THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO PLANNING, ORGANISING, LEADING AND
CONTROL AS THE MANAGERIAL TASKS OF THE BLACK HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

by

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SUMMARY

In this study the problem concerning the contingency approach to the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal was investigated by means of literature study, interviews and observations. As a result the problems and challenges facing the Black principal were identified.

The managerial tasks of the principal in the South Africa of the 1990's were identified and defined. It became clear that these tasks are performed under changing situational contingencies. The contingency approach, its basis, what it entails and its importance in the RSA of today was described. When the contingency approach was related to the managerial tasks, it became clear that under one set of circumstances one type of leadership style is effective.

Interviews and observations were conducted in certain schools and with certain principals. Research findings revealed that the Black high school principal should be flexible in the face of many contingencies facing him.
I declare that THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO PLANNING, ORGANISING, LEADING AND CONTROL AS THE MANAGERIAL TASKS OF THE BLACK HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL 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.

Signature: .................................................. Date: ..................................................

(L.B. Dlamini)
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CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1. INTRODUCTION

The well-known international economist, Charles Kindleberger, was fond of telling his students that the answer to any really engrossing question in economics is "It depends" (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 46). 'It depends' is an appropriate response to important questions in educational management as well. The management task of the principal depends also on the situation.

Duminy and Steyn (1985: 17) see the situation as "the totality of the data and circumstances in which he (man) is placed and finds himself . . . man's situation then, precedes his thinking and actions". Webster's New World Dictionary (1966: 1364) defines situation as "the combination of circumstances at any given moment".

It is clear that the principal as 'man' is not working in a vacuum. He is situation bound. According to Atkinson, Wyatt and Senkhane (1993: 74) "... the most important variable which should determine the leader's (principal's) behaviour is the nature of the situation in which he/she finds himself/herself".

It is already asserted that the management task of the principal depends on the situation. According to Webster's New World Dictionary (1966: 393) to 'depend' means to "be contingent upon". To put it otherwise : The management task of the principal is contingent upon the situation.

The approach that essentially focuses on the inter-dependence of the various factors involved in the managerial situation is the contingency approach (Stoner and Wankel 1986: 45). These authors (1986:46) define the contingency approach as follows: "According to the contingency approach, then, the task of the manager is to identify which technique will, in a particular situation, under particular circumstances and at a particular time, best contribute to the attainment of managerial goals". The contingency approach is the more recent viewpoint that argues that appropriate managerial action depends on the particular parameters of the situation (Bartol and Martin 1991:67).

According to this approach, the principal should not only manage the school, but also the situation. The evidence indicates that under one set of circumstances, one type of leader is effective, under another set of circumstances, however, a different type of leader would be more effective.

Carlisle (in Koontz & O'Donnell 1976: 23) has the following to say in this regard: "There is no one best way to plan; there is no one best way to lead; there is no one best way to organise a group; and there is no one best way to control the activities of the organisation". Van Schalkwyk, et al (1986: 96) also aver: "There is no single method of organizing, administering or managing a school". Van der Westhuizen (1991: 80) further clarifies the point when he concluded: "... therefore no general way of managing is applicable to all situations".

From the above statements one may conclude that there is no universal style of managing. It is also clear that management depends on the situation, hence the contingency approach.
2. ACTUALITY OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Koopman, Nasser & Nel (1988: 142) warn that some managers are unable or unwilling to make the necessary adjustments to their structures. This also applies to principals as educational managers. Educational managers are quick to point out that the success over the past (twenty) years has been due to structures (autocratic) and centralised management - so why should it change now? The reality, of course, is that success from the past is no predictor of success in the future (Koopman, et al 1988: 142). According to Hoberg (1993: 65) research of current literature shows that the role of the principal is presently undergoing a significant change. The contingency approach will thus help prevent the management styles of principals from becoming irrelevant and unacceptable.

The principalship today is different and much more difficult than it was a decade ago. The challenges have changed and organisations are discovering that the old way of doing things no longer works (Koopman, et al 1988: 142). It is therefore clear that there is a great need for principals to have their management styles adapted to the demands of the situation.

With the advent of a 'new' South Africa, where sudden and unpredictable change in ingrained traditions, attitudes, social structures and even legislation is the order of the day, it is becoming increasingly clear that the school principal's main concern should not simply be the maintenance of the school's organisational structure or the adjustment of the management processes in the school. According to Hoberg (1993: 65) a novel approach to principalship and leadership is called for.

The management functions of planning, organising, leading and control are continually performed in changing conditions (Cronje & Smith 1992: 24). According to these authors management environment is characterised by increasing instability, environmental uncertainty and complexity of the environment. Educationists such as Gorton, Musaazi and others (in Ngeengo 1986: 53) and Hoberg (1993: 69) maintain that a school is not an independent or isolated entity. This therefore means that a school exists in an uncertain environment and the principal must be fully aware of that environment.

It can never be overlooked that principals have many interactions with the environments of their schools. As Koontz & O'Donnell (1976: x) put it: "It would be foolish indeed for managers not to consider their need to interact with the entire external environment in which every manager operates". Clearly principals cannot perform their tasks well unless they have an understanding of, and are responsive to the elements of the situation. It is certainly not easy to satisfy all the requirements of the situation, and this is where the calibre of the true leader is subjected to a crucial test.

The contingency approach enables the educational manager to see critical variables and constraints and their interaction with one another. It forces the practitioners in the field of educational management to be constantly aware that one single element, phenomenon or problem should not be treated without regard for its interacting consequences with other elements (Koontz & O'Donnell 1976: 19).
These truths confront the high school principal, and specifically the Black high school principal, with specific challenges. Today's school principals face a task - a challenge - that they be creative in their approaches to planning, organising, leadership and control. Summing up, Koonzt and O'Donnell (1976: 26) maintain "... effective management is always contingency or situational management".

Before stating the problem and research, a few problems and challenges facing the Black high school principal will be addressed. Education in former black schools is facing a number of problems which present challenges to the Black high school principals in South Africa. Some of these problems will be discussed.

2.1 Pupil-teacher ratio

It is well-known that Black schools are overcrowded (Christie 1985: 114). There are shortages of classrooms and teachers. The class sizes in Black schools are much larger than the class sizes for other racial groups. From personal observation of the researcher, in some Black schools the ratio is 1:70. This makes the Black teachers to work overtime in normal time. Individualised instruction has become difficult for Black teachers. This is due to overcrowded classes.

2.2 Curriculum

The curriculum in Black schools is inadequate. Mncwabe (1990:22) expresses deep concern about rote learning, lack of the broadening of the mind, lack of encouragement given to pupils to develop initiative and skills of independent thinking. The conditions which exist in Black schools make effective transmission of knowledge, proper development of skills and acquisition of understanding and insight by pupils difficult to attain (Mncwabe 1990: 40). Christie (1985:154) avers that Black students are not active - they simply 'receive' the knowledge which teachers 'deposit' in their minds. Paul Freire (in Christie 1985: 154) has called this system the "banking system of education".

The new proposed uniform curriculum has been developed since 1991 by the Committee of Heads of Education Departments. According to the Government Gazette White Paper (1995: 22) the curriculum, teaching methods and textbooks at all levels and in all programmes of education and training, should encourage independent and critical thought, the capacity to question, enquire, reason, weigh evidence and form judgements, achieve understanding, recognise the provisional and incomplete nature of most human knowledge, and communicate clearly. In this way the problem could be solved.
2.3 Unqualified teachers

Many Black teachers are un- or underqualified and few teachers have university degrees. In his address at the Conference of Professors at the World Peace Academy of South Africa, Professor Thembe la (1987: 12) said:

"The bottomline of Black education today is that pupils know that they exist in an environment in which they cannot be competent in their school subjects. The pupils know that their teachers are unable, for a variety of reasons to do anything about it". The teachers' inadequacy is multiplied many times when they must serve many children at once in the rural areas, and in some urban areas children who have lost self-control and abandon the necessary acceptance of authority. This inadequacy is most of the time a result of being un- or underqualified.

2.4 Poor results

The number of Black students reaching matric has increased greatly in recent years. However, the matric exemptions are not keeping pace with the number of candidates. This disparity is at the root of many of the complaints about the Black matric examination (Christie 1985: 110).

2.5 Student uprising

The political and social conditions in the country have produced a 'new generation' of students. The principal is now faced with students who are demanding that he should do this and that. They are telling him how to manage, how to teach, what to teach and when to teach. It is a crisis in a period of crises and crisis-solving. In his address at the KwaZulu Inspectors' Conference, the Minister of Education and Culture, Mshali (1991: 10) stated that political agitation is mounted by activists. School buildings are vandalised and furniture, books and equipment are destroyed. Schools have become battlegrounds for political philosophies. Ngcobo's opinion (in Mlambo 1989: 71) is that in black education there seems to be a great conflict which, if not urgently and intelligently resolved may lead to serious educational re-percussions. Emphasizing the difficult role of the principal, Wood, Nicholson and Findley (1985: 50) stated: "Principals have a tremendous stake in political environments".

2.6 Poor facilities

Many Black schools are in chronic need of repair. Buildings and equipment are of poor quality. Facilities like libraries and laboratories are inadequate - or not there at all. These problems are particularly worse in rural areas. Obviously, the shortage of funding explains some of these problems. There are shortages of classrooms for Black children and disparities in the supply of textbooks exist. Teaching materials/aids are not sufficient.

2.7 Drop-outs

There is a high drop-out rate amongst Black children. This means that very few Black children get to Standard 10. In their study Jacobson, Logsdon and Weigman (1973: 209) identified lower socio-economic status for students and schools' pressures for conformity as the causes for drop-outs. Many other factors contribute to dropping out of school. The teacher, the school program, lack of motivation, and the social climate - all these effect pupil drop-out.
2.8 Teacher militancy
Teacher organisations have become militant. Of late they are taking to the streets 'toy-toying'. Children in many schools are already very demotivated. The problem of demotivated students presents another challenge for the principal. Teachers are resorting to 'sit-ins' and 'chalk-downs'. These are reported cases where principals are intimidated, sjambokked and ordered at gun-point to leave the school premises. While most principals express the desire to be and remain educational leaders within the school community, they are under increasing pressures which appear to be making this questionably feasible.

2.9 Demographic problems
Students have to walk long distances to and from school, sometimes in severe heat or cold or rain and storm. There are cases reported of pupils walking more than 10km a day to and from school. This is due to transport problems. These problems may be the cause of late-coming and even absenteeism by students.

2.10 Underqualified principals
Most Black principals lack adequate academic and professional training in educational management. The research findings by Maake (1990: 180) demonstrate that the principals' qualifications are not in keeping with the position they occupy, that is, very few have senior degrees. This idea is also stressed by Atkinson et al (1993: 2) when they state that principals come to principalships without the benefit of formal training and rarely receive any further training. They ascend the promotional ladder and perform the tasks for which they received no initial training (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 3).

2.11 The cultural character of schools
According to Terblanche (in Basson & Smith 1991: 30) the current scene in South Africa as it has evolved, presents a number of challenges which affect the provision of education. South Africa is in the process of great change which will surely affect the provision and management of education. The monocultural character of many schools is changing to a multicultural character (Van Schalkwyk, undated: 8). This will inevitably bring about important challenges to education as well as management thereof.

2.12 Other problems
Other problems like high crime rate, and mutual mistrust creates unspeakable frustration for students and teachers. The recourse to severe corporal punishment by some teachers may be a mechanism adopted by them to survive in extremely difficult situations. According to Thembela (1985: 7) the insistence by principals on matters as the keeping of records, plenty of written work and tests which teachers have no hope of ever marking efficiently because of the numbers, is not helpful in improving the quality of education.

All these problems add up to a situation in which former Black schools are functioning at an extremely low level of productivity. The problems discussed above set demands on school management. Duane, Bridgeland and Stern (undated: 212) conclude: "Principals are under pressure".
The main question of this study is: Can the contingency approach to managerial tasks help the Black high school principal resolve the problems he is facing? The problem of this study will be stated in the light of the above discussion.

3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Will the contingency approach to the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal help to solve some of the problems mentioned above? This question indicates the nature of the problem and this study. This question can be divided into four components or sub-questions, namely:

3.1 **What are the important managerial tasks of the Black high school principal in the South Africa of the 1990's?** This question gives rise to sub-questions like, for example:
* What are these managerial tasks?
* Why are these tasks regarded as important for the Black high school principal?
* What are the key areas in which the principal should mainly carry out these management tasks?

3.2 **What entails the contingency approach?** This question can be divided into the following sub-questions like, for example:
* On what premises is the contingency approach based?
* Can this approach be seen as a leading branch of educational management thought today?
* Is this approach the only authentic way to study educational management?
* Why are some critics against this approach?

3.3 **How can the Black high school principal use this approach to help him with his managerial tasks?**
This question gives rise to more questions like, for example:
* What are the common situational characteristics of the school?
* What are the situational contingencies influencing the principal's management tasks?
* Why can this approach be regarded as useful at this time in the history of our country?
* Can this approach help the Black principal maintain flexibility to meet change in the face of the inflexibility built into the operation and environment of the school?
* How can this approach be used to solve the problems he is facing?

3.4 **What are the conclusions and recommendations in regard to the use of the contingency approach to planning, organising, leading and control as managerial tasks of the Black high school principal?**

4. AIMS OF STUDY

In order to address the above questions, the following are the aims of the study:

4.1 **To describe the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal in the South Africa of the 1990's.** As the title suggests, this work will describe planning, organisation, leading and control as the four key managerial functions.
4.2 To describe the contingency approach and to explain why this approach is so important during this time in the history of our country.

4.3 To identify the situational contingencies that influence effective school management and their implications for choosing a management style and to explore how the Black high school principal can use this approach to help him with his managerial tasks.

4.4 To make some conclusions and recommendations regarding the contingency approach to planning, organising, leading and control as the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal.

5. METHODS OF STUDY

To explore how the Black high school principal can use the contingency approach to help him with his managerial tasks, a literature study, interviews and observations (refer to the appendix) will be used. These methods will be aimed at determining and investigating the principal's management role and solving certain management problems that may be found in the Black high schools by using the contingency approach.

The purpose of literature study, according to Swanepoel & Mulder (1989: 28) is to "obtain information relating to assumptions, hypotheses and definitions, ascertain the latest research findings about the subject in question; study interpretations of other researchers which can facilitate one's own interpretation, and, determine the significance and usefulness of one's findings". According to Ngccongo (1986: 152) literature study enables the researcher to be sharply aware of the nature of the problem. Literature to be studied will include secondary sources like textbooks, encyclopedias, dissertations and theses; and primary sources like constitutions, minutes, diaries, laws, commission reports, newspaper reports and magazines.

Kellinger (1966: 467), about interviews, comments: "The interview is probably man's oldest and most often-used devise for obtaining information . . . when used with a well-conceived schedule, an interview can obtain a great deal of information, it is flexible and adaptable to individual situations". The interviews may be structured or unstructured. In the structured interview, the questions, their sequence and their wording are fixed (Kellinger 1966: 469). Unstructured interviews are much more flexible and open and the content, sequence and wording of the question is in the hands of the interviewer (Kellinger 1966: 469). It is important that interviews should be carefully planned. The interviews in this study will take both structured and unstructured forms.

Kellinger (1966: 468) comments about the shortcoming of the interview: "Interviews take a lot of time. Getting information from one individual may take as long as an hour or even two. This large time investment cost effort and money". For this reason the number of interviews in this study will be limited to two or three schools in the following areas: Msinga, Bergville, Pietermaritzburg, Durban and Empangeni. The aim will be soliciting opinions and perceptions of principals themselves on their tasks.
Observation is another method of research which is qualitative. There is more in observation than being a passive spectator. You have to decide beforehand where you are going to look, what are you going to look for and how to record what you see and hear (University of Western Cape, undated: 29). In this regard, Kellinger (1966: 504) adds that the social scientist must also observe human behaviour, but he must be dissatisfied with the inadequacy of uncontrolled observations. He seeks reliable and objective observations from which he can draw valid inferences. Observations may be casual (eyeball inspection of what is happening); participant (observer having a defined and active role in what is happening); and systematic (employing pre-arranged categories) (University of Western Cape, undated: 29).

The aim will be to observe different situational contingencies that affect the principal's management task and how principals respond to these contingencies.

Having given remarks on the methods to be used, the methods to be used for each of the research aims will be spelt out.

5.1 **Literature study will be used to describe:**
- The managerial tasks of the Black high school principal in the South Africa of the 1990's. Areas of educational management will also be studied, e.g. staff, pupils, extramural activities, academic teaching and parent involvement.
- What is entailed in the contingency approach.

5.2 **Interviews will be conducted to:**
- Elicit additional information on the importance of this approach to educational management.

5.3 **Observation will be used to:**
- Identify the situational contingencies of the schools and their management. The areas of interest in this regard will be perceptions of discipline in given schools, student activities, decision making styles, administrative styles, attitudes towards teachers, perceptions of school policy and vandalism, communication channels, teachers burn-out, climate within the school, and subordinate characteristics. The three forms of observation i.e. casual, participant and systematic will be used to observe these aspects. They will be observed in these areas: Matubatuba, Madenedi, Eslcourt and Ladysmith and mainly Msinga.

5.4 The researcher, having been a high school teacher for nine years in Black schools uses his personal experience too.
6. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

6.1 Contingency approach
According to this approach each situation requires a different management approach and therefore no general way of managing is applicable to all situations (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 80). Hoy and Miskel (1982: 235) have the following to say: ". . . the contingency theories maintain that leadership effectiveness depends on the fit between personality characteristics of the leader and the situational variables such as task structure, position power, and subordinate skills and attitudes. There is no 'best' leadership style". It is therefore clear that the contingency approach maintains that the management style of the principal depends on the existing contingencies of the situation.

6.2 Leadership
It is a process of influencing the activities and behaviour of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation (Musazi 1982: 52). Mkhize (1980: 14) defines leadership as the behaviour of an individual that initiates changes within a social system: changes in either its goals or in the way the social system tries to achieve its goals. Leadership, therefore, is the act of influencing and directing the behaviour and activities of others towards the attainment of the desired goal.

6.3 Planning
Marx (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 137) defines planning as "the management task which is concerned with deliberately reflecting on the objectives of the organisation, the resources, as well as the activities involved, and drawing up the most suitable plan for effectively achieving these objectives". A plan is concerned with the question of how a goal may be achieved (Dekker, Van Wyk, Conradie & Calitz 1986: 53). From the above, it is clear that planning is the reflection on what to do, when, how and where to do it, and by whom it should be done.

6.4 Organising
According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 162) organising is a management task that subdivides tasks and allots them to specific people so that educative teaching may be realised in an orderly manner. Stoner & Wankel (1986: 243) define organising as the process of making the organisation's structure fit with its objectives, its resources and its environment. It is therefore clear that organising is the arrangement of activities so that they are performed by right people, in the right time and at the right place in an orderly manner.

6.5 Control
Stoner and Wankel (1986: 574) define control as the process through which managers assure that actual activities conform to planned activities. Control is the work a manager does to assess and regulate work in progress and completed. Control is the manager's means of "checking up" (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 216). Control is thus necessary to ensure that the actual performance is in keeping with the set objectives.
6.6 Leadership styles
These are various patterns of behaviour favoured by leaders during the process of directing and influencing subordinates. Traditionally, leadership styles have been classified as only autocratic, democratic and laissez faire. However, recently it has become clear there can be no watertight division of leadership styles. One person may vary leadership styles depending on the contingencies of the situation.

6.7 Effectiveness
It is the ability to determine appropriate objectives: "doing the right things" (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 689). In other words effectiveness in educational management implies the ability of the principal to manage correctly in the school situation.

6.8 Situational contingencies
These are the elements of the situation which determine the style of management the educational manager can use. Situational contingencies are the situational variables that cause one style of leadership to be more effective than others (Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 528).

