no single prescribed school development plan model that is common to all countries, states or territories or even to schools in the same district. Nor are specific school development plan models even permanent within individual schools, nor should they be because they are dictated by the constantly changing needs of the individual schools. School development plans are individual-school-specific. For example, the current school development planning models in some schools in England lay emphasis on appraisal, school inspection and self-assessment as areas of concern (Humphrey et al. 1996:35). Also, different terminologies are being used in the different countries and within the same country to refer to the school development plan. While in England the term 'school development development' has retained its usage, in New South Wales (Australia), for example, the school development plan is called a self-renewal plan (Fink and Stoll 1994:150).
In the section that follows, a discussion of school development planning in the UK is made.

3.2.1 **School development planning in the UK**

Formal school development planning came into force in schools in England through the 1988 Education Reform Act of the Department of Education and Science. *They were made mandatory in schools in 1992 by the Office For Standards in Education and included in the inspection process. That is when schools began to realize the importance of reviewing their school development plans annually and linking them to the budget* (Giles 1995:47). Further, school inspection in the UK particularly looks for evidence that the strategic aims and objectives of the school are closely linked to the priorities and resources identified in the school development plan and in turn to action plans concerned with implementation. The inspection also ensures that there are people responsible for carrying out the action plan and that there is an evaluation of the implementation including the effective use of resources to the specified targets (Giles 1995:46-47).

The introduction of the school development plan came about as a result of rhetoric, particularly from politicians, for schools to improve their performance. The critics of education, in using the rhetoric, were concerned about the macro-level economic performance of the country in relation to other economies in developed countries. They believed that the quality of the curriculum determined the quality of the economy. Schools, though they did not design the curriculum, were accountable for the poor performance alleged by politicians (Humphreys et al. 1996:35-36). The politicians' concern about the state of education in the UK can be captured in a statement made by a former Prime Minister, Callaghan in a speech delivered at Ruskin College in Oxford 1976. In this he stated that: *The*
educational system is out of touch with the fundamental need for Britain to survive in a highly competitive world through the efficiency of its industry and commerce (Hallewell 1992:358). This was a sign for the need to improve the economy through investing in education to be taken seriously.

To address the concern about poor standards in education, school curricula were to be revamped, and reforms that would provide relevant skills to the economy introduced. To achieve quality education, the politicians called for increased budgets for schools that would be managed and controlled by schools themselves. This concern is echoed in statements such as: Our view is that financial management responsibility should be delegated as closely as possible to the point of delivery. . . . we want decisions to be taken at the rim of the wheel rather than at the hub (Davies and Ellison 1992:72). The contention here was that more delegation of financial authority and responsibility, from central government to the local authority, and further delegation to schools in particular, would result in improved school performances.

The curricular reforms in the UK had implications for new teaching strategies to the teachers. For students to meaningfully benefit from the teaching of the new curriculum, the teacher needed to be familiar not only with its contents but with how best to deliver the contents in a more effective manner. On the other hand, for the teachers to teach the curriculum effectively, the curriculum ought not be imposed on them. Rather, teachers need to be effective participants in its design. If they participate in its design, they are more likely to experience it as something worthwhile and are likely to have greater control and enhanced ability in implementation it. The Department of Education and Science (England and Wales) in searching for solutions to the concerns raised about the quality of the school 'product', introduced a new teaching strategy in schools, called a school development plan. This innovation recognized the importance of people, in this
context teachers, as a resource that needs maintenance and proper utilization, that has a finite life and an output greater than its cost (Handy: 1993:222). Handy’s perspective has implications for staff development through inservice training, as discussed in Chapter II, sub-sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.5.

In school development planning, staff development is one of the key precepts necessary for the successful accomplishment of the plan. The process of school development planning does not assume that, automatically, trained teachers will always cope with educational changes with ease. Inservice training offers new teaching approaches and involvement in curricular reviews. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:5) allude to the crucial importance of staff development and the involvement of teachers in curriculum issues by saying that: We have become more and more convinced that preliminary and concurrent inservice training or constancy is essential if headteachers and teachers are to be adequately prepared for, and supported in, the tasks of development planning or any related approaches to the management of change and school improvement.

Initially, school development planning was not imposed to schools in the UK. The notion, which was voluntary, became more systematized by educationists, leading to guidelines or advice to schools. Some schools were behind in implementing the change process. Politicians and administrators who spearheaded changes in the educational system were tempted to force the school development plans on the reluctant school heads (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:5). The heads would in turn impose it on reluctant teachers. School development plans therefore eventually became compulsory to schools. The danger of imposing a change on people, however, can result in their reluctant implementation of the change process. Impositions usually end up as policy. But policy hardly changes attitudes. Impositions are therefore contrary to the principle of ownership which
this thesis has persistently argued as basic to the concept of school development planning.

In England the inspectors insist upon the document (school development plan) and check that what appears in the document is being implemented and evaluated. In Australia, however, the emphasis is more on quality assurance to the public, that is, the physical document (accountability) than on the implementation effectiveness (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:30).

In the view of Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:8), if school development plans are viewed as policy, schools might as well comply with the requirement by simply keeping written documents for accountability purposes. They further hold that in the UK, one of the problems, however, as sometimes reported by school heads is that major barriers against successful school development planning are constituted by a 'rump' of teachers, usually a distinctive minority, who resist all the changes, decline to participate, and persist in attempting, sometimes vociferously, sometimes surreptitiously, to undermine the morale and commitment of other teachers who are at worst responding neutrally and at best positively to development planning. Such attitudes and behaviour by teachers are generally common not only towards school development planning, but even towards work generally. There are always those few individuals in most schools who display an isolated indignation or repugnance towards work either by active or passive indiscipline.

It should also be noticed that while the UK was experiencing substantial devolution of school governance from central and local governments and into the hands of school heads and staff, the opposite was also happening: as is generally known, successive Conservative governments from 1979 to 1997 introduced, for the first time, a national curriculum, achievement in which was to be monitored
by regular testing in four stages throughout the student’s life. All this was enforced by the central government against great opposition from teachers’ unions and the teaching profession generally, a fact which must be seen as contrary to the notion of devolution that gives teachers ownership of their school development planning programmes.

We now consider some historical information on school development planning in Australia.

3.2.2 School development planning in Australia
Before the 1970s, the general Australian education system was highly centralized. The curriculum was determined centrally, with close control exercised through an inspectorial system. There was a common end-of-secondary-schooling examination for all states. Teachers had little opportunity to influence the curriculum and the way resources were allocated to the schools and within the schools. Most funds for education came from state sources which provided little money for discretionary use by schools, other than that raised by voluntary contribution from parents and the local community (Caldwell 1992:5-6 and Dimmock and Hattie 1994:36).

The scope and pace of the education system in Australia has drastically changed. This is as a result of the heavy public criticism of the education system that failed to serve the national need in the 1970s. Large numbers of students had not been completing their secondary education. As put by Caldwell (1992:14), *the new knowledge acquired by students, their skills and attitudes, did not create the clever country*. There were also nation-wide concerns about effectiveness and equity in the school system. A considerable number of students in Australian schools were shown to be disadvantaged in one way or another, particularly those from economically deprived communities (Caldwell 1992:47).
In 1973, the National Labour Government led by Gough Whitlam initiated a commission entitled the *Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission 1973* and appointed chairperson Karmel to lead the investigations on the concerns raised about the quality and provision of education in the country and make recommendations that would address these concerns. Significant changes were made following the commission's investigations. The report made as one of its key recommendations the decentralization of power from the state to schools (Dimmock and Hattie 1994:36). The report also advocated a refurbishment of school syllabuses and teaching methods, stressing relevance and child-centredness, and improved relationships between students and teachers. Two distinct and important pairs of relationships can be drawn from the Karmel Report as follows:

- That there is a relationship between improved teaching methods and students’ performance.

- That there is a relationship between the devolution of functions from central government to schools and school performances.

The relationships above have a positive effect on school performances and are characteristics of school developments planning objectives which seek to improve the teaching and learning processes.

The thrust of the Karmel Report lies in the declaration that: *The commission favours less rather than more centralized control over the operation of schools. Responsibility should be devolved as far as possible upon the people involved in the actual task of schooling in consultation with the parents of the pupils whom they teach and, at the senior levels, with the students themselves* (Caldwell 1994:47). Stated simply, the educational changes suggested by the commission called for students’ involvement not to be as mere recipients of learning, but that
to some extent, they should have a say in how their education should be delivered. On the other hand, the commission wanted parents to be more than just providers to education (providers of funds for infrastructures and providers of students) but to be meaningful contributors in major school decision-making.

The schools, on their part, were excessively concerned about their exclusion from decision-making affecting what they are required to teach, and the control of the resources that support the curriculum. School heads have been line managers acting under instruction from the ministry (Dimmock 1990:203). These reforms which gave teachers, students (to a lesser extent), parents and the board of governors a crucial part to play in the exercise of decision-making powers were a welcome development for education. The reforms are consistent with the objectives of school development planning, that advocate a shared commitment and partnership between teachers, parents and school board members in the education of the child (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1991:7).

Though the recommendations were not enacted immediately, at least the contents of the report opened up opportunities for the different stakeholders in education to further 'push' for a more devolved education system. Following this, politicians started to make more scrutinies of the contribution made by education to the economy and an assessment of the quality of schooling. This gauge of 'value for money' came through the establishment of the 'Quality of Education Review Committee' in the 1980s. This was during a period when Australia was experiencing economic difficulties. The brief of this committee was to focus on the change from a concern with inputs during the relatively prosperous 1970s to a focus on outcomes during the financially stringent 1980s . . . (Dimmock and Hattie 1994:37-38).
The recommendations made by the Karmel Commission, and which had budget implications, advocated an improved education system that would raise the quality of the students’ performance. Though the report did not specifically recommend school development planning as a strategy that could be adopted to achieve the desired educational improvements, it carried overtones of school effectiveness and school improvements which are characteristics of school development planning aims.

The demands made by teachers for pre-service training lasting for a greater length of time, greater participation in curriculum design, and parents’ demands for a significant part to play in the decision-making process of the school and a meaningful role in the educational policy decisions, were all factors that greatly influenced educational reforms in Australia (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:142).

*The combination of these influences, together with a greater willingness of educational administration to devolve control to the local school level, created new responsibilities for schools. In each state or territory the administration published reports recommending some downside-up thinking that focused school development planning at the school level* (Hargreaves and Hopkins 142-143).

This was achieved through school-based improvements and evaluation plans by the people directly involved in the teaching process, that is, the teachers themselves (ibid).

Another change resulting from pressures and influences from the different interest groups in the provision of education was the devolution of the curriculum and examination system from the federal government to the local state authorities. This change, however, was made within the local and national policies and guidelines (Caldwell 1992:6). The central government (Commonwealth of Australia) required, despite the devolution of the curriculum, that schools should
account for the educational outcomes. Teachers were required to answer for students' achievement (Caldwell 1992:9).

In response to the accountability demanded by central government, South Australia, in the 1980s embarked on a strategy that would rationalize all the operations of the school, ranging from teaching to funding and to accountability for the benefit of students and teachers. The review was made on all schools in the state for a three-year cycle. The review focused on the school development plan and it assessed the effectiveness of the plan adopted by each school to achieve its specific objectives. *Schools were expected to review operations, with high levels of staff and community involvement, hence addressing the notion of accountability through external review* (Caldwell 1992:10).

Other states followed suit by adopting patterns of formulation of goals, setting priorities and building frameworks for accountability, but with a shift towards school-based management in terms of operational decision-making including budgeting and community involvement. In the New South Wales state, to meet the current educational needs, schools were being called on to become not only self-managing but self-renewing entities to develop *the ability to respond positively to continuous change* (Johnson 1994:6). Hence the adoption of the term 'school renewal plan' to refer to a school development plan in New South Wales.

The school head was responsible for producing a school development plan that reflected involvement by both the school and the local community it serves. In the education system of the state of Western Australia the introduction of school development planning and school-based decision-making involving parents and the community was viewed as *the fulcrum of its attempts to provide both quality and accountability* (Dimmock 1990:202).
While individual schools could devise their own ways of achieving improved teaching and learning processes, their efforts were to some extent limited. Staffing and selection were devolved from schools back to central government (Dimmock 1990:204), while, paradoxically, on the other hand schools were required to account for students’ achievement. This action by central government is in opposition to the widely held notion that the devolution of major functions from the centre to the field can enable schools to respond more flexibly and promptly to school improvement efforts.

Unlike the situation before the 1970s when there was little pressure at the Australian secondary schools to ensure that the academic needs of all students were addressed; when failure and drop out rates were high; when there was little need for the school head to plan ahead of time; and when there was little need for teacher professional development, the circumstances in Australian schools now require that there must be coherence and purpose in school management.

To recapitulate, the discussion in this section has hinged mainly on what might be referred to as a ‘new educational order’ that saw the decentralization of critical educational operations from the state government to schools in Australia. This followed the Karmel Commission which was instituted in 1973 and the recommendations of other groups which had a vested interest in education and brought significant pressure for educational reform.

Among the results of all this was a greater say and involvement by teachers in the curriculum they teach. School heads were given expanded autonomy in the budgetary expenditure, parents and school board members were given the opportunity of active participation in schools’ educational affairs. Generally there was a shift in the decision-making process from the state government to schools, except in the crucial area of staff selection. Given the devolved powers to schools
and the necessary resources, schools introduced and adopted school development planning as one of the strategies that would address the quality of educational delivery and its outcomes.

The next section reviews, briefly, the circumstances that surround the introduction of school development planning in Botswana secondary schools.

3.3 THE INTRODUCTION OF SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN BOTSWANA

The circumstances that were to lead to the introduction of school development planning in the UK and Australia are similar but not identical to those that lead to school development planning in Botswana. In all the three cases the underlying reason for school development planning was to improve the quality of public education. There was a general feeling in Botswana in favour of a system of education that would address the socio-economic aspects of the country. The socio-economic concerns raised by the people generally, were addressed in the 1993 National Commission on Education as stated: the strategy for the development of education and training over the next twenty five years is intended to address the problems in to-day's system and provide a way forward to the future . . . . But the rationale for educational development is not to be found solely in its contribution to the economy. Education must respond . . . also to those in society (Government paper 1993:vi). The public argued through newspapers, at meetings addressed by politicians, at places where people meet informally such as in buses, bars and so on, that this would be achieved through a curricular reform that emphasized the provision of skills or a more vocationally relevant curriculum rather than a 'white collar' oriented curriculum.
The increase in the number of subjects that offer life skills in the curriculum and the change from the traditional method of 'chalk and talk' to a more student-centred approach to teaching would form the basis for a skillful work force for the country's growing economy.

One reason for this emphasis on new skills arose from a concern about the informal sector (commerce and industry) which is smaller than many other developing countries. For example, in 1991 the informal sector employed only 11% of the citizen-employed labour force. The level of education of those working in this sector was generally low and few had post-school training. It was argued that the development of this sector could be realized by an education and training system that emphasized business and technical skills and vocational training (Government paper 1993:9). Often, strong economies of many countries hinge on the strength of production in the informal sector. For the standard of education of a country to be improved and subsequently its economy, improvement strategies need to be devised. One such strategy is a school development plan.

Commentators on the education system in Botswana did not, however, suggest any specific teaching approaches that would improve education generally. They simply made an observation and expressed a concern about a curriculum that was not relevant to the economic needs of the country. It was left to the educationists and educational administrators to devise strategies that would effectively improve the educational system. The introduction of a school development plan in Botswana and its implementation in the early 1990s coincided with the recommendation for a revised curriculum for the junior secondary school in the mid 1990s (Government paper 1993:154-161) and the localization of the senior secondary school curriculum beginning in the late 1990s (ibid. 1993: 187-190). It was not meant to specifically address the new curriculum change per se. Rather it
was introduced to generally improve the teaching and students' performance. All the same, it was introduced at an opportune time when the new curriculum needed new teaching methods. This was a blessing in disguise for the enhancement of the new curriculum.

Unlike in the Australian situation, teachers in Botswana did not push for pre-service training for a greater length of time and neither did parents nor the community demand greater influence in the formulation of educational policies to the extent of Australia and the UK. Significant public pressure was, however, made when there was insistence on increased progression from the junior to the senior secondary school. Before then, the Ministry of Education policy was to restrict severely the scale of progression from the junior to the senior secondary school. That progression in 1993, for example, was 27% of the total junior secondary school leavers (Government paper 1993:168).

Due to public pressure, schools had to admit more students than planned for. Class sizes had to be increased from 30 to 35 in 1993 at the senior secondary school level (ibid. 1993:166-167). In recent years, class sizes have shot up to around 38 in the senior school. A study sponsored by the 1993 National Commission of Education entitled Analysis of Policy Options for Transition Rates from Junior to Senior Secondary Education sought to analyze the options and criteria available for determining transition rates in the short, medium and long term. It recommended a 40% in the medium term and 50% in the long term (ibid. 1993:167). The long term target was to be achieved by the year 2003 (ibid. 1993:xxxiii).

The progression rate from the junior secondary to the senior secondary school has brought some implication for the quality of teaching and for the quality of students' performances. There is now a wider students' ability range in the senior
secondary schools than before. Unlike private schools which may ‘cream’ off the best students, leaving the hard-to-educate to the public schools, Botswana secondary schools, particularly the junior secondary schools, serve as a melting-point, bringing students from different backgrounds together and providing an identical curriculum. The teachers who were not necessarily trained in mixed-ability teaching methods now find themselves having to teach a wide ‘assortment’ of students. This problem has necessitated a change in teaching methods. Staff development programmes, which are part of school development planning, are being mounted for teachers, following these educational reforms, to address the problem of teaching students with wide abilities.

The above view is implied in a statement by Dean (1993:62) when she stated that *Mixed ability teaching requires a different approach on the part of the teacher, which differentiates work within the class*. Beare, et al (1989:64) similarly advised that: *Both teaching and learning need to be personalized and that for this reason, no teacher should be given so many students that she cannot identify with each personally* . . . . In Botswana, school expansions which were not matched by an equal increase in teacher supply militate against the application of Beare et al.’s perspective above. This is discussed in greater depth later, in section 3.4.2.

In summary, following the changes that espoused a more technical and vocational skill provision, in the secondary school curriculum, schools have begun to find ways of equipping teachers with new ways of teaching the new programme. This they attempt to do through school-based, regional and national workshops. This arrangement, in itself, constitutes school development planning (that is, it improves the teaching and therefore the learning process) through staff development. The review of the Botswana secondary schools curriculum given in the early part of this section links with school development planning in this way.
The section that follows examines the quality of the people who are directly and indirectly responsible for the implementation of school development planning and the effect of such quality to the outcomes of the objectives of school development planning.

3.4 HUMAN CAPACITY FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN BOTSWANA IN RELATION TO THE UK AND AUSTRALIA

As explained in the introduction of this chapter (section 3.1.1), there exists a relationship between the achievement of school development objectives and the quality of those responsible for the implementation. The quality of the implementers is referred to in this context as 'human capacity'. For the sake of emphasis, the need for staff development, though discussed in detail in Chapter II (section 2.3) of the thesis, is highlighted, but only briefly, in this section.

A discussion on teacher shortage in Botswana secondary schools, the students' enrolments and the effects these two factors have on the implementation of school development planning, is also made in this section. Also featuring in this section is the support needed from appropriate departments in the Ministry of Education such as the Teaching Service Management and Secondary Departments. Such support is considered vital if school development planning is to have an impact on the teaching and learning processes.

3.4.1 Qualifications for school head to lead school development planning

In the 1970s a Chief Education Officer in Botswana once remarked to a school head who had expressed a desire to improve his academic qualifications that a degree qualification was not necessary for a school head. If this remark was seriously made (it is believed it was), it shows that, then, even key decision-makers in education had not seen the essential relationship between professional
development of school heads and school improvements. According to Baker and Proudford (1994:35), the headteacher's professional and skill development and school improvement are interdependent. The Chief Education Officer's remark, however, could have been made in the context of the then duties and responsibilities of the school head, which were somewhat straightforward and limited in scope.

The duties then were basically to ensure the implementation of an already determined curriculum and that both teacher and student discipline prevailed in the school. This was to be achieved through school rules and regulations. As Wayne (1994:9) puts it, school heads were responsible for *regimented timetables and skirt length* instead of enabling learning environments. This remark which was made of school heads in Ireland could have been equally made of school heads in Botswana up until the 1990s. It is the researcher's contention, already stated, that effective learning outcomes cannot be achieved without student discipline and supervision of teachers. 'Regimented timetables and skirt length' should go side by side with the creation of enabling learning environments. The theme 'classroom supervision' finds its importance in this thesis based partly on this view.

In Ireland, *up until the 1980s all curricular decisions were taken centrally and imposed on the schools; any form of inservice education relating to changes in the curriculum was organized by the Department of Curriculum with little school involvement in the process. Since the beginning of the 1980s, however, there has been increased pressure to provide courses in schools which will service the needs of the different kinds of pupils...* (Canniffe 1993:252).
The acquisition of higher academic qualifications is often associated with the acquisition of more knowledge generally and with the development of a wider theoretical scope. This is an advantage to one when faced with new innovations, demands and challenges such as school development planning, although it does not necessarily follow that the possession of higher qualifications makes one an effective instructional leader. Operating at the level of a school head nowadays requires one to make informed decisions and requires one to have the ability to involve others in school development planning matters. It also needs creativity and resourcefulness from the school head. At a senior secondary school, for example, there is need for a curriculum structure that would allow students to make wider choices of subjects that interest them and a timetable that would allow teachers to give attention to the different students' abilities and that would allow teachers of the same subject to cover each other or even team-teach (Wayne 1994:10).

The perspective by Handy (1993:222) that People are a resource that needs maintenance and proper utilization, that has a finite life, and an output greater than its cost is most relevant in the context of the relationship between teacher development and school improvement. While the issue of teacher development in Botswana does not compare with the educationally more developed UK and Australia, Botswana has achieved relatively good progress in ensuring that teachers receive inservice education for school development planning. A lot still has to be done, however.

In comparing Botswana to the UK and Australia, it could be said that there is a general view in all these countries that, as McHugh and McMullan (1995:28) puts it, recent reforms in education including those brought about by the introduction of school development planning in schools, have transformed the functions of school organizations and, with this, the role of the school principal. In the UK,
for example, the change in the principal’s role was the result of the 1988 Education Reform Act. While in Botswana, the increase in the school head’s responsibilities were brought about by the recent new curriculum and the expansion of secondary schools.

These challenges which have implications for heightened demands for efficiency and effectiveness in schools, call for managerial competency and skills on the part of school heads which in Botswana most school heads lack. The difference, in as far as management skills are concerned, between school heads in Botswana and those in the other two countries can be attributed to the level of the preservice training, which the present school head in Botswana has received. A considerable number of school heads, particularly those at the junior secondary schools, were appointed to this position without a degree qualification. To add to this concern, pre-appointment training in school management for prospective school heads in Botswana secondary schools in not an option until they are appointed to these positions. This is like allowing a person without a licence to drive a motor vehicle before they could be familiar with the manipulation of the gears, the steering wheel and all other important intricacies related to driving a motor vehicle. He/she would have, and cause, accidents. Similarly, the school head may start on a wrong footing and adopt poor management characteristics that may irreparably damage his/her credibility as school head.

In short, the school head in the UK and Australia only needs re-training to cope with the enhanced demands in the education system and not necessarily for a higher qualification, whereas in Botswana there is need to upgrade the school head’s academic qualifications while at the same time re-train them in pertinent areas to the new role they must fulfill efficiently and effectively. The researcher attaches great importance to the acquisition of higher academic qualification by the school head because it is his view that with higher academic qualifications, it
is easier to master other skills demanded by the job, - which skills which were not obtained during preservice training.

3.4.2 **Teacher supply and secondary school enrolments: Effect on school development planning**

Perhaps the biggest single constraint that bedevils school development planning activities in Botswana secondary schools is the shortage of trained and the consequent reliance on untrained teachers. While this situation is also present at the senior secondary, it is more felt at the junior secondary school level as illustrated in table 1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1998</th>
<th></th>
<th>1999</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jr. Sec.</td>
<td>Sr. Sec.</td>
<td>Jr. Sec.</td>
<td>Sr. Sec.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Enrolment</td>
<td>115,830</td>
<td>24,259</td>
<td>117,528</td>
<td>29,284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Demand</td>
<td>6,814</td>
<td>1,470</td>
<td>6,909</td>
<td>1,723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trained citizens</td>
<td>4,242</td>
<td>1,170</td>
<td>4,487</td>
<td>1,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attrition (4% and 3% Jr. and Sr. respectively)</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untrained</td>
<td>2,572</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>2,419</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows totals of 2,572 and 300 untrained teachers in the junior and senior secondary schools respectively. In 1996 there was a total of 26 senior secondary schools and a total of 174 junior secondary schools (Government paper 1997:16).
A shortage of teachers in a school means a high teaching load for existing staff. This state of affairs negatively impacts on the teachers’ time to link school development planning innovations to classroom teaching. Teacher shortage also makes inroads into the curriculum, as it affects its adequate coverage. As a consequence, students’ achievement obviously gets affected. Although workshops on school development planning are worthy, they can be sometimes viewed by teachers as not having immediate benefit on their teaching because of lack of time to implement new teaching strategies acquired at workshops. If school development planning can be divorced from school and classroom practices, where it matters most, that is, if teachers cannot find time to do school development planning tasks, then the innovation faces a potential danger of dying out. Table 2 below shows the suggested teaching loads for teachers in Botswana secondary schools.

**Table 2:** Teaching loads for the junior and senior secondary schools in Botswana

( Ministry of Education savingram 1998:2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum periods/week</th>
<th>Maximum periods/week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant teachers</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior teachers</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heads of Dept/Deputy</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
School heads, like teachers, have case-loads which produce conflicts between innovation and the maintenance of their routine duties. The result is that like teachers, they have too little time to do school development planning activities properly. The workload also limits the head’s ability to carry out effective supervision of teachers. This situation is exacerbated by large student enrolments, some reaching up to 1,400 in a single school.