6.9 Black school principal
Cawood and Gibbon (1980: 5) see the principal as an "administrative and organisational leader and the instructional leader of a school and a staff team". Therefore the Black principal is "the member of a dark-skinned race" (Cassel's Concise English Dictionary 1992: 133) who heads the former racially based, segregated DET school and are today working under the National Department of Education. They are in charge of the majority at schools in the new dispensation.

6.10 Former Black high school
The high school in this study, refers to the standards 6 to 10 level of a school. The former Black high school refers to the former racially based, segregated DET schools that were meant for Black students only. This was caused by the Group Areas Act and other racial policies originally followed in South Africa. It is, however important to note that in the new South Africa there are no schools that are officially meant for Black pupils only. In spite of this fact, the former Black-only schools are still in the most cases used by Black pupils only.

7. ORGANISATION OF STUDY

This study will be organised as follows:
Chapter 2 presents the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal in the South Africa of the 1990's. Those tasks include the four planning, organising, leading and control. This is necessary to place into clear perspective the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal today. Also the areas of educational management will be discussed as well as a discussion of why these tasks are so important.
Chapter 3 presents what is entailed in the contingency approach. This is considered necessary because many times this discussion will clearly show its debt to the contingency perspective, which underlies much of this research.

Chapter 4 deals with how can the Black high school principal use the contingency approach to help him with his managerial tasks. Van Schalkwyk (undated: 2) maintains that schools can only fulfill their tasks when they are effectively managed. Hence this work will attempt to explore how can the Black high school principal use the contingency approach to make his management effective.

Chapter 5 presents the conclusions and recommendations. Conclusions from the whole study and recommendations will be made.

Appendix presents research methods and findings, list of principals referenced, schools discussed, questions asked, etc.
CHAPTER 2
MANAGERIAL TASKS OF THE BLACK HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IN THE SOUTH AFRICA OF THE 1990's

1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter an introductory orientation into the topic under research has been given. It was also implied that education in South Africa today is in crisis and that Black principals are in a particularly problematic and invidious position. The problems facing the Black high school principals predict the challenges lying ahead. According to Listowell (in Maake 1990: 13) Julius Nyerere of Tanzania regards the school principals as "lifting levers" and as such "they must remain below and bear the whole weight of masses to be lifted". It is also relevant to expect the Black principals to be the lifting levers in the new South African education. Therefore, this chapter will investigate the main managerial tasks that are considered important for the Black 'lifting lever' of the South Africa of the 1990's. These main tasks are planning, organising, leading, and control. There seems to be consensus amongst most authors that these four tasks are the main or basic management (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 45). In this research we also regard these tasks as the main tasks of management. These subtasks of these main tasks will also be discussed. A part from the management functions, these are also managerial areas where the contingency approach is appreciated.

2. PLANNING

In this section the focus will be on the specific elements of the planning process and the closely related processes like goal definition, decision making, problem solving and policy making.

2.1 What is planning?

Marx (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 137) regards planning as the management task which is concerned with deliberately reflecting on the objectives of the organisation, the resources, as well as the activities involved, and drawing up the most suitable plan for effectively achieving these objectives. Teichler (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 138) sees planning as a reflection of a basic or theoretical manner, policy, rules, procedures, strategies, methods, skills and expertise by the educational leader to achieve and realise educational aims and objectives through people and resources. A plan is concerned with the question of how a goal may be achieved (Dekker, et al 1986: 53). Hodgets (in Maake 1990: 17) view planning as the formulation of objectives and the steps taken to achieve them.

Planning entails the carefully organised thinking about the task to be performed as well as putting these thoughts into action so that the established objectives may be achieved. Henry Fayol (in Marks, Stoops & King-Stoops 1971: 115) reported that "if foresight is not the whole of management, at least it is essential part of it. To foresee in this context, means both to assess prognostications about the future and make provision for it; that is, forecasting is itself action already". It is therefore evident that since planning requires prediction, or looking ahead in terms of the present and anticipated facts, planning also requires a high degree of constructive analysis - an ability to project activities which are yet to take place.

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According to the Principal's Guide (1986: 51) in fact, the managerial efforts of any person in an authoritative or executive position are doomed to failure if he cannot plan in advance. According to Maake (1990: 16) planning must be done in advance because if it is delayed it may result in a manager neglecting very important tasks. To delay planning up to the date of compulsory settlement is ineffective management and results in helter-skelter, i.e. management by crisis entailing attempts to settle everything in time, as well as in the neglect of other work which must of needs then be pushed aside.

Allen (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 137) regards planning as the work a manager does to manage the future. Determining priorities or importance of matter is another important aspect of planning. Aspects of greater and lesser importance can be separated from one another. Activities are arranged according to those that are urgent and less urgent, those that can be dealt with and completed immediately and those that can be dealt with at a later stage (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 139). Planning is a process that does not end when a plan is agreed upon, plan must be implemented. Anytime during the implementation process; plans may require modifications to avoid becoming useless or even damaging. Replanning can sometimes be the key factor leading to ultimate success (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 87). From the above it is clear that planning is concerned with deciding what needs to be done, when and how it needs to be done and who is to do it. Planning is a step-by-step process. Consequently the steps in planning will be discussed in the next section.

2.2 Steps in the planning process

The following are the planning steps which the Black high school principal can follow during the planning process (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 88; Van der Westhuizen 1991: 41).

Step 1 Establish a goal or set of goals
Planning begins with decisions about what the school wants or needs. Without a clear definition of goals, schools spread their resources too badly. Identifying priorities and being specific about their aims enable organisations to focus their resources effectively.

Step 2 Define the present situation
The following questions should be asked and answered:
* How far is the school from its goals?
* What resources are available for reaching the goals?
Only after the current state of affairs is analysed can plans be drawn up to chart further progress.

Step 3 Identify the aids and obstacles to goals
The following questions should be asked and answered:
* What factors in the present internal and external environments can help the school reach its goals?
* What factors might create problems?
It is comparatively easy to see what is taking place now, but the future is never clear. Although difficult to do so, anticipating future situations, problems and opportunities is an essential part of planning.

Step 4 Develop a plan or set of actions for reaching the goals
This step involves developing various alternative courses of action for reaching the desired goal(s), evaluating these alternatives, and choosing from among them the most suitable alternative for reaching the goal.
Step 5  Implementation and evaluation of the plan

This final step involves implementation of a plan. The plan should be evaluated and necessary adjustments made. In the next section the various forms of planning will be discussed.

2.3 Forms of planning

2.3.1 Strategic planning

Stoner and Wankel (1986: 114) define strategic planning as the process of selecting the organisation's goals, determining the policies and programs necessary to achieve specific objectives en route to the goals, and establishing the methods necessary to assure that the policies and strategic programs are implemented. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 141) views this type of planning as long-term. This type of planning enables the principal to prepare for the deal with the rapidly changing environment in which the schools operate. Today, events move rapidly for experience to be a reliable guide, and Black principals must develop new strategies suited to the unique problems and opportunities of the future. To cope with the pace of change, Black high school principals must look further ahead than they did previously. The strategic planning process helps principals anticipate problems before they arise and deal with them before they become severe.

2.3.2 Operational planning

Operational planning deals with daily activities and is aimed at the short term (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 141). This kind of planning provides details of how the strategic plans will be accomplished (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 88). Stoner and Wankel (1986: 90) mention two types of operational plans:

2.3.2.1 Single-use plans

These are developed to achieve specific purposes and dissolved when these have been accomplished. They are detailed courses of action that probably will not be repeated in the same form in future. The major forms of single-use plans are:

(a) Programs

The program shows (1) the major steps required to reach an objective, (2) the organisation unit or member responsible for each step, and (3) the order and timing of each step. In the near future school policies may be reviewed, priorities and action plans drawn up.

(b) Projects

These are smaller and separate portions of programs. Each project will become the responsibility of designated personnel who will be given specific resources and deadlines.

(c) Budgets

These are statements of financial resources set aside for specific activities in a given period of time. Budgets itemize income as well as expenditure. Budgeting often becomes the key planning process by which other activities are chosen. A new vision for the budget is needed especially if teacher/pupil ratios change. Parents and staff will have to be well informed and consulted with regard to the needs and priorities.
2.3.2.2 Standing plans

These are standardised approaches for handling recurrent and predictable situations. These plans allow principals to conserve time used for planning and decision making because similar situations are handled in a predetermined, consistent manner. The major standing plans are:

(a) Policies

A policy is a general guideline for decision making. Principals may set a policy because (1) they feel it will improve the effectiveness of the school, (2) they want some aspects of the school to reflect their personal values, and (3) they need to clear up some conflict or confusion that has occurred at the lower level in the school.

(b) Procedures

A procedure provides a detailed set or instructions for performing a sequence of actions that occur often or regularly. Such detailed instructions guide the teachers who perform these tasks and help insure a consistent approach to a specific situation.

(c) Rules

Rules are statements that a specific action must or must not be taken in a given situation. The only choice a rule leaves is whether or not to apply to a particular set of circumstances.

It is therefore clear that various forms of planning take place within the school. Planning as a major task has its subtasks. Consequently, the subtasks of planning will be discussed in the next section.

2.4 Subtasks of planning

2.4.1 Setting of objectives

The goals of the school provide its basic sense of direction. Stoner and Wankel (1986: 111) use the word 'goal' to include the organisation's purpose, mission and objectives. The purpose of the school is its primary role in society. The mission of the school is the unique reason for its existence that sets it apart from all other organisations. The mission of the school includes educative teaching (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 144). Goals are generalised and broader and are usually formulated over a long-term. They say something about what should be achieved after the activity is over and not how things will be during the course of the activity. Objectives represent particular details of what is being pursued. This means that objectives have to be measurable so that managers can check whether the objectives are attained, by comparing the results with the predetermined objectives. Objectives should be set consistently, that is, they should not conflict with one another. It is therefore clear that goals are important as they provide a destination to move forward.

2.4.1.1 Reluctance to establish goals

Principals who are unable to set meaningful goals will be unable to make effective plans. According to Stoner and Wankel (1986: 93) there are a number of reasons why some managers hesitate - or fail entirely - to set goals for their organisations:
(a) Unwillingness to give up alternative goals
The decision to establish new goals requires that other choices be foregone. Each of us at times find it difficult to accept that we cannot achieve all the things that are important to us. As a result we may be reluctant to make a firm commitment to one goal because it is painful to give up desirable alternatives.

(b) Fear for failure
A person who sets definite, clear-cut goal takes the risk of failing to achieve it. Black high school principals are as likely as anyone else to see failure as a threat to their self-esteem, to respect others have for them, and even to their job security. Thus fear for failure keeps some Black principals from taking necessary risks and establishing specific goals.

(c) Lack of organisational knowledge
Principals cannot establish meaningful goals or objectives for schools without a good working knowledge of the organisation as a whole. A principal whose information network is underdeveloped or faulty may try to avoid making new plans altogether and instead fall back on already established goals.

(d) Lack of the knowledge of the environment
The Black principals need to understand the school's internal and external environments. Without knowledge of the external environment, principals are apt to become confused about which direction to take and are reluctant to set definite goals.

(e) Lack of confidence
To commit themselves to goals, principals must feel that they and the school have the ability to achieve those goals. Obviously, if Black principals lack confidence in themselves or the school, they will hesitate to establish challenging goals.

2.4.1.2 Importance of goal setting
It is important that the school principal establish the goal of what he plans to do e.g. class visits, staff meetings, parent meetings, etc. It is necessary for the principal to direct the attention of the staff members to the goal. He can do this by "reminding members what the goal is" (Barker, Cegala, Wahlers & Kihler 1983: 44).

According to Gorton (in Atkinson, et al 1993: 87) goals are important motivators of human endeavour, and can form the basis for the evaluation of individual or group performance. To be successful, the school needs achievable goals which are understood and accepted by other staff members. Within the school the principal may discover multiple goals. There will be the goal that the principal has in mind, the goal that the majority of the staff has in mind, the goal that the minority of members possess and the personal goals that the individual members of staff would like to achieve.
Atkinson, et al (1993: 88) suggest that in order to arrive at a common group goal, the principal should try to involve the group in the development of the goal. These authors further suggest that the principal needs to be concerned about three basic characteristics of goals:

* the extent to which the goal is understood;
* the degree to which the goal is realistic, and
* the degree to which the goal is acceptable to staff members.

It is important also for teachers to set the objectives for their lessons.

2.4.1.3 Resume

Goal setting is an important part of the planning process. Goals provide standards for measuring the principal's achievement and the progress of the whole school. They act as criteria for evaluating the quality and effectiveness of the management of the school. It was shown that some principals are reluctant to set goals. It became clear from the foregoing discussion, however, that it is not possible to manage effectively without clearly set goals. Such goals should be realistic.

The next subtask of planning to be discussed is decision making.

2.4.2 Decision making

Decision making is a major responsibility for all principals. It is the process by which decisions are not only arrived at but implemented (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 264). Until decision making is converted into action, it is only a good intention. Decision making is thus a key part of a principal's activities. It plays a particularly important role, however, when the principal is engaged in planning. Planning involves the most significant and far-reaching decisions a principal can make.

In the planning process, principals decide such matters as what goals or opportunities their schools will pursue, what resources will be used, and who will perform each required task. How good their decisions are plays a large role in determining how effective their plans will be (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 141). According to Robbins (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 152) decision making is a process of consciously choosing the most suitable way of acting to solve or handle a particular problem or situation once the various alternatives and possibilities have been considered for the achievement of the desired goal.

It is therefore clear that decision making is a process of making a choice between two or more different alternatives. The rational decision making process optimally involves the following steps (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 270-277; Gordon 1987: 216-219; Van der Westhuizen 1991: 153-154).
2.4.2.1. Steps in the decision making process

Step 1: Recognise and define the problem
The way the problem is conceptualised is important to subsequent analysis and solution. It is important that the problem be placed in a realistic perspective. The problem may need to be broken down into subproblems. Effective principals are constantly alert to issues that might become problems. Thus they can adapt courses of action that will prevent the problems from developing. It is important to distinguish between the problem and its symptoms, and in this way to reach the cause.

Step 2: Situational analysis
The problem should be classified on whether it is unique or it is a new manifestation of a typical problem for which a pattern of action has already been developed. Recurring problems are routinely solved by formulaic rules and regulations. In all cases the principal should be able to handle the situation by applying the appropriate rule, principle or policy to the concrete circumstances of the case. The principal should gather as much information as possible. The amount of information that should be collected depends on the number of factors, including the importance of the problem, time constraints, and existing procedures and structure for data collection. Decision making requires asking such questions as:
* What is involved?
* Why is it involved?
* Where is it involved? When? To what extent?
* What are the key elements of the situation?
* What constraints effect the decisions?
* What resources are available?

Answers to these questions should provide information to map the parameters of the problem.

Step 3: Search for alternatives
The possible alternatives should be sought. Brainstorming, a technique whereby as many ideas as possible, are generated without criticism, often contributes to the search of alternatives. Advancing a greater number of alternatives increases the likelihood of finding satisfactory solutions. For each decision alternative, the consequences can only be predicted only in terms of probable rather than certain outcomes. In this stage the decision maker should act creatively and innovatively to find new solutions and not simply fall back on previous similar solutions.

Step 4: Selecting the best alternative
Here the principal appraises each alternative. Criteria for evaluation include feasibility, cost and reliability. Hoy and Miskel (1982: 276) mention further determining factors: the values of the principal, the cultural context in which the decision is made and implemented, the perceptions of those involved in the process, the importance of the situation, the pressure on the principal and the importance of the goal. However the principal must assess the risk involved - the likelihood of certain outcomes for each alternative. It should be remembered that the best alternative theoretically is not always the most advantageous or satisfying for everyone. Where possible quantifying the alternatives systematises their evaluation and dramatizes differences among them.
Step 5: Implementing the decision

Now that the optimal alternative has been selected, some organisation is required with which to implement the decision. The initiation of the plan of action requires the following (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 276-7):

* Programming: The action to be programmed must be appropriate to the abilities of the people involved. The program must be realistic and capable of implementation.

* Communicating: It is necessary that each involved individual become aware of his responsibilities.

It is necessary to inform all those likely to be affected about the decision. The communication system developed to implement the plan can and should enhance the co-ordination of the program.

Step 6: Monitoring the implementation of the decision

The decision maker should oversee the plan of action in order to be sure that it is proceeding as scheduled. The actual events are compared with expectations. A system of control should determine whether the decision has been implemented. Continuous feedback reports are necessary to evaluate the progress of implementing and reprogramming of the plan of action, a change in communication procedures or new monitoring techniques. It should be ascertained whether the purpose of making the decision has been achieved and whether planning was successful.

2.4.2.2 Barriers to effective decision making by the Black principal

According to Gordon (1987: 221) barriers to effective decision making include lack of clarity in stating a problem, not getting needed information, premature testing of alternative strategies, premature choice of a particular alternative, pressures for conformity, lack of inquiry and problem solving skills, and inadequate personal motivation to reach a high-quality and accepted decision.

2.4.2.3 Some ways of improving group decision making

(a) Why group decision making?

Group decision making is a form of participative decision making. This type of decision making is important in that more information and knowledge are gathered while expertise and experience are shared (Robins in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 156). According to Dekker, et al (1986: 67) a group should be able to make a better decision than an individual and if someone has had a share in the decision he should help to implement it.

(b) Brainstorming

The decision making group uses this technique to generate many alternatives for consideration in decision making. They list as many alternatives as possible, without yet evaluating the feasibility of any alternative. No restrictions should be imposed (Atkinson, et al 1993: 22). According to Barker, et al (1983: 144) the brainstorming session is the true verbal free-for-all. Criticism is ruled out, and all ideas are permitted without condemnation or ridicule. After the alternatives have been generated, they are evaluated and decisions are made.
Gordon (1987: 289) maintains that although brainstorming is useful for all types of decisions, it is most useful for simple, well-defined problems. It encourages enthusiasm and a competitive spirit among group members in generating ideas, it also prevents group members from feeling hopeless regarding the range of possibilities in a given situation.

Atkinson, et al (1993: 22) see brainstorming as the most creative of problem solving exercises because it encourages unbounded thinking. However, brainstorming can result in many shallow and useless ideas, but it can spur members to offer new ideas as well (Gordon 1987: 289).

(c) Nominal group technique

The group is firstly presented with a problem. According to Atkinson, et al (1993: 23) this technique consists of the following six steps:

i) Silent generation of ideas

Each group member individually writes several ideas on a piece of paper.

ii) Round-robin recording of ideas

Each group member presents one idea and the ideas are recorded on the blackboard so that everyone can see the entire list of ideas generated.

iii) Serial discussion for clarification

Each idea that has been generated is discussed in order to clarify its meaning.

iv) Preliminary vote on importance

Each member is requested to select the most important items from the list and rank in order of importance.

v) Discussion of preliminary vote

The results of the initial vote are discussed by the group and any additional clarifications considered.

vi) Final vote

The items that received the highest composite rankings are accepted as the group decision.

According to Gordon (1987: 289) this technique encourages creativity, prevents strong personality types from dominating the group, encourage the continued exploration of the issues, provides a forum for the expression of minority viewpoints, and give individuals some time to think about the issues before offering the solutions.

(d) Delphi technique

This technique is for structuring a group communication process so that the process is effective in allowing a group of individuals, as a whole to deal with a complex problem. The Delphi technique has team effort rather than individual effort as its own (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 289). Basically the Delphi technique has four phases (Gordon 1987:289).

* exploration of the subject by the individuals;
* reaching understanding of the group's view of the issues;
* discussion and evaluation of any reason for differences;
* final evaluation of all information.
(e) Other techniques, according to Dekker, et al (1986: 65) are:

i) Deadlines: participants may deliberately be allowed too little time to study many alternative solutions.

ii) Limiting proposal: by limiting proposals the possibility of agreement and co-operation is much greater.

iii) Analysing the problem: dividing a complicated problem into a number of less difficult problems.

2.4.2.4 Types of decisions

(a) Programmed decisions

These decisions are made with habit, rule or procedure (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 143). Wood, et al (1985: 81) calls this type the intermediary decision. In this case the school may have written of unwritten policies that simplify decision making in recurring situations by limiting or excluding alternatives. Routine procedures exist for dealing with routine problems. We must note, however, that effective principals lean on policy to save time, but remain alert for exceptional cases.

(b) Non-programmed decisions

These decisions deal with unusual or exceptional problems (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 143). Wood, et al (1985: 81) call this type the creative decisions. If a problem has not come up often enough to be covered by a policy, or is so important that it deserves special treatment, it must be handled by a non-programmed decision.

2.4.2.5 Resume

It is therefore clear that decision making is not an act, it is a process. It proceeds along a continuum from recognising the need for a decision to the eventual completion of all acts that are a result of the decision and make the decision operational. It is necessary for the principal to make decisions in order to reach various managerial objectives. The next sub task of planning to be discussed is problem solving.

2.4.3 Problem solving

Problems arise in any organisation and more so at schools where mainly people are present. Hemphill (in Wood, et al 1985: 78) defines the problem as a state of affairs that is perceived with dissatisfaction. Gleicher (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 148) defines the problem as something that endangers the organisation's ability to reach its objectives. A problem can therefore be defined as a discrepancy between actual conditions and desired ones. Atkinson, et al (1993: 143) thus see problem solving as a process of creating change to bring actual conditions closer to desired conditions. It is therefore clear that the principal needs problem solving skills to manage the school successfully. According to Gorton (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 160), before a problem can be solved, the principal has to take a number of steps: identifying and diagnosing the problem, setting objectives and making decisions.
2.4.3.1 Problem-finding process

Pounds (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 147) has described situations that alert managers to possible problems: when there is a deviation from past experience, when there is a deviation from a set plan, when other people present problems to the manager, etc. For much of the day, the principal is on the go around the school in a 'search routine', maintaining a physical presence in the school and trying to anticipate trouble. This activity helps the principal gauge the school climate. It gives quick reading of 'what is going on', of how well the school has 'settled down to its business' and of what the 'mood of the student body seems to be today' (Morris, et al 1984: 78).

Common errors made by managers in sensing problems are outlined as follows by Kiesler and Sproull (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 149):

(a) False association of events:
* Wrongly assuming that events are connected because they are similar.
* Wrongly assuming that events are important causes because they are the focus of attention.

(b) False expectations of events:
* Wrongly assuming that events did not occur, that in fact did, because they did not fit the expected pattern of events.
* Wrongly assuming that events have occurred, when they haven't, because they were expected to occur.
* Failing to take into account surprising or extreme events that contradict expectations.

(c) False self-perception and social change
* Preferring ambiguous information to hard facts that might reflect badly on previous decisions.
* Focusing on successful actions while ignoring bad decisions.

2.4.3.2 Deciding to decide

Some problems come to principals, while some they must locate for themselves. When a manager is presented with a problem, he should ask himself the following questions (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 150):

(a) Is the problem easy to deal with?
Some problems are difficult to deal with, others are not. Most problems however, require only a small amount of the principal's attention. To avoid getting bogged down in trivial details, effective and efficient principals reserve formal decision making techniques for problems that require them. A principal who gives the same level of attention to every problem will get very little work done.

(b) Might the problem resolve itself?
Managers find that an amazing number of time-wasting problems can be eliminated if they are simply ignored. Therefore, when establishing priorities for dealing with several problems, principals should rank them in order of importance. Those at the bottom of the list usually take care of themselves, or can be dealt with by others. If one of these problems worsens, it moves to a higher priority level on the list.

(c) Is this my decision to make?
When a manager is confronted with an important problem requiring a decision, he must determine if he is responsible for making the decisions. The general rule here is: the closer to the origin of the problem the decision is made, the better. This rule has two implications:
(i) Pass as few decisions as possible to those higher up, and
(ii) Pass as many as possible decisions to those lower down.

The questions asked above are relevant to the Black high school principal.

2.4.3.3 Barriers to managerial problem-solving

Jannis and Mann (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 155-156) have identified four barriers that can hinder people who must make decisions:

(a) Relaxed avoidance
The principal decides not to decide or act after noting that the consequences of inaction will not be very great.

(b) Relaxed change
The principal decides to take some action, noting that the consequences of doing nothing will be serious. However, rather than analysing the situation, the principal takes the first available alternative that appears on the surface to involve low risk.

(c) Defensive avoidance
Unable to find a good solution to the problem the principal seeks the way out. He may put off considering the consequences or may try buck passing. He may let someone else make a decision or choose the most obvious solution.

(d) Panic
The principal feels pressured not only by the problem itself, but by time. This produces a high level of stress that may manifest itself in sleeplessness, irritability, nightmares, and other forms of agitation. In extreme form, physical sickness may result. In the panic state the principal may be so agitated that he is unable to appraise the situation realistically or accept help from subordinates. And given the inappropriate handling, the situation is likely to deteriorate. It is however, important for the Black high school principal to develop a mechanism of overcoming these problems.

2.4.3.4 Overcoming barriers to individual problem solving

Black high school principals should familiarise themselves with the rational problem-solving process and this will give them confidence in their ability to understand and deal with difficult situations. Stoner and Wankel (1986: 157) describe other specific ways by which managers can manage their decision making more effectively.

(a) Set priorities
Principals are faced with numerous problems and tasks daily. Sometimes the sheer quantity of workload is overwhelming. To avoid being snowed under by tasks, principals should review priorities of their workload daily. Some problems should be dealt with immediately while others need a degree of consideration before a decision made (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 158)

(b) Acquire relevant information
It is important that the principal should get as much information about the problem as possible. Huber (in Stoner and Wankel 1986: 157) defined categories of information relevant in decision making.

* Basic information
   It includes alternatives that can be identified and the likely consequence of choosing each alternative, the relevant events that may occur in the future, and the possible criteria that can be used to evaluate the eventual decisions and solutions.

* Elaborating information
   It includes the probabilities of future states of nature and the likelihood that the anticipated consequence of each alternative will actually occur.

* Performance information
   It includes the outcome of various courses of action taken.

(c) Proceed methodically and carefully
The principal should note that any problem-solving approach cannot work well if it is not used well. Therefore it is important that he be vigilant and careful when implementing any problem-solving approach.

2.4.4 Policy-making
Policy-making is an essential part of the planning action. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 150) defines policy-making as general statements or guidelines for decision making to guide those who are involved in the implementation or execution of planning. Policy provides guidelines and allows the executor to make decisions within a certain framework. According to Brodie (1983: 56) a policy provides criteria by which strategies and main courses of action are to be determined and by which results are to be evaluated. Maake (1990: 69) view a school policy as a systematic exposition and summary of accepted usages, presented procedures, routine matters, rules and codes of conduct that apply to a school. In other words a policy is a statement of general principles and guidelines which determine how the matters of importance should be dealt with.

A school policy is a basic manual that offers all teachers the opportunity of becoming acquainted in a very short time with everything pertaining to a school. It also serves as a source of information that may be consulted by teachers at all times.

According to Van Schalkwyk, Calitz and Van Wyk (1986: 102) school policy should:

* provide guidelines concerning methods that can be used to realise objectives.
* prescribe effective measures applicable to teaching and learning.
* determine the actions of each person involved in educative teaching.

It is therefore clear that 'policy' refers to what is envisaged and how the people should go about accomplishing what is envisaged.

All teachers of the school must understand and know the policy of the school with all its implications. They must know how the duties of each fit into the total scheme of work. It is important that staff members be invited to submit suggestions on improving the procedure in the school.

2.4.1 Various role players in policy making
Van Schalkwyk, et al (1986: 134) discuss the roles of the following persons in policy making:
(a) The role of the school principal
The school principal plays a special role as policy-maker. The way in which a school principal will make policy very much depends on his style of leadership. His style will determine whether he will decide pragmatically on his own on what has to be done, or whether he will consult his senior staff, or his staff as a whole on at least some matters.
(b) The role of assistant teachers in policy making
If the teacher is recognised as a professional, it is obvious that he ought to be qualified to have a say in policy-making. Although teachers may appreciate being given the opportunity to participate in some areas of policy-making, other areas are of no interest to them because they feel it does not concern them. The organisation of the school as whole must be conducive for teachers to have a say in policy-making. This does not mean that the principal must summon his staff to ask their opinion on every trifling item of policy.
(c) The role of senior personnel in policy making
The principal, deputy principal and departmental heads jointly form the 'cabinet' of the school. The broad policy drawn with the staff is refined in the 'cabinet meeting'. Divergent views may arise but a compromise is wise and desirable.
(d) The role of the parent community in policy making
Parents can be involved in policy making. However, parents cannot be involved in all policy making. Handling parental say in policy making is not without its problems. Hill's advise (in Van Schalkwyk, et al 1986: 139) is that the principal needs to be a genuine democrat, combining a sense of humility with the art of persuasion.
(e) The role of pupils in policy making
The pupils cannot be given joint say in school management for these are matters about which they do not possess the necessary experience, maturity or insight to pass judgement. Yet there are certain areas, especially of a practical nature such as exercising control over pupils before school and during breaks where the pupils' views could be valuable.

In response to differences in cultures, policy makers will have to be more tolerant and flexible. It is thus clear that policy making cannot be put solely on the principal's shoulders. Some relevant
parties need to be involved especially during this time when people have become too much democracy minded.

2.4.5 Planning the year's work

The length of time the Black high school principal will need to work in his office before school opens will depend on his experience on school administration, the size of the school and the adequacy of the preparation made during the closing of the preceding year. According to Jacobson, et al (1973: 62) in many schools it is a custom to close school at noon of the first day. In other cases schools operate on a half-day schedule for the first week. In an extreme case, the principal may not have organised the school properly at the end of six weeks. Such a waste of student’s time and funds is inexcusable.

2.4.5.1 Tasks performed before school opens

The following are some of the tasks (events) to be performed before the school opens:
(a) Assigning teachers

Most Black high schools have a problem of teachers teaching subjects they are not qualified to teach. To make things worse, these teachers rarely attend in-service courses. Jacobson, et al (1973: 64) suggest that teachers should be appointed to fill specific positions where they are well-equipped for the work involved. To assign the ‘right’ people in the right positions, Ngcengo (1986: 42) sees the principal as having an important role of recruiting teachers according to school’s needs. This means that there must be congruence between the expectations of the position and the qualifications and personal characteristics of the teachers.

(b) Preliminary teachers’ meeting

The first meeting should be short because teachers will probably wish to spend time organising their work for the opening of the school (Jacobson, et al 1973: 6). The speech by the principal should be brief with a warm welcome to the new members of staff.

2.4.5.2 Opening school

It has become common that parents and pupils flock to school on the opening day. Jacobson et al (1973: 68) suggest that the principal should give them first attention. By doing so the principal will gain support and respect for his administration. Furthermore, he will have cleared the way for the day’s business. The principal should avoid overlooking the responsibilities which he must discharge on the opening day. He should prepare the list of duties essential to the successful opening of the school. During the first week the principal may find it necessary to balance class sizes, adjust classroom equipment and supplies and check pupils expected in school who have not reported.

2.4.5.3 Duties throughout the year

The extracurricular activities should be organised soon during the first month. The size and philosophy of the school will determine the extent of the program. Usually the school has a sports organiser. The planning of the extracurricular activities should be done soon after the opening of the
school. The principal must also plan the policies of office procedure. He must plan for inspection of the buildings and grounds, arrange details of supervising books, equipment supplies and keys. (Jacobson et al 1973: 72).

The following are some of the tasks or duties that are performed during the course of the year:

(a) Making a school timetable

The principal has the responsibility of making the timetable. This responsibility may be delegated to the deputy principal. Subjects should be arranged that as far as possible fatigue is avoided (Thembela & Walters 1985: 57).

(b) Extracurricular activities

Most extracurricular activities are suitable in the afternoon because they are recreational and usually require long periods. The issue of extracurricular activities has brought some challenge to the Black principal because activities like music are sometimes performed during the day in such a way that normal teaching is disturbed.

(c) Programme for the year

Maake (1990: 21) maintains that a well planned and well considered programme for the year is very important for the smooth running of the school. This programme will embrace all activities such as the dates and times of class visits, submission of work programmes, the completion of mark schedules, dates of subject and staff meetings, the scrutinisation of written work, work establishment, division of work, dates for parents/management council and parent and teacher association meetings, handing in of all information and statistics required by the circuit office, regional and head office at specific times and the handing in of quarterly and annual returns.

2.4.5.4 Planning of school finances

The school fund was established in government and state-aided schools so that amenities and facilities provided by the schools could be extended thereby furthering the interests of the pupils. The management of the school fund is a responsible task, and in community schools it is the responsibility of the school management councils (Thembela & Walters 1984: 88).

The primary business planning instrument in a future school programme is the budget. Expenses with regard to items of consumable supplies (stationary, teaching aids, sports equipment, etc.) capital expenditure, maintenance costs, transport costs, and all administrative expenses, as well as possible income against which expenses may be defrayed, should be carefully analysed and planned (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 373).

Jacobson, et al (1973: 428) also maintain that a carefully made and well-administered budget, based on educational needs, is necessary for the efficient management of the school system. It is necessary for the principal, while making the budget, to determine priorities. The budget, if well made, should provide for all regular or anticipated needs. The budgeting process begins when principals do economic and financial forecasts for the coming year. Because budgets are based on forecasts that
can be rapidly overtaken by reality, provision should be made for necessary revisions. (Stoner &
Wankel 1986: 603).

Stoner and Wankel (1986: 607) further maintain that the main difficulty of the budgets is that they
are inflexible. They thus become inappropriate for situations that change in ways beyond the control
of those responsible for achieving budget objectives. To deal with this problem, many principals
have to resort to variable budgets instead of fixed budgets. Variable budgets are useful in identifying
in a fair and realistic manner how costs are affected by the amount of work being done.

The principals have to decide what activities and funds (from the previous year’s budget) should be
dropped and what activities and funds would be added. This is called Zero-Base budgeting. This
helps prevent the continuation of the same activities year after year—well after their relevance and
usefulness may have been lost because of environmental changes (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 608).
Zero-Base budgeting enables the school to look into its activities and priorities afresh. This process
involves three major steps (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 609):

* Break down each of the school’s activities into decision packages. A decision package
includes all the information about an activity that the principal needs to evaluate that activity
and compare its costs and benefits to other activities, plus the consequences expected if the
activity is approved and the alternative activities that are available to meet the same purpose.
* Evaluate the various activities and rank them in order of decreasing benefit to the school.
* Allocate resources.

The school’s resources are budgeted according to the final ranking that has been established.

The Zero-Base budgeting is important for the Black high school principals because their schools
mainly have inadequate resources. It is also important to note that the Black principal’s budgeting
may be disturbed by the fact that in some areas principals are forced by pupils to return the school
fees paid.

2.4.5.5 Resume

In the foregoing section, a detailed discussion of the specific elements of planning as the managerial
task was made. The subtasks of planning like goal definition, decision making, policy making and
problem solving were also discussed. Attempts were also made to investigate the areas where
planning should be exercised most.

From this discussion it became clear that planning is one of the most important tasks of management
and that the school cannot run smoothly without proper planning. It became clear that for the
principal to fail to plan implies to plan to fail.

The next management function of the principal that will be discussed, is organising.
3. ORGANISING

"In any school there is a myriad interactions between personnel and their environment. How the school principal provides for an orderly management of that environment is vitally important. People need stability in their everyday activities. There is a consummate need by personnel in an organisation to recognise within the structure a certain efficiency and effectiveness that indicates purpose. People are generally willing to work within established limits when there are viable reasons that in the end allow the individual to be more effective (Burden & Whitt 1973: 37).

Stoner and Wankel (1986: 233) define organising as "the way work is arranged and allocated among members of the organisation so that the goals of the organisation can be effectively achieved". This is put more clearly by Van der Westhuizen (1991: 162). In the context of a school, this means that organising as a management task subdivides various tasks and allot them to specific people so that educative teaching may be realised in orderly manner. It is therefore clear that organising is concerned with arranging the resources and activities so as to realise the objective in the most effective and efficient way.

3.1 Steps in organising

Organising ensures the smooth running of the school. Dale (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 233) describes organising as a multistep process, consisting of the following steps:

* Detailing all work that must be done to attain the organisation's (school's) goals or objectives. For the objectives of the school to be achieved, the tasks of the school must first be determined.

* Dividing the total workload into activities that can logically and comfortably be performed by one person or by a group of individuals. The tasks must be divided appropriately among the staff members. Cronje, Hugo and Van Reenen (1987: 95) warn that tasks must be allocated according to the abilities or qualifications of individuals. This implies that no individual will be charged with carrying too heavy or too light a work load.

* Combining the work of the organisation's members in a logical and efficient manner. As the school expands in size, it becomes necessary to group individuals whose assigned tasks are related. In this regard Barry and Tye (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 162) stress the fact that effective communication channels should be established. However, this interaction between groups should be governed by established procedures.

* Setting up a mechanism to co-ordinate the work of organisation's members into a unified, harmonious whole. Co-ordinating mechanisms help reduce inefficiency and harmful conflicts.

* Monitoring the effectiveness of the organisation and making adjustments to maintain or increase effectiveness. Organising is an ongoing process and periodic reassessment of the four proceeding steps is necessary. The organisation's structure must be re-evaluated to be sure it is consistent with effective and efficient operation to meet present needs.
Organising may be seen as a process whereby the leader attempts to create order out of chaos, to smooth out conflict regarding the allocation of work and responsibilities, and at the same time create an environment conducive to proper teamwork (De Witt 1986:2).

In the next section the subtasks of organising will be discussed.

3.2 \textbf{Sub tasks of organising}

Organising consists of three sub-tasks which will be discussed.

3.2.1 \textit{Creating an organisational structure}

The main task of the school is educative teaching. In order to be able to achieve this aim, the work of the large number of workers must be organised by creating an organisational structure (De Witt 1986: 4). Organisational structure can be defined as the arrangement and interrelationship of the component parts and positions of the school. It specifies the division of work activities and shows how efficient functions or activities are linked (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 243). It is important for the Black principal to create the organisational structure as this would make his work easier.

According to Stoner & Wankel the organisation chart diagrams the functions, departments, or positions of the school (organisation) and how they are related. The organisation chart illustrates five major aspects of an organisation’s structure, namely:

* The division of work
  Each box represents an individual responsible for a given part of the organisation’s workload.

* Managers (superiors) and subordinates
  There should be lines indicating who reports to whom i.e. the chain of command.

* The grouping of work segments
  The entire chart indicates on what basis the organisation’s activities have been divided.

* The levels of management
  A chart indicates not only individual managers and subordinates, but also the entire management hierarchy.

3.2.1.1 \textit{Span of control}

The span of control refers to the number of people which a single leader can effectively control. The educational leader (principal/deputy principal/HoD) can only control a limited number of people according to his ability. In this regard, Van der Westhuizen (1991: 170) maintains that the educational leader cannot exercise effective control over more than six or eight heads of department. Each head of department also cannot exercise affective control over more than six or eight members in his department. The head of department may also use the subject heads.

In some Black high schools the numbers may be higher. The principal in some cases heads about thirty teachers without the deputy or HoD.
3.2.1.2 Choosing the right structure

The structure that will work best for a specific school will likely vary over time. The structure needs to fit with the organisation’s people, informal structure, management practices and so on. As these variables evolve, the most appropriate structure may also change (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 256). Structures should be less autocratic and hierarchical and more democratic and broad based. Teachers, parents and pupils will have to be involved. (Quail 1990: 2).