While Table 1 shows a much better situation in teacher supply in the senior secondary than in the junior secondary school, the shortage in the former is nevertheless significant. Only degree holders can be posted to senior secondary schools upon completion of their teaching qualification. The University of Botswana, which is the sole supplier of degree holders in the country, is only able to make a small annual supply of degree holders which in any case does not satisfy the demand at that level. The Faculties of Education, Humanities and Science at the University of Botswana are responsible for graduate teacher output. The situation given above is illustrated in Table 3 below. The table shows enrolments for the 1996/97 university academic year. Out of the total number of students shown under the Faculty of Science, only a small number of students join the teaching profession upon graduating. The rest join central government or go to the private sector. However, the Faculty of Education also trains future Science teachers, though with a less thorough basis in specialist Science.
Table 3: Distribution of University of Botswana Enrolments by Faculty

(Government paper 1993:253).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>% of University Total Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The general teacher shortage at the secondary school level helps to account for the employment of so many expatriate teachers serving in Botswana, some of them impelled here by the adverse political and economic conditions in their own countries. In some cases the Botswana government goes out to recruit while in others, such teachers make individual applications as free-lances. However, efforts that are being made by government in teacher education give some hope that teacher shortage is only temporary and that, at some future time, Botswana can be expected to ‘stand on its feet’ in respect of teacher supply. In Table 4 below the percentage of expatriate teachers recruited into secondary schools in 1996 is shown. The table highlights only areas where there was a critical shortage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>% of Expatriate Staff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design &amp; Technology</td>
<td>88.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In respect to the inservice education that takes away teachers from their classes, a teacher in a developed country once commented: *I love teaching and my class is wonderful but I do get tired of so many meetings. I much preferred the earlier years of my career when I would concentrate on actual teaching* (Humphreys 1996: 37). She further commented, *I'm fed up with all these irrelevant demands. Teaching is no longer what it used to be. As soon as I can get out I'll leave this paper-driven profession* (ibid.:39). Such comments would not be inappropriate if they were to be made by a secondary school teacher in the present Botswana educational system. The recent necessary educational changes in Botswana are too overwhelming to contemplate. Unless the teachers’ loads are reviewed, comments similar to those above, loudly or silently, will always be made, aloud or silently. The number of teachers that join the schools every year from the
university and from the colleges of education do not match the rate of secondary school expansion. This situation does not augur well for school development planning programmes.

To further stress the teacher situation in Botswana secondary schools illustrated in Tables 1 to 4 above, university and college students pursuing a teaching career get appointed into teaching before their results are known. This is in anticipation that they will pass their degrees and diplomas. This situation tells how desperate teacher supply in Botswana is. To be assured of employment before qualifications are known is one factor that encourages teacher complacency displayed by some teachers in the job, with predictable consequences for school improvement efforts.

Related to the situation above is the fact that, in Botswana, the current appraisal system is such that from his/her pre-service education a teacher can move effortlessly up through the system without necessarily having to upgrade his/her curriculum vitae or even before he/she can demonstrate quality of experience, drawing benefit only from the sheer number of years taught. In this context, the old adage that ‘experience is the best teacher’ still holds. But experience alone ought not be a determining factor for promotion, since, as has rightly been said, ‘twenty years’ experience may be one year’s experience repeated twenty times’. If senior teachers and school heads climb the promotional ladder only by experience, without consideration for competence, there is the likelihood of their clinging to their time-honoured and unreflective approaches. Also, Botswana secondary school heads are not selected from open competition (as are heads in Australia and the UK) nor are they subjected to fixed-term limits as, increasingly, school heads are, at least in the UK. The present Botswana system of promoting teachers to managerial posts can have a negative effect on school development planning.
With regard to ensuring the quality of the teacher, in some other systems such as that of the state of Western Australia, the teacher confirmation system subjects teachers to a complex appraisal or probation period. The process towards becoming a teacher passes through five levels of: beginning temporary, temporary, permanent-on-probation, going for permanency and permanent teacher (Dimmock 1990:204). By the time the teacher reaches the last stage, he/she would have mellowed into a confident teacher ready to confidently participate in school improvement efforts and constantly demonstrating by his/her proven competence the right to be properly financially rewarded by the teaching service.

Botswana’s teacher shortage, as discussed above, also constrains important initiatives directed towards students’ achievement improvements. By the time students reach the junior or senior secondary school, it is essential to redress many of the problems that they bring with them. The problems relate, for instance, to communication in the language (English) predominantly used in the curriculum, the level of understanding of mathematical concepts and others. This is most starkly the case with students from the primary school entering the junior secondary school. Teachers at the senior school level, on the other hand, have to address these gaps as early as possible before they could go deeper in the teaching of the senior school programme. This concern is related to school development planning in the sense that it requires teachers’ time, even outside the timetable, to do remedial work on the affected students so that they can start the senior school programme with others on a reasonable equal footing.

The UK and Australia are self-sufficient in teacher supply, and unlike Botswana, they do not rely on expatriate teachers, so school development planning is not affected by shortage of teachers in the UK and Australia. However, in all these three countries, headteachers of the smallest schools teach. In the case of the UK, this state of affairs is confirmed by McHugh and McMullan (1995:27) who
carried out a survey on headteachers' views on the effect of the Education Reform Act on their role. One of the headteachers who had a teaching load complained that the administration of the new Education Reform Order (ERO) which adds more responsibilities to the already existing ones and the teaching duties is never ending, even for a school this size . . . I feel it is the kids in my class who suffer most, it is impossible headteachers generally complained of being tied to the office most of the time due to the increased workload brought about by the ERO. They considered themselves as having been isolated from the teachers and the teachers which they attributed to the innovation (ibid:27). Such a situation can have detrimental effects on the school development planning.

3.4.3 Support for the school development planning from Ministry of Education

The successful achievement of school development planning goals are dependent not only upon the efforts of the school but also on the support from the authorities in the Ministry of Education. While the quality of leadership at the school is critical to the successful implementation and continuation of change efforts, it is not enough to simply have a skilled and talented school head. The efforts of even that kind of school head are likely to be futile unless centre-office leadership supports the efforts of the school heads (Mclaughlin and Marsh 1978:228). In the case of Botswana, schools chiefly depend on the support from the Departments of Teaching Service Management (TSM) and Secondary Education for teacher supply and professional guidance respectively. The former is a unit in the Ministry of Education that is responsible for the procurement of teachers for the primary and secondary schools and colleges of education. The latter's support to schools is administrative, limited to professional guidance and playing an
advisory role and control in academic affairs. It advises TSM on matters of teacher supply and teacher performance. While their functions may seem different, both ought to liaise with each other in almost all matters relating to teachers through effective consultation and communication systems to ensure effectiveness in the education system.

The TSM is not able to supply schools with enough and properly qualified staff. This is because it is a recruiting and not a training department. Absolute power in the recruitment of teachers resides with central government which also decides on the budget to be allocated to the recruiting department. In this regard the problem faced by TSM in providing enough and suitably qualified teachers can then be better understood and appreciated. It therefore does not have complete control and power over the supply of teachers to schools.

On the other hand, the Secondary Department which offers professional guidance to schools on academic matters also faces similar constraints. Like the Department of Teaching Service Management, its constraints relate to central government which makes final decisions on manpower ceilings. Hence the acute shortage of people who can inspect and make remedial follow-ups to schools. In Botswana, manpower shortage, in my view, is the main reason why feedback on schools inspection takes several months to reach the schools concerned. By the time feedback reaches schools, invariably it is no more as relevant and useful, but has in many respects been overtaken by events. A lot of new changes would have happened including changes in staffing and students. In these circumstances, teachers have generally developed a cynical view about the purposes of school inspection.
Since school development planning is now a requirement to secondary schools, its implementation needs to be guided and monitored not only by the school heads but also by other relevant officers in the Ministry of Education. This external support could offer schools the opportunity to regularly discuss the impediments experienced during the implementation of the curriculum. Interaction with the ‘inspectors’ could also motivate teachers to take school development planning more seriously.

It is hoped, however, that things in this area will improve following recommendations made to start a department of inspection that is independent of the Department of Secondary Education. The recommendation from (Government Paper 1993:ixiv) reads: The inspection of schools should be under one Department of Inspection formed from an enhanced amalgamation of the existing departmental inspectorates. Its work will cover among other areas:

- **Identifying in-service development priorities and monitoring the effectiveness of related training using a whole-school team approach to inspection, so that the overall school performance is evaluated as well as that of the individual teacher.**

- **All members of the Inspectorate should receive training on appointment and regular inservice training.**

However, in the nearly eight years since that 1993 recommendation, this system is not yet operative. Teacher shortage, lack of adequate teacher professional skills in the job and the inability of Ministry of Education to provide adequate teachers for schools seriously hamper efforts made by schools towards school development planning. The situation is exacerbated by the increase, already noted, in the number of students that enter the secondary education system. It was argued in section 3.4.2 that teacher supply to schools has not matched this
increase and as a result teachers do not have enough time to do school development planning issues.

While manpower supply in Botswana, for the classroom teaching, monitoring and supporting of the school development activities is a huge problem, in the UK and Australia, this is not as big a concern. In Australia, for example, there is a shared commitment between teachers, parents and board of governors in school improvement efforts (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1991:7). In the same country, the central government’s commitment to school improvement is demonstrated by its insistence that schools should account for educational outcomes and the requirement to teachers to answer for students’ achievement (Caldwell 1992:9). As discussed in section 3.3 in this chapter, in the UK, the Department of Inspection ensures that: action plans for school development are carried out, evaluation of the implementation process is done and ensures that the resources are properly used (Giles 1995:46-47). At least the demand for standards in both the UK and Australian schools goes with the provision, from the authorities, of both the human and the financial resources needed to raise the required standards.

3.5 BUDGET ALLOCATION AND CONTROL FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN BOTSWANA IN RELATION TO THE UK AND AUSTRALIA

I have already made clear in earlier chapters my view that educational improvement is about the achievement of efficiency, effectiveness and performance excellence. The availability of funds and how they are allocated and utilized in the different areas of the school is important in achieving these outcomes. Without funds, material needed to enhance teaching cannot be obtained. Inservice education programmes designed to improve teaching and other services that support the students’ learning would be difficult to conduct or
to obtain. This pre-supposes that there is a direct relationship between school improvement (school development planning) and the budget.

Curtis (1983) in his article on budgeting implicitly makes a relationship between the factors of efficiency, effectiveness and performance excellence and a budget by stating that: "The principal objective of setting budgets is to achieve control over expenditure and to assure that ‘value for money’ is obtained". The relationship between school development planning and the budget is discussed in this section in relation to how budgets to secondary schools in Botswana are made and controlled. On these points, comparisons are then made with the situation in the UK and Australia.

3.5.1 Budget allocation

The national provision of education in the three countries is similar but not identical. There may be some differences in the political hierarchical structures in the UK and Australia but in both of them, the provision of education is a function of both the central and local governments. In respect to primary schools in Botswana for example, the provision of education is similar to that in the UK and Australia. It is a joint responsibility between central government and the local government authorities. The former allocates funds to the latter to run the educational activities in those schools. At the secondary school level, central government provides the budget and directly oversees implementation of the curriculum.

At the local authority level in the UK and Australia, each public secondary school has a board of governors elected from parents, school staff, local politicians, academics, and the local business community. The school head by virtue of his/her office automatically becomes a member of the board (Davies and Ellison
This structure is similar to that in government-aided junior secondary schools and government-aided senior secondary schools in Botswana. The government non-aided senior secondary schools, on the other hand, operate with a parent teacher association system whose involvement is limited to the supporting of students’ learning.

Public school finances in the UK and Australia directly go to the schools from the Local Education Authority. In the UK for example, schools can, in addition to funds from the Local Authority, be given specific grants directly from central government (Davies and Ellison 1992:71-72). A system of financial allocation to schools in the UK is shown in the diagram below:
Diagram 3:0 System of budget allocation to schools in the UK

(Davies and Ellison 1992:72).

At the school level, the head, in consultation with the board of governors, distributes the money to the different areas of expenditure basing the distribution on the local needs and priorities of the different areas of the school. Caldwell (1992:6 and 47) cites the autonomy enjoyed by schools in Australia thus: schools . . . now have significant autonomy to make decisions related to resource allocation within the local or national policies and guidelines. The same could be said of the UK.

In Botswana there are three types of secondary schools, namely: the government senior secondary school, the government-aided senior secondary school and the
government-aided junior secondary school (all the junior secondary schools fall under this group). Each of the three have a different system of funding.

The government senior secondary schools make annual financial estimates to the Ministry of Education. They are then allocated funds which are already fixed to expenditure headings. While the government-aided senior schools and the junior secondary schools also submit estimates, their allocation is made as a lump sum. In addition to the grant they receive from Ministry of Education, aided schools, unlike the government senior secondary schools, are encouraged to ask for donations from private organizations and the business community.

What is more, these types of school are not required to return the unspent balances at the end of the financial year. Any unspent balance is carried over into the next financial year. The grant and donations they receive from the government and from private sources respectively earn interest in a commercial bank. The government-aided schools are, however, through audit inspection, required to give an account of the budget expenditure allocated to them.

The reason for the budget background information given on Botswana secondary schools, is to make the important point that the government-aided schools can tie a budget to school development planning programmes more easily than can government senior secondary schools. This is because of their relatively more decentralized budget which has a less rigid pattern of expenditure. They would find it easier therefore, to achieve school development planning objectives. However, this is dependent on whether these schools have well developed plans which clearly link resources to the objectives outlined in the school development planning.
But while these schools have more leeway in expenditure than the government schools, school development planning in these schools does not have a specific budget allocation. In all the secondary schools in Botswana, for example, the predominant system applied to allocate funds to schools is the traditional pattern that assumes that schools do the same things every year despite justified estimate requests. Similar concerns about the budget have been expressed elsewhere. Carl et al. (1992:130-131) states that, though schools can make budget estimates for new initiatives, such as linking school development planning objectives to the budget, little consideration is given to their efforts. The view by Hopkins and Holly (1988:239-240) that: ... when teachers feel capable of doing something and they feel they are having some success with it, they begin to believe in its efficacy and are more prepared to extend their usage does not fully apply to the Botswana secondary schools. The practical application of this view, is hampered, to some extent, by the unavailability of a specific budget for the school development plan. It is one thing to find a situation challenging but quite another to have the equipment necessary to cope with it. This is the situation in Botswana secondary schools with regard to the budget and school development planning.

In the Australian state of Victoria the extent of the devolution of the resources and administrative power to schools has been generous. Unlike their counterparts elsewhere in the country, public schools there were given control over budgets covering 95% of operating costs. School heads were given the power to select, and initiate the removal of, staff (Caldwell 1992:45). In a decentralized system many a school head would be happy with such changes towards autonomy. Given such powers, it would be just and fair to require the schools to account for the performances of the students. However, the timing of this devolution of powers from central government to schools was somewhat suspicious. To the general public the areas devolved to schools were rather controversial and sensitive. They
were associated with recession and cuts in public expenditure at the time. The question that immediately comes to one's mind is, was this a genuine devolution of critical functions or was it done for the convenience of central government and for political rather than for educational motives?

3.5.2 Budget control

It has been shown through arguments in section 3.5.1 that unlike the UK and Australian secondary schools, similar schools in Botswana do not have a budget purposefully meant for school development planning. It follows then that there is no budget to control in this area. However, while this is the case, school development activities are carried out in schools using funds allocated each fiscal year to support the teaching and learning activities in the different subject areas. The funds at this level are directly controlled by the heads of subjects and not by the school head although the latter has overall control of and accountability for the whole school budget. Though there are always greater demands for resources than can be satisfied, secondary schools in the UK now have an increased budget they can control themselves (Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:146).

With greater control over the school budget, and with a specific budget for school development planning, it should be easier for schools in the UK and Australia than for schools in Botswana, to link development planning to the school budget once school critical needs have been identified and priorities sorted out. The absence of a specific school development planning budget in a school should, however, not stop schools from devising own ways of implementing set school development planning objectives. Financial assistance can always be sought from the regional School Management Advisors for justified projects or tasks. The disadvantage of a school-controlled budget, however, lies in the salary level of teachers. For example, an experienced or senior teacher may well be replaced by
a less experienced or junior teacher who does not need to be paid a high salary, whereas if the state controlled the budget, schools can always expect an equally experienced replacement. Moreover, it is common knowledge in the UK that intra-school budgeting has led to unemployment among older teachers.

To summarize this section: it was shown that little difference exists in the way the allocation of financial resources in the three countries are made. The little difference can be accounted for mainly by the level of the economic and educational development of the individual countries. Secondary schools in the UK and Australia have more autonomy and enjoy flexibility in their financial expenditure and therefore have relatively fewer constraints in achieving their school development planning objectives. In respect of the UK, this freedom in financial expenditure is supported by (Adams 1992:160) and expressed as: *Under the Education Act 1988 schools have wide powers over finance allocated to them by LEA or, in the case of grant maintained schools, by DfE (Department for Education)*. Botswana, still being a developing country, cannot extend the budget autonomy to the scale of the UK and Australia to its schools.

The concept of accountability as it relates to school development planning is examined in the next section.

**3.6 ACCOUNTABILITY FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN BOTSWANA IN RELATION TO THE UK AND AUSTRALIA**

Two operational definitions, one focusing on the instructional aspect of accountability and the other focusing on the budget aspect are introduced in this section to develop the theme under discussion. In the context of a school development plan, Dimmock (1990:203) defines accountability as the ability of the school to account for the extent of its achievements in relation to the objectives stated in the school development plan. In budgetary terms, Carl et al.
(1992:140) define accountability as the assurance to the public that its funds are being spent in the proper amounts and for the proper purposes. The definitions have cost-benefit implications and expressions respectively.

Education in most countries is highly supported financially by its indirect recipients, that is, the parents of the children and the general public through the system of taxation. In Botswana, for example, during the national budget allocations, education, usually gets the lion’s share. In 1999/2000, the Ministry of Education was allocated P1.6 billion (23%) of the total national budget (Government paper 1999:35) and in 2000/2001 it received P2.1 billion (21%) (Government paper 2000: 39) for both the recurrent and development budget. In both cases the budget allocated to education exceeded all other ministries.

Support for educational development through such generous financial provision is referred to by Humphrey et al. (1996:31) in these terms: In a climate of severe international competitiveness, politicians across the spectrum have become more critical of schools and their performance. There has been a tendency to enhance the autonomy of schools to devolve budgets to them, to increase the power of parents, the local community and business interests.

However, the general public, through the politicians, always want to ensure that these large sums of money channeled towards education are prudently used. They expect value for money and require accountability from the people responsible for budgets expenditure. In Botswana, checks and balances on how finances are expended and controlled are conducted through audit inspections and discrepancies revealed by the inspection are accounted for before a national public accounts committee by the head of the ministry. Teachers on the other hand, are expected to be more accountable in respect of the character of the educational provision and the quality of its outcomes. Put in the words of
Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:1-2), there is considerable pressure on schools to improve on the levels of achievement of students, as unskilled and semi-skilled jobs progressively disappear from advanced economies. Politicians are using various methods, some more directive than others, to pressure schools to improve themselves.

Further, the financing of public education by central government through revenue from householder taxation, among other sources, cannot be done without accountability to the users. If schools fail to deliver to the expected standard, those who finance educational services will, naturally, require an explanation on lack of performance. In support of this assertion, in the UK, the Local Education Authority which provides public funding for schools must see that the handling of and accounting for those funds is efficient and without taint (Adams 1992:163).

The sentiments made by Hargreaves and Hopkins and by Adams above about the education system in the UK further confirm a relationship that exists between the outcomes of the teaching and learning processes or school development planning and accountability made in section 3.1.3 of this thesis.

As previous discussion in this thesis has insisted, in more developed countries the reason for schooling is no longer just for the student to acquire literacy and numeracy, but rather is conceived of in strong economic terms such as economic efficiency, social equity and market excellence, requiring teachers with high professional expertise and commitment and predicing the committed support by parents to students’ learning. The theme ‘accountability’ and how it is related to school development planning is also predicated on this perspective. The discussion of the theme in this section will therefore hinge, particularly, on accountability vis-à-vis the availability of quality resources. In this context, the
teacher, the student and the parent are the quality resources necessary for the successful achievement of school development objectives.

3.6.1 Quality of the teacher
The school head’s responsibility for students’ achievement, it is argued, can be fairly justified only if appropriate resources are provided. For a school to achieve at the expected standard, thus achieving the both national and school-specific goals, of necessity, must have appropriate tools and in sufficient quantities. One of the essential resource is the teacher.

The school head in Botswana does not have the power to hire and fire those teachers who are not up to scratch. Teacher deployment and dismissal, as was discussed in section 3.4.2, is the responsibility of Teaching Service Management. Ironically, school heads are expected to be accountable to students’ achievement yet they have no decision on teacher recruitment and selection. Heads in the UK have such powers. They can select teachers of their own choice. Their power is derived from the 1988 Education Act which allows schools with more than 200 students to decide on recruitment, appointment and dismissal (Bell 1992:6-7).

Another constraint that badly affects students’ achievement is the large number of untrained teachers in the Botswana secondary schools. This is particularly the case at the junior secondary school level as shown in Table 1. The trend has been that the younger, inexperienced and untrained teachers dominate the remote schools. This trend is indicated in Table 5 below:
Table 5: Untrained teachers (in junior secondary schools) in specific areas of need by district and qualification (Government Paper 1997: 45).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>*O</th>
<th>*Dip</th>
<th>*De</th>
<th>*Ot</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Francistown City</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lobatse (town)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kweneng (semi-rural)</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngami (remote)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The main reason for this is that more established and trained teachers are usually reluctant to serve at these areas. In a bid to attract and retain the experienced and better qualified teachers to these areas, government has introduced a remote area service allowance at a current rate of P333.56 per month for staff in the remotest areas and P198.33 per month for those in the less remote areas (Government paper of July 1998:71). The presence of untrained teachers at these areas negatively impacts on the quality of school development planning programmes in those schools. School development planning, challenging as it does, obviously needs teachers with skills and professional capabilities for it to be successfully accomplished.
In Botswana, statements on school development planning such as: *Can you please show us what another school is doing, then we can adopt it and save time, we have tried new ideas before and I just want to do my own thing that I know the children need. If the rest of them want to go to all these daft meetings, let them, but I know most people agree with me that they are a waste of time* (Humphreys 1996:39), are not uncommon from teachers. If teachers have such attitudes towards work, and indeed some have them, as they feel their jobs are secure because of the general teacher shortage in the system, then the teaching and learning processes would be badly affected. In turn, this negatively impacts on accountability as required of the school head.

In developed countries like the UK, during economic recessions, political interest in education is founded on the need to harness the human resource (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994:31). The best teachers tend to remain in the classroom while non-performers are made redundant. A shortage of qualified professional expertise in secondary schools as shown in Table 1 page 53, means that teachers in Botswana are in big demand. Serving teachers are therefore not necessarily threatened by retrenchments and redundancies as these usually happen in countries where there is an over-supply of teachers. In Botswana some teachers can still ‘sit tight’ passing their time away in schools. Such teachers may respond to new challenges such as school development planning with little inspiration and enthusiasm.

The policy statement in respect of the State of Victoria (Australia) that: *All students shall not only have access to schooling but also achieve at levels well in advance of those considered acceptable in the past* (Caldwell 1992:9), has accountability overtones. In relation to Australian secondary schools which have well trained teachers in sufficient numbers, sufficient material and financial resources, needed to accomplish set school development planning objectives, the
above is reasonable expectation. With respect to trained teachers and their effect on school performances, it is stated that in most developing countries, the quality of teaching that children receive has an influence on the overall quality of education. In Botswana, some empirical evidence has shown a positive relationship between the number of trained teachers in a primary school, and a students' achievement in the Primary School Leaving Examination (Government paper 1997:127).

Usually, the quality of the teacher influences the students' performance. A good teacher, invariably, can positively influence students' learning that a bad teacher. If the school head has no decision on teacher selection, like is the case in the Botswana education system of teacher recruitment, and has no adequate resources at his/her disposal for effective inservice training programmes, accountability for school performances should not be expected to the level of schools which enjoy staff selection and which have flexibility in the use of school finances. In schools where there is capacity and capability in terms of 'quality' teachers and 'quality' students as opposed to those described in section 3.6.2 below, the threat with accountability can be a powerful force to raise performance standards.

3.6.2 Quality of the student

In Botswana, while the students ability may vary from student to student in the same school, the ability range also varies from school to school. Students in towns and in less rural areas are generally exposed to better educational facilities in the form of better equipped libraries, regular interaction with the more educated and sophisticated and to better access to the paper and electronic media. In general, they have more access to those things that enhance learning. Whereas those in remote areas depend, for most of the time, on the teacher's
resourcefulness. But not all teachers are resourceful as argued under the heading ‘quality of the teacher’ in section 3.6.1.

The obvious implications of the lack of educational facilities on the performance of the schools and the quality of students suggests that, given such harsh local circumstances in some schools, accountability ought not to be the sole responsibility of the school head but a collective responsibility by both the head and other partners (including Ministry of Education) among education providers.

The UK and Australia, being developed countries, do not have the same problem of inequity in the provision of resources as a result of remote areas. Such areas in these countries are adequately catered for in terms of educational resources. Although these countries may have problems in such matters, in comparison with the Botswana situation, those problems are insignificant. Given sufficient resources at their disposal that can support school development planning then effective implementation of accountability to the UK and Australian schools can be reasonably expected.

It takes both a good teacher and a good student to achieve quality performance. The absence of one of these two variables can adversely affect performance. School inspectors and those officers who do performance appraisals on school heads look for quality performance when they visit schools. If performance is poor school heads are held accountable. But if school heads have little power over the selection of students into their schools, as is the case in Botswana, the insistence of quality performance on them can be considered as unrealistic. For example, because of common learning problems associated with economic deprivation, and above all because of lack of exposure to the crucial ingredient English, the general level of student performances in remote areas is unlikely ever to equal the performances of the more sophisticated boys and girls in semi-urban
and urban centres. However, exceptions can obviously be found in the cases of individual students.

The environment factor which has such an influence on students’ performance is discussed in section 3.6.3 below.

3.6.3 Parents and home environment support

The definition by Dimmock (1990:203) that: Accountability is the ability of the school to account for the extent of its achievements in relation to the objectives stated in the school development plan, in my view, calls for more than the school efforts alone. Students’ achievement, in my view, is the aggregate of several factors, including the efforts of teachers and parents of the students as well. After all, students spend much more contact time with their teachers when they are at school than they do with the school head. When school ends they are in the charge of their parents. The teacher and the parent are therefore very important allies in the learning process of the student. There ought, therefore, to exist between them a ‘give and take’ relationship. Properly coordinated, each partner’s effort may benefit the other. The school needs from parents, a willingness to assist students with academic work if it is possible. In Botswana a significant number of parents do not have sufficient academic ability to be able to effectively support school efforts. This is due to their own low educational attainment. Some are illiterate while a substantial number has only attained primary education.

It is a truism in educational psychology that students’ academic achievements in school are heavily conditioned by factors in their background. This is stated by Atkinson et al. 1987:62-63) as: most . . . aspects of human development . . . depend on the interaction between inherited characteristics and environmental experiences. For example, children raised in middle-class American homes begin to speak at about 1 year of age. Children raised in San Marcos, a remote village
who have little interaction with adults, do not utter their first words until they are over two years old.

The home environments of many students in Botswana secondary schools lack basic facilities such as adequate lighting - many homes have no electricity - and a proper place where they can do undisturbed study. At times students are on their own at home, and unsupervised, when parents are away at the lands, cattle posts or at work outside the village. Sometimes students live on their own in towns when parents are at the family home in the village. Under such circumstances students’ under-achievement at school is, if not inevitable, at least predictable. Because of the correlate between the home environment and the students performance, it is obviously unfair to require schools to be solely accountable for the students’ poor performance.