3.2.1.3 Resume

Organisational structure is the central nervous system of the school. When it is functioning properly, it permits the organisation to perform a variety of related motions and activities - often simultaneously. It reflects the way in which work is organised. It is important that proper coordination and communication between groups be established so that the aim envisaged can be efficiently and effectively attained. During the division of work, persons should be given tasks in keeping with their capabilities, training and fields of interest.

3.2.2 Delegation

“If management is defined as ‘getting things done through people’ and delegating ‘as giving people things to do’, it must be concluded that the manager does not delegate effectively if he is not managing effectively. Delegation is defined by Stoner & Wankel (1986: 306) as the assignment to another person of formal authority and responsibility of carrying out specific activity. A more clear definition of delegation is given by Van der Westhuizen (1991: 172): “Delegation is the task carried out by an educational leader in entrusting duties, with their attendant responsibilities, to others (subordinates), and to divide the work meaningfully and to ensure its effective execution by making people responsible for the results or achievement of objectives.”

The delegation of duties is a meaningful, well-planned and scientific handing over of duties to subordinates (Maake 1990: 14). The delegation of authority by the principal to subordinates is necessary for effective functioning of any school, since no principal can personally accomplish or completely supervise all school’s tasks. The extent to which the principal delegates authority is influenced by such factors as the culture of the school, the specific situation involved, and the relationships, personalities and capabilities of the people in that situation.

While there may be many contingency factors that principals will have to take into account in deciding what and how much to delegate, there are some basic guidelines that apply to most situations (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 307).

3.2.2.1 Responsibility, authority and accountability

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 172) defines responsibility as the duties of a person in terms of his post and the work allocated to him. Responsibility for specific tasks is assigned to the lowest
organisational level at which there exists sufficient ability and information to carry them out completely. Even though the principal may delegate responsibility, in the final instance, he is responsible for the final execution of the work (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 172). Authority is a lawful right which a person has to carry out and complete certain actions. Stoner & Wankel (1986: 307) further maintain that for individuals in the organisation to perform their tasks effectively, they must be delegated sufficient authority to do so. Through delegation of authority, concerned members are given the power they need to carry out their assigned responsibilities.

Accountability - being held answerable for the results - is the necessary part of delegation and authority. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 172) puts it as follows: “Accountability refers to the person’s duty to give an account of having executed his work in terms of set criteria and determined standards, in other words, whether the work has been satisfactorily completed”. Teachers who accept responsibility are accepting credit or blame for the way in which they carry out their assignments. For the principals, the concept of accountability has an added dimension, not only are managers held accountable for their own performance, but they are held also accountable for the performance of their subordinates (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 307).

3.2.2 The Scalar Principle

For delegation to work effectively, the teachers at school should know where they stand in the chain of command. Otherwise they could neither accept or assign responsibility with any confidence. The scalar principle suggests that there must be a clear line of authority running step by step from the highest to the lowest level of the organisation (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 307). The clear line of authority will make it easier for staff members to understand to whom they can delegate, and who can delegate to them, and to whom are they accountable.

The principal should ensure that all the necessary tasks are assigned. Unassigned tasks, called gaps, have to be avoided, because otherwise it is likely that these tasks will remain unperformed - or people who voluntarily perform those tasks will resent the extra burden. Similarly there should be no overlaps (responsibility for the same task assigned to more than one individual) and no splits (responsibility of the same task assigned to more than one individual). Otherwise, confusion of authority and accountability will result.

3.2.3 Unity of command

This principle states that each person in the organisation should report to one superior (Stoner & Wankel 1986:308). Reporting to more than one superior makes it difficult for the teacher to know to whom he is accountable and whose instructions he must follow. When the subordinates have to report to more than one superior, they tend to avoid responsibility, and they easily blame poor performance on the fact that with several bosses they have too much to do.
Barriers to Effective Delegation

Many Black high school principals are not keen or unwilling to delegate. This unwillingness may be because of the following causes (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 174, Stoner & Wankel 1987: 309-310):

(a) Reluctance to delegate

Many reasons are commonly offered by principals to explain why they do not delegate: “I can do it better myself”, “My subordinates just aren’t capable enough”, “It takes too much time to explain what I want done”. These reasons are often excuses that principals use to hide the real reasons why they avoid delegation. Insecurity may be a major cause for reluctance to delegate. Principals are accountable for the actions of their subordinates, and this may make them reluctant to ‘take chances’ and delegate tasks. There is a possibility that the principal is sensitive and afraid that someone else may do the work better than he can and therefore feels threatened. This may cause him to think that other people regard him as incapable and this could be demoralising for him.

Another cause of reluctance to delegate is the principal’s lack of ability. Some principals may simply be too disorganised or inflexible to plan ahead and decide which tasks should be delegated to whom or to set up a control system so that subordinate’s actions can be monitored.

One other reason why principals avoid delegation is the lack of confidence in subordinates. This lack of confidence may be justified if subordinates lack the necessary knowledge and skills. However, there is no justification for failing to train subordinates. The principal may be unwilling to delegate because of an autocratic style of management. He may like to do everything himself so that other people can see how busy (and capable) he is.

(b) Reluctance to accept delegation

Insecurity may be a barrier to the acceptance of delegation. Some teachers want to avoid responsibility and risks, and so would like their bosses to make all decisions. Similarly, teachers who fear criticism for mistakes are frequently reluctant to accept delegation. One other reason is that subordinates may not be given sufficient incentive for assuming extra responsibility. Accepting delegation frequently means they will have to work harder under great pressure.

Overcoming the obstacles

The most basic prerequisite to effective delegation is the willingness of Black high school principals to give their subordinates real freedom to accomplish delegated tasks. Principals have to accept the fact that subordinates may legitimately choose a path different from their (principal’s) own. They should further accept that subordinates will make errors in carrying out their tasks. The solution to subordinate’s mistakes is not for the principal to delegate less but to train or otherwise support subordinates more.

Improved communication between principals and subordinates will increase mutual understanding and thus help to make delegation more effective. If principals know the abilities of their subordinates, they can more realistically decide which tasks can be delegated to whom. Some
subordinates cleverly delegate upward to their superiors or laterally to their colleagues by casually transferring responsibility for a task from themselves to their superiors or co-workers. They shift the 'monkey' from their own to the other persons back by asking for decisions, opinion or information that they themselves should make or obtain. Then they check with the superior or colleague periodically to see what progress is being made in the task. To overcome this problem, managers should make certain that subordinates have and retain the initiative for solving their own problems (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 311).

Drawbaugh (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 177) suggests the following guidelines to ensure improved delegation:

* Analyse the work
* Decide what must be delegated
* Plan the delegation
* Choose the correct person
* Delegate
* Follow up

Maake (1990: 14) warns that the principal should never pass everything on to others as this may result in him being misled to such an extent that he may ultimately not know what is happening in his school. Poor and unsatisfactory work is the outcome of delegation without efficient control and supervision. Cronje, Neuland and Hugo (1987: 123) also warn that it should be borne in mind that when a task has been delegated to a subordinate this should not mean that the job of management has been completed. It is therefore clear that delegation does not mean that the principal should sit back and relax.

Delegation will require much training of people to accept responsibility and be accountable. There may be differences in the different cultures regarding leadership expectations.

3.2.2.6 Resume

The principal cannot possibly do all the work alone, he must delegate some of his tasks. Aspects of authority, responsibility and accountability may also be delegated. It became clear from the foregoing discussion that for delegation to be effective, it must be done scientifically. The principal must plan the delegation, choose the right person and follow up after delegating.

3.2.3 Co-ordination

Whenever there is more than one person together on the same thing, it is essential to constantly co-ordinate their activities (de Witt 1986: 26). Gordon (1987: 526) defines co-ordination as: "... the extent and means by which an organisation integrates or holds together its various parts and facilitates their working together to accomplish a common goal or activity." Van der Westhuizen
(1991: 179) sees co-ordination as the activity which places choices, material, people, ideas and techniques in a harmonious relationship with one another.

According to Cronje, et al (1987: 102) co-ordination is the synthesis of the separate parts to form a unity. It means the integration of objectives and tasks at all levels of all departments and functions to enable the organisation to work as a whole.

At school there may be different departments: Languages, Humanities, Commerce and Science. Furthermore there may be extra mural activities like sports, music and entertainment. It is important that there be integration of the objectives and activities of these separate departments. In the place of the term co-ordination, Lawrence and Lorsch (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 265) use the term 'integration' to designate the degree to which members of various departments work together in a unified manner. Departments should co-operate and their tasks be integrated where necessary, without reducing the difference that contribute to the task accomplishment.

Reynders (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 179) describes the purpose of co-ordination as follows:

* to synchronise people and the various activities to achieve the set goal.
* to ensure co-operation between people.
* to develop team spirit and team work so that everyone works toward the same goal.
* to ensure that goals and policy are uniformly interpreted and applied.

3.2.3.1 Means of co-ordination

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 180) and De Witt (1986: 27) suggest the following aids to ensure good co-ordinations.

* Communication and motivation are means for furthering co-ordination. The principal will have to establish communication channels and means of communication to unite all actions, activities and decisions.
* The formulation and publicising of goals and policy serve as a means of making it clear to everyone concerned what is expected of him, how the task links up and fits in with other tasks, and how all are combined to form a unity in order to attain a set goal.
* The compiling of guides such as manual, documents outlining policy, rules, regulations, ordinances and procedures as further means of co-ordination. Every teacher must remain within the broad guidelines determined by the documents.
* Personal contact and dialogue can help ensure that the various activities are being synchronised. Motivation, explanations and advice, all these actions can promote co-ordination.
* The committee, staff meetings and discussions are a means through which people come together to confer, inform and encourage one another, solicit co-operation, settle differences, clear up ambiguities and a feeling of unity generated. These help promote teamwork.
3.2.3.2 **Resume**

From the foregoing discussion it was indicated that co-ordination is concerned with integration and synchronising the various activities towards achieving a certain goal. It is therefore clear that co-ordination reduces conflict and promotes co-operation.

3.3 **Tasks that take place within the school**

The following tasks require that the school be well organised and well structured, with flexible rules and regulations (Burden & Whitt 1973: 40; Duminy, Maclarty, Thembela & Walters 1983: 136):

3.3.1 **Annual reports**

The principal has to file annual report. The report is essentially a compilation of the activities of the total school year.

3.3.2 **Assemblies**

Planning before the assembly is a must. A schedule need to be developed that will provide each teacher with an equal amount of time for teaching and for time lost.

3.3.3 **Attendance**

Continuing issues facing every principal are attendance, absence, tardiness and the problems they bring to school program. The system of taking attendance and the methods of reporting at school should be as simple as possible.

3.3.4 **Bell schedule**

This is concerned with the times in which the bell goes for breaks, changing periods or assemblies. Teachers need to understand how these schedules operate and have printed copies at hand. Announcement concerning changes in schedules should be provided well ahead of time as well as on the day changes are made.

3.3.5 **Building management**

The principal has the responsibility for developing a building management system that ensures clean and well-maintained buildings.

3.3.6 **Communication**

It is the major task of the principal to find new, different and novel ways of opening up the channels of communication.

3.3.7 **Discipline**

The principal has the responsibility of working with staff, students and parents to develop a satisfactory discipline policy that recognises the needs of the students, desires of teachers and the concerns of parents.
3.3.8 **Duty Schedules**
Regularly scheduled duty assignments are a requirement for the smooth operation of the school. The principal should see to it that those involved carry out their duty schedules.

3.3.9 **Use of facilities**
The citizens are entitled to the use of buildings whenever this does not conflict with the main purpose of the school, that of educating children. A policy on the use of school facilities by the public should be set.

3.3.10 **Staff meetings**
There must be a developed system whereby other meetings, large or small, may be held that will meet the needs of all teachers.

3.3.11 **Field Trips**
Teachers need to understand that such activities must have a purpose. Adequate supervision needs to be a part of the planning.

3.3.12 **Keys**
The principal has the responsibility to see to it that keys are stored in the safe place, collected at the end of the school year, and replaced when worn.

3.3.13 **Office Management**
According to Morris, et al (1984: 211) the office is the central location where the principal processes the flow of paperwork, receives and distributes messages, deals with parents and pupils, answers the telephone, schedules school activities, and orders supplies. It is imperative that the principal organises the various administrative offices in such a way that they are attractive and efficient.

3.3.14 **Student Council**
For the council to be more effective, it should be a more structured, representative body of students interacting with the staff and administration for the purposes of arriving at a mutually satisfactory decision on matters affecting the lives of those students.

3.3.15 **Sports Activities**
The scheduling of these activities must be done early, the schedule must be known and all involved staff members should assist in the development of this schedule.

3.3.16 **Social events**
The principal has the responsibility for making certain that those events are properly supervised, that they conform to acceptable social expectations and hopefully that they can be justified on the basis of social development of the student.

3.3.17 **Debating society**

It is important that each debating session should be planned in advance. A suitable time should be arranged.

3.3.18 **The student christian movement**

It is necessary that each gathering of the S.C.M. should be planned in advance. A suitable time should be arranged.

3.3.19 **Music**

It is important that periods for choir rehearsal be announced to all staff members in time.

3.4 **Resume**

It has been indicated that organising one of the important management functions of the principal. In addition, organising consists of subtasks like creating an organisational structure, delegating and co-ordinating. It became clear that the staff must know what must be done, by whom and with what and by when. Organising is concerned with a systematic achievement of goals. It requires effective channels of communication. Good organising promotes team spirit. Activities should be clearly described so that any overlapping could be prevented.

The next management function of the principal that will be discussed is leading.

4. **LEADERSHIP**

As a school principal the manager cannot escape his leadership functions (De Witt 1986: 139). The concept of leadership is elusive and complex. Hoy and Miskel (1982: 220) concluded that definitions of leadership are almost as numerous as the researchers engaged in its study. Stoner & Wankel (1986: 445) defined leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 187) describes leadership as the integrated and dynamic application of the leader's abilities in an authoritative manner, which will convince, inspire, bind and direct the followers to realise common ideals.

Stogdill (in Hoy & Miskel 1982: 221) defines leadership as the process of influencing the activities of the organised group towards goal setting and goal achievement. According to Cronje, et al (1987: 109) leadership is the ability to influence individuals and groups, inducing them to work willingly for the attainment of the organisation's pre-designed goals.

From the above it is clear that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of a group in order to realise the goals in a specific situation.

4.1 **Major theories of leadership**
The following are perspectives that have been used to define leadership.

4.1.1 The trait theory
This theory is based on the assumption that leadership is a characteristic found in those individuals called leaders. The main focus is on the personal attributes or qualities of leaders. According to Gordon (1987: 394) the trait theory suggests that we evaluate leadership by considering whether an individual possesses certain personality traits, social traits, and physical characteristics. Traits such as intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, energy or activity, and task-relevant knowledge have been identified as the necessary qualities for good leadership.

4.1.2 The power-influence approach
This approach assumes that leadership is given to those who hold certain positions in the organisations. There are various forms of power (Atkinson, et al, 1993: 5), namely:

4.1.2.1 Legitimate power
The legitimate power is associated with the leader's official position in the school hierarchy. It is based on a shared understanding that the leader has the right to tell the staff members what to do.

4.1.2.2 Reward power
It refers to the leader's use of rewards to accomplish the goals of the organisation.

4.1.2.3 Coercive power
It refers to the leader's ability to control subordinates through threat of punishment for noncompliance.

4.1.2.4 Expert power
This is grounded in the fact that the ability and knowledge of the leader are needed by the group being led.

4.1.2.5 Referent power
It depends on the ability of a leader to attract followers based on the leader's personality, the respect follower have for the leader, and followers being in agreement with the leader's ideas.

4.1.3 The leader behaviour approach
This approach describes and analyses the behaviours of effective leaders in terms of their ability to assist work groups to organise, interact and accomplish their goals. The behaviour of a leader may range from task-orientated leadership to people-oriented leadership. The emphasis of the task-oriented leadership is on the achievement of organisational goals. This theory was also called initiating structure by researchers at Ohio State University (Atkinson, et al 1993: 5). The people-
oriented leadership focuses on good relations between the leader and followers. It is also called relationship-orientated leadership (Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 112) or consideration (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 449).

4.2 Styles of leadership

When we come to consider different styles of leadership we must realise and remember that whereas styles can be distinguished, no watertight division can be made (De Witt 1986: 150). Thus a Black principal may follow a particular style, but at times he may employ the attributes of another style. The following styles may be used by the Black principal:

4.2.1 The charismatic leadership style

According to de Witt (1986: 150) this leader likes to keep attention focussed on himself. He keeps people at a distance.

4.2.2 The autocratic leadership style

According to Maake (1990: 29) this leader exercises a lot of authority over his subordinates and he controls everything in his school alone. He does not know what co-operation is and cannot successfully work with others. Communication is largely a one way traffic downwards. He wants to be the sole ruler and hence the principal source of influence of the group. He believes that he alone knows the answers and none of his subordinates knows much. There is no delegation of duties. The autocratic leadership has many drawbacks. It obscures the professional development of teachers. Creative thinking is discouraged. According to Wiles (in de Witt 1986: 152) the autocratic leadership results in intense competition, lack of acceptance of all members, buck-passing, avoiding responsibility, unwillingness to co-operate, irritability, and a decrease in work when the principal is absent.

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 190), however, warns that authoritarian leadership will never disappear completely because situations arise in schools where any other style of leadership would be impossible for maintaining discipline. This is against Maake's view (1990: 28) that secondary school principals should do away with all vestiges of authoritarianism.

4.2.3 The democratic leadership style

The democratic leadership involves the staff in decision making. Original and creative contributions by staff are given opportunity. Communication is multi-directional. The duties and responsibilities are delegated with confidence. A relaxed atmosphere of co-operation is created. The staff morale is enhanced, and this reduces strain and conflict.

Democratic leadership can also be dangerous. Some leaders absolutise democratic leadership to such an extent that they feel that all groups should have a say at every level and in every detail of the decision making process. Boshoff (in Maake 1990: 30) warns against being too democratic when he...
implies that in some cases it does happen that the principal may allow himself to be influenced by the majority decisions, when in fact the minority might be proved to have had the right decision.

No matter how one looks at the concept of democracy, the principal would need to be very circumspect in whatever decision he takes because he is ultimately responsible. Occasionally it may be imperative for the democratic leader to act autocratically (de Witt 1986: 154).

4.2.4 The laissez faire leadership style
This style gives the group members every opportunity to apply their own initiative and take responsibility. The leader does not make his presence felt (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 190). He has no interest in the activities of the group and the school and seldom attends any (Maake 1990: 30). This style may result in confusion and disorganisation as the staff may tend to formulate their own aims and decisions. To this principal the teaching profession is just security that generates the monthly income.

4.2.5 The altruistic leadership style
This leader fears hurting other people. He possesses some admirable qualities. He is indecisive, oversympathetic, and irresolute in his actions (De Witt 1986: 158). The greatest danger of this leadership style is that such unselfishness of the leader may cause the institution to be inefficient. The teacher without a strong sense of duty might exploit the lack of control to his own advantage and as a result the quality of his teaching and education will eventually deteriorate. One cannot condemn this style out of hand because some altruistic leaders have the closest human relations with colleagues and most pupils and still manage to run effectively an organised school (De Witt 1986: 159).

4.2.6 The bureaucratic leadership style
In this style authority comes from above (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 191). The basic assumption is that teachers should blindly and implicitly obey every ordinance, rule and regulation of the education department and the school. This leader likes to threaten subordinates with authority figures higher up in the organisational structure when he wants to keep them hard at work.

4.3 The managerial grid of the educational leader
The managerial grid was developed by Blake and Mouton (in Hoy & Miskel 1982: 250). It has two basic dimensions - concern for the task and concern for people. Concern for the task denotes a concern for the successful accomplishment of the organisational task. Concern for people refers to the sound and warm interpersonal relations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Balance for People</th>
<th>Concern for Production</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RELATIONSHIP ORIENTED MANAGEMENT (1.9)</td>
<td>INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT (9.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production is incidental to good human relations. The manager focusses on the development of harmonious group relations so that work organisation is pleasant. (&quot;Try to win friends&quot;).</td>
<td>Production is achieved by integration of task and human relationship requirements. The manager’s responsibility is to attain effective production and high morale through participation and involvement of people in team approach. (&quot;People support what they help create&quot;).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BALANCED MANAGEMENT (5.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The aim is a balance between high productivity and good human relations. The manager strives to find the middle ground so as to have reasonable production with good morale. (&quot;Be firm, but fair&quot;).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPOVERISHED MANAGEMENT (1.1)</td>
<td>TASK-ORIENTED MANAGEMENT (9.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum influence is exerted in interaction with others.</td>
<td>Good relations are incidental to high production. The supervisor emphasizes production goals by focussing on the planning, directing and controlling of all activities. (&quot;Produce or Perish&quot;).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little concern for production activities performed are routine. (&quot;Don’t rock the boat&quot;).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagram 3 (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 250; Gordon 1987: 398)
The managerial grid identifies management behaviours based on the various ways that task-oriented and employee-oriented styles interact with each other. The horizontal axis represents the concern for production dimension, while the vertical axis represents the concern for people dimension. Each axis has been converted to a nine-point scale, with the number 1 representing minimum concern and the number 9 designating the maximum concern.

4.4 The situational approach to leadership
According to this approach the effectiveness of the leader is determined by the situation. Different situations call for different kinds of leadership behaviour (Yuki 1981: 130). Details of this approach will be discussed in the next chapter.

4.5 Qualities and behaviour of a successful leader
According to Marks, et al (1971: 169) successful leader is one who is:

* Sensitive to the feelings of others while being at once considerate, helpful, responsive and friendly.
* Loyal to one's ideas and ideals and respectful of the beliefs, rights and dignity of others.
* Strong in his feelings of self-confidence and the ability to identify easily with co-workers.
* Consistent, generous, humble, modest, fair and honest in dealing with others.
* Enthusiastic in informing others about the policies and regulations of the school.
* Interested in the improvement of the group while at the same time possessing the ability to get the job done quickly and in the most efficient and correct manner.
* Firm but not stubborn in his own judgements and decisions.
* Apparently sincere, straightforward, approachable, easy to talk to, open to suggestions, encouraging, enthusiastic, stimulating, inspiring and relaxed and an interested, dynamic leader who has maintained his sense of humour.

4.6 Resume
From the foregoing discussion it was indicated that the principal as school manager cannot escape his leadership function. The quality of leadership he gives to his staff will determine the schools' successes and failures in realising its objectives. It was further shown that every style of leadership has its place in school management, depending on the nature of the situation. It became clear that a school can be kept on its toes by the dynamic leader or the principal.

The next management function of the principal that will be discussed is control.

5. CONTROL

No educational institution can function without the necessary authority. Theorists as well as practicing executives agree that good management requires effective control. A combination of well planned objectives, strong organisation, capable direction and motivation have little probability for success unless there exists an adequate system of control (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 573).
Allen (in Van der Weslhuizen 1991: 216) describes control as the work a manager does to assess and regulate work in progress and completed. Control is the manager's means of checking up. It is a systematic attempt to set standards appropriate to the objectives of the organisation, to observe actual achievements, to compare them with standards, and to take corrective measures to ensure that all the resources of the organisation are used as effectively as possible to accomplish its mission and objectives (Cronje et al 1987: 119).

Mockler's definition (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 574) of control points out the essential elements of the control process: "Management control is a systematic effort to set performance standards with planning objectives, to design information feedback systems, to compare actual performance with these predetermined standards, to determine whether there are any deviations and to measure their significance, and to take any action required to assure that all co-operate resources are being used in the most effective and efficient way possible in achieving co-operate objectives”.

It is therefore clear that control is the process through which organisational activities are regulated in such a way as to facilitate the attainment of planned objectives and operations. By exercising control, the principal is assured that tasks are effectively carried out.

5.1 Types of control methods

Control methods are classified in terms of time when control should be exercised. The following are the types of control methods.

5.1.1 Pre-action control

This control is exercised before starting to exercise work. It is intended to ensure that the goal will be achieved by providing guidelines (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 218). This type of control ensures that before an action is undertaken the necessary human, materials and financial resources have been budgeted (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 578). According to Dekker et al (1986: 112) the prior control measures can be staff manuals, syllabus and curriculum prescriptions, times, places and localities for presenting subjects, and staff registers and subject combinations.

5.1.2 Control while work is in progress

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 218) this control takes place while the work is being done to determine whether the planning and organising is being carried out. Stoner & Wankel (1986: 579) call this control, the steering control or feedforward control which is designed to detect deviations from some standards or goals and to allow corrections to be made before a particular sequence of action is required. This type of control is effective only if the principal is able to obtain timely and accurate information about progress towards the desired goal.
5.1.3 Post-action control
This type of control is exercised after work has been completed. It measures the results of a complete action (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 579). The cause of deviations from the plan or standard are determined, and the findings may be used for future planning and organising (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 218).

5.2 Methods of control
Control is exercised in two ways:

5.2.1 Direct method
In this one the actual situation is observed and evaluated and can be corrected at once. This method is referred to as formal method of control (Dekker, et al 1986: 119). One disadvantage of this method is that the staff may feel that they are not trusted (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 218).

5.2.2 Indirect method
This type of control may be exercised by means of oral or written reports. This method is also referred to as informal control measure (Dekker, et al 1986: 122). Van der Westhuizen (1991: 218) recommends this method because the staff feel that they are trusted and they may try to correct their mistakes instead of waiting to be told how to correct a mistake.

The principal is the highest authority figure and is finally responsible for all control. Control may be delegated.

5.3 Steps in exercising control
According to Stoner and Wankel (1986: 581) and Van der Westhuizen (1991: 221) the following are steps of control:

5.3.1 Define desired results
The principal should define as specifically as possible the results he desires to obtain. Goal expression should include a yardstick by which success or failure to achieve desired objectives can be measured.

5.3.2 Establish predictors of results
The principal should find a number of reliable indicators or predictors for each of their goals. Newman (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 581) identified several early warning predictors that can help principals estimate whether desired results will be achieved. Among them are:
5.3.2.1 Results of early steps
If early steps are better or worse than expected, a re-evaluation may be called for and appropriate action taken.

5.3.2.2 Symptoms
These are conditions that seem to be associated with final results. The difficulty is that symptoms are susceptible to very wrong or misleading interpretations.

5.3.2.3 Changes in assumed conditions
Any unexpected changes will indicate the need for a re-evaluation of tactics and goals. Principals may also use past results to help them make estimates of future performance. If there is a great number of reliable and timely predictors the principal can be more confident in making performance predictions.

5.3.3 Establishing standards
Control instructions are issued which set standards for what is expected and how the task will be evaluated (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 220). It is important that teachers should know what is expected of them. They should further know what criteria should be satisfied. Stoner and Wankel (1986: 581) further maintain that without established standards, managers may overreact to minor deviations or fail to react when deviations are significant. A standard serves as a benchmark against which actual performance can be compared. Criteria set should be realistic, acceptable, flexible, understandable and capable of evaluation (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 220). If a standard is tough that it seems impossible to meet, it will be more likely to discourage than to motivate effort (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 582).

5.3.4 Observing and measuring performance
This should be an ongoing, repetitive process, with the actual frequency dependent on the type of activity being measured. There should be feedback on work done so that actual performance may be compared with the set standards. Control communication should often be based on the 'management by exception' principle which suggests that the principal should be informed about an operation's progress only if there is a significant deviation from the plan or standard.

5.3.5 Evaluating performance
The purpose of evaluation, according to Reynders (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 221) is the identification of the merits and the deficiencies and is an integrative part of the control task. Evaluation helps indicate the strong and weak points of the program. It goes without saying that evaluation implies monitoring progress made with regard to goals and determining whether a person has carried out his given task. Stoner and Wankel (1986: 582) view evaluation as when the predictors are compared to the pars (standards).
5.3.6 Corrective action

If in his evaluation, the principal has noticed deviations from the set standards, he should take steps to deal with these deviations. The corrective action is the possible prevention of future repetition of the same deviancy (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 222).

According to Cronje, et al (1987: 122) the basic approach to corrective action is to take steps to attain performance standards or to improve them and to ensure that deviations do not occur. Finally Stoner and Wankel (1986: 582) warn: "Information about deviations from a par must first be evaluated. Some deviations are due to local or temporary circumstances and will not really affect the final result. . .". Alternative corrective actions, if they are required, are then developed, evaluated and implemented. The emphasis should be in devising constructive ways to bring performance up to standards, rather than merely identifying past failures.

5.4 Organisational factors creating the need for control

The following organisational factors create the need for control (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 577):

5.4.1 Change

Through the control function, principals detect changes that are affecting the services of the school. Then they can move to cope with the threats and opportunities these changes create.

5.4.2 Complexity

A small school could be controlled on a relatively informal, unplanned basis. Big schools, however, require a much more formal and careful approach.

5.4.3 Mistakes

It is common that members of staff and pupils do make mistakes. A system of control allows the principal to detect these mistakes before they become critical.

5.4.4 Delegation

When principals delegate authority to subordinates, their responsibility to their own superiors is not diminished. The only way the principal can determine if their subordinates are accomplishing the tasks that have been delegated to them is by implementing a system of control. Without such a system, managers are made to check on subordinates' progress.

5.5 Characteristics and requirements of effective control systems

Stoner and Wankel (1986: 586-587) and Van der Westhuizen (1991: 219) mention the following as characteristics and requirements for effective control:
5.5.1 **Accuracy**
Information on performance must be accurate.

5.5.2 **Timely**
Information should be collected and evaluated quickly if action is to be taken in time to produce improvements. Disparities should be indicated or reported as soon as possible.

5.5.3 **Control should be clear and understandable**
A difficult-to-understand control system will cause unnecessary mistakes and confusion and frustration among staff members.

5.5.4 **Organisationally realistic**
The control system should be compatible with school realities. All standards of performance must be realistic. Control should be adaptable to the nature and needs of the activities to be controlled.

5.5.5 **Flexibility**
Few organisations today are in such a stable environment that they do not have to worry about the possibility of change. Control should be flexible, it should be able to adapt to changing circumstances and make provisions for exceptions. With flexible control, the school can react quickly to overcome adverse changes or to take advantage of new opportunities.

5.5.6 **The purpose of control is that it should be to lead to corrective behaviour**
Effective control systems ought to indicate, upon the detection of a deviation from standards, what corrective action should be taken.

5.5.7 **Accepted by staff members**
For the control system to be accepted by staff members, it must be related to meaningful and accepted goals. Control is meaningful if it provides timely and accurate data on operational, day-to-day activities.

5.6 **Control of teachers**
According to Morris, et al (1984: 51) secondary school principals are conspicuous by their relative absence from the site of teaching and learning, the classroom. However, studies on what principals actually do have discovered that principals spend relatively little time directly attending to teaching and learning. Recent studies found that principals spend an average of just 7 to 9 percent of their time observing teachers (Morris, et al 1984: 74). Engel (in Wood, et al 1985: 148) noted that teachers resist evaluation by rationalising that teaching is a complex art impossible to evaluate objectively.

One of the most recent trends has been that of providing opportunities for student evaluation of staff performance (Burden & Whitt 1973: 106). Zax (in Wood, et al 1985: 149) noted that students evaluate good
teachers as follows: clarity of expression, humour, enthusiasm, insistence on high performance standards, sympathy, interest in students, expressive voice, cordiality, patience, impressive physique, tolerance and enjoyment of teaching.

Some opinions of administrators concerning student evaluation of teachers are that evaluation is a professional judgement and should be reserved for professional persons only, and that teachers may adjust their behaviour to be socially acceptable to students, for example, to be good guys instead of good teachers (Wood, et al 1985: 149).

The following are methods or ways of evaluating teachers:

5.6.1 Class visits

Class visits are a valuable tool for the principal to use to improve instruction. According to Thembela and Walters (1984: 63) class visits are aimed at giving guidance and encouraging teachers, and they enable the principal to evaluate the work performance of his staff.

The principal should note that the class visit is not made by the superior person observing an inferior teacher. It should not be a situation whereby an expert visits the class, discovers what is wrong, then directs the teacher to change certain methods (Wood, et al 1985: 159). Cawood and Gibbon (1980: 138) advocate the classroom situation that is of a clinical nature and not of an inspection, autocratic character. According to Atkinson, et al 1993: 89) clinical inspection encourages the supervisor and teacher to work together to identify instructional problems, determine the cause of the problems, and work towards the solutions.

The principal should display the best professional behaviour during the class visit. He should inform the teachers about the aims of the class visit. According to Wood, et al (1985: 159) the aims of the class visits are to:

* better understand the educational program
* better understand teachers
* better understand students
* observe the teaching and learning situation

When viewing the teaching and learning process, the principal should observe the following: method, presentation, motivation for learning, assignments, use of teaching and learning aids, discussion or verbal interaction, student interest and interaction, and classroom atmosphere (Woods, et al 1985: 159).

It is generally suggested that class visits should be announced. The teacher will probably be most uncomfortable during the first visit. The principal should remain as unnoticed as possible during the visits, although the students will always pay some attention when they know that the principal is in their classroom (Wood, et al 1985: 160). After the visit, an informal conference should be held with
the teacher concerned. The principal should be friendly and co-operative. Thembela and Walters (1984: 63) suggest that class visits be also delegated to heads of departments.

5.6.2 Control of schemes of work and lesson plans

It is necessary that schemes of work and lesson plans be checked regularly. Because the principal cannot be an expert in every subject, the heads of department should share the responsibility of checking, commenting on and evaluating the teachers' planning (Thembela & Walters 1984: 63). The principal may set days on which scheme books should be submitted for checking.

5.6.3 Control of pupils' written work

Thembela and Walters (1984: 63) suggest that the principal and heads of department should check regularly that written work is given and marked by teachers. The checking of pupils' written work is hampered by large numbers where the teacher cannot pay the individual attention to each pupil.

5.6.4 Control of content in examinations and tests

The principal should exercise control on examination content and procedure. He should set dates for the submission of question papers and memoranda. The safekeeping of papers is very important for the principal to arrange. The principal must decide and fix dates for the following (Thembela & Walters 1984: 64):

* completion of marking of scripts
* moderation of papers by heads of department
* submission of schedules
* promotion meetings
* completion of reports for posting or handing to pupils

5.7 Control of pupils

5.7.1 Discipline

The Dictionary of Education (in Wood, et al 1985: 313) lists four definitions of discipline that apply to the student:

* The process or result of directing or subordinating immediate wishes, impulses, desires or interests for the sake of an ideal or for the purpose of gaining more effective, dependable action.
* Persistent, active, and self-directed permit of some considered course of action in the face of distraction, confusion and difficulty.
* Direct authoritative control of pupils' behaviour through punishment or rewards.
* Negatively, any restraint of impulses, frequently through distasteful or painful means.
In the past years the fear of the rod was a major instrument of student discipline. The infliction of physical pain was seen as justified. It was natural to believe that children should be controlled by violence or threat of violence.

For years, the advantages and disadvantages of corporal punishment have been debated. There are cases under which corporal punishment can be inflicted. Regulation 4(i)(a) of the Regulations regarding the control of pupils in terms of the Education Affairs Act, 1988, provides that corporal punishment shall be administered to pupils only in cases of continued or grave neglect of duty or disobedience, recalcitrance, wilful injury to property, theft, dishonest, blatant lying, assault, bullying, indecency, truancy, or any other misconduct of serious nature (Bondesio, Beckman, Oosthuizen, Prinsloo & Van Wyk 1989: 84).

Styles of principals of maintaining discipline vary. Some principals pay more attention on the strict control of pupil behaviour, the cleanliness of the school, etc. Other principals can tolerate a bit of noise, confusion, and untidiness while maintaining control (Morris, et al 1984: 80).

5.7.2 School rules and regulations
Partington (in Bondesio, et al 1989: 80) is of the opinion that schools need rules so that "... among other things they are safe and orderly places for children and in order to express to children and parents what the educational aims are". The principal must ensure that the school rules and regulations do reflect the school policy's intent about discipline (Wood, et al 1985: 315).

Each day principals spend a great deal of time enforcing rules. Rules help create an orderly school environment. It is necessary that rule enforcement is responsible and consistent. If inconsistency in rule develops, that can produce as much chaos as the original disorderly behaviour (Morris, et al 1984: 80). Wood, et al (1985: 315) suggests that to ensure effective implementation of rules and regulations, those affected by the rules and regulations must be involved in formulating them as they will more willingly accept rules and regulations to which they are committed.

The principal must consider certain legal implications when formulating school rules and regulations. The principal is legally responsible for student discipline from the time the students leave the school until they arrive back home. The principal, therefore, must formulate rules and regulations to control the students' behaviour on their ways to and from school (Woods, et al 1985: 315).

5.7.3 Student-centred concerns
The following concerns present critical challenges for the Black high school principal:

5.7.3.1 Dress and hair regulations
According to Kaiser (1985: 55) the school principal has the responsibility to develop and enforce rules and regulations on student dress and hair styles since the principal has the duty to protect student health and safety. Jacobson, et al (1973: 282) maintain that enforcing strict rules of dress and hair styles is on the par with concern over gum-chewing. They further argue that both are factors of aesthetics and individual expression, and are not related to improved learning conditions.

A warning from Kaiser (1985:55) is that a principal can enforce a specific dress code, but the code must meet test of reasonableness and a test of disruption. The principal cannot limit student dress as a means of expression solely on the basis of his personal taste. Lastly, Jacobson, et al (1973: 282) warn: "As a straw man issue, the problem of dress only diverts energies from more worthy concerns".

5.7.3.2 Drug abuse and use

Public schools are all having to face the reality of student drug use. Jacobson, et al (1973: 284) warn that schools need to be assertive, aggressive and willing to take the necessary risks in exploring nontraditional approaches to dealing with drug problems. Disciplinary action should be taken along with extensive counselling.

5.7.3.3 Injuries of students

It cannot be denied that a child is exposed to dangers in the school which may lead to his being injured or suffering other harm (Bondesio, et al 1989: 53). It is the responsibility of the principal to supervise students' activities in the school, on the school grounds and off the school grounds. The Committee of Heads of Education brochure (Bondesio, et al 1989, 56) suggests that a school should have a safety programme with the following elements:

* a clearly-defined safety policy
* how the policy is implemented in dangerous circumstances
* disciplinary measures in cases of intentional transgressions of safety measures.

5.7.3.4 Student sex and marriage

The community or public school system is generally opposed to sexual relations among students (Kaiser 1985: 58). Schools generally discourage students from having sexual relations by resorting to expulsions, suspensions and corporal punishment. The principal should realise that most court rulings do not support excluding students from school on the basis of sexual behaviour, pregnancy or marriage (Kaiser 1985: 59).

5.7.3.5 School crime

The principal has to face the variety of crime committed inside and outside the school. The principal may use his investigative and discretionary authority in dealing with minor crimes. Kaiser (1985: 60) suggests that in situations involving school crime, the principal's best solution is to be prepared with
policies. Well developed policies will prevent charges of negligence and misconduct against the principal.