In relation to the important background factors that have just been discussed, the researcher seeks to review the definitions of accountability by Dimmock (1990:203) and Carl et al. (1992:140) given in 3.6 above. Any definition failing to mention the prevalence of necessary support tools must be incomplete. A more inclusive definition of accountability is suggested here as: the requirement to give an account as to why a given task was not fulfilled as required when necessary tools to achieve it were provided.

The average parent in the UK and Australia is literate, and therefore the parents there are more able to guide their children in school work. Also, most of the UK and Australian home environments are good enough to give effective support to children’s learning. They are adequately lit and most are likely to have a study table. Also, such parents have one home and can stay with their children for most or all of the time during the child’s schooling, unlike in Botswana where a significant number of families are attending to their lands or cattle away from the
main home. A requirement for the school head to be accountable for students' performance in these two countries is therefore more realistic than in less developed countries such as Botswana.

The accountability function is not well developed in this regard in Botswana secondary schools. To approach to the level of the UK, for example, schools need to have a more developed human and material resource. Generally, Botswana still has to attain a level of readiness in this regard.

3.7 CONCLUSION

The review of school development planning in Botswana in relation to the UK and Australia argued that there is little doubt that the quality of resources and their provision in sufficient quantities in schools can positively affect the outcomes of school development planning objectives. The UK and Australia are more successful in this regard because schools there are adequately staffed with qualified staff. They have more educated local communities that form the parent teachers' associations or boards of governors. Though the parents and board members in Botswana secondary schools may be willing to support school improvements efforts, they are in most cases, limited in doing so by their educational backgrounds.

Another major reason why school development planning in Botswana may be not as successful, notwithstanding the fact that it started only in the 1990s, is the rigidity in which funds are being allocated to schools and controlled. There is little room for virement, and control, which is determined externally, is straightforward. Arguments from literature review point out that a more liberal budget and control system can enhance school development planning exercises. Given a bigger say in the school finances, school heads feel more accountable for
the performance of their schools because they feel they have control over critical resources that are essential in improving the teaching and learning processes.

The literature on school development planning revealed that in the UK and Australia, school heads have discretionary powers in the use of school finances. In Australia, this followed the devolution of school functions from the centre to the school level. This was with regard to the budget and the decision-making process to the school clientele in areas of educational concern. A comparable but more problematic situation obtains in the UK. The human resource is more developed in these two countries than in Botswana. They have a more trained teaching and management force. Given the relatively sufficient human, physical and financial resources at their disposal for discretionary use, accountability to the students’ performances by the school head can reasonably be required. These conditions enhance a more proper implementation of school development planning efforts.

Unlike Chapter II, this chapter did not have specific research questions linked to the empirical data collected in Chapter V. This was because it was not originally meant to be based on the original research. Rather, it was carried out to enhance the quality of this thesis. This was done through a literature survey from books, journals and from other written documentation. The literature gathered using these methods was discussed in the context of the themes ‘human capacity’, ‘budget allocation and control’ and ‘accountability’ vis-à-vis the school head in Botswana in relation to the school head in the UK and Australia in school development planning. So, specifically, the empirical findings from Chapter V did not directly answer any questions on issues of human capacity, budget allocation and control and accountability raised in chapter III.
However, it was inevitable that reference should be made to issues raised in this chapter in the chapter on the discussion of the empirical findings (Chapter VI) because the discussion of the themes in Chapter III was made in the context of a school development plan and how this related to the school head in Botswana using examples from the UK and Australia. A more general and encompassing question such as: How do the roles of school heads in Botswana compare to those of their counterparts in the UK and Australia with regard:

- Human capacity (i.e. manpower constraints)

- Budget allocation and control (i.e. the extent to which school heads control school budgets)

- Accountability (i.e. what is expected of school heads in terms of students’ performances. Is this expectation justifiable given the limited resources at their disposal? could be asked.

The next chapter describes the methodology and methods used in the study. It describes how the data were collected and also gives details of the people who were involved in the research investigation and why they were involved.
CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN: METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter starts by explaining the relationship between the theoretical and empirical aspects of the study and also explains the rational problem statement for the empirical aspect of the study.

The purpose of the empirical aspect in a qualitative study is to test the general perceptions about what the literature purports to be the case in a given area of study. By carrying out the empirical component in a qualitative study, the researcher seeks to find out whether there is still general agreement on what was found to be the case in previous studies and what the case is in the current study.

Specifically, in this study, the researcher seeks to find out, through empirical research, whether previously held perceptions about the role of the school head in a school development plan are still being held to-day. In short the empirical component of the study teases the problem statement. The theoretical orientation of the research, on the other hand, guides the empirical orientation. That is, theory can be used to collect and analyze data. When designing the measure instruments for example, theory can be used to help data cohere and enable research to go beyond an aimless, unsystematic piling up of accounts (Bogdan and Biklen 1992:33).

With regard to staff development, the main link between the empirical and theoretical components of the study as it relates to the role of the school head in a school development plan is that, in the literature, it is argued that for school development planning to achieve the set goals, the school head should plan and ensure a continuous inservice training programme for teachers. Inservice training
is necessary because heads (at least in Botswana) have little or no power to recruit teachers with desired skills. Teacher improvement therefore depends almost entirely on the retraining of existing staff. On-the-job retraining, it is argued, is a therefore viable option which can provide teachers with appropriate teaching skills thereby allowing them professional growth.

Highlighted in the theoretical component is also the need to have school heads with interpersonal skills, who can practise collaborative instructional leadership styles and who can be able to work glove-in-hand with the staff. Such qualities from the head are necessary. After all, the successful implementation of school development planning requires heads who can closely work with the teachers, recognize their contributions rather than expecting them to follow decisions made elsewhere by other people. Related to the collaborative aspect advocated here, is the view by Carlson and Dicharme (1987:929) that Teachers want to think independently instead of blindly accepting the scholarship of others.

With reference to culture building in schools, emphasis in the theoretical aspect is on the importance of the existence of a culture of team work that can increase the teachers’ value for the school as an organization. Such culture, the literature argues, can be conceived through common problem-solving approaches. In solving problems as a team, individual members can give and receive help from one another and this may be seen as a quest for continuous improvement. This approach to team building, in addition to having positive classroom outcomes, can help build trust and confidence between teachers.

The term ‘collaborative’ crops up again in conflict management as a strategy that is recommended to school heads to resolve conflict between their staff. Conflict, the theoretical component on school development planning argues, has become an organizational imperative. It ought therefore to be managed properly
to benefit the school since it is not always negative. Through conflict, ideas that can benefit school improvement may emerge.

Prominent in the discussion on **classroom supervision**, was the argument on the sizes of schools *vis-à-vis* the practical possibility for the school head to be able to carry out classroom observation on each teacher effectively. Delegating this function of management to someone suitable was considered to be a solution to this concern. While it is important that at one time or another every teacher should be observed teaching, it was argued that the new and least experienced teachers need to be observed most.

In the **measure instruments**, relevant questions that directly and indirectly link the literature to the empirical component are asked. The relationship between the two components of the study on the different aspects of this thesis will be either supported or refuted by the empirical evidence. In summary, the literature and empirical components, in this regard, complement and benefit each other and are mutually inclusive.

There are three general possible outcomes to this investigation. Firstly, there may be generally similar views from the theoretical component and from the empirical component. If this is found to be the case, then the two components will be mutually supporting each other on what the role of the school head in a school development plan ought to be. Most important, the theoretical aspect will help strengthen the results of the empirical investigation. Secondly, there may be general different perceptions held by respondents on the role of the school head in a school development plan in the four areas under review in this thesis. A third possibility can be mixed perceptions held about the role of the school head in the different areas of focus.
This chapter follows a literature study made in Chapter III. It describes and outlines the methodology and methods used in the research study. The methodology used was meant to provide answers to the four basic research questions on the role of the school head in a school development plan, namely:

What is the role of the school head in a school development plan with regard to:

- staff development?
- the supervision of classroom teaching?
- the building of a sustainable school culture?
- managing staff conflict during the school development plan implementation process?

The research questions would be answered by first attending to the following questions:

- What type of study design did the researcher carry out?
- How was the sampling done, that is, who was involved in the study and what criteria were used to involve these people and not others of the same group and same characteristics?
- What specific and suitable instruments were used to obtain the required information on the study from the people who participated in it (Moore 1983:107)?
- Why were these data-gathering techniques preferred for the study?
- What is the relationship between the methods used to collect data?
The research study undertaken was partly qualitative and partly quantitative. Its part resided in its dealing with the respondents' observable deeds which could be translated into words rather than into numbers (Carlson and Dicharme 1987:897 and Bogdan and Biklen 1992:30). The respondents' points of view were obtained through the use of a semi-structured questionnaire and an interview schedule. The data obtained using these methods, it is believed, are experiences gained by respondents during their participation in school development plan issues.

The quantitative aspect of the study arises because a closed response questionnaire was partly used as a data-gathering method. The use of this data-gathering method helped the researcher to gather specific information on the study. This was achieved by limiting the respondent to choose only one response out of many. The use of this method, however, does not suggest that the researcher sought to establish a cause-and-effect relationship between any variables. The study was descriptive in nature.

At the time when the study was conducted, there were 232 government and government-aided secondary schools in Botswana, widely spread within the country's vast area of 582 000 square kilometres (Republic of Botswana 1997/98-2002/03:3). Two hundred and five of these were junior secondary schools, i.e. schools which at that date went up to form 2 (this survey was conducted in 1997 when all junior secondary schools were in transition between a 2 year and a 3 year cycle). The introduction and implementation of school development plans was mandatory to all the secondary schools in Botswana as it was regarded as having ultimate benefits to the students' education (British Council 1991:3). The researcher sought to involve teachers and heads of secondary schools in Botswana because that is the level at which school development plans are being officially implemented.
Specifically, the target population of the study was all teachers and heads whose schools were selected for the study. But the number of schools involved and the large size of the country made it difficult, if not impossible, for the researcher to cover all the schools and all the teachers. Besides the time factor, the inaccessibility of the total population and the implied costs and resources, it would have been too much to process and study the data all together if all secondary schools and teachers in the country had been involved. In the circumstances, the decision to run a sample on the schools and teachers was therefore imperative. The next section looked at how the sampling procedures were carried out.

4.2 SAMPLING

The school development plan as a strategy intended to improve the teaching and learning processes was first introduced in Botswana secondary schools in 1991 (British Council 1991:1). The focus of this survey was therefore on secondary schools. The number and level of secondary schools (Junior or Senior), to be involved in the study and their corresponding student enrolments are shown in table 6 below:
Table 6: Level of school and student enrolment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>Student enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1200-1300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>900-1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>below 720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>600-720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>400-580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The objectives of the study are to investigate the role of the school head in a school development plan with regard to:

- staff development
- supervision of classroom activities
- school culture building
- conflict management.

The ultimate goal of the study was to come up with informed data and contributions that would guide school heads and other interested parties involved in the improvement of educational standards in Botswana, on how they could better manage development plans for the optimal benefit of the teaching and learning processes. Informed contributions, invariably, can be drawn from informed people. In the context of this study, informed teachers and heads are usually those at schools which are more intently involved in school development plans than others. It could, however, be argued that schools that are active in
development plans do not of necessity guarantee active participation by all teachers. But teachers who are more committed are more likely to be more informed in development plan issues than those less committed.

The researcher targeted such teachers who could make quality contributions to the study. This was done by asking heads to select teachers, who, in their opinion, fell within the category of active teachers in school development efforts. Given this condition and notwithstanding the trustworthiness and professionalism which the researcher has generally especially among school heads, sometimes bias in selecting who to nominate can seep in. Being by virtue of their official positions responsible for the implementation of development plans in schools, all heads whose schools were selected for the study were involved. Staff development coordinators in secondary schools perform the important role of carrying out needs assessments on teachers, and organize appropriate inservice courses for them, so, staff development coordinators were considered well suited to be able to offer useful and credible contributions towards the study.

When first school development plans were introduced and implemented in Botswana secondary schools, in each of the five regions, a school management advisor was introduced. The specific role of this officer was to introduce, guide and oversee the implementation process of the development plan in each school in the region (British Council 1991: 3-3). The officer continues to play this role to-day. The schools involved in the study were drawn from the five regions manned by the school management advisors whose functions were described above. The researcher had targeted teachers and heads who would provide useful information to the research. The school management advisors in the different regions, on account of their roles, would know which the most effective schools in development plans are. The criteria used to select schools for the research was therefore initially based on the information sought from school management
advisors about their schools in the different regions. The five regions comprised; the North, North Central, South, South Central and the Western regions.

The researcher had sought the opinion of each of the school management advisor on the individual schools’ performance in school development plan in the region. The school management advisors had been requested to give names of five secondary schools (two senior and three junior) ranked in order in which they performed in development plans programmes. These schools will hence be referred to as "good performers" in this study. The information provided by the school management advisors later formed the basis for further sampling by the researcher. The availability of this information from offices like the school management advisors, which form part of the Ministry of Education, at least confirmed that the source of data was a valid one.

While the school management advisor's sampling was based strictly on perceived performance, the researcher's further sampling did not necessarily follow the ranking by the school management advisors. In some cases schools which did not appear first or even second (in the case of the Junior secondary schools) in the ranking lists were selected for the research. Consideration was also given to the location of the school and the relative distance the researcher would have to travel to conduct the research and the costs involved. Another reason why the ranking orders by the school management advisors were not strictly adhered to was to strike a balance between the large, medium and small schools. In the view of the researcher, the decision not to follow strictly the schools' ranking order by performance, would not seriously affect the quality of data obtained from the schools. After all, the schools involved all fell under the category of "good performers". Because of the manner in which the schools were selected, that is, getting only the best from a region and not from the whole country, representation was only regionally and not nationally.
Distribution of schools by regions was as follows: three were from the northern region, three from the southern region, three from the north central, four from the south central and two were from the western, which is the smallest region. The distribution of schools by region and level is shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Number of Sen. Sec. Schools</th>
<th>Number of Jr. Sec. Schools</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North central</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South central</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1 Rationale for schools sampling

It could not be discounted that the top ten schools (as ranked in the school development planning) in the country, for example, could come from a single region. For this reason, it was not possible to establish with any precision that the schools which were finally selected for the study, though they were among the best in the individual regions, were also the best in the country. To get around the possible danger of selecting schools from only a few regions on account of their
school development planning performances only, the schools were grouped into already existing clusters or regions as shown in table 2. This was done in order to spread representation. Further, a purposeful sampling procedure (Bogdan and Biklen 1992:71-72) was used, where particular schools in each region, because of their characteristics, were included in the final sample. The characteristics included their sizes and location within the region. The purposeful sampling, the researcher believed, would ensure that the characteristics of the schools targeted for the study would satisfy a fair representation.

4.2.2 How the study subjects were selected
A school development plan, as the prefix 'school' suggests, is a school-specific undertaking that can be carried out only in schools. Also, notwithstanding the fact that school improvements are the aggregation of efforts by a number of stakeholders such as Ministry of Education personnel, parents, school boards of governors, the non-government organizations, teachers, students and heads, at the centre of such efforts must be the principal (Trancedi 1994:18). Also, school improvement and students' success depend largely on efforts made at each individual school level, with the teacher in the forefront of the implementation process (ibid.). Because of the pivotal role played by both the school head and the teachers in school development endeavours, the researcher decided to select the heads and teachers as the subjects of the study.

Effective schools are usually associated with effective heads. This assertion is supported by Hopkins, Ainscow and West (1994:153) that: While all effective schools' emphasis is laid on consultation, team work and participation, but without exception, the most important single factor of these schools is the quality of the leadership. A similar view is held by Boyer (1995) in Hart and Bredeson (1996:191) that: In schools where achievement was high . . . invariably the
principal made the difference. Accordingly, not only did the researcher target heads and teachers as the subjects of the study, he also targeted the best ones. Staff development coordinators in schools are similarly chosen for this responsibility on account of their dedication and ability.

In as far as the sampling of the subjects was concerned, it did not apply to the school heads and staff development coordinators. The selection of their schools to participate in the survey meant they were automatically involved. Each school has one school head and one staff development coordinator. In any case, it had been the initial decision of the researcher to include the school head and the staff development coordinator from each participating school. The sampling only applied to teachers and was conducted by the participating school head at his/her school. It does not always follow that if a school is active in development plans all its teachers are also active. The school head, because of his/her central position in school development plans, was considered to be the person with better knowledge of who the most active teachers were. For this reason, the selection of teachers to participate in the research was left to the individual school head. This way of selecting the respondents by someone who knows well their strengths, in the view of the researcher, satisfied the implicit purpose of the research to provide a well-informed literature base and recommendations by an informed population (Moore 1983:111-112).

The involvement of a professional (school head) in helping select subjects for a study serves to strengthen its validity. But the element of sampling bias cannot be completely ruled out in such circumstances, particularly, if in the same school, there were several teachers active in school development planning issues. Also, basing the selection of the study subjects on the 'most active' involves a subjective judgment, just as the prior selection of schools to be included in this study had depended on the judgment of the school management advisor in the region. The
total population that participated in the study was 60 staff including school heads. Table 8 below shows how participation by respondents was distributed.

**Table 8: Participating population by school level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sr. Secondary</th>
<th>Jr. Secondary</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of heads</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of coordinators</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of teachers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3 **Summary of Sampling**

4.2.3.1 **Research participants**

Those involved in the research were the junior secondary and senior secondary school teachers, in particular, school head, staff development coordinator and a classroom teacher from each of the participating schools.
4.2.3.2 **Criteria for involving participants**

The research problem, involving an investigation of issues of school development planning programmes as they are handled within schools, gives the selection of heads, staff development co-ordinators and active teachers a self-evident rationale. Focusing on these key participants rather than from respondents from school staff who were randomly selected carries a common-sense justification. However, there may be good reasons for researchers to be selective or purposeful in their sampling, as was the case here.

The researcher purposefully selected particular respondents from whom informed, quality and reasonably valid findings can be expected. Heads were obviously involved in the research on account of their responsibility to ensure that school development plans are properly carried out in schools. This does not, however, necessarily imply that by virtue of their responsibilities, school heads are experts in school development planning. But at least the fact that they are responsible for the presence of the school development plan and are accountable for its implementation, gives the information they can supply an obvious value. Nor, as we have seen, had the original selection of participant schools proceeded at random.

For similar reasons, the inclusion of staff development coordinators in the research investigation was decided upon on the basis of the crucial role they perform in school development planning. The main areas of their responsibilities include:
• chairing the staff development committee.

• planning, with the staff development committee, an effective school-based training programme on the curriculum.

• developing a resource bank of articles and books on teaching methodologies.

• helping to prioritize the training needs of the staff in curriculum areas.

In consultation with the school head, a teacher considered active in school improvement matters was selected for the research inquiry on the premise that no one could know better than the school head the strengths of the individual teachers in school development planning issues. It was assumed that in identifying a teacher of this calibre, the head would find it necessary to consult with others who supervise development plan tasks in the school, including the staff development coordinator.

The school head, staff development coordinator and a purposefully selected teacher, all intently involved in development planning in schools, can be expected to give acceptable findings for the research. The next section discusses the methods that were used to collect information for the research survey.

4.3 DATA COLLECTION

The methods used to gather data for the research survey were concerned with seeking participants' written and verbal information in relation to the role of the school head in a school development plan in the four areas already specified. Therefore the methodology employed produced mainly descriptive data based on insights rather than using statistical data where hypothesis testing is involved (Bell 1987:4). Three types of strategies were used to provide the data base for the study, namely:
• a closed-response questionnaire
• an open-ended semi-structured schedule
• an interview

The three methods above were used to answer basically similar questions. The major difference lay in the format and the detail or depth at which the questions were to be answered. For example, the one response questionnaire confined the respondents to specifics while on the other extreme, the interview, though controlled, allowed the respondent in-depth expression in the activity being investigated. The latter method gave the researcher the opportunity to obtain from the interviewee first-hand knowledge based on practical experience (Carlson and Dicharme 1987:898). Books, journals and documentation were generously consulted to enrich and support the data collected using the three methods above.

A total of 60 respondents were selected for the study. All the sixty participants took part in the closed-response questionnaire. Forty nine of the total participants took part in the semi-structured questions, while 11 took part in the interview schedule. Each region was represented in the structured questionnaires and interviews. Participants to the semi-structured and interview schedules were, as already indicated, selected by the school heads basing their selection on the individual teacher's commitment and capability in school development planning activities. A respondent who participated in the interview did not participate in the semi-structured questionnaire and vice versa because the same questions were used for both the semi-structured and interview schedules. The table below shows how the different data-gathering instruments were distributed among the research participants:
Table 9: Distribution of research instruments to respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Closed-responses</th>
<th>Semi-structured</th>
<th>Interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heads</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D. coordinators</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.1 Rationale for using a closed response questionnaire

The closed-response questionnaire in the context of a Likert scale also formed part of the strategy used to collect data. This was intended to be the case because relatively it does not demand of the respondents a lot of time and effort to complete and it gives participants the leeway to respond to the question items in a much more relaxed manner and at their convenient time. Another advantage with the closed response questionnaire as a method of data-gathering, is that it does not tempt the respondent to ramble irrelevantly but confines him/her to specifics.

4.3.2 Closed-response questionnaire format

A set of rating items were developed to assess the respondents' views regarding statements about the role of the school head on the four aspects of staff development, classroom supervision, school culture and conflict management that form the basis of this thesis. The first 23 items of the questionnaire were assessed
by a four-point Likert scale ranging from "not so important" to "absolutely essential". The next seventeen items of the questionnaire were assessed by a five point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". These required respondents to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements.

4.3.3 **Advantage of the closed-response format**
To answer the questions in this format, it only needed the respondent to circle the response considered most suitable. The ease with which the answering procedure was facilitated was meant to motivate the completion of as many questions as possible with a minimum of writing by the respondent (Preedy 1989:105). **Appendix 1** shows the format of this type of questionnaire. The questionnaire, which was sent to schools by mail, enabled the researcher to reach more participants without much travelling, thus saving on the inherent costs.

4.3.4 **Disadvantage of the closed-response format**
Since this is a mailed questionnaire there is delay in its reaching the participants and in the researcher's receiving back the responses. There is also a considerable possibility of a reduced rate of return as compared to an interview. Nonetheless, these disadvantages are outweighed by the advantages enunciated above.

4.3.5 **Rationale for using a semi-structured questionnaire**
The open-ended semi-structured questionnaire was used as another method of collecting data. This method is less restricting than the closed-response questionnaire where the respondent's expression on observations and views is constrained. The use of this questionnaire design approach allowed respondents to express their opinions on situations on the four sub-themes of the study in
greater detail. In short, it was intended to provoke thought from the respondents. Also, using this type of instrument for the gathering of data, reveals more information the researcher is not aware of. Like the closed response questionnaire, the semi-structured questionnaire was designed in the knowledge of other commitments teachers and heads have at their schools. Respondents could take these questions home to complete in a more relaxed atmosphere free from disturbances caused by their job responsibilities. One disadvantage with this type of questionnaire, however, is that, like the closed response type of questionnaire, it does not guarantee a hundred per cent rate of return. Its other disadvantage is that it is difficult to analyze. One has to categorise the responses, sometimes somewhat arbitrarily. Appendix III shows the structure of the semi-structured questionnaire design.

4.3.6 Rationale for the use of an interview

Through the use of an interview, both the interviewee and the interviewer are able to elaborate on issues and questions and to clarify the meaning of statements, answers or questions that may not be clear to the interviewee or interviewer as they engage in dialogue. Therefore the information gathered using this method is likely not to be misinterpreted during the analysis, interpretation and discussion sections. Also, the researcher as an active participant in the interview, can verify information previously observed with the interviewee.

Because of the time it takes to conduct interviews with the individual respondents, the number of participants for the oral interview was restricted to twelve. Table 4 gives information on how the research instruments were distributed to the respondents. The instrument prescribed in Appendix III served a dual purpose. The same questions were used in both the open response and interview schedules. The only variation was that in one case the responses were
written by the respondents while in the other, the written responses were made by the researcher himself as the interview proceeded. Also, the interview took a semi-structured form in which the same themes were covered as in the closed response questionnaire. The semi-structured interview allowed respondents to express themselves at greater length, but the fact that the questions focused on the objectives of the study guarded against aimless rambling.

4.3.7 Disadvantage of the interview
The oral interview is however, not without its short-comings. No matter how familiar with interviews the interviewee and interviewer may be, the atmosphere can sometimes be unsettling to the interviewee or the interviewer. For example, an interview conducted to an academically more qualified teacher by a less academically qualified one can have some psychologically intimidating effects on the latter. Also, sheer lack of trust in the interviewer by the interviewee could restrict the interviewee's open-mindedness (Elliott 1991:80). Like in an observational study, where the presence of an observer in a class may change the behaviour of the teacher being observed and that of the class (Moore 1983:176), the interview can have a similar effect on the interviewee. In the next section, a description of how the questionnaires and interview schedules were distributed to the subjects of the study is given.

4.3.8 Relation between the research methods
The qualitative approach is used in this research seeks to grasp the basic underlying assumptions of behaviour through understanding what Carlson and Dicharme (1987:899) refer to as the definition of the situation from the view of the participant. Through this method, the researcher conducts an in-depth interviewing on the respondents, with him/her intently involved in the activity
being investigated. This allows him/her to obtain first-hand knowledge of the problem and sub-problems being investigated. The process involves questioning and listening, mostly by the interviewer, and compiling a written record. To achieve success in this exercise, the setting for the investigation needs to be as natural and free (to both the interviewer and the interviewee) as possible, to allow the interviewee to express him/herself on how he/she thinks and how he/she came to develop the perspectives s/he holds. The onus to create such an environment or atmosphere largely rests with the interviewer. Through the qualitative method, the respondents are asked about their observations and experiences in given situations, and to interpret them. The method is not so much concerned with specific questions to answer or hypotheses to test. The responses from respondents, which appear in words, are important both in recording data and disseminating the findings (Bogdan and Biklen 1992:2 and 3).

Another method of data collection in the research uses a closed response questionnaire. In research, generally, closed questions are associated with quantitative approaches. In a number of cases in the research, the questions asked in the closed questions are implied in the open-ended methods of data collection. This serves to ensure triangulation and to enhance the validity of the research findings. In this sense the three methods therefore complement each other. The data collected by using the semi-structured and interview methods add flesh to the one collected by using the closed response questionnaire.