5.7.3.6 Student unrest

The principal of a high school often faces a demanding and questioning adolescent society. Hence, the principal must be skillful in working with student groups (Wood, et al 1985: 47). Jacobson, et al (1973: 239) add: "Student unrest is not absent-nor does it interfere with ongoing educational process. But we are in a period of increasing student awareness, concern, involvement and activism". The 'in loco parentis' status of a teacher and the principal is being questioned. According to Wood, et al (1985: 47) when a principal is faced with an immediate conflict, he must know the legal aspects involved. He must also know the techniques that may help to control demonstrations, protect non-dissenters, and allow coolheaded administrative procedures.

Jacobson, et al (1973: 240) suggest the following strategy the principal can use to be effective in dealing with student unrest:

(a) Get informed

(i) Scope of the problem

The principal should make an effort to estimate how widespread and serious the problem of student unrest really is.

(ii) Forms the problem may take

The student unrest may take the following forms: refusal to conform with regulations on dress code, mass meetings, picketing, boycotts, teacher harassment, open rebellion, riot and arson. Petitions may be circulated and leaflets distributed.

(iii) Destructive activism vs constructive activism

Destructive activists are radicals, extremists who seek impossible goals and they offer easy answers. They object to all authority. They defy school rules. Even though they demand complete freedom for themselves, they tolerate no deviation from their view. Their strong weapon is intimidation and even assault. Constructive activists or moderate dissenters are sensitive, alert and highly intelligent students who care about the efficiency of the school's instructional practices. Their trust is generally directed not so much against individuals in authority as against the institution itself. It is important that the principal be able to distinguish between the two groups.

(iv) Causes of dissent

The questions that educational management researchers should address are:

What makes young people rebel against the status quo? What specific circumstances are giving rise to activism in high schools?

Jacobson, et al (1973: 211) mention the following causes of dissent:

- External factors

The student movements usually have as their prime purpose the instigation and furtherance of anarchy in high schools. For the principal to be able to deal with unrest, he needs to have complete knowledge of these externally-oriented factors/pressures.
* Personal factors

It is commonly believed that the present generation is brought up in an environment of permissiveness. This has resulted in gross lack of respect for authority and open rebellion against regulations by high school students. The adolescent period of adjustment is highly characterised by a tendency towards rebelliousness. The other factor is the current phenomenon of early maturation, especially in township children as compared to yesterday's boys and girls. Today's confusing standards of right or wrong are another factor—standards pertaining to acceptance or rejection of draft to sexual conduct, to drug use, drinking, honesty, church-going, smoking, etc.

* School related factors

Some accusations levelled by high school students are that schools are undemocratised and unjust and that schools are petty in their rules and the use of force is typical. The students complain that there is little chance of student contribution to critical decision making. Alienation and frustration may stem from poor classroom climate where teachers may resort to belittling or intimidation or imposing on students ridiculous and embarrassing disciplinary measures.

(v) Knowledge of the field

When a demonstration begins in spite of all attempts to avert it, the recommended procedures are the following (Jacobson, et al 1973: 247):

* Utilise every possible channel of communication to and from students to ascertain of the problem.

* Make all students understand that they are legally under the authority of the teachers. They should be informed of the means by which violence and vandalism will be dealt with.

* Identify and communicate with student leaders. Listen to them with understanding. Help them to see the advantages of dealing with their dispute in a positive manner.

* Eliminate from the campus all outside agitation - and interference by controlling entrances and asking for police assistance to remove away any persons who loiter without a visitor's permit.

* If, in spite of everything, you obviously have the riot out of your hand, call the police.

It goes without saying that the principal needs to act with firmness and coolness. In this period of social turbulence where high school unrest is surely one manifestation, the principal will inevitably have to face the situation realistically - neither making a mountain out of a molehill, or playing ostrich - either of those roles could be disastrous (Jacobson, et al 1973: 259).

5.7.4 Further consideration related to discipline

Today's secondary adolescent and discipline require that the principal and teachers be flexible with times and with changing times. Wood, et al (1985: 315) stress that policies relating to discipline often become outmoded. Today's students would not submit to the harsher disciplines of the past. The following are the proposals for developing an effective discipline programme (Wood, et al 1985: 321):
The student representative council should be involved in developing procedures to handle discipline problems. However, the extent of student involvement should be demarcated. The total staff must be involved in developing a discipline programme. The total program for handling discipline problems should be written. Such a program should be flexible enough so that students may feel that they are being treated as individuals rather than as objects.

The Black school's educational leader has suddenly found that he is no longer an omnipotent administrator, but one who must listen to student demands and be prepared for confrontations, walkouts, sit-ins, and other signs of student activism. Students are insisting on the rights to be seen and heard (Wood, et al 1985: 294).

From the above it is clear that the role of the principal has changed from what it was years ago. Maake (1990:115) is of the opinion that the principal must constantly create opportunities for personal contact with his pupils. The principal must always be prepared to talk with pupils face to face, visit them in their classes and show interest in their work.

Pupils can assist in the orderly running of the school. Future leaders are developed at school. Pupils can be made to show discipline, respect, punctuality, loyalty, academic thoroughness and active participation in all school activities (Maake 1990: 118). Ngcongo (1986: 60) further maintains that the nature of educational leadership binds the school and the principal to involve students in their education, through offering them opportunities for decision making. In that way the school tone and discipline will improve.

5.8 Resume

The main aim of control is to check if the set goals are met. Control is a systematic effort which follows certain steps. If the deviations from the set standards are noted, the corrective action might be necessary. The school principal exercises control on teachers and pupils. There are rules and regulations through which the principal can exercise control.

It is, however, important to note that the Black high school's control task is now more challenging and difficult. Pupils, teachers, parents and community are now demanding more freedom. This implies that the principal must be tactful and in his exercising of control.
6. IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING, ORGANISING, LEADING AND CONTROL FOR THE BLACK PRINCIPAL

If schools are to play a projected role, one would expect Black principals to commit themselves to the awesome task of providing quality education (Mkhize 1980: 4). As a result of the increasing complexity of the school as an organisation, the Black principal is subjected to changing demands especially in respect to his management tasks. According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 2) the educational leader can no longer be expected to perform his duties in a 'hit-or-miss' fashion.

Recent approach in the developing world conducted by the World Bank as well as numerous studies in the United States all indicate that one of the - if not the single - most important factors in improving education is the school principal (Atkinson, et al 1993: 2). This is also true of the Black principal. The planning, organising, leading and control tasks of the Black high school principal have become more complicated and complex because of such factors as the knowledge explosion, change and renewal, development of the system of education, democratisation of the decision making process and demands for accountability. As a result of the changing environments especially in Black communities in the 1990's, planning must rely more heavily on systematic procedures and less on hunches and intuition.

South Africa today needs Black principals who have the ability to foresee i.e. to assess the future and make provision for it. The South Africa of today needs Black high school principals who can predict and look ahead in terms of the present and anticipate facts. Maake (1990: 16) also regards planning as an important task of the principal as a manager and concomitant with it, is the determination of priorities.

The Black principals must design the mechanism to put the plans into effect. Now the time is over for the Black principal to let things happen haphazardly in their schools. Now they need to make a detailed analysis of work to be done and resources to be used to accomplish the goals of the school. For the Black schools to be effective, they require principals who can divide the workload into activities that can be comfortably performed by an individual or group.

According to Maake (1990: 27) the principal as the leader of a team is responsible for implementing a projected program, to motivate his staff and to keep every member of his staff informed so that they know exactly what is expected of them. Principals in a dynamic and changing South African society must be both good managers and skilled leaders (Atkinson, et al 1993: 3). It has been argued that many South African principals have, in the past, been limited to a managerial-only role, often because it was the best strategy for survival. However, the changing times demand new directions and new approaches.

The need for visionary and inspired leadership in South Africa is now - and especially in Black schools.

It is impossible to imagine any organisation completely devoid of control in the broadest sense of the term (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 576). Morris, et al (1984: 51) state that high school students represent a potential of mischief which is far more threatening to the school's stability. With the great increase in drug use in the wider society and the need for proper instruction to take place, the Black principal's control function is necessarily magnified.

It is therefore clear that control is necessary for the school to achieve its objectives. Furthermore, it is clear that Black high school principals need the necessary skills of exercising control for their schools to be effective.
7. CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the managerial tasks that are considered important for the Black high school principal in the South Africa of the 1990's. This outline has revealed that the principal is the planner, organiser, leader and controller. The areas of management, for example, personnel management, pupil management, management of school finances, etc. have also been discussed. It should be noted that the management tasks discussed in this chapter are relevant to all principals not just the Black principals.

It has also been shown what each management task entails and which skills can be used to execute them. According to Marx (in Van der Westhuizen 1991: 136) these management tasks are inextricably related, interwoven, mutually dependant and supplementary to one another. With this theory in mind, we shall now proceed to describe what entails the contingency approach.
CHAPTER 3
WHAT ENTAILS THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH

1. INTRODUCTION

It became clear in Chapter 1 that the effectiveness of the principal's management style is contingent upon the nature of the situation. In this chapter an attempt is made to investigate what entails the contingency approach. Other questions that will be attempted to be answered are:

- On what theories is the contingency approach based?
- Can this approach be seen as a leading branch of educational management thought today?
- Is this approach the only authentic way to study educational management?
- Why is this thought so important in South Africa today?
- Why are the critics for and against this approach?

This contemporary theory of management originated from the research undertaken by people such as Vroom and Fiedler (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 80). An underlying assumption of the contingency theory is that different types of situations require different types of leadership styles (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 238). Before discussing the contingency approach, it is important to, firstly, discuss the theories that gave rise to the contingency approach.

2. TRAIT-SITUATION DILEMMA

2.1 The trait approach

The earliest theories sought to establish the personal traits necessary for effective leaders (McFarland 1979: 216). These theories held that traits are inherited, and that certain people are born to be leaders. Kreitner and Kinicki (1992: 517) maintain that trait theories focused on identifying the personal traits that differentiated leaders from followers.

The focus of the trait theory is on the personal attributes or qualities of leaders. According to Hoy and Miskel (1982: 221) the trait approach typically attempts to identify any distinctive physical or psychological characteristics of the individual that relate or explain the behaviour of leaders. According to this approach leadership is evaluated by considering whether a leader possesses certain "personality traits, social traits and physical traits" (Gordon 1987: 349). From the above it can therefore be deducted that the trait approach is based on the premise of qualities or characteristics of principals.

Stogdill (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 222) classified the personal factors associated with leadership into the following general categories:

- Capacity (intelligent, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement). In this regard Gordon (1987: 394) adds: "Is the leader well adjusted, enthusiastic and persistent?"
- Achievement (scholarship, knowledge)
* Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel). In this regard Gordon (1987: 394) adds: "Does he (the leader) show patience, tact and sympathy?"
* Participation (activity, sociality, co-operation, humour and adaptability)
* Status (socio-economic position, popularity). In this regard Gordon (1987: 394) adds: "Is he (the leader) tall, either too heavy nor too thin, and physically attractive?"

According to Stogdill (in Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 518) these five traits tend to differentiate leaders from average followers. Some of the traits stated above have also been mentioned by Stoner & Wankel (1986: 447) and Atkinson, et al (1993: 3). In his study, Ghiselli (in Korman 1977: 158) identified eight personality and five motivational traits for the possible significance for management success. According to the trait theory, if the principal has all these characteristics, he would be an effective leader and manager (Korman 1977, 158).

Warren Bennis (in Gordon 1987: 395) offers the following protocol for effective leadership according to the trait approach:
* Leaders must develop the vision and strengths to call the shots.
* The leader must be a 'conceptualist' (not just someone to tinker with the 'nuts and bolts').
* He must have a sense of continuity and significance in order to see the present in the past and the future in the present.
* The leader must get at the truth and learn how to filter the unwieldy flow of information into coherent patterns.
* The leader must be a social architect who studies and shapes what is called 'the culture of work'.
* To lead others, the leader must first know himself.

2.1.1 Limitations of the trait theory
Korman (1977: 164) warns that there are a number of logic problems with the contingency approach that need to be kept in mind. One of these problems is that the trait approach normally is a static one that involves the fitting together of two parts. It does not take into account that part A (environment) may affect part B (person) over time and that such effects may vary depending on the characteristics of a particular part B. McFarland (1979: 216) avers that this theory failed to consider the influence of situational factors. A second problem is that you have to know beforehand what values of the contingency variable are at which you change the type of leadership behaviour that is most appropriate. The trait theory does not indicate when the leader should change from one style to the other. The leader should actually know when to change the type of leadership behaviour. Otherwise you may change from permissive to controlling at the wrong point. Kreitner and Kinicki (1992: 518) argue that the traits mentioned earlier on do not accurately predict which individuals become leaders in organisations. People with these traits often remained followers. McFarland (1979: 216) adds that many good leaders do not possess the expected traits and the presence of traits does not reliably predict leadership behaviour.

Gouldner (in McFarland 1979: 217) cited the following additional weaknesses of the trait theory:
* Lists of traits usually do not indicate which ones are more important than others.
* Traits are often not mutually exclusive.
* Trait studies describe, but do not analyse, behaviour patterns.
* Trait theory is based on debatable assumptions regarding personality.

Gordon (1987:394) warns that one major limitation of the trait theory is that traits associated with leadership in one situation do not predict leadership in another. Drucker (in Mkhize 1980: 48) also warns that the effectiveness of an administrator is not a result of intelligence, knowledge or imagination, but that is a result of practice. This then gives rise to the contingency approach.

2.1.2 Advantages of the trait theory

There are traits which show consistent correlations with leadership. These traits are intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, energy or activity, and task-relevant knowledge. It appears then, that the study of leadership traits should not be neglected (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 221).

Yuki (in Atkinson, et al 1993: 3) found that effective or good leaders do have certain characteristics that distinguish them from ineffective or bad ones. These characteristics include having sound technical knowledge, good conceptual skills (creativity and intelligence), and the ability to use human relation skill such as being diplomatic, persuasive and verbal.

According to Gordon (1987: 394) recently the trait approach to leadership has received renewed interest.

Leaders can be good or bad. Whilst one may strongly accept the premise that traits associated with effective leadership in one situation do not predict effective leadership in another situation, one may also accept the argument of House and Baetz (in Hoy & Miskel 1982: 247) that certain properties of all leadership situations are present and relatively invariant. This implies that there are traits which are required in most, if not all, leadership situations. The following are those invariant characteristics of different leadership situations (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 247):

* Since leadership requires followers, **social skills** probably will always be needed if behaviours intended to influence are to be viewed as acceptable by subordinates.
* Since leadership requires a predisposition to be influential, traits like **self-confidence**, **dominance**, **need for power** and **need for influence** are probably associated with leader effectiveness.
* Since leadership is often exercised when specific task objectives or organisational goals must be accomplished, traits such as **need for achievement**, **desire for responsibility**, **task orientation**, **energy level** and **task-relevant knowledge** also are likely to be associated with leadership.
The trait theory views leadership as a personality gift, as a leader is said to possess certain characteristics. This theory is, as Musaazi (in Ngongo 1986: 29) says, more a study of personality than position.

2.1.3 Resume
From the foregoing discussion it was shown that the trait theory tries to identify the personal qualities of the individual that explain the behaviour of leaders. Leaders may be good or bad. From the limitations of this theory, it became clear that the traits associated with effective leadership in one situation do not predict effective leadership in another situation. No one group of leadership traits is representative of all leaders, and no single type of behaviour works equally well in all situations with all people. There are however, certain traits of leadership that are relatively invariant in almost all situations. One may, then, conclude that the trait theory by itself cannot explain management. The situational contingencies must also be considered.

2.2 Situational approach
When the trait approach could not provide satisfactory and convincing explanation of leadership, the reaction was to substitute a situational approach for the questionable trait approach. Situational leadership theories grew out of an attempt to explain the inconsistent findings about the traits and styles (Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 522). Murphy (in Shaw 1981: 331) argued that leadership traits are fluid and that individual characteristics may change with the situation.

For example, a person who is usually dominant may become shy if placed in an unfamiliar situation. Consequently a trait that is positively related to leadership in one situation may be unrelated or even negatively related in another. Situational theories propose that the effectiveness of a particular style of leader behaviour depends on the situation (Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 522).

The situational leadership theory maintains that a leader should determine the style which suits the situation, and that a person should be placed in a situation which best suits his style (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 83). Variables that have been postulated as being situational determinants of leadership include the following (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 223):

- Structural properties of the organisation (size, hierarchical structure, formalisation)
- Organisational climate (openness, participativeness, group atmosphere)
- Role characteristics (position power, type and difficulty of the task, procedural rules)
- Subordinates' characteristics (knowledge and experience, tolerance for ambiguity, responsibility, power)

2.2.1 Limitations of the situational approach
A purely situational view of leadership has the following shortcomings, according to McFarland (1979: 223): It fails to take into account that leadership is a complex process in which the individual's traits may well play a part. The situational theories by themselves represent a limited and incomplete explanation. The situationists may be overlooking the possibility that at least some traits
influence people to attain leadership responsibilities and that in some cases traits may increase the chances of becoming leaders.

2.2.2 Some advantages of the situational approach

Despite its limitations, the situational theory has emphasized the situational nature of leadership, and helped us realize that almost anyone can succeed - or fail - as a leader (Longenecker & Pringle 1984: 443). It is important to realize that situations in organizations differ, they are complex and often change.

These circumstances require principals to employ leadership styles that fit the situation rather than to try to force all situations to fit a particular style of leadership (Atkinson, et al 1993: 7).

This theory carries some meaning to the educational manager: It is not only the school that is managed, but also the situation. This theory stresses the importance of the situation in educational management. Since situations change continuously (Duminy & Steyn 1985: 522), different styles become appropriate. This challenges the idea of one best style of leadership (Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 522). This further implies that the leader should assess any existing situation correctly and take management decisions accordingly (Van Schalkwyk, et al 1986: 97).

2.2.3 Resume

The situational approach stresses the importance of the situation in management. The suitable and effective style of management is determined by the situation. From the limitations of this theory it became clear that the situational approach cannot, by itself, explain management. It further became clear that to restrict the study of leadership and management to a single approach is unduly restrictive and counterproductive. The situational approach, too, could not provide satisfactory answers on management. Late investigations proved that both the trait approach and the situational approach are important for leadership effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 223). The contingency approach which is a merger of both the trait and situational approaches therefore came into being. This will be discussed in the next section.

3. The contingency approach: a merger of the trait and situational approaches

Luthans (1973: 70) maintain that theorists of the process, quantitative, behavioural and systems approaches to leadership have not integrated the environment and often assume that their concepts and techniques have universal applicability. The contingency approach does incorporate the environment and attempts to bridge the existing theory-practice gap.

According to the contingency approach, the task of the educational manager is to identify which technique will, in a particular situation, under particular circumstances, and at a particular time, best contribute to the attainment of management goals (Calitz, et al 1986: 21). According to Massie and Douglas (1985: 6) the contingency approach is that a manager's job is
to try to identify the ideas or techniques that will help attain the organisation's goals at a certain time, under particular conditions, and in the actual situation. This can be explained by the following diagram:

![Diagram 1: The Contingency Approach (Massie & Douglas 1985: 69)](image)

The diagram above indicates the factors determining the manager's selection of techniques, action or behaviour to attain the organisational goals. As the arrows indicate the manager's (principal's) selection of techniques and action that will help attain the organisational goals depends on existing constraints and conditions, time of action, personal characteristics of preference, nature of problems, and the situation and the external environment.

The evidence indicates that under one set of circumstances, one type of leader is effective, under another set of circumstances, however, a different type of leader is effective. The contingency theory emphasizes that the most important variable which should determine the leader's behaviour is the nature of the situation in which he finds himself.

The contingency approach requires that the leader has the ability to analyse different situations and to formulate and apply management strategy which will work best for the situation (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 80). According to Van Schalkwyk, et al (1986: 96) The contingency approach is based on the following premises:

* There is no single best method of organising, administering or managing a school.
* All forms of organisation and administration are not equally applicable in a given situation.
* The selection of an organisational design or administration style should be based on a careful analysis of the significant components of the situation.

The proponents of situational management set forth the propositions that the management approach employed by an individual should be relative to the situation, and that different situations call for different kinds of behaviour on the part of the manager (Atkinson, et al 1993: 74).
Consequently the following are going to be discussed to describe the contingency process:

* favourableness and unfavourableness of the situation
* the 'if-then' management contingency
* situational factors in effective management

It is important to discuss these aspects because of the following reasons:

* The situational favourableness and unfavourableness of the situation basically indicates the degree of effectiveness of the leader and leadership style.
* The 'if-then' management contingency basically indicates that there are dependent and independent variables in the situation.
* The situational factors seem to determine whether a given situation is favourable or unfavourable to the leader.

3.1 **Favourableness and unfavourableness of the situation**

Fiedler's research specifically sought to classify different situations in terms of favourableness to the leader (Owens 1981: 162). The extent to which a situation may be classified as favourable or unfavourable to the manager is seen as related to the three key factors according to Owens (1981: 162):

* The quality of relations between the leader and followers. When relations are good, the leader finds it easier to exercise influence and authority than if relations are not good.
* The degree to which the task is well structured. In some cases the goals are specific, the steps in the task are clear, and the proper way to proceed is a matter of technical knowledge. In some cases, however, the tasks are ambiguous, one may not be sure how to organise the work, and proper procedure is problematical.
* Power of the leader's position. This refers to the extent to which the leader is vested with such prerogatives as the right to hire, expel, give or withhold pay increases, promote, rearrange and punish or reprimand.

These aspects can be summarised in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contingencies in the situation</th>
<th>Favourableness</th>
<th>Most effective leadership style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position power of leader</td>
<td>Relative structure of task</td>
<td>Leader-member relations of situation to leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Good</td>
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<td>Weak</td>
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</table>
Table 1: Favourableness of the situation / unfavourableness of the situation (Owens 1981: 164)

According to the diagram above, the extent to which a situation may be classified as favourable or unfavourable to the leader is seen as related to three key factors (leader member relations, task structure and position power). These three factors of situational favourableness can be arranged in eight possible combinations, and, for the sake of simplicity, can be regrouped into 'very favourable', 'intermediate favourable' and 'unfavourable' categories. The assessment of the favourableness of the situation to the leader is useful in suggesting the leadership style most likely to be effective in various situations.

Task-orientated leaders score low on the Least Preferred Co-worker scale. The relationship-orientated leaders score high on the LPC scale. Leadership style as measured by the LPC scale represents a cognitive motivational process with the important content being effective task completion or positive interpersonal relationships.

3.2 The 'if-then' management contingency

According to Luthans (1973: 70) a contingency relationship can be simply thought of as an 'if-then' functional relationship. The 'if' is the independent variable, and the 'then' is the dependent variable. Although the environment variables are usually independent and the management concepts and techniques usually dependent, the reverse can also occur. The contingency management generally treats the environment as independent (the 'if's') and the management concepts and techniques as dependent (the 'then's').

3.3 Situational factors in effective management

Fiedler's basic premise is that leader effectiveness is contingent upon the appropriate match between the leader's style and the degree to which he controls the situation (Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 523). Situational control is the amount of control and influence the leader has in his immediate work environment.
Diagram 2: Situational factors in effective management (Stoner and Wankel 1986: 453)

The diagram above indicates the factors that influence leader effectiveness. These factors also influence the leader in return. The influence process is reciprocal - leaders and the group members, for example, influence each other and affect the effectiveness of the group as a whole. Fiedler (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 456); Sergiovanni & Starratt (1979: 121) and Hoy & Miskel (1982: 238) identified the following elements in the work situation that help determine which management style will be effective:

3.3.1 Leader member relationship

This refers to the extent to which the leader has support, loyalty, trust, acceptance and respect of the group members (Kreitner & Kinicki 1992: 524). Two factors are important with respect to leader member relations: the quality of interpersonal relations between the leaders and subordinates, and the level of informal authority granted to the leader (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 238). If the principal gets along well with the rest of the group, if the staff respects the principal for the reasons of personality, character or ability, then the principal may not have to rely on formal rank or authority. On the other hand, a principal who is disliked or distrusted may be less able to lead informally and may have to rely on directives to accomplish group tasks.

3.3.2 Task structure

It is measured by the extent to which the task can be clearly specified, verified and programmed in a step-by-step manner. A highly structured task is one in which step-by-step procedures or instructions for the task are available, staff members may therefore have a very clear idea of what they are expected to do. Principals in such situations automatically have a great deal of authority.

When tasks are unstructured, staff member's roles are more ambiguous, because there are no clear guidelines on how to proceed. The principal's power is diminished since staff members can more easily disagree with or question the principal's instructions, and the multiplicity of approaches make definite action by the principal and staff members difficult.

3.3.3 Position power

It refers to the degree to which the position itself enables the leader to get subordinates to comply with directives. Position power determines the extent to which the principal can punish staff members, whether the principal enjoys special or official rank or status which sets him apart from staff members. High position power simplifies the principal's task of influencing subordinates, while low position power makes the principal's task more difficult.

3.3.4 The principal's personality, past experiences and expectations

The principal's values, background and experiences will affect his choice of style. Managers differ greatly in the amount of trust they have in other people generally, and this carries over to the
particular employees they supervise at a given time. The principal who distrusts subordinates or who simply likes to manage all work activities directly may adopt a more authoritarian rule. There are some managers who seem to function more comfortably and naturally as highly directive leaders.

In general, principals develop the leadership style with which they are most comfortable. The fact that the principal's personality or past experiences help form his leadership does not mean that the style is unchangeable. Principals learn that some styles work better for them than others, if a style proves inappropriate, they can alter it.

The principal's general expectations are still another component. Evidence has shown that, for a variety of reasons, situations tend to work out the way we expect them to, this is sometimes referred to as self-fulfilling prophecy. Principal's expectations of what style would be necessary to get subordinates to work effectively lead to their choice of style.

3.3.5 Subordinates' characteristics, expectations and behaviour

The characteristics of subordinates may affect the principal's management style in a number of ways: First, the skills and training of subordinates influence the principal's choice of style. Highly capable teachers will normally require a less directive approach. Second, the attitudes of teachers will also be an influential factor. Some types of teachers may prefer an authoritarian principal, while others may prefer to be given total responsibility for their own work.

The expectations of subordinates is another factor. Subordinates who have had the relationship-orientated principal in the past may expect the new principal to have a similar style and may react negatively to authoritarian leadership. Similarly, highly skilled and motivated teachers may expect the principal not to 'meddle'. Teachers faced with new and challenging tasks, on the other hand, may expect the principal's directives.

The reactions of subordinates to a principal's management style will usually signal to the principal how effective his style is. For example, the subordinate's confusion and resentment that often accompanies an inappropriate style will usually suggest to the principal that a change in style is required.

Hersey and Blanchard (in Atkinson, et al 1993: 7) have come up with another concept, maturity, in an attempt to better describe the subordinates' characteristics. Maturity is composed of two interrelated factors: job maturity and psychological maturity. Job maturity refers to the individual's competence to perform the assigned task. Psychological maturity refers to the individual's motivation or need to achieve on the job and the willingness to accept responsibility. The contingency approach contends that the maturity level of an individual or group can be increased over time, and as the maturity level of the individual or group increases, the management style may gradually move from
task-orientated to relationship-orientated style. The key to effective leadership is to match the maturity level of those being led with the appropriate leadership style.

3.3.6 Peers' expectations and behaviour
One's own fellow principals are an important reference group. Principals form friendships with their colleagues in other schools, the opinions of these colleagues matter to them. A principal who is comparatively lenient, for example, may well become more autocratic if others comment more negatively about his leniency. Whatever their own inclinations are, principals tend, to some extent, to imitate the management style of their peers.

3.3.7 Resume
The foregoing discussion has outlined the situational factors that determine the effectiveness of the principal's management style. As it was already stated in Chapter 1, the principal is not operating in a vacuum. He is situation bound. These factors therefore explain the situation in which the principal is operating. There are other important contextual factors such as the composition of the teaching staff, the student body and the surrounding community that seem to shape how principals accomplish their roles. It is therefore clear that the principal's choice of leadership style must reckon with situational contingencies. If principals are flexible in their management techniques, then presumably they will be effective in a variety of management situations.

4. THE MATCH: MANAGEMENT STYLE AND THE SITUATION

The question still remains: Which style of leadership is most effective in which type of situation? (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 240). Traditionally, leadership styles have been classified as autocratic, liassez faire and democratic. As one reviews these three concepts, it becomes apparent that most leaders have characteristics of all three types (Wood, et al 1985: 60). In fact under certain conditions, certain styles seem effective. For example, autocratic leadership may be effective when the student is about to strike a teacher. The decision of what the principal should do cannot, in this instance, involve reasoning with a student.

The concept of leadership is elusive because it depends not only on the position, behaviour and personal characteristics of the leader, but also on circumstances (Musaazi 1982: 70). In a school it is therefore important that the principal should analyse relevant events in his situation in order to apply the appropriate methods of dealing with the situation (Calitz, et al 1986: 96).

The following are the different styles which the principal as a leader can use:

4.1 Task-orientated management style
This style is characterised by a high concern for task accomplishments and is coupled with a low concern for people. Halpin (in Ngcongo 1986: 32) calls this style the initiating structure. He says this structure is the establishment of the leader relationship with his subordinates, specifying the roles the latter are to play, assigning
them tasks, planning what they will do to achieve objectives. Task related functions might include suggesting solutions and offering information and opinion (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 448).

In this style the principal sets rigid work standards, organises tasks down to the last detail, prescribes work methods to be followed and closely supervises subordinates' work. House and Mitchell (in Gordon 1987: 407) call this style the achievement-orientated style. Achievement is the watchword of this style.

The principal sets challenging goals, expects teachers to perform at their highest level, continuously seeks improvement in performance, and shows confidence that subordinates will assume responsibility and accomplish challenging goals. Interaction is strictly along authority lines. Quotas and deadlines are commonplace and are used to motivate subordinates. When conflict emerges, it is suppressed by dealing firmly with those involved. Communication is formal, one-way and downward. In short, the principal engages in a program of close supervision and tight control. The rule is produce or perish (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 251). This style could be effective in such contingency situations like when the principal knows more about the task at hand than teachers do and teachers need to be given direction frequently in order for them to complete their task.

### 4.2 Relationship-orientated style

This style is characterised by a low concern for tasks completed and a high concern for people. Halpin (in Ngccongo 1986: 32) refers to this style as consideration for people. He says that this style expresses respect for the individual needs, interest in them as people, and warm feelings towards them. According to Reddin's theory of leadership (in Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 114) this style emphasizes listening, accepting, trusting, advising, and encouraging. Sound interpersonal relations are the hallmark of this overriding importance to the principal.

A basic assumption underlying this style is that the need for task achievement is contrary to the need of the people.

Principals solve this problem by subordinating task requirements to the need disposition of subordinates. Communications are informal and concentrate on social and personal topics rather than on task-related matters. Conflict must be avoided if possible, hence appeasement is the rule rather than the exception. When conflict erupts, it is smoothed over.

In brief, the principal is concerned with making friends and influencing people (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 251). The principal tries to motivate rather than to control subordinates. The principal tries to encourage subordinate participation in goal setting and in other work decisions, and helps ensure high performance by inspiring trust and respect. This style could be effective in such contingency situations like when teachers have high expertness and when the job is arranged in a way that teachers can largely decide how tasks will be accomplished.

### 4.3 Impoverished management style

According to Hoy and Miskel (1982: 251) the impoverished style is characterised by low concern for task achievements and low concern for people. This style is conspicuous by its lack of leadership activity. The
administrators with this style of management are likely to confine themselves to delivering messages from above. Their primary concern is to hang on within the system without being noticed. Reddin (in Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 114) call this style separated leadership style. This style could be effective in such contingency situations like when the teachers' job is programmed in a routine fashion and requires the following of established procedures, curriculum formats, teaching strategies, etc.

4.4 Integrated management style

This style is characterised by the high concern for both task accomplishment and people. According to Reddin (in Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 114) this style is characterised by an emphasis on interaction, motivation, integration, participation and innovation. This style assumes no inherent conflict between organisational requirements and the needs of the people. Principals who adopt this style want to promote conditions that integrate high productivity and high morale through concerned teamwork (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 252). Because it is assumed that, given the opportunities, people are creative, this style emphasizes involving those participants who are responsible for planning and executing the work.

Communication is two-way and open. When conflict arises, the facts are faced directly and causes examined so that those involved can resolve the issue. Teamwork, participation, involvement and group decision making are basic ingredients in the development of such conditions. This style could be effective in such contingency situations like when teachers need to interact with each other in order to complete their tasks.

4.5 Balanced management style

This style assumes a conflict between task needs and people needs, but the solution to the conflict is approached through compromise. In other words, the equilibrium is achieved in such a way that both organisational needs and people needs are accommodated in order not to rock the boat. The posture is one of balancing, satisfying and maintaining the status quo. Extreme positions are naturally avoided (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 252).

This style assumes that people will work diligently and comply with reasonable directives that are explained. Communication flows through both formal and informal systems, but formal communication is general rather than specific. This style seems sufficient for getting the job done, but is probably insufficient for promoting innovation and change (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 252).

4.6 Directive management style

This style is characterised by a manager who informs subordinates of what is expected of them, gives specific guidance as to what should be done, and shows how to do it (Gordon 1987: 407). The principal using this style goes by the book. Subordinates are expected to conform completely to bureaucratic expectations (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 71). The principal perceives his office as a centre of all authority and vigorously applies the same bureaucratic rules and procedures to all subordinates.

The principal strives for close adherence to organisational expectations and typically, seeks conformity and control by unwavering use of penalties designed in bureaucratic regulations. Gibb (in Sergiovanni & Starratt
1979: 111) calls this style authoritarian or paternalistic. He argues that this style is defensive and based on fear and distrust, thrives on the distortion of information and use of strategies of persuasion and high control. The manager provides subordinates with complete sets of written instructions for completing the plan of activities (Gordon 1987: 407). Contingently, the principal may use this style with an unexperienced teacher who needs considerable structure and supervision.

4.7 Supportive management style
This style is characterised by a friendly and approachable manager who shows concern for the status, well-being and needs of subordinates. The principal has an open door policy, he encourages subordinates to come to him with any or all problems (Atkinson, et al 1993: 8). According to the contingency approach, principals may use this style with highly creative teachers who have attained competence and display self-confidence.

4.8 Participative management style
This is characterised by a manager who consults with subordinates, solicits their suggestions and takes suggestions into consideration before making a decision. He makes a decision by a group consensus. Interpersonal relations are close, warm and friendly. Teamwork, co-operation, sharing, group loyalty, responsibility for one's actions, extremely high performance goals, trust and confidence are typical of this style (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 194). This style could be effective in such contingency situations like when the completion of tasks requires that the principal must work with teachers as a group.

4.9 Resume
While all principals need to manage and lead, they do not necessarily need to manage using the same model or style. Depending upon a number of situational factors, the principal may choose from among the various styles discussed above. While there is no single best management model or style, the manager's challenge is to consider relevant factors and then select the model or style that is most likely to result in effectiveness of management.

The contingency theory accepts the style of a leader as a given factor, and therefore recommends that a person should be placed in a situation which best suits his style (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 80), rather than the management style changes to fit the situations (Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 120). This view is opposed by Atkinson, et al (1993: 7) when they argue that the different situations and circumstances require principals to employ leadership styles and fit the situation rather than try to force all situations to fit a particular style of leadership. The researcher is also for the latter view for the reason that it would not always be possible for the leader to be placed in a situation which suits his style, however, it would be possible for him to employ the leadership style that fits the situation.

The key to the principal's success in applying the concepts included in the contingency management theory is the principal's ability to understand and then match his leadership style to the staff members' level of maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (in Atkinson, et al 1993: 8) even suggest that the most successful approach is to move gradually through each leadership style as the maturity levels of the individuals or the group increases.
5. EFFECTIVENESS AND INEFFECTIVENESS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES

The effectiveness of the style is determined by its appropriateness to the situation at hand. Any one style might be appropriate for situation A but not B and another situation B but not A. Using Reddin's 3-D Theory of Leadership, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979: 120) identified four basic styles, each with an effective and ineffective expression. The styles, with their effective and ineffective counterparts, are summarised in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When used inappropriately</th>
<th>When used appropriately</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compromiser</td>
<td>INTEGRATED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deserter</td>
<td>SEPARATED</td>
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<tr>
<td>Autocrat</td>
<td>DEDICATED</td>
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<tr>
<td>Missionary</td>
<td>RELATED</td>
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<tr>
<td>Less effective</td>
<td></td>
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Table 2: Leadership Styles (Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 120)

The above table summarises the leadership styles with their effective and ineffective expressions. The related, integrated, separated and dedicated are four basic styles, each with an effective and an ineffective equivalent depending upon the situation in which it is used. For example, when an integrated style is displayed in an inappropriate setting it might lead to compromise, but when displayed in an appropriate setting it will lead to executive effectiveness.

Situations in organisations differ, they are complex and often change. These circumstances require principals to employ leadership styles that fit the situations rather than try to force all situations to fit particular styles of management.

5.1 The least preferred co-worker scale (LPC)

To classify leadership styles, Fiedler developed the simple personality measure called the Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (LPC). Research has suggested that low LPC leaders emphasize completing tasks successfully, even at the expense of interpersonal relationships (Gordon 1987: 401). Task orientated leaders score low on the LPC scale. High LPC leaders emphasize good interpersonal relationships, are more considerate and derive major satisfaction from relationships with others (Gordon 1987: 402).
Pleasant 87654321 Unpleasant
Friendly 87654321 Unfriendly
Rejecting 12345678 Accepting
Tense 12345678 Relaxed
Distant 12345678 Close
Cold 12345678 Warm
Supportive 12345678 Hostile
Boring 87654321 Interesting
Quarrelsome 12345678 Harmonious
Gloomy 12345678 Cheerful
Open 87654321 Guarded
Backbiting 12345678 Loyal
Untrustworthy 12345678 Trustworthy
Considerate 12345678 Inconsiderate
Nasty 87654321 Nice
Agreeable 87654321 Disagreeable
Insecure 12345678 Secure
Kind 87654321 Unkind

Table 3: The Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (LPC) (Owens 1981: 161)

It is the instrument that purports to measure whether a person is task or relationship orientated. The questionnaire asks the leader to describe his least preferred co-worker i.e. the person with whom the leader works least well. The bipolar items are presented as pairs of opposing adjectives. The respondent selects a point on the scale between these opposites as the best representation of his feelings. Each is scored between one o eight with eight being the most favourable point on the scale. The LPC score is the sum local of the item scores.

6. ADVANTAGES OF THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH

The importance of the contingency approach can be easily observed in educational management. This approach seeks to define those factors that are crucial to a specific task or issue and to clarify the functional interaction between related parts/factors (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 46). According to Armstrong (1991: 42) the contingency approach emphasizes the interdependence of organisations with their environments. In its crude, deterministic form, the contingency theory implies that the internal structure and its system are the direct function of the environment.
The advocates of this approach see it as a leading branch of management thought today. The contingency approach is an improvement over 'one best style' theory. It is indeed complex but can be learned and used by most supervisors (Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 127).

The primacy of the contingency approach is challenged, however, by other theorists. These critics argue that it has not yet developed to a point where it can be considered a true theory (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 46). These critics also argue that there is really not much that is new about the contingency approach. According to Stoner and Wankel (1986: 46) advocates of this approach argue that major management functions cannot be adequately analysed or undertaken in practice without regard to applying or taking into account the contingencies or special situations. These advocates further maintain that classical and management theorists tried to come up with 'universal principles' that could be applied without the 'it depends' dimension.