4.4 ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORK
In designing the research instruments for gathering data, due consideration was given to the relevance of the questions to the specific objectives of the study. The questions were designed drawing on some of the ideas discussed in the chapter on the review of the related literature (Chapter II).
4.4.1 Piloting the study

After the research instruments were designed and compiled, they were pre-tested and piloted. The piloting exercise was conducted in two schools, a senior secondary and a junior secondary. These schools did not participate in the final research data-gathering process but were active in school development plan implementation. The purpose of the pre-testing and piloting exercise was to determine the credibility of the questions, their relevance to the main and sub-themes of the research proposal and survey, the level of difficulty of the questions, the time it would approximately take to complete each type of questionnaire to determine any ambiguity in the questions and to test the anticipated question coding and analytical data. The questionnaires were administered personally by the researcher to attend to any immediate clarification. The pre-testing and piloting exercise was conducted as follows:

Two closed-response questionnaires were piloted to two respondents as follows, on one senior secondary school head and on one junior secondary school teacher. Two open-ended semi-structured questionnaires were administered on two respondents as follows, on one senior secondary school staff development coordinator and on one junior secondary school teacher. Two sets of oral interviews were piloted on one junior secondary school head and one senior secondary school teacher. The 'guinea pigs' were asked to comment on any ambiguity in the questions, their level of difficulty, the questions' relevance to the objectives of the study and on the time it took to complete the questions. This time would be included in the covering letter.
4.4.2 Distribution of questionnaires to respondents

Following the pre-testing and piloting exercise, necessary amendments were made on the basis of the 'guinea pigs' comments. The questionnaires were then submitted to the research promoter for perusal and approval thereof. The approved questionnaires were then distributed to the respondents as shown in Table 9 above. Prior to mailing the questionnaires to schools, the researcher had earlier on taken advantage of regular secondary schools heads' conferences to solicit the heads' support and cooperation in the completion of the questionnaires. Those approached showed an abundance of willingness to participate in the research survey. They were told that the questionnaires would follow in due course.

4.4.2.1 Closed-response questionnaire

This type of questionnaire which was to be responded to by all the subjects of the study was mailed to the schools involved through the heads. An accompanying letter, shown in Appendix V, asked the head to select one of the participating teachers to administer the completion of the questionnaires, that is, to distribute, collect and return the completed questionnaires direct to the researcher's address.

Sometimes the teachers' freedom in answering some questions that directly affect the school head in a survey can be inhibited by the knowledge that the head may have access to their responses. This is more likely to be the case where small numbers of respondents in each school are involved, as is the case with this study. The engagement of a teacher to administer the exercise rather than the school head was meant to allay such fears and to encourage freedom of expression to all participants. Return postage and an addressed envelope enclosed with the questionnaires was provided for the respondents' convenience. This
letter, which was sent to the schools approximately two weeks before going for the interview, also requested an interview lasting not more than 30 minutes with each interviewee. The researcher would confirm by telephone when he would come for the interview.

4.4.2.2 **Open-ended response questionnaire**

This was also mailed together with the closed-response questionnaire to each school involved in the study. A letter to the staff development co-ordinator *(Appendix VI)* gave instructions on how the questionnaires were to be distributed to the respondents. Table 10 below gives a distribution of the questionnaires to the schools and to specific respondents.
Table 10: Distribution of questionnaires to schools and to specific respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
<th>CLOSED &amp; SEMI-STRUCTURED RESPONSES</th>
<th>CLOSED-RESPONSES &amp; INTERVIEW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Naledi Sr.</td>
<td>Sr.</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c., 2 x trs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madiba Sr.</td>
<td>Sr.</td>
<td>s.d.c., 1 x tr.</td>
<td>Hm, 1 x tr.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francistown</td>
<td>Sr.</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c., 2 x trs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seepapitso</td>
<td>Sr.</td>
<td>1 x tr.</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c., 1 x tr.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gantsi Sr.</td>
<td>Sr.</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c., 2 x trs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letlhabile Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c., 2 x trs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selolwe Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c., 2 x trs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letsopa Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>s.d.c., 1 x tr.</td>
<td>Hm, 1 x tr.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mmanaana Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>s.d.c., 1 x tr.</td>
<td>Hm, 1 x tr.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G/West Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>2 x trs</td>
<td>Hm, s.d.c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maikano Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>2 x trs, Hm, s.d.c.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanogang Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>2 x trs, Hm, s.d.c</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radisele Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>2 x trs, H.m, s.d.c.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mannathok Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>2 x trs, Hm,s.d.c</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sedie Jr.</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>2 x trs, Hm,s.d.c.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>5 Sr.</td>
<td>10 Hms</td>
<td>5 Hms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 Jr.</td>
<td>13 s.d.cs</td>
<td>2 s.d.cs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26 trs</td>
<td>4 trs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRAND TOTALS</td>
<td>15 Hms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 s.d.cs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 trs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: Sr.=Senior, Jr.=Junior, Hm=Headmaster/mistress, tr.=teacher s.d.c.=staff development coordinator.
4.4.2.3 Interview

The interview questionnaires were mailed to the respondents some two weeks in advance. The interview usually takes longer to administer than the other data-collecting methods and it was considered that the advance mailing of the questions would enhance the quality of the respondents' contribution as it was assumed that they would have had ample time to critically reflect on the questions. The interviews were conducted during the interviewees' non-teaching time.

4.5 DATA ORGANIZATION AND ANALYSIS

The study did not involve variables, their relationship and their manipulation. It was a descriptive survey concerned with what was observed. Data came to the researcher through observations and perceptions of the respondents on issues related to the problem under review. Research techniques used to obtain the descriptive data were an interview and two types of questionnaire, one made up of closed responses and the other appearing in a semi-structured format. Data were therefore obtained through short and long responses in the form of questionnaires and interviews. To facilitate data handling and subsequent analysis, data were broken down into categories. The breakdown involved the careful scrutiny of words, phrases and sentences and deciding how they would be generically grouped together. The process involved sorting the data first into major groups according to the sub-themes of staff development, the supervision of classroom activities, school culture and managing conflict.

The data were further broken down into sub-groups. It was checked for any overlaps and then further broken down into sub-sub-groups until there emerge final groups that would constitute a start of the thesis write-up. For example, the sub-theme "staff development" was divided into sub-sub-themes such as
delegation, consultancy and so forth. The data were then sorted out and put under the relevant sub-sub-themes. Where necessary the material was further broken down into smaller groups. The same was done to the other three sub-themes of the thesis. Once this was achieved, the groups were assigned coding categories using numbers. Numbers were used for ease of reference during the write-up stage. This method of data organization for analysis purposes was partly adopted from Bogdan and Biklen (1992:175-181).

4.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter IV introduced the type of study undertaken as involving both the quantitative and qualitative designs but both employing a descriptive survey method of data-gathering. The methods concerned themselves with what the respondents reported what they saw, observed and any experiences they would have felt they gained when implementing the specific issues of the school development plans with particular reference to the role of the school head in the specified themes. The observations made, perceptions and opinions provided were expressed in words. These formed the basis of a descriptive analysis where general conclusions would also be made using words as opposed to a statistical analysis method where a correlation between variables is made.

The chapter also dealt with how the people involved in the study were selected from the total population and why this group was selected. Similarly, an explanation was made as to how the schools involved were sampled. Although the researcher had targeted schools that would offer quality and useful contributions to the study, by and large the purposeful sampling method described by Bogdan and Biklen (1992:71-72) was used to ensure a fair representation. Each region in the country was represented. Generally, the bigger the region, the
bigger the representation. Each of the three methods employed to gather data was described.

The methods used were the closed response questionnaire, the semi-structured questionnaire and the interview schedule. Each method was scrutinized and criticized for its merits and drawbacks. For example, the application of the closed response questionnaire as a data-gathering strategy was considered to be able to reach a larger population in a shorter time, thus cutting-off on time and expenses. The research instruments were piloted on a small sample population from two schools, and the instruments were amended in the light of that experience. Details were also given on how the research instruments were compiled, organized and dispatched to schools and what arrangements were made for their return to the researcher.

The next chapter deals with analyzing, presenting and interpreting of the empirical findings.
CHAPTER V

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION
A brief reflection of the research design and the rationale behind the research is made below in order to link the interrelated two Chapters IV and V. The construction of the research design was based on the four fundamental research questions, which sought to find out what the role of the school head in school development planning ought to be with regard to: staff development, the supervision of classroom teaching, the building of school culture and managing conflict, by carrying out an inquiry with fifteen selected junior and senior secondary schools in Botswana.

Participating in the inquiry were school heads, staff development coordinators and selected teaching staff from the participating schools. Participants’ views, opinions, perceptions, suggestions and experiences on the subject were captured through the use of questionnaires and interviews. Subsequent conclusions and recommendations of the study would be based on the resultant findings of the inquiry. In short, Chapter IV made a prescription of how the data should be generated, from which sources, using which methods and once generated, how it would be managed and analyzed in the subsequent chapter. It could be said that Chapter IV set things in motion for Chapter V.

In the following section, a presentation of the research findings from the instruments attached as Appendices I and III is made.
5.2 PRESENTATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

5.2.1 CLOSED RESPONSE QUESTIONNAIRE (Appendix I):
All the 15 schools which were involved in the investigation returned the questionnaires completed. However, not all individual respondents returned the questionnaires: out of a total of 60 respondents targeted for the study, only three failed to return the questionnaire. One of the three is a school head who became ill during the period. The reasons for not returning the questionnaire by the other two were not known. Although the questionnaire was anonymous, however, the position of the respondent in the school was indicated. It was therefore established that the other two respondents who did not return the questionnaire were teachers. The rate of return for this questionnaire was as high as 95%.

The vast majority of the individual question items were answered. This phenomenon shows the importance the respondents attached to the exercise. Data for this type of questionnaire were presented numerically as frequency counts on each of the items as shown in Appendix II. The question items were grouped according to the main themes of the thesis, basing the grouping upon their relevance to the theme. However, though relevant to the title of the thesis, some of the question items in Appendix I could not be linked directly to any of the main themes. For example, the style of leadership that a school head practises in school development planning has a bearing on the success or failure of the implementation process. Item 17 is therefore relevant in this regard but cannot be specifically placed under any one of the four themes. The same applies to some items in the literature survey. Such items have been grouped under a common heading ‘other’.
The stem for the question items 1-23 appeared in a question form thus: **How important are the following indicators for judging the role of the school head in a school development plan?** The four options from which only one was to be chosen were: *Not applicable, Not so important, Important and Essential*. The stem for items 24-38 was: **To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?** The five available options from which only one was to be chosen were: *Strongly disagree, Disagree, Uncertain, Agree and Strongly Agree*.

5.2.1.1 **Staff development**

The following items from *Appendix I* are relevant to the theme ‘staff development’:

Item 1. **Fostering the professional growth of less trained teachers only.**

Out of 57 respondents to this item, 49% said that it was important for the school head to give attention to the training needs of the less trained teachers only. Twenty six percent said it was essential. However, a total of 25% of the respondents did not support the statement. The responses are shown in the table that follows.

**Key to items 1 to 23 used in the tables:**

NA = not applicable  
NSI = not so important  
Imp = important  
Ess = essential
Table 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 2. **Fostering the professional growth of more trained teachers only.**

The majority of the respondents were of the view that the school head should develop the more trained teachers only. Forty eight percent of the respondents said it was important while 12% said it was essential, thus attaching a significant 60% of general importance to the statement. However, 40% of the 52 respondents to this item differed with the statement. They either disagreed or strongly disagreed. The responses are presented in the table below as percentages.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 3. **Fostering the professional growth of both the less trained and more trained teachers.**

There were 57 responses to this item. A total of 53, i.e. 93%, indicated that teacher development was important to essential to both the less and more trained teachers. The pattern of the responses is illustrated in the table below:

Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Key to items 24 to 38 used in the tables:
SD = strongly disagree
DA = disagree
UN = uncertain
A = agree
SA = strongly agree

Item 35. Trained teachers need minimal staff development since they are already qualified to teach.
Fifty seven respondents answered this question. Thirty percent of this total strongly disagreed with the statement. Sixty three percent disagreed, giving a 93% respondents’ overall disagreement with the statement. The table below refers to this item. This view was consistently held by responses made in item 3 above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 11. Basing staff development on the individual teacher’s length of service.
Supporting the majority’s views in items 3 and 35, is the view made in item 11. Out of a total of 57 participants to this item, 62% felt that it was not so important for the school head to base staff development on the individual teacher’s length of service. A further 16% of the participants said it was not applicable while 18% and four percent said it was important and essential respectively as shown in the table below.
Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 10. **Basing inservice courses on assessed needs.**

Instead of basing teacher development on the length of the teacher’s service, it should be based on assessed needs. Fifty two out of 56, that is, 93% of the respondents, answered within the range ‘important’ to ‘essential’. Thirty four or 61% of the respondents said it was important while 18 or 32% found it essential for the school head to base staff development programmes on assessed teachers’ needs. Only two percent and five percent respectively were of the view that it was not applicable and not so important. The responses are shown numerically and as percentages in **Appendix II** and in the table below.

Table 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 5. **Relying on school-based workshops to develop teachers.**

**Appendix II** and Table 17 show the respondents’ views on this statement which was answered by 55 respondents. Seventy five percent of the respondents agreed with the statement while 25% attached little or no importance at all to the statement.

Table 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item 6. **Relying on inservice training that leads to higher qualifications.**
Seventeen percent of the 54 respondents to this item indicated that it was not applicable, 37% said it was not so important, while another 37% and nine percent were of the view that it was important and essential respectively. Table 18 below refers to this item.

**Table 18**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 7. **Using both long and short term courses for staff development.**
The vast majority of the respondents agreed with this statement as shown in **Appendix II** and in the table below. Only seven out of 57 respondents held a different view.

**Table 19**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 13. **Involving teachers for whom inservice training is being conducted in selecting the topics for the workshops.**
Only nine percent of the 57 respondents to this question were opposed to this statement. Ninety one percent answered between important and essential to this statement. Details of the findings are shown in **Appendix II** and in Table 20 below.

**Table 20**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item 23. **Tapping talent from good teachers for the benefit of other teachers.**
All 57 respondents liked this idea. Twenty-five percent of them said this approach to management by the school head was important in the implementation of school development plan goals. Seventy-five percent said it was essential. This 100% **Appendix II** and in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 4. **Developing himself/herself.**
Self development by the school head was supported by 47% of the 57 participants who said that it was essential and by 36% who said it was important. All in all, there was a total of 83% support to the statement. **Appendix II** gives a pattern of the responses as frequency counts and percentages to this question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 22</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.2 **Classroom supervision**
Items 25, 26, 27, 29, 30 and 34 from **Appendix I** refer to the theme ‘classroom supervision’.
Item 25. **If the head gives teachers responsibility, they will take over the running of the school.**

Generally, most of the respondents expressed disagreement with this perception, suggesting they did not fear that delegation represented a head's dereliction of duty. Appendix II shows that 50 out of 57 respondents expressed disagreement. The table below shows the distribution of the responses by the participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 26. **The delegation of tasks to teachers is a sign of weakness by the head.**

Ninety four percent of the 57 respondents to this item did not subscribe to the above statement. Sixty eight percent of them, as shown in Appendix II, strongly disagreed and 26% disagreed with the statement. Four percent were uncertain while an insignificant two percent expressed strong agreement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 27. **It is abdication of duties by the head to delegate responsibility to teachers.**

The big majority of respondents supported delegation of duties by the school head. This was represented by 49% of the 57 respondents to this question who expressed strong disagreement and by 35% who expressed disagreement. Only seven percent and nine percent expressed agreement and strong agreement
respectively. This pattern of agreement and disagreement is illustrated in the table below.

**Table 25**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 29. **Teachers are professionals. There is no need for them to be supervised in their classes.**

 Almost all the 57 respondents to the above statement disagreed with it as shown in **Appendix II** and in Table 26. A total of 98% disagreement was expressed while only a small percentage (two) expressed strong agreement to the statement.

**Table 26**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 30. **The supervision of teachers by the head or by somebody delegated to do so helps develop teachers in the job.**

 Three out of 56 respondents strongly disagreed with the above assertion. Another three disagreed while four expressed uncertainty. The three responses show a 10% opposition or a non-committal attitude to the statement. On the other hand, 30 and 16 respondents respectively expressed agreement and strong agreement. There was therefore a total of 83% of the respondents who were of the view that classroom supervision benefits the teacher that is being supervised. This phenomenon is illustrated in the table below.
Table 27

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 34. **The head's classroom supervision is an interference with the teacher's classroom autonomy.**

A total of 57 respondents answered this question as appears in Appendix II. Eighty seven percent of the respondents expressed a general disagreement. Seven percent were uncertain while six percent agreed with the statement. The findings from this item are shown in the table that follows.

Table 28

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.3 **School culture building**

The eight items listed below formed a group that is relevant to the issue of school culture in school development planning *vis-à-vis* the role of the school head.

Item 8. **Encouraging collaboration across departments.**

Fifty five out of 57 participants supported the idea of a departmental collaboration above as implied in Appendix II and as illustrated in the table below. Only four percent held that collaboration across departments was not so important.

Table 29

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item 9. **Encouraging collaboration between teachers.**

All the 57 or 100% of the respondents who answered this item supported collaboration between teachers. **Appendix II** and Table 30 below show that 77% of the respondents were of the view that such collaboration was essential. Twenty three percent held that it was important.

**Table 30**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 14. **Working with teachers to develop policies for the school.**

There was a 100% support given to this team work approach to school improvements efforts by the school head. This was indicated by all the 47 respondents to this question. The respondents either answered important or essential. The majority, 66%, said it was essential for the school head to involve teachers in school decision-making. The table below shows these findings.

**Table 31**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 15 **Regular review of school goals with teachers.**

This practice was supported by 55 out of 57 or 96% of the respondents to the question. Only four percent said the review of school goals was not important.

**Table 32**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item 18. **Frequent evaluation of implementation of the school development plan with teachers.**

The findings here reveal that this practice by the school head was a good thing to do in school development planning. Only five percent of the 57 respondents did not see the need for the frequent evaluation of school development plan goals by the head together with the teachers. This picture is illustrated in the table below.

**Table 33**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 22. **Creating an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning.**

All the 55 respondents supported this statement. Eighty five percent said it was essential to have such an environment in a school and 15% said it was important as shown in Appendix II and in the table below, thus attaching a 100% support to the statement.

**Table 34**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 32. **The sharing of materials, information and experiences among teachers enhances students’ performance.**

There was high support for this practice in a school development plan implementation. Ninety six percent of the 57 participants agreed with the statement. Only two percent expressed uncertainty. The remaining few expressed strong disagreement, as is indicated in Appendix II and in the table below.
Table 35

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 33. **High staff turn-over helps bring into the school, new cultures that can improve school performances.**

There were mixed responses to this question. Fifty three respondents answered the question. Thirty percent of them were uncertain. Thirty six percent generally agreed (agree to strongly agree) with the statement while 34% expressed a general disagreement (disagree to strongly disagree). The response variations are shown in **Appendix II** and in Table 36 below.

Table 36

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1.4 **Conflict management**

The following findings on conflict management by the school head in a school development plan implementation were revealed.

Item 16. **Efforts to cope with conflicts among staff.**

From the 56 respondents who answered this item, 62% and 34% respectively said it was essential or important. The remaining four percent did not consider it important for the school head to do anything about conflict between staff members.

Table 37

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item 19. **Avoiding conflicts between teachers.**
Contrary to the views held by respondents in item 16 above, 88% of the respondents held that conflict situations between teachers should not be dealt with. Only seven or 12% of the respondents expressed a different view. This is shown in Appendix II and in the relevant table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 38

Item 20. **Ignoring troublesome teachers at meetings.**
The generally held view here was that such teachers should not be ignored. This was pointed out by 23 of the 56 respondents who answered ‘not applicable’ and by 28 who said it was not so important. Therefore 91% of the respondents did not support the statement. However, nine percent thought that troublesome teachers should be ignored. These findings are presented in the table below as well as in Appendix II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 39

Item 28. **Conflict must be eliminated. Managing it is a waste of time.**
Most of the respondents did not agree with this statement as shown in Appendix II and in the table below. Only a small percentage of the 57 respondents held that conflict must be eliminated in organizations.
5.2.1.5 Other

Item 12. **Introducing many innovations at the same time.**

The general response to this statement was that it is not good for school development planning to have many innovations going on at the same time. Only 14 respondents out of a total of 56 said it was good to do so. These findings are presented in the relevant table below and are also shown in **Appendix II**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 41**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 17. **Exercising instructional leadership.**

A significant number of respondents were of the view that instructional leadership by the school head in the implementation of school development planning was desirable. This sense was expressed by 33 respondents out of the 56 who responded to this question. Twenty three respondents thought otherwise. The responses are shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 21 **Fostering high morale in the school.**

There was a 100% agreement with this statement as shown in **Appendix II** and in the table below. A total of 57 respondents answered the question.
Table 43

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NSI</th>
<th>IMP</th>
<th>ESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 24. The way the school head relates to staff influences the way the staff will relate to the students.

Fifty seven respondents answered this question. Twenty four percent of these expressed strong agreement, 44% agreed with the statement, 14% disagreed and only four percent strongly disagreed.

Table 44

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 31. Matters of curriculum are the sole business of the curriculum designers. Teachers should be left alone to do what they know better, to teach.

The involvement of teachers in school curriculum design received a lot of support from the respondents as shown in the table below and in Appendix II. The percentages were based on a total of 54 respondents who answered the question. Eighty two percent supported teacher involvement in curriculum design.

Table 45

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Item 36. **Only effective teachers should be selected for school committees.**
Out of the 57 participants to this item, 53 disagreed with the statement. Only four expressed agreement and out of these only one strongly agreed. **Appendix II** gives details of the responses in percentages.

**Table 46**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 38. **For a school head to be effective he/she should practise only one style of leadership irrespective of the circumstances in order not to confuse his/her subordinates.**
The findings here show that the majority of the respondents to this item prefer school heads who vary their leadership style according to situations. This preference is represented by 92% of the 54 respondents who answered the question. The table below shows the pattern of responses.

**Table 47**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A general overview of how the semi-structured questionnaire was conducted, and the resultant findings are presented in the next section.

5.2.2 **SEMI STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE** (Appendix III):
This opinion-seeking questionnaire was distributed to a total of 49 respondents to complete. The respondents comprised 10 school heads, 13 staff development coordinators and 26 teachers, including deputy heads. The positions of the respondents in the school who returned or who did not return the questionnaire
could not be established because of the anonymity of the questionnaire, except for the sole school head who did not return the questionnaire because of ill health.

Out of the 49 questionnaires sent out, 42 were returned completed. This represented an 85.7% rate of return. For both questionnaires (Appendices I and III), there was at least a month's gap between receiving the first and the last return. The returns that arrived last were from remote areas where mail takes a long time to arrive. The questionnaires had been dispatched in the middle of April and the last one was received back by the researcher in mid-June, two months later.

The quality of the responses showed that the respondents attached great importance to the investigation, as if it was a graded examination. This at least confirms the earlier statement the researcher repeatedly made in Chapters I and IV that people who were targeted for the investigation were, in his opinion, those actively involved in school development planning at their schools. The other reason for their informed responses could be because most of the teachers are now conversant with school development planning since its implementation is now a requirement in all Botswana secondary schools.

Data for the semi-structured questionnaire were presented in two ways: Firstly, numerically as frequency counts as presented in the closed response questionnaire and secondly, qualitatively. That is, by describing it in text form and using tables.
Question 1: Teachers possess teaching skills from pre-service training. There is no need for them to undergo inservice training.

All 42 respondents who returned the questionnaire were of the view that inservice training is necessary to all teachers irrespective of their experience in the job. The reasons given were generally similar but predominantly centred around the issues of the new curriculum which has implications for new methods of teaching, and around the type of student schools deal with nowadays, that is, with regard to their behaviour, approach to academic work and wide variation in abilities. Some of the specific factors which school heads should take more account of (according to the respondents) with regard to staff development in school development planning are:

Learning is an on-going process. There is always something new to learn which can improve performance and that effective schools are characterized by learning teachers. Inservice training is necessary to all teachers in order for them to acquire new knowledge, information and new improved teaching skills. Inservice helps teachers keep abreast with, and cope with, ever-present challenges in education. After teaching for some time teachers need new ideas to improve the way they teach, regularly updating teaching methods acquired long ago.

With regard to the new curriculum, some respondents commented that pre-service training tends to be general while inservice training addresses specific classroom problems on learning materials and curriculum content. One respondent commented: “Inservice training, whether school-based or externally organized, helps to update and refresh teachers on the new curriculum content, teaching skills and assessment procedures. It helps bridge the gap between theory acquired at training institutions and practice”. Another stated that inservice training is
necessary to all teachers in order for them “to remain current, otherwise they will rely on what they have learnt at teacher preparation institutions many years ago” and that “since inservice gives teachers the opportunity to reflect on actual practice, it should be taken as an opportunity for continuous learning which should be encouraged in schools.”

Another respondent said that inservice training is essential to all teachers because it can offer them classroom management skills that are needed to manage the new behaviour of students in schools, and that “students’ behaviour has changed to the extent that they carry cell phones in the classrooms”. On a similar concern, another said: “The students always change in behaviour and in ability, therefore there is need to equip all teachers, through inservice courses, with appropriate skills that can help them tackle these challenges”.

**Question 2: Advantage of a staff development programme that involves a teachers’ workshop conducted by a fellow teacher in the same school.**

All the 42 respondents answered this question. Their views on the advantage of a workshop conducted by a teacher of the same school were presented in tabular form under the headings: relevance, feedback, cost saving and staff development.

**Relevance:** Nineteen or 45% of the respondents were of the view that since the teacher conducting the workshop is likely to be familiar and conversant with the needs of colleagues, he/she can be more relevant and better able to address the problem than an outsider. This opinion can be summed up by one respondent’s comments thus: “Actual needs stand a good chance of being addressed”. Another similarly said: “The resource person has a deeper knowledge and understanding of the needs of the school and is therefore likely to handle the problem more
relevantly”. Also, because the problem to be addressed is familiar to both the resource person and the participating teachers, the latter are likely to help in the preparations for the workshop. This, one respondent remarked, enhances relevance.

**Feedback:** Six or 14% of the respondents held that feedback would be a lot easier since the resource person is a fellow teacher who would be readily available if needed.

**Cost saving:** Eleven respondents (26%) pointed out that local resource persons such as fellow-teacher are engaged at no cost to the school.

**Staff development:** Some respondents, 14%, viewed this approach to inservice training as providing an opportunity for staff development. Further, the other teachers would emulate their colleague and would in future want to do the same. One respondent wrote: “The approach demonstrates to others that teachers are able to solve their own problems collectively”. Similarly, one commented: “it is offering local solutions to local problems. It is the development of the local human resource. This confidence by the school head in his/her own teachers is likely to be reciprocal. The teachers in turn are likely to have trust and confidence in him/her”. In addition, this approach by the head can encourage team work among teachers, according to some respondents.
Table 48

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*Relev</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
<th>Cost saving</th>
<th>*Sd</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Freq = frequency, *Relev = relevance, *Sd = staff development, *Ttl = total

The disadvantages of engaging a fellow-teacher as a resource person for a school-based inservice training workshop were based on three factors of familiarity of the teacher to the participants, limited knowledge, and that teacher's possible feeling of intimidation and lack of confidence in addressing colleagues. Thirty five out of a possible 42 respondents answered this question.

**Familiarity**: Responses related to this variable were that teachers may attach little importance to such a workshop. They held that this could affect attendance at the workshop and that unless the teacher is known to be strong and competent in the subject, he/she may be viewed unfavourably. “Familiarity breeds contempt”, commented one respondent. A total of 23 out of 35 respondents were of this opinion. Also, he/she may feel intimidated by his/her very familiarity with the greater knowledge or experience represented among his audience.
Limited knowledge: There was a general feeling from the findings that a fellow-teacher may have limited information and knowledge in the area of concern and this could affect the quality of the workshop outcomes. This was expressed by five respondents as shown in the table below.

Self doubt: Because such a teacher may have the knowledge that some of the participants are more knowledgeable and experienced than him/her in the topic “this could kill or demoralize a less highly regarded teacher especially if the teacher is normally not effective in the view of the other teachers”, noted one respondent. Seven respondents expressed this kind of view.

Table 49

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Familiarity</th>
<th>*Ltd knowledge</th>
<th>Self doubt (teacher)</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Freq = frequency, *Ltd knowledge = limited knowledge, *Ttl = total

On the advantage of a staff development programme that involves a consultant, two variables of ‘knowledgeability’ and ‘bias-free’ emerged from the findings on this part of the question.

Knowledgeability: The findings revealed that a vast majority of respondents, 35 out of 38, generally held that consultants are knowledgeable people who can offer plenty of information from research that can be imparted to workshop
participants. As a result of this belief, participants are likely to respect the consultants, have confidence in them, show up in bigger numbers at the workshop and give them closer attention. Some of the specific comments from some of the respondents in this regard are: “High expectations, and therefore teachers more likely to be more receptive and willing to implement recommendations”. “Much listened to because the belief is that consultants have knowledge in areas they specialize in”. “Consultants usually turn the ordinary into the extraordinary”. “Recipients may pay more attention”. “ Relevant knowledge and lots of information availed to teachers with appropriate demonstration imparted”. “Gains of new insight and new perspectives on the subject”.

**Bias-free:** “Consultants usually address issues from neutral ground and that alone promotes deeper understanding”. Eight percent of the respondents were of this view. The responses were grouped into two main variables as shown in Table 54 below.

### Table 50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Knowledgeability</th>
<th>Bias free</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Freq = frequency

Major **disadvantages** of engaging a consultant as opposed to a local teacher in staff development issues in a school development plan have been cited as: the non-availability of the consultant when he/she is most needed during implementation and sometimes his/her non-availability on the day of the
workshop because consultants are very busy people. They may cancel appointment at the last minute (suggested one respondent). Also, because the consultant is not familiar with the practical context of the problem, he/she may make generalizations that lead to superficial solutions to the problem. As one respondent put it: “Consultants may not understand the problem the way teachers understand it. They are likely to be irrelevant in their presentation because of lack of practical experience to the problem”. Other respondents viewed consultants as people who come to workshops with preconceived ideas which do not always address the situation they are supposed to address.

Other disadvantages made about consultants were that they give too much information which may end up confusing participants. Besides, they do not leave handouts for future reference by the workshop attenders. In the circumstances, continuity becomes a problem. Further, because participants believe consultants ‘know it all’, they may hesitate to question what consultants say. Consultants may exploit this belief by teachers and deliberately ‘speak above their heads’. Others were of the view that engaging consultants can be costly.

Two respondents expressed concern that the regular engagement of consultants for the school by the head to conduct workshops for teachers may kill the spirit of self-reliance among teachers and therefore adversely affect teacher development in the job. One put this concern as follows: “The engaging of consultants may make teachers relax and not do things for themselves, only depending on outsiders”. The views raised in this item were categorized into five variables as appears in Table 51 below.
Table 51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*feed back</th>
<th>*Unfam</th>
<th>*Acad arrog</th>
<th>Cost</th>
<th>*Dt d</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Question 3. Is it abdication of duty by school head if he/she delegates duties?
A total of 40 respondents answered this question. Findings showed that most respondents (92.5%) to this question were of the view that it was not abdication of duties to delegate tasks to subordinates. Rather, delegation ought to be encouraged as it is an opportunity for the head to foster staff development by the teachers. One popular reason in support of delegation was that by so doing, the head is able to find time to attend to other things in the school.

Some of the comments by the different respondents made in support of delegation are:

- “Delegation is a form of professional support aimed at developing on-the-job experience and performance, resulting in participant empowerment”.
- “Delegation builds trust between the supervisor and the subordinate”.
- “It develops subordinates’ initiative, confidence, self-reliance, and decision-making abilities”.
• “Good Heads delegate duties. In so doing they recognize others as partners in the job. A good recipe for failure is a school head who does everything. What he will reap is a double dose of stress, isolation and an unfriendly work environment”.

• “Head doesn’t have time to do classroom supervision regularly. He/she has many other things to do”.

• “Head has busy schedules. Should delegate some duties to other staff including classroom supervision”.

• “Head may not find immediate time and to postpone such an important exercise such as classroom supervision could backfire on the school head”.

• “It is not easy for Head to effectively do classroom supervision. Won’t always find time by virtue of his/her position in the school and the responsibilities attached to it”.

• “Delegation leads to power-sharing as well as staff development. Also, Head is able to realize the teachers’ abilities in supervision if he/she delegates. It is O.K. as long as the teacher understands what they are supposed to do”.

• “Delegation is necessary because it gives teachers the chance to realize their own abilities and shortcomings in supervision”.

While most respondents felt that the head should delegate duties, some were of the general view that supervision should be delegated to the senior staff in the school who are already supervisors in their specialized teaching areas but should always report back to the school head. Some of the comments to this effect are:
• "Delegating competent people in the subject is O.K. This helps the teacher supervising to develop".

• "Heads of Department or senior teachers who are specialists in the areas of classroom supervision can be assigned delegated duties".

• "In the first place classroom supervision ought to be carried out by the senior teacher in the subject. He/she is the expert, not the school head. But school head to ensure it is done and properly".

A total of eight respondents to this question said it is good to involve promoted staff in the supervision of classroom activities but that the school head should occasionally observe teachers teaching. They were, however, a few respondents (three) who held that the school head should not delegate but do the supervision himself/herself, arguing that it is his/her duty to do so. For instance, one said: "It is the head’s duty to supervise classroom teaching in order for him/her to get first-hand information rather than second-hand information".

Table 52

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Question 4. What are the benefits to a teacher who performs delegated duties?**

A large number of respondents (37), wrote that the benefits a teacher can derive from performing delegated duties are exposure to the job, resulting in gains in
knowledge and experience and therefore self-development professionally. Examples given by respondents implying self-development are quoted as:

- "Gains exposure"
- "Teacher develops decision-making skills"
- "Gains experience"
- "Teacher learns administration duties"
- "Gains experience from colleagues on how they handle their classes"
- "Develops leadership skills"
- "Learns more"
- "Personal growth"
- "Enhances one’s curriculum vitae"
- "Develops problem-solving skills as he/she is exposed to perform at a higher level".

The variables ‘exposure’, ‘knowledge’, ‘experience’, and ‘self-development’ were allocated a common heading ‘self-development’ in the table.

A total of 12 respondents said that by performing delegated tasks a teacher gains self-confidence in the job. Seven respondents said that a teacher feels recognized and feels he/she belongs to the school. Three said that delegation gives a teacher empowerment. Other benefits that a teacher can get by doing delegated duties were cited as: “A teacher feels in charge of others and thereby enhances his/her sense of responsibility”. “He is given the opportunity to prove his/her ability to exercise leadership”. Another commented that performing delegated duties makes “the teacher feel honoured and trusted”. These latter views were all grouped together under the heading ‘other’.
Question 4 asked for two benefits a teacher can get by doing delegated duties. This is the reason why the number of responses exceed the possible total number of respondents. A total of 69 responses out of a possible 84 were made as shown in the table that follows:

**Table 53**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*Sd</th>
<th>*Self conf</th>
<th>*Belong</th>
<th>*Emp</th>
<th>*Oth</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Freq = frequency, *Sd = staff development, *Self conf = self confidence,
*Belong = belonging, *Emp = empowerment, *Ttl = total

**Question 5. Benefits a school head can get by delegating duties?**

This question asked for two benefits, so the possible total of responses is 84. The most common responses were: reduction of workload; gives the school head a chance to reflect and concentrate on other internal and external duties; increases effectiveness and efficiency because different people will be dealing with different issues at the same time. The reduced workload also means the head is relieved of stress. In Table 54 an all-embracing variable ‘reduced workload’ was used for the above responses. There were 31 responses out of 53 made under this variable.
A second most popular response to this item was that by delegating duties to teachers, the school head is at the same time developing them. Close to 23% of the respondents expressed this view. Some of the statements made in this regard were: “Achievement of staff development”. “Develops staff for more challenging jobs”. “Promotes participatory leadership in the school”.

Nine percent of the 53 respondents expressed the view that the school head earns respect from the teachers if he/she delegates tasks to teachers. In the words of one respondent: “School head is likely to be applauded for that”. Another respondent wrote that: “A head who does not claim to have knowledge in everything about the school is likely to be trusted and respected by the teachers”. Another stated: “Teachers will trust him because he trusts them”.

Three respondents said that by delegating, the school head accords him/herself the opportunity to gain more information about the school generally. One respondent put it this way, “Head may get to know certain things about the school he/she may not be aware of. Teachers usually find it easier to reveal information to other teachers than to the school head”. A summary of the findings on this item is made in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>*Reduc load</th>
<th>*Sd</th>
<th>*Resp</th>
<th>Teacher knowledge</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Freq = frequency, *Reduc load = reduced load, *Sd = staff development, *Ttl = total
Question 6   Heads of Department need least supervision.

There were 39 respondents to this item. Fifty nine percent of these did not agree to the statement that Heads of Department should get the least supervision. Respondents expressed more emotions in their response to this item and to item 7 than in any other. Their arguments were based on the reasoning that if Heads of Department are supervised the least, they may show complacence towards work and this would affect the school’s performance. Like any other teacher, they need to be developed and this can be achieved if they are regularly supervised. Some of the comments on this question were:

- “Supervision helps everyone in their professional development”.
- “They too are learning so they need to be supervised”.
- “Most Heads of Department are just passive actors between the school head and the junior teachers. They don’t assist their juniors. So they must be supervised”.
- “No worker is beyond supervision”.

A common comment was that Heads of Department were promoted to their positions not necessarily on account of proven expertise or performance, but rather more on their length of service in the job, so they also need supervision. One respondent stated baldly: “Heads of Department are incompetent, they abdicate their duties under the pretext of delegation to juniors”. Another said of Heads of Department and supervision: “They should be regularly supervised by the school head (engine) to ensure Heads of Department (wheels of vehicle) are doing the job. Otherwise the vehicle of education will fail to run”.
However, the 16 respondents who agreed with the statement that Heads of Department need the least supervision, argue that Heads of Department are entrusted with responsibility which they account for. There is therefore no need for closer supervision of them, they got into these positions because they were proven competent before being promoted. Another said that, because they are potential future school heads they need little supervision. Another commented: “Head of Department is a senior position in a school and if those in this position are the ones who have the right qualities for the position, I am inclined to agree”. “They are the people who have the expertise, they need little supervision”, said another. Table 55 below shows the pattern of responses to item 6 above.

Table 55

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question 7. Teachers with the longest service need the least supervision.

Almost all the respondents disagreed with the above statement. Table 56 shows that only five out of 42 respondents agreed with the statement, arguing that such teachers are normally more mature and more responsible enough to guide the younger and less experienced ones. As in question 6, some degree of emotion in answering this question was sensed. Some of the comments were as follows:
• "They need to be supervised like everybody else. Most tend to believe they are experts in the job and dodge lessons saying they can easily cover up later".
• "They do not accept change easily". "Regardless of the number of years in the job, everybody needs to be supervised. The most experienced usually find it more difficult to adapt to change".
• "These are the teachers who have lost interest, enthusiasm and zeal in the job. They are either discouraged or disappointed and are just depending on old practices that lack new ideas and innovation".
• "This group takes teaching lightly, believing they know it all. They require regular supervision to monitor their teaching practices lest they fall behind modern changes".
• "They need maximum supervision if anything. They can bring down productivity if not closely supervised".
• "The most experienced teachers portray the wrong image of teaching. They hardly prepare for lessons. Experience only should not be relied upon. These teachers need supervision like other teachers so that they should not stick to their old fashioned way of doing things".

Another popular view which argued against offering the least supervision to experienced teachers was that long service is not synonymous with "knowing all". Some teachers who have served for many years have demonstrated otherwise, they do not perform their roles satisfactory. To attain effectiveness and efficiency they ought to be regularly monitored. One quoted a truism already mentioned in this thesis, that "... their experience may be only a year’s experience repeated many times".
Question 8. Beginning teachers need the most supervision.

Only seven out of 37 disagreed with this statement. In disagreeing, one remarked that: “Such generalizations do not hold in human sciences. Some new teachers are excited and do a good job but still need guidance and perhaps the least supervision”. Another who concurred with the above view said: “A new teacher who shows commitment, dedication and self-discipline would not need much supervision”.

Otherwise the majority of the respondents (30), were of the general opinion that the new teacher needs the most supervision. Some of their arguments include:

- “They are mostly probationary and on a learning curve”.
- “Close supervision is good for their orientation in the system”.
- “Beginners have lots of ideas from colleges/universities and want to excel and therefore need to be monitored and helped through supervision to get their feet firmly on the ground”.
- “They need to be guided immediately on procedures and methods of teaching right from the beginning before they can be left on their own”.
- “They are still tender in their minds, radical in their approach and still ignorant in as far as the ‘real school’ is all about, not the ‘theoretical school’ ”.
• "They need guidance, patience and nurturing and therefore need to be closely supervised to ease the transition between college/university/school, to translate theory into practice".

• "Beginners are, to some extent, like young horses that are being trained by riders for future racing".

The views of those who hold that the new teacher needs the most supervision can be summed up as: the new teacher needs guidance and support rather than supervision in order to build confidence in the job and for developmental reasons. Table 57 below shows the responses to the statement above.

Table 57

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Question 9. All teachers need to be supervised irrespective of length of service.**

All the 36 respondents to this item expressed agreement with the statement but for different reasons. The only difference was in the frequency of supervision to the different levels of teachers. Reasons ranged from: to guard against routine; to avoid *laissez-faire* attitudes which could breed an unproductive force; for staff development purposes; ensure school objectives are being carried out properly; to rid of old ways of doing things; to encourage a team work spirit in the job; to avoid teacher isolation and to support and direct teachers in the implementation of the new curriculum.
Specific comments included: “Assumptions should not always be made that things are going on well even with the most senior and most experienced”. “Even the most experienced, cheat”. “Teachers should account for their teaching, this can be checked through classroom supervision”. “Some teachers are good at their teaching and would like senior management to know this”. “All must be supervised but in different degrees, the frequency in supervision to depend on the individual teachers’ characteristics, the new and the lazy need most supervision. The former need it for developmental reasons while the latter need it to ensure they make lesson plans and follow them”. One remarked that: “It is unfair to limit supervision to only a chosen few because all teachers need to be regularly supervised as they need to develop and for end of year appraisal”, while another said: “Individual batteries need to be charged time and again for them to work effectively”. The table below refers to item 9 above.

**Table 58**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Question 10. Reasons why classroom supervision is important.**

The majority of the respondents felt that classroom supervision is important because the activity gives the supervisor the opportunity to know the strength of the individual teachers and can appropriately make recommendations for their promotions, or for further training. Also, weak areas can be identified and
corrective measures to improve performance taken. Classroom supervision, one respondent said, gives the school head the opportunity to know whether school development planning objectives are being implemented. It helps "monitor practice across the school and ensures compliance with aims and objectives of school and adherence to curriculum". "As the Head is the ultimate accountable person in the school", it is important for supervision to be done in a school. "It keeps teachers on their toes" and "keeps them focused on instructional issues". Classroom supervision is important because it can help the school management to plan inservice programmes "on areas that need support" based on known teachers' needs, said one respondent. Another said: "To ensure that teachers attend classes". Supervision gives a sense of security to the teachers. They feel that at least senior management cares about what they are doing and this in itself stimulates the teacher in the job, one remarked.

Three of the respondents (eight percent) did not, however, consider classroom supervision as an important exercise to be undertaken. One said that students' performances hardly reflect classroom supervision by the school head or by someone delegated to do it. Another said that during classroom observation teachers and students get intimidated by the physical presence of the supervisor. The third respondent, discounted the importance of classroom supervision by saying that teachers do not feel trusted when they are being supervised. The above expressions were allocated the following headings in the table: Training needs assessment, Ensuring objectives implementation, helps teachers focus on objectives (Htfo), intimidation, and security. The results of the findings are expressed in frequencies and percentages in the table below.
Table 59

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*Tna</th>
<th>Intimidation</th>
<th>*Eoi</th>
<th>*Htfo</th>
<th>*Se</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Question 11. Ways in which Head can promote effective performance in school?

Three suggestions for the promotion of effective performance by a school were made as follows:

Eight of the 32 respondents were of the opinion that team teaching or peer observation can improve performance in a school. Two of the respondents suggested that the school head should be part of the teaching team and not be seen as an outside “inspector or C.I.D.”.

Seven respondents stated that giving praise publicly to those teachers and students who excel in the different areas of the school was a positive way of encouraging good performance. This makes both the teachers and the students “. . . feel emotionally and psychologically supported and accepted”, added another respondent. This view was allocated the heading ‘recognition’ in Table 60.
The promotion of collaboration, consultation and communication among staff on issues of common interest can improve school performance: this was the view held by 17 of the 32 respondents to this question. These three factors were implicit in the following comment by one respondent, who referred to “Promotion of collegiality through collaboration which is characterized by mutual respect, shared work values, cooperation and visioning together. Regular communication and consultation to be on the mission statement agreed in the school development plan”.

Table 60

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*T/t &amp; Po</th>
<th>Recognition</th>
<th>Collaboration</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Freq = frequency, *T/t & Po = team teaching/peer observation

Question 12. Views on new school head who tries immediately to change an existing school culture?

Findings indicated that, of the 36 respondents who attempted responses to this item, 33 expressed strong reservations about this approach to change. The disapproval was characterized by the use of strong terms and phrases such as, he/she would meet ‘resistance’, ‘negative reaction’, ‘great opposition’, ‘uncooperativeness’ from the teachers, “there would be conflict and resentfulness”. One respondent remarked: “Teachers would treat such an action as a direct challenge to their former school head and to themselves”. Another remarked: “No matter how good the new innovations (sic) would be, the teachers
would form an unbreakable wall which would make it hard for the new Head to penetrate". “Staff would perceive him/her to be a dictator. Change needs to be introduced gradually in order to consult with people who are involved”, said one respondent. “There would be opposition. Situations cannot change spontaneously at the wink of an eye. The human being is dynamic. He/she needs time and proper consultation to have him/her change old practices”, said another respondent.

A few other related comments from the respondents were: “Who needs the change? Us or him/her? Unless teachers are made to understand the need for change, the new Head is never going to get them moving”. The term ‘resistance’ was used as the heading for these views in Table 61 below.

A few respondents, however, expressed different views from the majority. One said teachers would accept the immediate change while a second said: “Majority would oppose, few would respond and fewer would remain as observers”, and a third, “It will depend on the approach to the change, staff may accept the change readily”. Table 61 presents the findings to this item.

Table 61

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Resistance</th>
<th>Acceptance</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question 13 “If you were the Head in item 12 above, what approach would you take towards the situation”?

Findings reveal that almost all the respondents to this question would adopt a gradual change to the situation described in question 12 of Appendix III. The findings showed that 33 or 97% of the respondents preferred this approach to change. This conclusion was drawn from comments such as: “Would study the situation then introduce new ideas bit by bit”. “Wait for some time for teachers to develop trust in me then gradually introduce change”. “Would adjust to environment, understand why things are done in the manner they are done. Then involve all stakeholders to introduce change”. “Identify what I consider shortcomings in their practices. Recognize and applaud teachers for the good things they have done. Try to win their support. Then involve them in formulating improvement strategies.”. “Would first observe them doing things. Involve them in critiquing the current situation and direct them towards an alternative making sure no one feels threatened”. “Prompt discussion on the reason for change. Help them see the picture the way I see it. Transfer some of the teachers and get new ones”. “Get views of the H.O.Ds on the situation, express mine, then together we decide what to do”. The views above generally represent those of others who were not quoted. It was only one respondent who said that he/she would transfer some of the teachers and get replacements. The results of the findings are presented in Table 62 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gradual Change</th>
<th>Transfer teachers</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question 14 Main causes of conflict between teachers in school?
Conflicts between teachers were attributed to several factors as revealed by the research findings as follows: Poor communication procedures in the school, personal differences in values, beliefs and interests between staff, favouritism practiced by the senior staff in the school, staff engaging in gossip about the private affairs of others, jealousy of those who achieve, and competition for teaching resources. The findings are presented in Table 63 below.

Table 63

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*Pc</th>
<th>*Pd</th>
<th>*Fav</th>
<th>*Gos</th>
<th>*Jls</th>
<th>*C</th>
<th>*Ttl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Freq</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Question 15 Should Head intervene immediately he/she notices a conflict situation developing between teachers?
There were differences of opinion among the different participants on this question. There were 32 respondents to this question. Eighteen of the respondents were of the view that conflicts are not necessarily harmful and that they can be useful. Those who held this view argued that the conflicting parties should be allowed the chance to sort the conflict out among themselves, while 14 said that
there should be an immediate intervention by the school head the moment he/she sees a conflict situation developing between teachers.

Some of the responses by the advocates of an immediate intervention by the school head in a conflict situation are: "Conflicts make students suffer, they should be eliminated at once". "Head to intervene immediately before situation can damage image of school". Basically, this group is of the general view that conflict can adversely affect staff relations and in turn affect school performance.

Some of those who do not support immediate intervention by the Head argue that: "Conflict among people cannot be avoided, Head should intervene only if it becomes bad". "People should be left to solve their own differences without the Head’s interference. Intervention, if necessary, should be by mature teachers in the school. Head to be the last one to attempt resolution". "Some level of conflict should be allowed between teachers or even between teachers and school management. Only when level reaches destructive heights should Head intervene". "Heads should allow teachers to collaborate on it, as it broadens debates and this can lead to better understanding between the two parties". "Conflicts are inevitable. Teachers must learn to co-exist with those with different ideologies from theirs". Table 64 shows the distribution of the two main conflicting views by the respondents to this question.

Table 64

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Head to intervene immediately</th>
<th>Not to intervene immediately</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The next section presents the research findings obtained from the interviews.

5.2.3 INTERVIEW (Appendix III):
The target population for the interview was 11 respondents comprising five school heads, two staff development coordinators and four teachers including deputy heads. Out of this number, nine were interviewed. A school head who was also to be a participant was transferred from his school before the interview could be conducted. In a second case, a teacher also changed schools. This information was not received until the researcher was already at the school for the interview. The prospective interviewee could not be immediately replaced because it was felt it would be unfair to pounce upon any teacher without prior warning. The school head was also not replaced for the same reason. Thus an 82% rate of return was achieved in this area.

All the interviews were conducted during the mornings, but during the interviewees' non-teaching time. The researcher spent the first few minutes with the interviewees making informal inquiries about the school in order to establish a rapport with them or to 'settle them down'. This was not easy in all cases though. In some cases respondents would be anxious to get down to 'business', while in others, the respondents would begin to settle down after the first two questions or so. To avoid the possibility that the first two questions in all the questionnaires might be affected by such unsettlement by some respondents, the researcher, in conducting the interview, did not necessarily follow the sequence of the questions as appeared in the schedule.
When the interview started in earnest, it took between 50 and 60 minutes to complete with a single interviewee. As the interview progressed the researcher took written notes. A summary of the information thus recorded was read to each individual interviewee to confirm whether the recorded information represented their views. The interviews were conducted over a period of three weeks with intervals in between because of the distance the researcher had to travel between the schools involved. Interviewees’ responses to the questions are presented below:

Item 1. Teachers already possess teaching skills from preservice training. There is no need therefore for them to undergo inservice training. Professional development should be an on-going process for new challenges. The dynamic and challenging curriculum requires appropriately prepared implementers. Two out of the nine respondents said that in addition to the training offered to teachers, teachers should also take special interest in their subjects by reading widely, adding that after some years in the job, one becomes ‘rusty’ if one does not update one’s knowledge. A degree certificate alone does not guarantee ‘eternal’ knowledge, commented another.

Item 2. (a) Advantages and disadvantages of a staff development programme that involves a teachers’ workshop conducted by a fellow teacher in the same school?

Advantages: Minimal costs involved. Interaction between the participants and the resource teacher is natural. Allows fertilization of ideas between colleagues. It is a way of developing teachers. It is a self-renewal effort in the school where the school can solve its own problems using its own personnel. Actual needs stand a good chance of being addressed.
Disadvantages: Limited knowledge/information of the subject matter by the resource teacher. There is likely to be a feeling of self-doubt by the teacher. Because of their familiarity with the teacher, colleagues may doubt teacher’s credibility to conduct a workshop. Teacher’s self-esteem may be killed as a result of resentment by colleagues. One said that others may view him as ‘a good boy’ or ‘an apple polisher’ of the administration.

Item 2. (b) Advantages and disadvantages of a workshop conducted by a consultant?

Advantages: Consultant brings expertise since he is an authority in the subject. The participants will tend to respect him/her as a result and are likely to be more attentive in the session. Consultant brings new ideas and wider options in his/her approach the problem at hand. The workshop is more likely to be successful as a result of his/her expertise.

Disadvantages: High costs involved which cannot usually be afforded by schools. Consultants tend to dwell too much on theory at the expense of practical solutions to the problem, thus leaving participants with more questions than answers. Consultants are not really part of the problem which the teachers face. They therefore tend to be somewhat irrelevant.

Item 3. Is it abdication of duty by the school head to delegate tasks?

The school head is accountable for the school’s general performance. He/she must therefore ensure that classroom activities are being carried out in the most
effective way. However he/she can delegate classroom supervision to responsible teachers. Another respondent commented that “modern leadership discourages monopoly of those at the top of the school hierarchy. It emphasizes quality management, i.e., collective or shared responsibility. No school head has knowledge of everything”. The general view from most of the interviewees to this question was that the school head should supervise those he/she has delegated to supervise others.

**Item 4. What are the benefits to a teacher who performs delegated duties?**
By performing delegated duties, the teacher is being initiated into the structure of the school system. The argument being that such initiation is itself staff development and it increases the teacher’s self-esteem.

**Item 5. Benefits a school head can gain by delegating duties?**
When the school head delegates tasks, he/she is building a pool of confident, empowered and dedicated teachers. School development planning aims and objectives are more likely to be effectively implemented by confident teachers who feel they are part of the school. This was the popular view among most of the respondents. Other comments were that the school head’s load gets reduced as a result of delegating. “The head gets hailed for practising collaborative management”, held one respondent.

**Item 6. Heads of Department need least supervision.**
The majority view was that the decision as to who to supervise should be based on the teacher’s performance as known by the head. The general sense was that the weak in terms of teaching capabilities need to be assisted by way of regular supervision while the strong may not need as regular supervision. One
commented that supervision is an "essential ingredient in the workplace to everybody. It is a performance measurement criterion". Another view was that Heads of Department should instead help the head supervise classroom activities and in order to effectively do so, they should receive some training in supervisory tasks.

**Item 7 Teachers with longest service need least supervision.**
Supervision encourages teachers to work hard all the time. It provides checks and balances in the system. Further comments were that "this is an era of new ideas and not experience alone". To discourage the development of 'I know it all' syndrome among some staff, all should be equally supervised.

**Item 8. Beginning teachers need the most supervision**
Similar views to those held in item 7. above prevailed in this question. The majority view was that there should be no discrimination in the frequency of supervision to teachers. One interviewee said that since supervision is done for developmental purposes, it is therefore a positive thing and that any teacher who aspires to develop looks forward to being supervised.

**Item 9. All teachers need supervision irrespective of length of service.**
The respondents showed consistency in their responses to items 7, 8, and 9. Additional reasons given for supervision to be given to all and sundry were: To guard against complacency particularly by those who have been at it for a longer time. To ensure that new and effective teaching methods are being applied in the classroom. It is carried out for appraisal purposes.
Item 10. Reasons why classroom supervision is important.
To support teachers with difficulties in certain areas of the curriculum. For the supervisor to identify weak cases and take supportive measures. For the supervisor to ensure teacher growth in the job. As people who are ultimately accountable to the curriculum implementation and the performance of the school generally, heads need to know what goes on in the classroom.

Item 11. Ways in which Head can promote effective performance in school.
Regular meetings with groups of teachers and with all teachers, to discuss school objectives. Head to be actively involved in helping teachers implement curriculum objectives and not just be a mere supervisor of instruction. Head to encourage team-work among teachers by introducing team teaching or peer observation. One interviewee stated that nowadays one cannot speak of school culture because community behaviours have started ‘swallowing’ school cultures. This statement was based on declining discipline standards in schools. He said that community influence on the students is so strong that it contradicts good intentions by schools.

Item 12. Views on new Head in a school who tries to change an existing school culture immediately.
The popular view on this item was that the staff would react negatively and would not cooperate with the new head in his/her efforts to change things.

Item 13. If you were Head in 12. above what approach would you adopt?
Human beings need time and proper consultation to change from old to new practices. It would be wise to get the staff’s views on the situation and involve
them in finding ways to improve the situation, was the majority view. In short, all the respondents to the question advocated a situational approach to the problem.

**Item 14. Main causes of conflict between teachers in a school.**

Absence of a clearly defined channel of communication system in the school, jealousy of each other's achievements, unprofessional relationships between students and teachers (the respondent said these were "an insult to the teaching profession"), bad management by the school head, personal differences resulting (for example) from shared living accommodation, and unequal treatment of teachers by supervisors, were cited as causes of conflict between staff.

**Item 15. Should Head intervene immediately he/she notices a conflict situation developing between teachers?**

The school head should intervene immediately because conflict divides staff and is not helpful to the promotion of teams-work among staff - this was the view of two interviewees. The rest of the interviewees were of the general opinion that those involved in a conflict situation should be left alone to sort it out between themselves and that only when the situation deteriorates should the head intervene. They held that through conflict, people understand each other’s line of argument better.

**Item 16. Additional comments?**

(a) **Staff development:** Instead of engaging teachers only to run school-based workshops, heads should also be actively involved, although in some cases teachers do not feel free with their school heads.

(b) No responses were made here.
(c) **School culture building:** School culture building is made more difficult by students who lack proper parental guidance at home. This statement was made by the same respondent who expressed concern about deteriorating school cultures as a result of community influence, in 11. above.

(d) **Conflict management:** To be able to effectively manage conflict between staff members, the school head should not be known to be ‘a conflict monger’ in the face of the staff, said one respondent.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The chapter made a biographic profile of the research group, described the way data were collected from this group and indicated the time it took for the questionnaires to be distributed to the respondents and the time they were returned to the researcher. Also, it indicated the number of measure instruments that were returned completed. The views of the respondents were presented verbatim. In some cases, individual responses were summarized into group responses particularly where the same idea was shared by all. Where this was done, the original idea was retained. Views of the research subjects were recorded for each question item and tables presented.

Teachers and school heads in Botswana secondary schools are by and large protagonists of the human relations concept which views the human resource variable as an important determinant to effective performance in schools. This is the general conclusion the researcher made from the empirical findings. The use,
by the respondents, of terms related to the human relations concept such as collaboration, consultation, involvement, group dynamics, promotion of interpersonal relationships, democracy, participatory decision-making and many others featured prominently in the individual responses in both the written and oral presentations. To achieve success in school development planning, the school head should of necessity facilitate the implementation process by creating an environment that would encourage teachers to freely interact with each other and with the school head thereby revealing their capabilities in the job.

Given the much advocated concept of productivity in Botswana, across government, the private and the parastatal organizations, the research findings revealed in this chapter were not unexpected. The productivity drive in wholly-controlled government institutions is being pursued under the broader theme performance management system. Also, the effectively democratic situation that generally prevails in the country’s politics, in the writer’s view, has had some influence on the respondents’ inclination to a collaborative approach to school management by the school head.

However, while some of the school heads who were interviewed and/or who answered the written questionnaires gave the impression, in their responses, that they were practitioners of the human relations concept, their teachers did not think they were. This point emerged more evidently from the interview than from the written responses. The reason for this could be that people do not always trust the written word ‘anonymous’ that preceded the research question items. Hence their reluctance to write something negative about the supervisor for fear of victimization. But generally, respondents were conversant with the concept of school development planning and were quite enthusiastic in participating in the
research study. This could be due to the fact that all secondary schools in Botswana implement school development planning.

The relevant and essential aspects of the empirical findings to the objectives of the sub-themes of the thesis are integrated and discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Empirical findings from Chapter V and views from the literature review made in the previous chapters of the thesis, particularly, that made in Chapter II, are brought together and discussed. Specifically, this chapter makes a linkage between the theoretical and empirical parts of the thesis. The chapter is not only linked to the previous ones, the main conclusions and recommendations on the overall thesis made in Chapter VII will have been drawn from it. Indeed, it could be regarded as forming the heart of the thesis.

For the sake of focusing, the research questions that are linked to the four main themes of the study are restated. What is the role of the school head in a school development plan with regard to:

- staff development?
- the supervision of classroom activities?
- school culture building?
- conflict management?

In the next section the results of the investigation are synthesized with the literature on staff development reviewed in the thesis and discussed.
6.2 STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The findings from the empirical data and views from the literature study on staff development are linked and discussed in this section of the chapter. The thrust of the discussion finds its anchorage from the following questions, namely:

Who of the following in the school needs staff development most, the new teachers, teachers who have been longer in the service or both groups irrespective of length of service?

- On what should training be based?
- Who decides the type of training for teachers, the school head alone or the school head in consultation with the teachers themselves?

Once the training needs of the teachers have been identified, who should do the inservice training, the teachers themselves, or outside consultants, or should it include both?

6.2.1 School head's training needs

The need for the school head's competencies in managerial issues is first discussed before staff development is examined. The competencies are predicated on the assumption that school development planning's main focus is on the improvement of school performance. The achievement of school performances on the other hand, can be determined by how the teachers tackle tasks together as a group. To achieve teacher collective effort, competencies by the school head on issues such as group dynamics, interpersonal relationships and in other related managerial issues are vital. In this context, the ability by the school head to
orchestrate and mobilize the participation of all teachers has been thrust into a central position in school development planning. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:4), quoted in Chapter III, section 3.2 stressed that school heads’ training was essential if they were to effectively drive the school development plan implementation. A related and equally important view on the importance of management skills acquisition by school heads for school development planning is one held by O’Brien (1979:8) as we saw in Chapter II, section 2.3: that school heads need training that would enable them to fulfill their demanding duties. The findings from the study on the other hand showed that the vast majority of respondents attached a lot of importance to the statement that school heads should develop themselves in the job. This was indicated by 83% of the 57 respondents to item 4 of the questionnaire included as Appendix 1.

Related to the above view on the importance of the training of school heads, Canniffe (1993:259) was quoted in section 2.3 as having stated: This is indeed analogous to the reflective teacher in the classroom who constantly applies theory and modifies it with practice. If teaching is the facilitating of the students’ learning by the teacher then the principal teacher must facilitate the teacher and the student so that this learning process can be at its most efficient.

According to the researcher, while self-development by the school head should be encouraged, leave conditions in Botswana do not facilitate one’s efforts to do part-time studies. One cannot take short paid leave days during term time. The only option that is available to one is a period of six months minimum sabbatical leave, but even then the conditions required to qualify for it are almost impossible to satisfy. To be legible for it, one is required to have worked for at least ten continuous years since any previous qualification one has that was sponsored by the government. The stringent leave conditions, coupled with the head’s heavy
work-load make it difficult for self-development in this context. Heads in large schools are mostly affected in this regard owing to their relatively more demanding responsibilities. At the end of the day one is too exhausted to pursue any serious studies.

Otherwise the findings from the empirical data and views from the literature review seem to point strongly to the view that there cannot be effective staff development without first developing the developer. In the context of this view the school head was seen as the developer of teachers and should, as such, be first professionally developed him/herself. In all the arguments for the school head’s training made in this sub-section, the common denominator is that managerial skills and competencies were essential aspects for the head to possess whether they were obtained through self or employer-initiated development.

6.2.2 **Who should be trained?**

Findings from items 1, 2, 3, 11 and 35 from Appendix I and item 1 from Appendix III formed the basis for the discussion in sub-section. In rating the importance of the school head’s fostering the professional growth of the less trained teachers only in school development planning, we note that in item 1 Appendix 1, the empirical findings showed that 75% of the respondents were of the view that it was important or even essential. The remaining 25% said it was not important. On a similar question (item 2 Appendix 1), but with regard to giving training to the more trained teachers only, 60% of the participants held that it was important or essential. These findings show an apparent inconsistency - even contradiction - in the respondents’ views on these questions. It would have been expected that since one question was the opposite of the other, those who answered ‘not important’ to item 1 should have answered ‘important’ to item 2.
Similarly, those who did not support the statement in item 2 should have supported the statement in item 1. The inconsistency can be ascribed to a possible lack of attention by the respondents to the use of the word ‘only’ in both questions. There were, however, consistent findings from items 3 and 35. In both cases, the findings repeatedly revealed that both the less trained and more trained teachers should undergo staff development.

A similar consistent view emerged from the findings on item 1 in Appendix III. All the 42 participants to the question said that all teachers need to undergo inservice training whether they are new or old in the service. The reasons advanced in support of inservice training to all teachers, which the researcher also support, can be summed up by using two comments from two respondents singled out for the following: One said, *Learning is an ongoing process. There is always something to learn which can improve performance and that effective schools are characterized by learning teachers.* The other one summed up the importance of training to all teachers by saying: *A new school curriculum will always require new teaching methods, new content to be learnt by the teacher, and will require the teacher to acquaint him/herself with new assessment procedures.*

The provision of inservice training to all levels of teachers because of constant changes in education has been supported by Wideen and Andrews (1987:13), part of the quotation from whom in section 2.3 of this thesis read thus: *... even the very best teacher education cannot equip one for a lifelong career,* while Caldwell (1992:7) was quoted in the same section as saying: *... preservice teacher programmes offer inadequate preparation and ongoing professional development and training are critically important.*
An important point was raised by a respondent during the interview in response to item 1 (Appendix III), that while it was employer’s responsibility to train teachers, the teachers themselves should initiate their own professional development by carrying out research in their areas of specialization. After some years of teaching, teachers become rusty . . . . A degree certificate alone does not guarantee eternal knowledge, he said. It is the researcher’s observation that teachers talk much about and discuss (and sometimes dramatize) their classroom experiences with each other at formal and informal meetings, even outside school, with people other than teachers. But rarely do they take advantage of the readily available population (students and teachers) and the rich first hand experiences to carry out research projects. Instead, it is other people from outside who do research in the teachers’ backyard.

The conclusion made from these findings is that the development of the teacher while in the job is of paramount importance for the successful implementation of school development planning activities. This is because as repeatedly stated above, teaching skills acquired during pre-service training eventually become obsolete and therefore need renewal. Specifically, the evidence from the findings lends empirical support to theories in the literature review made in Chapter II, section 2.3, that no matter how good teacher training institutions may have been, there will always be need for inservice training for teachers for them to be current with innovative teaching methodologies. That all teachers, whether trained or not, need to be developed further, was the predominant view derived from responses from the literature review sections referred to in the discussion.
6.2.3 On what should training be based?

It was argued that by virtue of his/her position in the school, the school head is best suited to know the training needs of his/her teachers. This seemed to be the predominant view by the majority of the respondents to question 10 in Appendix 1. The importance of basing training on known teachers’ or school needs was attested by 93% of the respondents. This view was also supported by 78% of the 57 respondents to question 11, Appendix 1: staff development should not be based on the teacher’s length of service only, rather it should be based on assessed the teacher’s needs.

For staff development through inservice training, to be purposeful and meaningful, the teachers need to be involved in deciding the areas where their training is needed most. Ninety one percent of the respondents in question 13 of Appendix 1 were of this view, which gets support from the argument of Hargreaves and Hopkins’ (1991:74) quoted in section 2.2.1 that throughout the school development planning implementation process there should be frequent collaboration between the school head and the teachers. Besides promoting ownership of the school vision by staff, regular consultation with staff can enable the head to identify their training needs.

Support for such consultation was abundantly shown in responses made in question 9 of Appendix 1 as indicated in Table 30. There was a 100% support for collaboration in school development planning. Again, 100% of the respondents to question 14 in Appendix III supported the idea of involving teachers in policy formulation by the head. The regular review of school goals with teachers is in itself collaboration. Only five percent of the 50 respondents did not see the need for the head’s evaluation of school development goals with the teachers. But
given other demanding duties of the teachers and the school heads, it is not always possible to involve teachers in each and every decision. Sometimes the school head should make decisions alone or with a few staff and either ‘sell’ or announce them to the staff. If teachers have been regularly involved in decision-making, they can perfectly accept such exceptions.

Findings from the issues relevant to this sub-section suggest that the inservice training of teachers should not be imposed on them. Since the teachers may also be aware of their own shortcomings in the job, they should be involved in decisions on their own training programmes.

6.2.4 **Who should conduct workshops?**

The generalization that arose from the empirical findings regarding the gains that can be reaped from and disadvantages that can be experienced by using a teacher in the school, in comparison with a consultant to conduct school-based inservice training workshops was that there are advantages to either. The main disadvantages raised against a fellow teacher as a resource person were attributed to the general belief that familiarity breeds contempt. From the literature review, sub-section 2.3.3, this was dubbed the ‘local . . . inferior to external’ syndrome. The shortcomings of a consultant for staff development, apart from costless, were related to his/her lower degree of familiarity with the environment of the problem and that as a result he/she would offer less specific solutions to the issue being addressed.
A strong point that was apparent from the findings regarding engaging a local teacher as a resource person was that while it was desirable to do so, important qualities that need to be considered should be the teacher’s experience in the job, knowledge of the topic of the workshop, teacher’s level of maturity, and reliability.

With regard to the consultant, the participants preferred a highly respected kind of person with reputable academic qualifications who could be expected to attract and sustain participants’ attention throughout the training session. This conformed to the opinion of Weinbach (1990:145-146) regarding the desirability of consultants in preference to local teachers, as quoted in Chapter II, sub-section 2.3.5: *These people are hired because of some specific expertise . . . are believed to have objectivity.* Basically, the advantages of engaging a fellow teacher as a resource person at a workshop were the disadvantages of the consultant and *vice versa.*

In Botswana, school heads regularly attend short courses or seminars on school or curriculum management. Upon their return they are expected to impart the knowledge they gained to their teachers. Surprisingly the majority of respondents, including school heads themselves, did not suggest in the survey instruments in-service workshops conducted by school heads themselves. Though not specifically asked in any of the questionnaires which feature in the two appendices, question 16 in Appendix III offered such an opportunity. Only one respondent from the interview (item 16 (a) made such a suggestion. The main reason for not involving the school head in school-based in-service, as captured from the interviews, was that a workshop conducted by the school head would look too official and therefore would create an uneasiness among teachers as they
are not usually as free with the school head. A similar sense was made by another respondent to item 5 (Appendix III) who wrote that, teachers confide more easily in other teachers than in the school head.

The researcher offers his personal opinion that the reason for this behaviour by teachers, is not that school heads are unapproachable. The reason could be traced (at least to the local tradition), that the ‘boss’ should always be respected and aloof and was not to be interacted with informally. He (for most of them were males) was revered almost like a semi-god. The responses on the other hand could be a revelation on some school heads’ management styles which deliberately exclude teachers in the school decision-making process. Comments made by some teachers during the interview, like “I am not too sure as to what stage we are at in the implementation of the school development plan”, and “School development planning is hardly discussed in our staff meetings”, point to this concern.

The findings did not reveal any preference between either a consultant or a colleague for conducting inservice training workshops. There were balanced arguments on their respective advantages and disadvantages. The disadvantages for each did not, however, necessarily imply that they should not be engaged to run training workshops. The general picture formed from the findings was that for the head to arrange both kinds of resource person was suitable. Well known consultants could be alternated with talented teachers who, on account of their expertise, command respect among colleagues.
6.3 CLASSROOM SUPERVISION

6.3.1 Importance of classroom supervision

Classroom supervision is essential to the improvement of the teaching and learning activities in a school. This is the view by the big majority of the respondents to item 10 in Appendix III. Only three out of the 57 were opposed to classroom supervision, citing it as involving intimidation to the teacher being supervised. Invariably, supervisors are senior to the teachers being supervised. A similar observation was made in the discussion in sub-section 6.2.4. A few respondents expressed apprehension about a workshop conducted by the school head on the basis of a ‘boss’/junior relationship and therefore an environment possibly inhibiting to the free expression of independent opinions. But when the school head does performance classroom supervision, he is not necessarily interfering with the teacher’s classroom autonomy. He/she does it for the good of the teacher, the students and the school as a whole, as will be discussed below. Fifty out of 57 respondents to item 34 in Appendix 1 confirmed these benefits. Some of the reasons advanced for the importance of classroom supervision were that through classroom supervision, the school head is able to ensure that the curriculum objectives are being properly implemented -as the ultimate accountable person he/she must ensure this- and that classroom supervision helps teachers to grow professionally as a result of support from the supervisors. Such support, they argue, gives teachers confidence, motivation, power, a sense of belonging and a sense of security that at least someone cares about what they are doing with students.
Giving someone power can create a special bond with the donor. Teachers can appreciate this reciprocate and their respect for such heads can grow. In a similar sense one respondent remarked in response to item 5, Appendix III, during the interview that: *The head gets hailed for practising collaborative management*, while another, in response to the same item wrote that *teachers will trust him/her because he/she trusts them*. The remarks were made about a head who delegates duties to teachers.

The conclusions that arise from the findings in the above discussion are that: there is little doubt that classroom supervision is a very important aspect of the teaching and learning processes. It increases the likelihood that effective teaching and learning take place. It was also indicated that it energizes teachers and sets things in motion. For effective supervision to take place, it should be done in the most collegial manner.

6.3.2 **Views on experienced teachers with regard to classroom supervision**

One of the biggest challenges a school head faces in school development planning, that strongly emerged from the findings on classroom supervision, was how to address the attitudes of the experienced and promoted teachers (Heads of Departments and Senior Teachers). The challenge was drawn from comments made by the majority of respondents to questions 6 and 7 from Appendix III and from 53 respondents who disagreed with the statement made in question 35 in Appendix 1, that trained teachers need minimal supervision. Some of the comments were . . . *are passive actors between the school head and the teachers. Resist change. They neglect their duties. They hardly ever make lesson plans*. Similar views were expressed in the interview. Because of this expressed
lack of confidence by ordinary teachers towards senior teachers, Heads of Department and experienced but not promoted teachers, most of the respondents did not relish the statement that the most experienced teachers and Heads of Department should be less supervised than the rest of the teachers. This is the negative view by most respondents towards the most experienced teachers generally.

Similar contradictions to those observed in sub-section 6.2.2 were also detected from the responses to items 7 and 8 in Appendix III as indicated in the corresponding Tables 56 and 57. On the one hand, respondents were of the opinion that long-serving teachers need supervision as much as new ones. On the other hand the same respondents held that the new teachers needed supervision most. What clearly emerged from the findings, though, was that all teachers need to be supervised but that the degree of supervision should depend on the performance of the individual teacher. The findings of the study reveal a very close link between issues discussed under staff development and under classroom supervision. For example, there is a direct link between delegation as discussed in the sub-section 2.3.1 on staff development, and classroom supervision by the senior teachers as discussed in this sub-section.

The view held by some respondents that senior teachers should be supervised least because they are experienced and responsible enough to be entirely trusted with their classes is being probed here. If left to their own devices without being supervised, they can neglect their teaching duties, as pointed out by some respondents. Among this group, some may be responsible while some may neglect their duties. The researcher supports some of the ‘negative’ views by some of the respondents towards senior teachers. Supervision, as it has been
suggested from the findings, should be discriminatory in practice. The school head should select teachers who need supervision most basing such a decision on his/her knowledge about the strength of the individual teachers and their attitude towards their work and responsibilities.

Arguably, some people may view the above differential treatment of teachers as discrimination based on some form of favouritism. Indeed it is a form of discrimination but one that is necessary and positively made in the interest of improving school performance. Unequal cases ought not to be treated as equal. A lazy teacher, for example, should receive a different treatment from a committed one. The principle underlining these views is, as one respondent commented: *Long service is not synonymous with knowing it all, all teachers need to be supervised.*

But under normal circumstances this is the group of teachers who ought to be supporting and guiding the less experienced, particularly in that they have been placed in hierarchical domination over others, the assumption being that their hierarchical superiority implies responsibility and effectiveness. The experienced but not promoted teachers are assumed to have also acquired expertise in their teaching subjects over the years.

A respondent who supported the idea that Heads of Department should be least supervised added that instead, they should assist with the supervision of other teachers. But in order to make the supervision more effective, he suggested that Heads of Department should be professionally trained in supervisory duties. This, he argued, would make them more respected and accepted by the teachers they supervise, and that conflict related to supervision may be reduced. Classroom supervision is a skill that should be formally learnt. Classroom supervision can be
very sensitive and therefore needs a mature and cautious approach before, during, and after the lesson observed.

From the findings, respondents repeatedly argued that experience, or a high post of responsibility, does not necessarily mean that one is more knowledgeable than those he/she supervises. There are some teachers who are more experienced and knowledgeable than the ‘boss’. However, to mature teachers, what matters most in supervision is the approach by the supervisor. Experience and greater knowledge on the part of the teacher being supervised are not real issues of concern as long as the supervisor displays professionalism in his approach. Hence the argument for the need for professional training in supervision for Heads of Department.

The emerging findings from the discussion in this sub-section are that all teachers need to be supervised but that the frequency of supervision should depend on the assessed performance of the individual teacher and that senior teachers who are delegated supervisory duties should be trained for these tasks.

6.3.3 Implications of school head’s duties on classroom supervision
It is the researcher’s personal view that if senior teachers in the school neglect supervisory duties (as suggested by the findings that were discussed in sub-section 6.3.2) and only enjoy status, then the already increasing responsibilities of the school head will be strained beyond realistic limits. The fact is that the already heavy responsibilities of the school head do not allow him/her to perform classroom supervision effectively. The responsibilities include among others, attending to official correspondence which makes the school head office-bound most of the time, giving time and attention to the linkage between the school and
the external community including the Ministry of Education. Teachers, students and parents are also frequent visitors to the head's office.

In emphasizing the increased duties of the school head, McHugh and McMullan (1995:27) in sub-section 2.3.1 described the head's office as *Marked by a series of brief face-to-face encounters...*, while Weindling (1992:25) in the same sub-section compared the head's responsibilities to a person *competing in a marathon race on a sand dune and carrying a heavy load*.

As a result of the ever increasing duties, the head ought to delegate some of them and, in doing so, he/she is not necessarily abdicating his/her responsibilities, (Markham 1993:123) in Chapter II sub-section 2.3.1. The findings confirmed the view, already suggested in the literature discussed, that delegation is a form of professional support aimed at developing on-the-job experience and performance resulting in participant empowerment. With a feeling of empowerment teachers can positively influence the successful implementation of school development planning, (Fullan 1992:91 in sub-section 2.3.1. Delegation should thus be seen as a power sharing exercise and as a recognition of others in the job. Heads of Department or senior teachers who are specialists in areas of curriculum should be assigned delegated duties, according to a few respondents. Supporting their view, Markham (1993:125) was quoted in sub-section 2.3.1 as saying that delegating involves finding the person who is best suited for the job.

Further, the findings revealed that the teacher performing delegated duties gains knowledge, experience and therefore self-professional development. Table 53 shows the statistics of opinion on this issue. Despite some misgivings about senior teachers' attitudes towards work by some respondents, delegation remains
imperative. Forty eight respondents out of 57 in question 1, Appendix 1, were in support of delegation.

It would be impossible, particularly for school heads in large schools, given their numerous and demanding responsibilities, to do classroom supervision on all teachers single handed. Furthermore, even if they tried, it would conflict with contemporary thinking that advocates opportunities for delegation as a form of staff development. The discussion in sub-section 6.3.1, suggested, however, that while delegating, the school head should occasionally leave his/her ‘busy’ office to be seen around the classrooms, since the ultimate accountability of school performance lies with him/her.

It can be concluded that in view of the demanding responsibilities of school heads, they need to delegate some of them thus enhancing other aspects of their role but also benefiting the teacher performing delegated duties as discussed earlier in this sub-section and confirmed in responses to the survey.

The next section discusses the empirical findings in relation to the building of an effective school culture for school improvement.

6.4 SCHOOL CULTURE BUILDING

It can take much effort and many years to build a team of people in an organization who are all committed to a common purpose. It can even be more difficult to achieve such a feat if the people in the organization do not share a common cultural background. Staff rooms in Botswana secondary schools, for example, have been dubbed ‘the United Nations’ because of the multiple cultural composition of the teachers (though this does not imply any lack of cooperation
among them). Table 4 of this thesis illustrates this phenomenon. The following sub-sections discuss ways in which positive school cultures can be fostered. The discussion is based on the empirical findings yielded by this study and on the theory generated from the literature review. The findings from the study suggest how, despite the differences that may exist between teachers, the school head can promote effective performance in the school. Three factors featured in order of importance: communication or collaboration, team teaching or peer observation, and recognition. The operation of these factors can help build a culture of cooperation towards common goals among teachers.

6.4.1 Collaboration

A comment by one of the respondents that characterizes effective communication is used to sum up the general sense of the findings on collaboration and how it can improve school performance. *The promotion of collegiality through collaboration which is characterized by mutual respect, shared work values, cooperation and visioning together. Regular communication and consultation to be on the mission statement as agreed in the school development plan.*

In relation to this perspective on collaboration, various ways can be employed in a school context to promote teacher collaboration. Teachers of the same subject can be encouraged to share experiences and information they have about their students. They can together discuss the most effective ways of approaching the curriculum. Such simple activities can reduce teacher isolation, encourage a sense of teachers’ collective responsibility to the student and provide instructional support for each other, suggesting that when one fails in one area, there will be someone from the team to help.
Another way in which working teams can be fostered through collaboration for school development purposes is, according to the researcher, for the school head to occasionally mingle informally with teachers at extra-curricular activities or joining in at tea breaks and at other informal sessions in the school. However, this approach can only work as long as the socialization aspect is kept at a professional distance. Once it becomes too regular and too close to individuals or confined to only a small group of teachers, the school head may risk being criticized for favouring certain teachers. In Botswana secondary schools, such necessary interaction between the school head and the teachers, while possible, is constrained by the often busy school head’s office and by the tight teachers’ schedules. Tea breaks are the usually times teachers get a chance to see the head in the office about this and that or to dash out for quick personal errands before the next lesson.

The sense of collaboration as emerged from the findings in Tables 29, 30, 31, 32 and 60, gets further support from Chapter II, sub-section 2.2.1. In that sub-section, Bredeson (1996:231), Potter and Powell (1992:17) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:74) held that school heads can use regular meetings with staff to obtain information from the different teachers and departments on any problems, progress and prospects in the school. After collating the information, it can then be communicated to the teachers as a group. This, they suggested, is one way of establishing teams in organizations. The crux of the survey here is that the fostering by the head of an organic relationship between teachers which is characterized by commitment, mutually held school goals and respect for each other’s ideas is important for the success of school development planning goals. The school head can achieve this through regular consultation with the teachers on school development planning.
6.4.2 Recognition

If teachers feel psychologically and emotionally supported, their efforts in school development planning activities are likely to increase. This is the view of 22% of the respondents to the question that sought ways in which the school heads can promote effective performance in their schools. Table 60 shows the findings. This view from the empirical findings on support from the head and thereby a tendency by the teacher to participate more on school development planning, gives support to Fullan’s (1992:91) view on delegation, quoted in sub-section 2.3.1.

The informal meetings between the school head and staff suggested in 6.4 above, can go a long way to making teachers feel they are, after all, also colleagues, when they face the school head. For, as the head chats with and moves from teacher to teacher or from one group to the other, informal discussion pertaining to the individual teacher’s or group achievements can take place. Teachers, particularly the hard workers, want the head to know about their achievements. The debate on support and power featured in sub-section 6.3.1 which suggested that if teachers are given power and feel they are being supported in their efforts, they are likely to feel good about themselves and that their self-esteem has been boosted, can be applied here. Giving or sharing power is an important form of recognition, encouraging cooperation and open communication with others, and helping to create a relationship of trust between the donor and the receiver of power. A feeling of recognition develops in teachers and they can begin to channel their efforts towards school development planning issues and with a sense of ownership. This can enhance the organization’s culture.
6.4.3 Team teaching/peer observation

Peer observation or team teaching, as the results of the findings indicate in Table 60, got significant attention from the respondents as one of the three variables that could improve school performances. While this can be a credible strategy for the improvement of the teaching and learning processes in Botswana secondary schools, its practicability can be limited to some extent. The first limitation is the teachers’ high teaching loads. As a result, teachers do not find enough time between lessons to sit in on each other’s classes to team-teach or just to observe each other teaching. The second limitation is that the concept of team building through peer observation or team teaching has not been fully exploited, in practice, in Botswana secondary schools. This explains why it is a long and difficult task to achieve sustainable cohesive teams in schools. It also explains why some teachers feel that the presence of a second person in their classrooms intimidates them (Table 59 refers).

The general impression formed from the findings is that the school head holds the key to improved school performances. This he/she can accomplish through his/her ability to mobilize staff and encourage them to collaborate with each other, formally or informally, on common issues of the school’s interest. The existence of a relaxed but businesslike atmosphere in the school that consolidates individual or group effort is also important as a morale booster to the teachers.

The findings on item 22, Appendix I reveal that all 55 respondents to the question held that it was important for the school head always to create a conducive educational environment for the teachers. This view was similarly held by O’Brien (1979:6) sub-section 2.4.3 and by Glickman (1985:128) in sub-section 2.4.2. The judgment that team teaching or peer observation can positively
influence the building of a strong school culture and therefore improved performance, and that school heads in Botswana need to encourage and strengthen this strategy more, concludes this sub-section.

6.4.4 **Situational approach to culture**

Weindling's (1992:71) view given in section 2.5.2, that the shadow of a headteacher past has a major influence on the school's culture supports the empirical findings from questions 12 and 13 in Appendix III, particularly the comment by one respondent that the actions of a new school head who demands immediately change upon arrival would be treated as an affront to their former head. Ninety two percent of the 36 respondents to item 12 strongly opposed the actions of a head new to a school who would try to make changes immediately he/she arrives. The frequency of their reactions is shown in Table 61 in Chapter V. A few of the comments to this effect are repeated for the sake of focus to the discussion. *No matter how good the new innovations ... teachers would form an unbreakable wall which would make it hard for the new head to penetrate. Who needs change? Us or him/her? Unless teachers are made to understand the need for change, the new head is never going to get them moving.*

The sense understood from the above comments is that while a new form of school culture can be difficult to establish, equally it can be difficult to undo an old one, once firmly entrenched in the organization. Some school heads, when they change schools, fail to capture the fundamental important fact that schools differ in characteristics and that because of these differences, each school would therefore need a different management approach. Such heads do not want to change, instead they expect the school - its teachers and students - to change. In the view of the respondents this was tantamount to dictatorship. Such behaviour can be a draw-back and a waste of the efforts the previous head would have made...
with his/her staff on school development planning. The empirical findings above are supported by a view given in section 2.5.2 by Bottery (1992:146) that management systems are like sensitive plants, which flourish in one type of soil but do not necessarily do well when moved to a different type.

There is nothing wrong in changing things for the better as long as they have not been done properly or if they are considered to be out of touch with modern practice. What may be wrong, however, is the approach to the change. The fundamental question a new head to a school ought to first ask him/herself is: Who will implement the change? It follows that the teachers are the eventual implementers, not the school head. They must therefore of necessity be involved in the change. They should be asked why things happen the way they do and their contribution sought as to how things could be improved. Without an adequate basis in the reason why things should change, teachers can be reluctant to adopt innovations. However, as pointed out in 6.2.3, there can be exceptions to this where teachers can be required to implement a change without being consulted, for example, in the implementation of a new government policy. It is the researcher’s contention, however, that even then, it is always courteous and prudent for the head to consult the teachers on the implications the new policy may have for the school and explain to them why the policy cannot be changed even if they felt it needed to be changed.

Respondents’ views were sought on what approach they would adopt in the case of a school head who made changes immediately he arrives at a new school. The majority of the respondents, 97% of the 34 who responded to item 13 in Appendix III, wrote that they would study the situation and make gradual changes that involved all stakeholders. Another 34% of the interviewees expressed the same view. Some responses to this effect were: *I would study the situation then*
introduce new ideas bit by bit. Another commented: I would wait for sometime for teachers to develop some trust in me then gradually introduce change. A similar situational approach to change was discussed as a case study in Chapter II, sub-section 2.5.2 of a school head who resisted pressure from a small group of teachers who wanted to take advantage of his being new to the school and make changes to existing regulations on students' uniform and hair styles. The situational approach to management was further supported by 92% of the respondents who answered item 38, Appendix III as shown in Table 47. They stated that for a school head to be effective, he/she should vary his/her leadership style according to the demands of the conditions at the time.

A significant comment which ran contrary to others' views on the approach they would adopt if they were the new head described above was made by one single respondent. This one held that in order for a new school head to be able to change an existing culture without opposition, he/she should transfer some of the teachers (perhaps the troublesome ones) and get new ones to start a new school culture. This may sound unprofessional but there could be a significant point here. In some organizations the phrase 'good riddance' is used of departing troublesome people, or in the case of schools, of those who 'were not cut out to be teachers' and who eventually leave to go into different work or place. It is likely that some school heads can be tempted into engineering such removals in order to maintain the status quo or help create their own preferred school cultures. Those who practise such management behaviour should be aware that in Botswana, for example, teacher transfers including those of the school heads are frequent. The saying that 'what goes around comes around' is important to take heed of here. When the school head next transfers to another school, he/she may meet the same teachers he/she 'removed' from his previous school.
Although only a small number of respondents (two) raised the issue of community influence on school culture, the point is considered vital and deserving some place in the discussion. The concern emerged from the interview. In the majority of cases, students from Botswana primary schools and from the junior secondary schools go to the junior and senior secondary school respectively, in or nearest their village or town. This is particularly the case in respect to the transition from the primary school to the junior secondary school. This therefore means that basically students from the same cultural background go to the same school. This phenomenon can create problems which are not conducive to school culture building in the receiving secondary school if the majority of the students come from, for example, a high-crime community. The school is likely to spend more time on disciplinary matters rather than on issues of curriculum implementation.

It can be time-consuming to change behaviour especially when there is a force working against one's efforts. Factors which inhibit the building of positive school cultures characterized by enabling learning environments are not uncommon in secondary schools in Botswana. In the context of this argument, the interviewees had a valid point in expressing the view that it is difficult nowadays to speak of school culture in any clear sense of the concept. Their view was based on the deteriorating discipline standards in secondary schools in particular, which they said was attributable, to a large extent, to conflict between home and school environments in respect to student expectation. This concern about declining students' discipline standards was also expressed in a response to item 1, Appendix III as: *Students' behaviour has changed to the extent that they carry cell phones into classroom*, made to item 1 Appendix III. These new
developments in the students' behaviour in Botswana secondary school have in some instances had bad consequences on the students' school performance.

Emerging from the discussion in this sub-section are three major findings. Firstly, an overwhelming support to a school head whose approach to change takes all staff aboard and an unfavourable rating for one who does not. Secondly, an expressed view that there is one predominant leadership approach that promises to be more effective than any other, namely: the leadership that takes account of the situation at the time a decision is to be taken - the collaborative approach. What becomes critically important in a collaborative approach is not the actual decision itself but the process and the procedures observed towards reaching a decision. Thirdly, as implied in the comments by respondents, school culture building can be difficult to achieve and can be 'stubborn' to uproot or break once firmly established.

A discussion on conflict management follows in the next section.

6.5 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT
The discussion in this section of this thesis focuses on conflict in secondary schools in relation to the school head and his/her role in school development planning. The discussion is based on empirical findings from the study, particularly from questions 14, 15 and 16 in Appendix III, from questions 16, 19, 20 and 28 from Appendix 1 and also from the literature review.

From the discussion made in Chapter II, sub-sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2, views on conflict were that the presence of some degree of conflict in a school organization was vital and that its elimination would render schools less challenging
institutions. Conflict was viewed as a positive thing to have in schools since it strengthens discussion and generates new ideas on important issues of school development planning. It became clear from the findings that as a result of the presence of conflict the protagonists gain new information and new perspectives on school improvement issues. This, it was held, adds educational value to the organization and helps staff to be broader in outlook. A similar debate was made in section 6.4. This argument as discussed in section 6.4 gets support from Hunt (1992:101) in sub-section 2.6.2 who states that differences are a necessary ingredient to a search for improvement. This view presupposes rational differences in organizations which do not lead to any dysfunctional conflict. This will be the operational view of conflict in this chapter’s discussion.

The main reasons for conflict according to the findings, however, were based on personal differences among staff, and on favouritism and poor communication as shown in Table 63.

The ‘poor communication’ variable emerged from this section, under the heading ‘collaboration’ as one of the causes of conflict between teachers. In sub-section 6.4.1 it already received attention as one variable that can frustrate efforts to the building of teams in an organization. In the researcher’s view, if people are unable to form teams, there is conflict among them which has not been resolved or that needs resolving. Discussing this variable in this section would be monotonous repetition therefore. Earlier in this thesis, it was intimated that the four themes under review have an overlapping effect on each other. This is one such.
6.5.1 Favouritism

In any school, there will always be found teachers who are more active and more committed towards their work than others. Such teachers are usually active in many aspects of the general life of the school including school development planning. Very often, because of their self-motivation, they initiate ideas on school improvement and discuss them formally and informally with the senior teachers and the school heads. In organizations where staff promotions are based on merit performance, this is the type of teacher who stands a good chance of being considered for higher positions. But when this happens, those who have not been working hard, view such promotions as favouritism by the school head or by the supervisors of those teachers. These situations, usually based on jealousy, may result in conflict and those not promoted may decide not to cooperate in school development planning activities. In the context of this argument, jealousy and favouritism are considered related. The variable 'jealousy' although it stands as a variable on its own in Table 63, will therefore not feature independently under a sub-section.

The accusations of favouritism levelled against senior teachers by the respondents towards a certain group or against individual teachers cannot be simply ignored as personal whims or fads by the respondents concerned. Favouritism, for whatever reasons, can indeed exist in organizations. Favouritism and personal differences received the highest frequency counts as reasons for conflict in schools as shown in Table 63. It was also expressed as a concern by a few respondents from the interview. From the findings, there were remarks such as: those in positions of influence promote ‘their own’ people to higher positions on the basis of nepotism, friendship or other unsavoury and unprofessional reasons.
If school heads in their informal interaction with staff aim at promoting teams among members become too ‘matey’ with certain staff, they risk being accused of practising favouritism and gossip.

6.5.2 Personal differences

There is general agreement between the findings and the discussion in sub-section 2.6.1 that personal differences, a clash in values and belief, contribute to conflicts in schools. In all human interaction, differences in ideologies will always exist. This was the general comment from 24% of the respondents to item 14, Appendix III, while 3 of 9 interviewees attributed personal differences to conflict between teachers. The responses to the question on causes of conflicts appeared as one word or a short phrase with little elaboration. The way the question was asked tempted such short responses. The question required respondents to mention only two causes of conflict, thus limiting any room for further elaboration. What is important in conflict situations is for the leader of the organization to harness these differences and turn them into productive outcomes.

6.5.3 Gossip

Gossip was one of the factors that respondents said can cause conflicts between teachers. Table 63 shows that 16% of the 37 respondents ascribed conflict to gossip. The view of this group of respondents is widely supported by the common prevalence of gossip, especially in organizations with a large number of people such as schools. While the source of the gossip may have little to do with school business, if not well managed, it can adversely affect teachers’ working relationships.
Gossip can start as a secret confided to one person who may also have another confidante. The networking can go around until it gets back to the person the gossip is about. Eventually the source of the gossip can be traced. But the identification of the originator of the gossip does not have to be accurate for a conflict situation to develop.

Unlike other types of conflict that are brought about by differences in ideologies, conflict resulting from gossip can be difficult to manage, because, like rumour, gossips are rarely openly discussed in any formal context. They cannot because they are meant to be secrets anyway and since gossip has no traceable formal origin, the causes of the conflict can be difficult to rationalize, thus rendering its resolution difficult. What can even make it more difficult is if the conflict manager is implicated in the gossip. In such conflicts, the aggrieved person usually enters the case with a temper-flared-up approach, thus making negotiation even more difficult. Gossips can be harmful to school programmes because they diminish trust and encourage suspicion among members. While informal interaction with staff is encouraged for the school head, as discussed in subsection 6.4.2, there is need for great care in the way other teachers are discussed in the process, as unguarded comments can be rightly construed as gossip.

6.5.4 Approach to conflict
The personal differences which have been asserted as common to people, including teachers, ensure that changes like the school development plan in a school environment are likely to generate conflict. Teachers must therefore "learn to co-exist with those with different ideologies from theirs", one respondent said. On the basis of the finding that conflict is not always harmful, the school head should encourage and manage it, and any intervention should
come only when the conflict becomes dysfunctional. Fifty eight percent out of a total of 31 respondents held such a view. On the other hand, 13 out of 31 respondents said that the school head should intervene immediately when he/she sees a conflict situation developing (Table 64). This is a high percentage to attach some significance to this item.

Given the definition of conflict by Handy (1994:300) in question 15 (Appendix III) that conflict is about differences in ideologies between people, by immediately intervening the school head will be denying the people involved in the conflict the chance to express their disagreements to each other. If he/she intervenes immediately, he/she may not find a lasting solution to their differences. At best he/she will only be postponing the conflict. The researcher shares the same view with those respondents who held that the people engaged in a conflict should be given the chance to sort out things between themselves as long as the conflict does not generate into a public quarrel or fight. After all, the opposing parties may be engaged in an academic debate and not in a dysfunctional conflict per se. A debate on some issue is conflict of ideas according to Handy’s definition of conflict. This view to conflict has support from Dunham (1995:50) and from Henley Distance Learning (1991:90) as was discussed in section 2.6.4.2 on collaborative strategy for conflict resolution. Dunham called it the infighting stage of team building while it was referred to as sorting out the pecking order . . . in the literature material from Henley College (1991:90)

In order to manage conflict between staff, the head should not be known to be a “controversial character” or a “conflict monger” as one interviewee said in response to item 16 (d). Also, 82% of the respondents as indicated in Appendix II, item 24 said yes to the statement: “The way a school head relates with staff
influences the way teachers will relate with the students”. Often, people who frequently have quarrels with their subordinates do so because of some complex requiring them to defend decisions they made on their own but without much confidence. Lack of confidence, self doubt and a feeling of inadequacy on the part of some managers was attributed, in section 2.4.2 of this thesis, to lack of adequate training in management. Following this argument, the sufficient training of school heads is once again highlighted in order for them to involve teachers more in school development planning and therefore reduce conflicts between themselves and the teachers.

In this section there was a discussion, on the basis of the review findings, of how conflict can be useful and how the school head should encourage conflict since it provokes debate which can dig deep into issues. Hidden talents and subconscious issues can be exposed by conflict. The findings could also be used to serve as a caution to heads to exercise maturity and professionalism in their interaction with staff and not to be involved in gossip and in the unfair favouring of some teachers over others.

A conclusion of the issues discussed in this chapter is made in the next section.

6.6 CONCLUSION
All the four themes, as earlier asserted, have an overlapping effect on one another. As revealed by the discussion, they are also interrelated and their interrelationship has been integrated as summarized below: Classroom supervision can lead into staff development. In turn, staff development which involves teacher interaction through problem solving at workshops can foster a sense of working in teams. This can lead into the development of a culture of
team work. During such interaction, people’s minds become activated and differences in ideologies - according to the working definition of conflict in this thesis - can start. This may evolve into conflict. In some cases, issues repeated themselves in the different sections. Where this occurred, to limit the amount of repetition, the issues were fully discussed in one section and not the other. ‘Collaboration’ is such an example. It featured in both sections 6.4 and 6.5 as a strong variable but its extensive coverage was only in the former.

In the survey, responses reflecting a wide range of agreement were consistently obtained from the respondents to Appendices 1 (closed responses), III (semi-structured), and III (interview) on the majority of question items as evidenced by the findings that were presented in figures or text.

6.6.1 **Staff development:**

The research findings point to the rapidly increasing roles of the secondary school head in school development planning in Botswana. Moreover, the needs of the recently introduced curriculum which naturally link to the school development planning, add to the many roles of the school head. The implementation of the curriculum, although facilitated by the school head, is the direct responsibility of the teacher. In the light of this, the development of the teacher was seen as of prime importance to school improvement. Teacher development, it was argued by respondents, is necessary to match the new roles demanded by the new curriculum and school development planning in Botswana secondary schools. As the ‘nuts and bolts’ people that drive the curriculum, teachers have an obvious need for inservice training. While it could be expected that the more senior staff should receive less inservice training, interestingly the survey findings suggested otherwise. The feeling of respondents was that all teachers should undergo
inservice training for two major reasons. For the new teacher, inservice was mostly needed to bridge the gap between what was taught at the training institutions and what happens in the classroom. In respect to the teacher who has been in the service longer, inservice is meant to renew or replace old teaching methods.

Exclusive-dependence either on teachers or on consultants for inservice training workshops was, according to the findings not a desirable situation. Both have their own merits and demerits. Inservice training ought to be conducted by both the internal personnel (teachers) and at different times by external personnel such as consultants. Central to the successful accomplishment of staff development effort, is the initiative and resourcefulness of the school head. But for the school head to be able to provide quality service to the development of teachers, first he/she should receive training in the different areas of school management or at least in the most critical areas such as curriculum leadership.

6.6.2 Classroom supervision:
In the survey there is a direct link between staff development and classroom supervision of staff. In the discussion of the findings, it was apparent that school-based staff development is best provided following teachers’ needs identified in the classroom through supervision. The benefits that a teacher can get by being supervised, raised by respondents in terms such as ‘confidence building’, ‘support from supervisor’, ‘experience sharing’, and ‘growth in the job’, are all directly or indirectly linked to the teacher’s development in the job. The delegation of duties to staff by the school head, in addition to enabling the staff to professionally grow in the job, was considered as going a long way in relieving
the school head of the many duties. School heads ought therefore to let go some of their duties.

However, although arguments for and against the statements made in items 6 to 9 (Appendix III) seem to balance, the view that all new teachers should be supervised because they are on a learning curve; are mostly on probation; need orientation; are energetic and full of ideas from training institutions and therefore their influence - in any way - on students needs monitoring; need guidance on school procedures and are like young horses that are being trained by riders for future racing, overpowers the arguments for an all-embracing supervision for all and therefore it ‘breaks the tie’. The conclusion of the study therefore is that all new teachers should be regularly supervised, but that regular supervision for those longer in the job should be dependent upon their performance as judged by the supervisor.

6.6.3 School culture building:
Some of the strategies proposed in the discussion on classroom supervision that can improve classroom performances are the sharing of teaching material by teachers of the same subject, and peer classroom observation. The existence of working teams in a school was seen as bringing teachers closer together and therefore enhancing a strong school culture. This perspective was drawn from the empirical findings, section 5.4 (Table 60) and from the literature review made in sub-section 2.2.1. It supports the concept of teams by Yukl (1981:154) discussed in Chapter II sub-section 2.5.5.2 of this study. It follows therefore that there is a relationship between the themes school culture and classroom supervision. If classroom supervision can be linked to staff development and also to school culture, logically, there exists a relationship between staff development and
school culture. Also, the findings suggested that school culture can be influenced by the local community and therefore can differ from one school to the other. School heads need to be aware of these differences when they change schools. Heads should be conscious that as the behaviour of the same community keeps on changing, an existing school culture, however positive, should not be taken for granted.

The overall impression formed from the results of the research with regard to school culture was that it can be strengthened by the introduction of working teams in the school. The school head, it was argued by participants, has an important part to play in this regard. Of greater importance was his/her communication and interpersonal skills with the staff in school development planning.

6.6.4 Conflict management:
If differences in ideologies can constitute a conflict situation that can trigger collaboration among the people engaged in the conflict then indirectly conflict is related to school culture. The relationship is based on the assumption that if a group of teachers involved in a conflict eventually come to an agreement, they become partners and work together towards the resultant decision. Each would have learnt that good decisions are the result of collaborating on differences and from seeing and appreciating each other’s viewpoint. The illustration of donkeys in sub-section 2.6.4.1 diagram 4 helps to cement this point. Such partnership is team-work in itself. It was held in the discussion on culture that working teams can help form a cohesive school culture.
The main conclusion drawn from the findings on conflict was that conflict is imperative in any successful organization. Particularly in school development planning, teachers need to communicate with each other, as discussed in the section on school culture and work together as teams. It is therefore essential that the school head should encourage collaboration between staff in such vital interactions.

A brief summary of this chapter is that the discussions of the empirical findings suggested similar views between those held by the respondents and those from the theoretical component of this thesis held by the researcher and by the different writers cited in the relevant sections of this thesis. There were, however, some minor differences, in comparison with the number of those who differed in relation to the majority small. Perhaps what could be regarded as a significant difference, in terms of the number of respondents, was the participants’ views on whether the school head should immediately intervene in a conflict situation. Although a working definition was given, implicit in the responses of those who advocated for an immediate intervention, was the notion that conflicts are fights and therefore should be eliminated since they are bad to have in a school organization.

In the next chapter conclusions are drawn from the findings and discussions made in the previous chapters and recommendations derived from both the theoretical and empirical components of this thesis are made.
CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this thesis, the role of the school head in school development planning was examined, with special reference to his/her role in staff development, classroom supervision, school culture building and conflict management. In Chapter III of this thesis an element of the comparative approach was introduced in order to broaden its scope beyond the borders of Botswana alone. The international dimension made it possible to relate school development planning in Botswana secondary schools to specific aspects of school development planning in the UK and Australia. The latter two countries were chosen because, as among various developed countries, those two have well developed school development planning programmes.

The comparison was made in the three aspects of human capacity, school budget allocation and control and accountability. This part of the literature study, as indicated in Chapter III, was not, however, made the basis of any empirical research, but because the discussion of those three themes of the chapter focused on school development planning, some of the questions that appear in the survey instruments were seen to be relevant to Chapter III.

The main conclusions were derived on the theoretical basis of this thesis as discussed in the relevant chapters, particularly in Chapter II, and on the empirical findings yielded in Chapter V. The conclusions drawn from the two components of the study are discussed below:
7.2 CONCLUSIONS

This thesis offers considered conclusions drawn from the results provided by the literature review and by the discussions of the empirical data. Both the theory and survey data confirm the perspective of school development planning as a group process. In order to reap maximum benefit from the potential input of staff, school heads should seek regular staff involvement in school development planning activities, and school policies should be arrived at only after a substantial period of discussion involving staff. This collaborative practice is necessary because as the ultimate implementers of curriculum and school development planning objectives in particular, staff need to be fully conversant with expectations of the objectives. This conclusion echoes the arguments of the majority of the survey respondents, and of authorities cited in the literature review such as Bottery (1992:179), Blanchard et al. (1986:84) in section 2.1 and of Peters (1976:66) and Bredeson (1996:245) in section 3.3.

Through regular consultation by the head, staff not only become acquainted with the objectives of the school development planning process, but also are likely to develop a sense of ownership of proposed innovations. Also, the collaboration of school head and staff can more easily generate the emergence of a clear focus leading to the direct implementation of objectives. However, it should be added that even the best articulated school development plan document which clarifies the procedures that guide staff, and even the most conscientious consultation with staff, cannot assure full support of school development planning implementation by all staff. It must be recognized that participation is an individual decision on the part of each member of staff.
The school development planning process should not be carried out in a vacuum. For it to win the support of staff, its aims should be clearly seen to relate to the prevailing aims of the school curriculum so that staff should understand why they should be involved in it, and how far an apparent innovation is an extension of what they are already doing. To facilitate this process, it should be mapped into the school curriculum and be understood as a strategy aimed at ‘doing better what we are already doing’. The conclusion on this aspect of school development planning is supported by Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994:2-3) and by Rogers (1994:12) whose perspectives are discussed in section 2.2 of this thesis and by empirical findings discussed in 6.4.1.

Teacher development for the efficient and effective implementation of school development planning goals is postulated as a critical factor whose priority school heads need to recognize clearly. Its neglect would be tantamount to neglecting school development planning as a process aimed at improving school performance through the improved knowledge and skills of teachers. The issue of the development of staff through inservice training was at the heart of the discussion on classroom supervision performance improvement. The enlisting of staff improvement programmes is the responsibility of school heads. The quoted views of Wideen and Andrews (1987:13) and Caldwell (1992:7) in section 2.3, and Dichame (1987:932) in section 1.6 and as well as the majority view of the respondents in the survey, as quoted in sub-section 5.3.1, add weight to this conclusion.

Teacher development at the school level can be achieved by enlisting school-based workshops conducted sometimes by the teachers themselves and sometimes by external personnel with some reputable professional standing. This
conclusion, which is argued in the literature review by such authors as Brooksbank and Anderson and Weinbach in sub-section 2.3.5 of this thesis received overwhelming support from the Botswana teachers and school heads who participated in the empirical survey. However, these Botswana respondents went on to stress that it is important that inservice training should be based on teachers’ needs as identified during classroom supervision, and also agreed by the teachers themselves. If inservice training is conducted in isolation from the teachers’ input, it risks the chance of not receiving their full support. Teachers may view it as an imposition and as having little or no relevance to their needs.

The need for teachers to keep current in their different fields by doing mini research projects was further suggested by a respondent to the survey as noted in sub-section 6.2.3 of this study.

Related to the development of teachers vis-à-vis the efficient and effective achievement of school development planning goals, is the school head’s professional development for similar objectives. Because the head’s general catalytic role in school development planning is to motivate, support and facilitate implementation, he/she needs inservice training, which is essential in order for him/her to adequately provide the needed professional services to the teachers he/she leads in the effort for change. The need for such training for heads was emphasized in sections 2.3, 3.5.1 of the literature review and again in the empirical data discussed in 6.2. But while it is expected that it is the responsibility of the employer to provide on-the-job training for school heads, the heads themselves should also initiate their own training in the job by enrolling in educational management courses with distance learning institutions, according to the authorities cited in sub-section 3.4.1.
The delegation of school tasks such as classroom supervision to senior teachers is imperative for school heads. Delegation, as discussed in previous chapters, is seen to serve two main purposes. Firstly, it gives the teacher doing delegated duties the opportunity to gain knowledge and experience in some areas, thereby developing in the job. Secondly, it relieves heads a small part of their increased responsibilities. Delegation for developmental reasons and for the relieving of responsibilities, as noted above, received strong support from both the empirical and theoretical sources of the research. The conclusions on this are set out in sub-sections 2.3.1 and 6.3.3 of this thesis.

Sub-section 6.4.1 synthesises empirical data from Botswana teachers and authorities cited in the literature review to highlight the fact that school development planning is necessarily a joint effort by teachers. To achieve such team work consultation and communication between head and teachers, and among teachers themselves must be made effective. The school head as the change agent and ‘driver’ of the school development planning implementation process plays a vital role in promoting cohesive teams among staff. Once this has been accomplished, efforts should be made to nurture it, for culture can be very elusive if not constantly nourished, developed and maintained.

Rewarding students for their hard work and good achievement is a form of recognition of which can have a motivational impact on their learning. Similarly, staff’s effort and achievements, if recognized, can also have motivational effects in their work. Again, both the literary sources (sub-section 2.5.5.4) and empirical data (sub-section 6.4.2) confirm that the reward and recognition strategies can help build a culture of hard work among both the teachers and the students in the school.
According to the teachers’ and heads’ responses described in Chapter V and discussed at the end of sub-section 6.4.4 of this thesis, schools find it difficult to achieve school cultures that promote hard work among students. Their efforts to do so are frustrated by students who come from different communities, with very different cultural norms, or who come from a given community where both adult and youth behaviour may be a problem. Two other factors further add to the difficulty of school culture building: the students’ stay at the secondary school (two years at the senior secondary and three years at the junior secondary school) is too brief for the building of an effective school culture. International comparison cited in Chapter III sub-section 3.6.3 complements the evidence adduced from respondents in Chapter V and discussed in sub-section 6.4.4 about the social problem underlying deviant behaviour in school.

The issue of conflict exposed a measure of agreement between the authorities reviewed and a good proportion of the Botswana teachers surveyed. Contrary to what the ‘man in the street’ may assume, conflict, if properly managed, may actually be productive, and this was recognized by many of these teachers, provided it was treated appropriately by heads in ways which were described in sub-sections 2.6.2 and 6.5.4 of this thesis.

In Chapter III (sub-sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2), the literature review revealed that in the UK and Australia, as people became more and more interested in the provision of education in those countries, they exerted pressure on their respective governments to improve the quality of the education systems. Their governments in many ways succumbed to such pressure and as a result important educational reforms were made, especially in critical areas such as the allocation
and control of school finances. Powers to run school budgets were devolved from central governments to schools. Schools in the two countries can now manage their budgets with more autonomy than before (sub-section 3.5.1). Because of the sufficient funds at their disposal and their flexible use, schools in the UK and Australia are more able to initiate inservice training courses for their teachers. However, as discussed in sub-section 3.5.1 in Botswana secondary schools, there are no funds specifically allocated to school development planning activities. Inservice training activities are externally provided for and the number of inservice training workshops that can be held in a year is limited (ibid.).

Ironically, without the control of the necessary resources that are critical to the efficient and effective implementation of school development planning, schools in Botswana are being required to account for the academic achievement of students. But students' achievement generally is influenced by a whole range of factors that were described in Chapter III sub-section 3.6.3 of this thesis which are beyond the control of schools. Both the UK and Australian school systems face similar problems, but have created a whole set of agencies which are not available in Botswana to help address the problem. Given the inadequate human, physical, financial resources, and other conditions that are beyond schools' control in Botswana, it is unfair to solely require schools to account for students' achievements.

The human capacity aspect was discussed in Chapter III (sub-section 3.1.1) in relation to teacher-shortage experienced in the classroom. In Botswana secondary schools there is a general shortage of trained teachers that further hampers the effective achievement of school development planning goals. This situation is at present more apparent in the junior secondary schools than in the senior
secondary. The literature review revealed that the UK and Australia have access to far greater supply of trained teachers. Teacher turn-over which also bedevils school development planning in Botswana is not a factor on the same scale there. Unlike in Botswana, these countries are self-sufficient in teacher-supply. What remains a constant in both the UK and Australia, however, is the need to regularly re-train teachers to cope with changing curriculum needs. Inservice training as a lifelong process is argued in the section on staff development (section 2.2) in this thesis, and is strongly supported in the survey of Botswana teachers. The teachers also perceive that there is a gap between pre-service teacher-training and what actually happens at the secondary school level.

The conclusions have implications for the improvement of the school head’s role in a school development planning process. On this basis the implications are made as recommendations in the next section.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section suggests ways that could be considered for action by the Botswana heads of secondary schools and the Ministry of Education in the light of the aims of this thesis - that were stated in Chapter I section 1.4 - in order to improve school performance through school development planning. The following recommendations that are derived from the empirical findings of the study and from the issues raised elsewhere in the literature survey carried out in this thesis are thus made. The recommendations have been linked to the role of the school head in school development planning with particular reference to staff development, classroom supervision, school culture building and conflict management.
7.3.1. Regular formal and informal interaction with teachers is an important aspect of management that needs to be practised by school heads. Such interaction helps provide an opportunity for staff to know each other better. As a subsequent to the informal interaction, collegiality or relations between the staff and the school head can be strengthened for maximum curriculum implementation and support for each other. The existence of teams in a school have a bearing on the well-being of the school and for the general education of the students. This recommendation is derived from the empirical findings discussed in sub-sections 6.4.1 and 6.4.2.

7.3.2. School heads should make staff development an integral part of the teaching process to widen the horizons of the teachers in the job and to improve their competencies. This could be achieved through inservice training, delegation, recommending deserving teachers for further studies and by encouraging teachers to learn from each other through regular collaboration. The recommendation emanates from arguments advanced in sections 2.2, 2.3. 6.4.1 and from the conclusion made in 7.2 of this thesis.

7.3.3. From the argument made in 6.2.1 of this thesis, it is recommended that school heads need to upgrade their academic qualifications and professional training by undertaking self-initiated studies in educational management with distance learning institutions. Their current roles require a combination of knowledge and skills. This is necessitated by the circumstances which surround their work i.e. circumstances which create changes in the way things have been previously done.
7.3.4. The division of teacher development in the Department of Secondary Education (Botswana) needs to regularly conduct needs assessment on school heads to determine those who need professional development most. This could be done in conjunction with the regional Chief Education Officers who directly supervise school heads. Initially, the needs assessment could be performed on the basis of school head’s current academic and professional qualifications. Those with lower qualifications could be given priority in this regard. While short-term courses lasting only two to three weeks are recommended, heads should as much as possible, be considered for support for higher qualifications than they presently have. Those without a degree qualification should be considered for both academic and professional training, while those with degrees, the concentration should be on professional training.

7.3.5. The current arrangement of upgrading school heads in the job through distance learning with the University of Bath (England) should be continued or a similar arrangement be made with the University of Botswana. The latter option is cheaper and can be more relevant to the needs of the recipients and those of the school system. Also, in terms of location, it can be more convenient to the head as student. The need to improve school heads’ academic qualifications is premised, on the belief (made in sub-section 3.4.1) that information and knowledge are important aspects that can make him/her more confident and involve others more in decisions on school development planning.

7.3.6. The school head should not only facilitate inservice training for teachers but should be an active participant as well. He/she should conduct some of the inservice training activities in order to enhance his/her credibility and that of the school development planning activities. His/her practical interest in staff
development programmes can provide an exemplary image of the school head and can serve as a motivation to the staff on school development planning implementation. This recommendation gets support from the respondents' views discussed in sub-section 6.2.4 of this thesis.

7.3.7. School heads should view classroom supervision as one of their chief responsibilities. It can help them ensure that school development planning implementation is on track. This is important because the required school head's accountability for students' achievement is centred around what takes place in the classroom (according to sub-sections 6.3.1 and 2.4.1 above).

7.3.8. Delegation, according to arguments made in sub-sections 2.3.1 and 6.3.3, has become imperative to school heads because their general and seemingly open-ended responsibilities, coupled with the expanded teachers' and students' enrolments, no longer allow them personally to do classroom supervision effectively. It is therefore recommended that the delegation of classroom supervision should be assigned to senior teachers who should in turn provide feedback on the exercise to the school head.

7.3.9. It is important that teachers are made to understand - by the school head - the pay-offs that classroom supervision can bring to them as well as to the whole school. If they did, they could cooperate more and resistance to implementation could be minimized. The view that supports part of this recommendation was explicitly argued in sub-section 2.4.2 of this thesis. Those delegated the function of classroom supervision should demonstrate, by their actions, that the process is not done to look for faults from the teacher but done to help improve his/her teaching.
7.3.10. According to the latter recommendation, Heads of Department and senior teachers who may be required to perform supervisory roles should be appropriately trained for these roles. Such training would help inject some professionalism into the whole process of supervision. This recommendation is derived from the point made in the last paragraph of sub-section 6.3.2 of this thesis.

7.3.11. There should be a feedback loop to classroom supervision in which the teacher and the supervisor discuss the results of the supervision (sub-section 2.4.2 refers) and a decision made on the nature of improvements to be made in the future.

7.3.12 School heads should encourage and create an opportunity for teachers to use a variety of teaching methods of their choice as long as they are appropriate to the different students' abilities and effective to the learning process. This would encourage teachers' imagination, innovativeness and learning through trial and error.

7.3.13 In order to encourage and promote an on-going culture of learning and research that this thesis has argued to be lacking among teachers, the Ministry of Education in Botswana should consider more objective criteria of promoting teachers that take cognizance of their recent contributions towards the improvement of education. The criteria should require teachers to update their curriculum vitae within a specified period of continuous teaching. The curriculum vitae update should reflect relevant written contribution in the teacher's subject or in its teaching. One way of achieving this could be by introducing subject journals
at national level, coordinated by a committee of teachers and overseen by subject specialists at headquarters. Teachers' annual awards and selection for further studies could be based on this requirement. In addition the system could be used to provide checks and balances for staff promotion. This recommendation is the researcher's view on how a culture of research could be encouraged among teachers.

7.3.14. Evidence from the literature study (section 1.1) and from the empirical findings discussion (sub-section 6.4.1) and from section 7.2 explicitly suggested that in order to change school culture successfully, it needs a sustained effort involving all staff. According to this view, it is recommended - to school heads - that before they can even think of changing old practices in the school and introduce new ones, they should first get the views of staff and other stakeholders in the school.

7.3.15 School heads should also motivate their staff and students in school improvement activities by publicly recognizing their efforts, and good performance as a way of promoting a culture of hard work in the school. School assemblies, annual prize-giving ceremonies and staff meetings are appropriate places to do this. Arguments made in sub-sections 2.5.5.4, 6.4.2 and section 7.2 support this recommendation.

7.3.16. New staff to a school need to know the procedures and policies of the school. These include procedures and policies regulating students' and teachers' behaviour in the school, department procedures or policies pertaining for example, to assignments, tests, book issues to students and teachers, teachers' and students' dress codes, leave procedures, open days for parents and so on.
The school head should therefore ensure that new teachers to the school are given an orientation exercise so that they should easily fit into the culture of the school. To this end, schools should keep updated staff hand-books and make them available to the new teacher. The recommendation is drawn from the discussion made in sub-section 2.5.5.1 of this thesis.

7.3.17. The school head should constantly review school development planning practice and search for new ways that can enhance team work that can get the whole school moving towards the same goals. This recommendation is derived from Holly and Hopkins' (1988) view made in sub-section 2.2.6 of this thesis.

7.3.18. As at other levels of learning in Botswana, public education is free at secondary schools. Books, feeding, boarding facilities and tuition fee are all provided free of charge. It is the researcher’s personal view that as a result of the free provision of education, some students and parents take schooling lightly and for granted. (The view is based on experience by the researcher as school head before and after free education was introduced). It may also not be a far fetched conclusion that because government almost entirely pays for the student’s education, some parents expect that equally, schools should solely take full responsibility of the student’s behaviour. To make parents and even students to adopt a more serious approach towards schooling, it is recommended that free education be abolished. At least the parent can be able to say to a truant child ‘you are wasting my money’. A second recommendation derived from the concern on lack of support by parents to schools on discipline cases is made below.
7.3.19. Following the above recommendation, parents and not government as is the case currently, should send their children to school. This means that parents should be required to register their children with the school by entering into a binding contract with the school that they will be responsible and accountable for the child’s behaviour for the duration the child is enrolled with the school. Such an undertaking should be provided for in the student’s admission form. This recommendation and the one preceding it are derived from concerns made by respondents in section 5.5 and which were discussed in sub-section 6.4.4.

7.3.20. According to the arguments advanced in sub-sections 2.6.2 and 2.6.4.2, school heads should in their approach to conflict situations, first determine the reasons that trigger conflict before attempting its resolution. It would be ideal if conflict is not to be harmful to the implementation of school activities, to allow teachers to resolve their differences without undue intervention from heads because, as noted from the theoretical discussion and empirical findings, conflict can trigger from members, progressive ideas for school improvement.

7.3.21. Following the problems of lack of funds for school development planning in Botswana secondary schools discussed in sub-section 3.5.1 of this thesis, it is recommended that sufficient funds should be provided to schools by the Ministry of Education in order for them to plan for school-based inservice training much more effectively.

7.3.22. For school heads to be fully required to account for the performance of their schools, the Ministry of Education should provide them with adequate and trained personnel and other resources that enhance performances. The shifting of
blame by schools on to other factors for non-performance can therefore be eliminated or minimized. Discussions made in sub-sections 3.5.1 and 3.6.1 support this recommendation.

Although the recommendations made above do not emanate from an action research approach, it is hoped that they will add to the body of literature on the subject and that school heads, particularly, will have access to the recommendations and find them useful to their managerial practice.

7.4 CLOSING REMARKS
School development planning is an inquiry rather than a hard and fast formula. Its success is determined in part by collaboration between all those involved in school activities, the school head and the staff particularly. A view by Reitzug and Burrello (1995:51) which states: We need one another's ideas for stimulation, and we need one another's perspective to enrich our own should be the guiding principle to heads in driving school development planning implementation. The collaborative approach to school development planning which was the dominant view from both the literature review and empirical findings and highlighted in the main conclusion of this thesis, is further underlined by Hicks (1993:23) thus: The change facilitator's role is to hook the philosophy of the instructional innovation on to previous knowledge that the teacher has stored. The teachers construct the meaning themselves. It is not poured in from the expert source. In short, this perspective which recognizes teachers' ability, advocates the model of a school head who is seen by staff as a facilitator of the implementation process rather than one who is seen as the final word. This point embraces general arguments made in respect of the head's behaviour in his/her approach to the four themes that form this thesis.
This thesis has been ambitious in trying to draw together four themes, each of them a major area of educational research with a substantial international literature, but all of them indispensable to the understanding of an aspect of educational management which has immeasurable implications for the life of every single secondary school in Botswana. The literature on the wide range of educational issues in this new and developing country is at present minuscule, but it is hoped that future researchers will find it possible to build on some of the ideas in these four areas which have been researched in this thesis.

School development planning being such an essential exercise in the improvement of performance in schools, its implementation needs to be evaluated. This would determine among other things, the extent to which heads have been successful in its implementation, that is, their ability to foster staff development programmes and their ability to motivate their staff to actively participate in the implementation process, the extent of support given to schools by the relevant departments in the Ministry of Education, and what needs further doing in order to improve the implementation exercise. Future research could be considered along these lines.
APPENDIX I

Research Topic: A School Development Plan - The Role of the School Head in:

• Staff development.
• Classroom supervision
• School culture building
• Conflict management

Kindly respond to the questions below. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Your name is not needed.

Instructions on how to respond to the questions.

(a) Please consider each item thoroughly and circle only one response.
(b) Where information is sought use the space provided to answer.

Please answer all the questions.

Name of school

Male or Female (Male = 1, Female = 2)

Present post held

Teaching Experience (including outside Botswana)
How important are the following indicators for judging the role of the school head in a school development plan?

Ranking Key:

1 = Not applicable
2 = Not so important
3 = Important
4 = Essential

Indicators

1. Fostering the professional growth of less trained teachers only
   1  2  3  4

2. Fostering the professional growth of more trained teachers only
   1  2  3  4

3. Fostering the professional growth of both the less trained and the more trained teachers
   1  2  3  4

4. Developing himself/herself
   1  2  3  4
5. Relying on school-based workshops to develop teachers

6. Relying only on inservice training that leads to higher qualification

7. Using both long and short term courses for staff development

8. Encouraging collaboration across departments

9. Encouraging collaboration among teachers

10. Basing in-service courses on assessed needs

11. Basing staff development on the individual teacher's length of service

12. Introducing many innovations at the same time

13. Involving teachers for whom inservice training is being conducted in selecting the topics for the workshop

14. Working with teachers to develop policies for the school

15. Regular review of school goals with teachers

16. Efforts to cope with conflicts between staff
17. Exercising instructional leadership............................ 1  2  3  4
18. Frequent evaluation of the
implementation of the development
plan with teachers.............................................. 1  2  3  4
19. Avoiding conflicts between teachers ......................... 1  2  3  4
20. Ignoring troublesome teachers at meetings................ 1  2  3  4
21. Fostering high morale in the school......................... 1  2  3  4
22. Creating an environment that is
conducive to teaching and learning.......................... 1  2  3  4
23. Tapping talent from good teachers
for the benefit of other teachers............................ 1  2  3  4

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?
Circle only one response to each statement.

Ranking key
1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Uncertain
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

24. The way the school head relates
to staff influences the way teachers
will relate to students........................................ 1  2  3  4  5
25. If the head gives teachers responsibility, they will take over the running of the school.

26. The delegation of tasks to teachers is a sign of weakness by the head.

27. It is abdication of duties by the head to delegate responsibilities to teachers.

28. Conflict must be eliminated. Managing it is a waste of time.

29. Teachers are professionals. There is no need for them to be supervised in their classes.

30. The supervision of teachers by the head or somebody delegated to do so helps develop teachers in their job.

31. Matters of curriculum are the sole business of the curriculum designers. Teachers should be left to do what they know better, to teach.

32. The sharing of materials, information and experiences among teachers enhances students' performance.

33. High staff turnover helps bring into the school new cultures that can improve school performance.
34. The head’s classroom supervision is an interference with the teacher’s classroom autonomy.

35. Trained teachers need minimal staff development since they are already qualified to teach.

36. Only effective teachers should be selected into school committees.

37. The classroom supervision of teachers ought to be done by the head of the department more than by the school head.

38. For a school head to be effective he/she should practise only one style of leadership irrespective of the circumstances in order not to confuse his/her subordinates.

I thank you very much for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire.
# APPENDIX II

Presentation of findings from appendix 1 (closed responses)

## FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Important</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>essential</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX III

Research Topic: A School Development Plan - The Role of the School Head in:

- Staff development
- Classroom supervision
- School culture building
- Conflict management

Kindly answer the questions that follow. Utmost anonymity will be observed. Your name is not required. Please try to answer all questions and be as frank as possible. The questionnaire should not take more than 50 minutes to complete.

1. Teachers already possess teaching skills from their preservice training. There is no need therefore for them to undergo inservice training.

Briefly give your view on this statement.

2. What do you think is (I) the major advantage and (ii) the major disadvantage of a staff development programme that involves:

(a) A teachers’ workshop conducted by a fellow teacher in the same school?
(b) A teachers’ workshop conducted by a consultant (someone who has a good reputation in the area covered by the workshop)?
3. It is sometimes held that it is the school head’s duty to personally supervise classroom teaching, and that asking someone else to do it for him/her is an abdication of duty. What is your view on this assertion?

4. Mention any two benefits that a teacher can get by performing delegated duties.

(a)

(b)
5. Mention any two benefits that a school head can get by delegating supervisory duties to teachers.

(a) ................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................

(b) ................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................

6. Heads of departments need the least supervision in their work. Do you agree or disagree?
   Briefly explain why you agree and/or disagree with the statement.
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
7. Teachers who have the longest service in the job need the least supervision. Do you agree or disagree?
Briefly give reasons for your agreement or disagreement.

8. Beginning teachers need the most supervision. Do you agree or disagree?
Briefly explain why you agree or disagree with the statement.

9. All teachers need to be supervised irrespective of their length of service in the job. Do you agree or disagree?
Briefly explain your response below.
10. Give two major reasons why classroom supervision by the head or by someone delegated is important or not important.

(a) ...........................................................................................................................................................................

(b) ...........................................................................................................................................................................

In respect of the above definitions of school culture, **suggest and describe** two ways in which a school head can help promote effective teaching in the school.

(a)

(b)

12. Consider the following situation. A secondary school head is transferred to another secondary school. He/She finds out that the teachers there have a close working relation. But in his/her opinion the way things are done there does not promote effective learning. If this head tried to change the way things are being
done at his/her new school immediately, what do you think the reaction of the staff at the new school would be and why?

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

13. If you were the new head in 12. above, what steps would you take to change the situation, if indeed it needed to be changed?

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

14. What in your view are the main causes of conflict between teachers in schools? Mention only two.

(a)........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
15. Handy (1994:300) defines conflict as disagreement on ideologies between two or more people. In respect of this definition of conflict, what is your view on the following statement? **Conflicts between teachers should not be allowed. The school head must intervene immediately when he/she notices a conflict situation developing.**

16. You may wish to make additional comments on the role of the school head in:

(a) Staff development

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................
(b) Classroom supervision

..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................

(c) School culture building

..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................

(d) Conflict Management

..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................

KINDLY RETURN THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE SAME TEACHER WHO GAVE IT TO YOU THE FIRST TIME.

I THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR VALUABLE TIME AND COOPERATION IN PROVIDING THIS VALUABLE INFORMATION.
APPENDIX IV

Analysis plan - Open-ended questionnaire (APPENDIX III)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Summary of Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(1) ........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................

2.(a) Advantage
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................

Disadvantage
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................................................
(b)

Advantage

...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................

Disadvantage

...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................

3 ...................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................

4.(a)

...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................
10. (a) 

(b) 

11. (a) 

(b)
(b) Classroom supervision

(c) School culture building

(d) Conflict management
APPENDIX V: Letter to school head.

Private Bag 001
Moshupa

Dear School Head,

This letter follows my discussion with you last time on the research inquiry I am carrying out on school development planning.

I kindly ask you to identify a suitable teacher from your staff or deputy head and ask him/her to administer the enclosed research instruments to other teachers on my behalf. This teacher should be preferably one who has demonstrated commitment and has a fair knowledge in school development planning. The enclosures are:

Appendix I: A closed questionnaire.
Appendix III: An open questionnaire.
Appendix VI: Letter to the research coordinating teacher.

Also, kindly ask a second teacher (or deputy head if not already identified above), who is also active in school development issues, and the school staff development coordinator to be participants in the research inquiry. You are also being asked to participate in the completion of the questionnaires. Please give the names of the staff development coordinator and the second teacher you have chosen to the teacher selected to administer the research instruments.

I THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION IN ADVANCE.

Yours faithfully

B. Moswela.

Date ............
APPENDIX VI: Letter to the research coordinating teacher

Private Bag 001
Moshupa

Dear Mr./Mrs./Miss

Your school head has given your name as one who has accepted to administer questionnaires to selected staff in the school on my behalf. I thank you for your kind acceptance and for using your valuable time to do this exercise for me.

1. APPENDIX I is to be completed by all the respondents. The respondents are yourself, the school head, the staff development coordinator and the other teacher whose name has been given to you by the school head.

2. This letter is sent marked CATEGORY A or B. If marked A, distribute APPENDIX III to all the four respondents for completion. Then return it together with APPENDIX I using the enclosed pre-postage envelope.

3. If this letter is marked CATEGORY B, it means some of the respondents in your school will complete APPENDIX III and some will keep it for the interview. The appendix, for example will be marked in pencil ‘staff development coordinator’ ‘interview’. In this case it means the staff development coordinator should keep it for the interview. The date of the interview will be communicated to you in a few days. Please return the completed APPENDICES I and III using the pre-postage envelope enclosed.

ONCE MORE I THANK YOU FOR YOUR VALUABLE ASSISTANCE.

Yours faithfully

B. Moswela.

Date ...............
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Butterworth Heinemann.

OBrien, P W (1979). Education and Administration In An Era Of Change,
Pivot. 6(1):4-9.


New York: Longman.


Educational.

London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Proudford, C and Baker, R (1994). Looking at School Improvement From a


Rogers, R (1994). *How to Write a School Development Plan.* London:
Heinemann Educational.