The individual chosen from any specific administrative post is usually selected primarily on the basis of possession of certain personal qualities and a style of leadership in which he will be working (Atkinson, et al 1993: 74). On each occasion the school or department of education will seek someone who possesses the unique personal qualities and management style for a particular situation. However, situations change, and herein lies the fundamental problems of management. The manager who has been appointed for the situation on the basis of the possession of certain management characteristics may lack the necessary qualifications when a different set of circumstances arises.

Perhaps the principal is employed because of his organisational ability and his background in the curriculum. For several years he operates a very efficient school and produces several curricular innovations. Gradually he gains recognition as an outstanding educational leader in his area. However, conditions begin to change during the fifth year. Racial conflicts erupt between white and non-white students. Teachers become militant and demand a colleague-like relationship with the administration. The community grows more critical of the school and antagonism develops between the teachers and parents.

Obviously, new characteristics and problems have been added to the situation in which this principal functions. The reasons for these changes are not immediately evident, but it is clear that a different set of personal qualities and leadership style is now required of the principal.

His successes as an appointed leader will greatly depend on the extent to which he possesses or develops the attitudes, skills and approach necessary to respond adequately to the new set of circumstances. According to Massie and Douglas (1985: 69) the contingency approach provides a basis for selecting appropriate managerial actions. It stresses the conditions under which particular propositions would be valid. Longenecker and Pringle (1984: 42) maintain that although not yet developed, the contingency approach is intuitively appealing. Not all techniques work with the different individuals in the same setting, nor do all work with the same individual in different settings.

Contingency management is realistic in recognising that management is more complex than earlier theorists believed it to be. The current state of managerial art is reflected in the contingency management. Rather than relying on universal principles of management, this approach focusses on the situational factors that affect the managerial process (Longenecker & Pringle 1984: 43).
In organisations, as elsewhere in life, flexibility is desirable. It enables one to respond appropriately to the people and situations and to make adjustments when things do not turn out as anticipated (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 462). In a school therefore it is important that the principal should analyse relevant events in his situation in order to use appropriate methods for dealing with the situation (Calitz, et al 1986: 96). It is implicitly assumed that any of the leadership styles can be effective under the right set of circumstances (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 253). It is thus tautological to say that a given administrative style will be effective if it is appropriate to the situation.

The contingency approach tries to detect the available techniques and principles of the various schools of thought towards a specific situation to realise the objectives of the enterprise as productively as possible (Cronje & Smit 1992: 20). Massie and Douglas (1985: 69) see the contingency approach as an aid in proceeding through the jungle of conflicting schools of thought by distinguishing the strengths of each school in order to fit them into an overall approach for selection in different situations.

Contingency theories are in accord with emerging psychological and sociological theories dealing with motivation, teams, groups and other aspects of human behaviour (McFarland 1979: 226). Thus in a sense this approach does not recognise the existence of universal management principles and it concentrates on available models to overcome a certain problem situation.

Koonzt and O'Donnell (1984: 57) believe that the contingency approaches obviously have much meaning for managerial theory and practice. The contingency approaches have meaning for practicing managers who must take into account the situation when they design an environment of performance. The contingency approach seems to hold a great deal of promise for future development of management theory and practice (Luthans 1973: 72).

7. LIMITATIONS OF THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH

Longenecker and Pringle (1984: 442) identified the following weaknesses in Fiedler's contingency model:

* The three situational factors (leader-member relations, task structure and position power) are probably only a partial listing of important variables. Such factors as the organisation's reward system, the cohesiveness of the group, and the skill and training of group members may affect group performance.
* Secondly, while the model predicts the conditions under which a given leadership style will be effective, it fails to provide a clear explanation of the leadership process.
* Finally, from a practical standpoint, altering situational factors to match a leader's style may be difficult.

According to Atkinson, et al (1993: 75) a major problem with this theory, however, is that many educational managers are influenced in their choice of the management style, and in the way they behave as managers, by their own personality and need dispositions which tend to be rather consistent and unchanging over time and in different situations. Therefore, although the nature of the demands for management in education frequently changes, the manager's basic personality may not make it possible for him to adapt his management style to a new situation.
Besides the factors mentioned by Fiedler, the other situational factors which determine the effectiveness of the principal's management style are community customs and traditions, local economic conditions, teacher types, physical and biotic factors, demographic factors, community groups and culture factors.

Although the contingency theories appear accessible, they also appear complex. Their sophistication carries promises of success far beyond that which one might realistically expect. They do promise much therefore may well disappoint many users.

It is true that it may be difficult to change the situation to match the leader's style. For example, the South African education situation cannot be said to be stable because of the conditions stated in Chapter 1. It may therefore not be possible to alter such a situation to match the leader's style.

It also seems clear that the contingency theory neglects the principal's own beliefs, attitudes and philosophy of life. In this approach the interests of the educational leader seem to be subservient to the situation. It is important, also, to note that there are cases where the principal cannot bow to the demands of the situation.

8. IMPORTANCE OF THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH IN THE RSA OF TODAY

The contingency approach is important for the RSA of today. It has already been stated in Chapter 1 that Black schools are facing a number of problems which present challenges to the Black high school principals of South Africa. Some of the problems discussed were pupil-teacher ratio, underqualified teachers, student uprising, teacher militancy, demographic problems and under-qualified principals.

The pressures that are on the Black high school principals are tremendous and the winds of change and for change are also great. The rapidity of demands from the concerned and the committed from all quarters are overwhelming. According to Botha (1994: 97) the school principal occupies a crucial management position in South African schools. At a time like this, the Black principal is caught in the middle of the cyclone of activity which is pushing him downstream along.

This situation creates a need for the contingency approach. The Black principal needs to analyse the relevant contingencies in his situation. It was stated in Chapter 1 that the effectiveness of the principal's management style is contingent upon the nature of the situation. This, however, needs the principal to understand the conditions surrounding former Black education and Black schools. The Black principal needs to understand the situational characteristics of the school like community customs and traditions, local economic conditions, teacher types, physical and biotic factors, demographic factors, community groups, and the multi-cultural character of schools - hence the contingency approach.

In the present situation, the Black principal has to adapt or die, to be innovative instead of being authoritarian, to be understanding and flexible instead of being old fashioned and traditional. He has to employ new strategies to meet the challenges of the times. This is where the contingency approach is important.
Obviously new characteristics and problems have been added to the situation in which Black principals function. It is clear that a different set of personal qualities and leadership styles are now required of the Black principal. His successes as a leader will greatly depend on the attitudes, skills and approaches necessary to respond adequately to the new set of circumstances.

It is not unrealistic to expect dramatic and even traumatic changes in education in the RSA in the near future (Botha 1994: 105). This raises the pending question of whether education and educational leaders will be able to contend (or cope) with such change and accompanying demands (Pretorius 1994: 75). According to Botha (1994: 105) it is for this reason that educational leaders need to realise that the management techniques that they have developed during their careers may no longer be relevant to the management problems generated by the modern society.

It is therefore clear that the contingency approach is important in the RSA of today for the principal to remain relevant.

9. CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher has given account of the contingency approach. It became abundantly clear that no particular style of management or personal qualities of a leader is appropriate for every situation. The contingency approach attempts to incorporate the factors of personality, leadership style and the nature of the demands by focusing on the interactive dynamics of these three variables. The contingency approach to educational management calls for the systematic development of an understanding of the dynamics of educational management to ensure the correct analysis and diagnosis of the existing educational management situation (Van Scalkwyk, et al 1986: 23).

It is therefore clear that to be a leader requires one to be true to one's ideals but, at the same time, to be sufficiently flexible so as to be able to perform tasks for the organisation in a continuously changing environment. Leadership is the performance, in various and variable situations. This implies that leadership is performed in different and changing situations.

In the next chapter attempts will be made to relate the management tasks described in Chapter 2 to the contingency approach as described in this chapter.
CHAPTER 4
THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous two chapters the descriptions of the managerial tasks of the Black principal and the contingency approach have been given.

The aim of this chapter is to identify the situational contingencies that influence effective school management and their implications for choosing a particular management style in Black schools, and to explore how the Black high school can principal use this approach to help him with his managerial tasks. This chapter will investigate, firstly, the common situational contingencies of the school as directly affecting the Black principal's management task. Attempts will also be made to explore how can the Black high school principal use the contingency approach to help him with his managerial tasks like planning, organising, leading and control. During this exploration, an investigation will also be made on how the contingency approach can be used to solve the problems he is facing.

2. THE SCHOOL’S SITUATIONAL CONTINGENCIES (AS) DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE BLACK PRINCIPAL’S MANAGEMENT TASKS

Not only is it important to know what actions have to be carried out and how this should be done, but also what forces, factors or influence make it necessary that these actions be particularised for every contingency (Van Schalkwyk, et al 1986: 49). Conditions around different schools differ from place to place. In some cases the environments are stable, or changing, or turbulent. The following are some of the situational contingencies that constitute the environments in and around schools:

2.1 The personality of the principal

From the point of view of the researcher the trait theory is very important for the Black principal in the present RSA. The researcher observed in some schools (refer to appendix) that principals who lack qualities like intelligence, organisation, judgement, dependability, initiative, adaptability, knowledge and self-discipline, cannot manage their schools effectively. Actually there are schools which have 'principals' who are 'not existing' as managers and leaders of schools. This implies that there is, in the real sense of the word, no principaship (leadership and management) in some of these schools. Principals in some of these schools fail to plan, organise, lead and control properly.

The following aspects have been observed with these 'non-existing' principals:

* Absent from school for not less than two days a week
* Hardly found in his office which is also disorganised
* Having no clear established procedures
* Having no school policy
* Having no control over syllabi, work programmes, schemes of work and preparations.
* Having irregular and inconsistent internal promotion procedures
Calling unscheduled staff meeting with sometimes irrelevant items on the agenda

These 'non-existing' principals have been observed as being self-centred. They tend to be blockers, recognition-seekers, self-confessors, dominators, help-seekers, and special-interest seekers.

In some former Black schools, especially in rural areas, the school management council meetings are held in private, and it is not uncommon for the school management council to see things the principal's way, and then go and report to parents. According to Mkhize (1980: 95) some school management councils usually discuss the principal's agenda. It has been observed that some school management council members do not know what their duties are (refer to Appendix). They do not understand their rights. The principal is usually the only knowledgable member. He thus stipulates when the school committee should meet and what the agenda will be.

2.2 Population characteristics

According to Atkinson, et al (1993: 56) the population characteristics include the level of education attainment, age, sex, race, ethnicity, and religion of members of the community. Occupational information may be useful in understanding the local economy and the educational needs of children. Information on race, ethnicity and religion may contribute to a better understanding of possible underlying causes of social tensions and conflicts in the community. This information is particularly important for the Black principal in the RSA where the population is multi-cultural and multi-racial.

2.3 Local economic conditions

This information may indicate the community education needs and inform the scheduling of school activities. Black pupils often have problems in paying school fees. This is mainly caused by unemployment of parents. This aspect also affects the transportation of pupils to school.

2.4 Local customs and traditions

Understanding these characteristics will help the principal avoid having school policies and programmes which conflict with local customs and traditions and will help guide the school's relations with parents, students and the local community. In the present RSA the children of different racial groups will come to school with their customs and traditions and the principal should take these into consideration.

2.5 The political structure

It is important for the Black principal to understand the political structure of the community and who the prominent leaders are. This will help the principal cope with different issues and "harmonise with the political realities to secure adequate public support for the school" (Senkhane 1991: 5).

2.6 Social tensions

These tensions and conflicts in the community are normal and may emanate from economic, cultural, racial and political differences (Atkinson, et al 1993: 57). These tensions may affect the operation of the school.
Understanding these conditions will provide an opportunity for principals to work harmoniously with individuals and groups and "schedule school activities appropriately to circumvent likely disruptions, move in the direction that is not likely to increase tensions and participate in meaningful efforts directed at the resolution of social tension" (Senkhane 1991: 5).

2.7 Community groups
Some of the community groups have conflicting interests and may wish to use the school as a platform for airing non-school related grievances and promoting their particular political positions.

A number of groups that are active in communities throughout South Africa include, but are not limited to, school management councils, National Education Co-ordinating Committee (NECC), Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), African National Congress (ANC), Pan Africanist Congress (PAC), Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP), African Teachers Association of South Africa (ATASA), South African Democratic Teacher’s Union (SADTU), YWCA, Congress of South African Students (COSAS), Pan Africanist Students Organisation (PASO), Azaman Peoples Organisation (AZAPO), the Parent Teacher Association (PTA's), Parent Teacher Students Associations (PTSA's), and various other civic and sports organisations and NGO's.

It is important that principals understand the position of each and know who represents them in the community. Identifying local leadership in the community may assist principals in influencing groups concerned with education.

2.8 Teacher types
Glickman (in Atkinson, et al 1993: 66) categorised teachers into four quadrants based upon two variables: their level of commitment (high/low) and their level of abstraction (high, low). Teachers who are willing to devote considerable time and energy to pupils and profession are said to have high commitment.

According to Atkinson, et al (1993: 66) the level of abstraction refers to the teacher's level of technical skill and ability to generate multiple options for a problem. Teachers who have effective technical skills and are able to stand back from a situation, clarify problems, determine alternative solutions, and then plan the course of action are said to have a high level of abstraction. Those who are able to generate few solutions and tend to repeat one or two habitual responses to problems are said to have low levels of abstraction. Using these two variables, level of commitment and level of abstraction, Glickman (in Atkinson et al, 1993: 66) identified four teacher types:

* The teacher drop-out - a teacher who has a low level of commitment and a low level of abstraction.
* An unfocussed worker - a teacher who has a high level of commitment and a low level of abstraction.
* An analytical observer - a teacher who has a low level of commitment and a high level of abstraction.
* A professional - a teacher who has a high level of commitment and a high level of abstraction.

In selecting a supervisory style, the principal should consider the developmental level of the teacher as the important factor. The principal should use developmental supervision, whereby the supervisory style is fitted to the teacher's level of professional development.
2.9 Disruptions

According to Maake (1990: 128) the acts of disruption are still persisting in some former Black schools. These acts are committed by pupils themselves, sometimes aided by outside elements. They take the form of disobedience, assault, destruction of property and intimidation and insubordination.

In certain schools, through observation, the physical conditions are so extremely poor such that underlying feelings of desperation among teachers and pupils abound. In some high schools, for example, ceilings are missing and this results in inter-classroom noise. Window-panes are missing. Most desks are broken and some doors are removed or broken.

Other problems experienced in some former Black schools are 'Pass One Pass All' (POPA) and the demand for the return of school fees by students. This is mainly because of the political agitation of pupils and the high culture of resistance. (Refer to paragraph 1.2.5 in this regard).

2.10 Other conditions

The principal's management and leadership roles are influenced by, among other factors, the dilemma, situations, and crises under which he has to manage his school. Aspects such as school disruptions, boycotts, agitators, thuggery, militancy by both teachers and pupils, rebellion by pupils as well as wanton destructions of school buildings, are all primary causes of the principal's lack of morale and motivation. The researcher is sure there are more (Refer also to paragraph 1.2 in this regard).

2.11 Resume

It has become undoubtedly clear that the Black principal is not operating in a vacuum. He is often quite unexpectedly confronted with an accumulation of problems. It is therefore important for the Black principal to understand and be aware of these conditions as they will affect his management style and task. Consequently the next section will focus on the contingency approach to school management.

3. THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

3.1 The contingency approach to planning

The principal as the manager of the school must make plans that give purpose and direction to the school, deciding what needs to be done, and who is to do it. According to the contingency approach the planning task should be determined by the situation.

Former Black schools that have operated for a long time under the conditions described in Chapter 1, will find flexibility and change difficult and impossible. These conditions are inter alia high pupil-teacher ratio, underqualified teachers, student uprising, poor facilities, teacher militancy, demographic problems and underqualified principals. Obviously, change and adoption in planning in these schools can cause chaos unless appropriate change-responsive behaviours are developed to minimise any disruption. Change is part of the
planning process in the sense that when it becomes apparent that certain planning is likely to be ineffective, the plan should be timeously modified in relation to the objectives. The plan can thus be adapted to the demands of the situation. This implies that planning should be contingent to the situation.

Stoner and Wankel (1986: 87) warn that managers must continually monitor relevant environmental factors so that the organisation can adapt to new situations as soon as possible. Planning therefore becomes relevant and realistic. According to Dekker, et al (1986: 59) various factors (determinants) such as the size of the school, the community that it serves, and the abilities of the principal, all serve as the parameters for the principal's planning. Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 266) maintain that the question of whether or not further changes will take place in society has become totally irrelevant. Instead, the issue is how do managers and leaders cope with the inevitable barrage of changes that confront them daily in attempting to keep their organisations viable and current. This statement holds 'mutatis mutandis' for planning in schools. This implies that if planning is too rigid it will deprive those involved of their individual initiative and freedom of action (Dekker, et al 1986: 53).

The principal should draw a suitable plan of action by analysing the various alternatives and identifying the variables. The principal should make provision for flexibility and adaptability in his planning. Pupil numbers and subject choices could, for example, differ drastically from what was originally planned for, and a sudden change in the staff component could easily render the original timetable planning completely inadequate. In such cases an alternative plan should be put into action or the existing plan should be amended or adapted.

The principals as managers should begin to manage surprises before they occur. According to Stoner & Wankel (1986: 87) to do this, managers must establish an ongoing process to collect data on the organisation's internal functioning in order to always have fresh information on its efficiency and the attributes of the personnel. Whatever information comes from these data-collecting processes must be regularly compared with previously established standards or benchmarks of performance.

Maake (1990: 16) also maintains that the principal should distinguish between matters that have to receive attention over a short term and long term. This implies that the principal should distinguish between matters that require strategic planning or tactical planning or operational planning. (Refer to paragraph 2.2.3 in this regard).

It is therefore imperative for the principal to fully understand the situational contingencies within and outside the school. He must also understand his staff and other people who should be involved in the planning process. This will make the planning process relevant and flexible.

3.1.1 Resume

It is undoubtedly clear that before principals can organise, lead or control, they must make plans that give purpose and direction to the school. For planning to be effective it must be contingent to the situation at hand. This implies that planning should be flexible and adaptative. This further implies that the principal should monitor the relevant environmental factors. The contingency bound planning is realistic and capable of being carried out.
3.1.2 The contingency approach to decision making

According to Gorton (1987: 6) the first step an administrator should take when faced with a decision is to define the nature of the situation which seems to require a decision. Actually the intelligent principal is always studying his environment to see what is wrong and what is being done right (Musaazi 1982: 78). The principal needs to be accurately aware of what is happening at school. This requires him to know quite a lot about contingent factors like student affairs, teacher activities and welfare, parent’s opinions about the school, and the like. It is only when the principal has acquainted himself with the situation itself that he can be in a position to detect problems which require decisions to be made. It is only then that the principal can decide on the management style he can use. The principal must be constantly alert to the issues or situations that might become problems in order to adapt a right course of action that will prevent the problem from developing.

Once the principal understands and defines the problem he will be in a position to enlarge his options and avoid treating only the symptoms of a problem. For example, take the case of students in the school breaking rules by drinking alcohol. The principal warns the students against this unlawful habit, but to his surprise the students continue to drink. If the principal looks at the students’ drinking in isolation from the whole school setting, he might not get the root cause of the drinking problem. He might discover that his teachers are the cause of the problem because they take the students out to drink. The problem in this case is the staff. The principal therefore needs to tackle it from that angle.

Gorton (1987: 7) warns that to make an effective decision, an administrator first needs to attempt to gain a better understanding of the question, problem, or set of circumstances which seem to require an administrative decision. The principal has to decide whether it is a new development of a typical difficulty. Other solutions of problems can be easily found in the use of existing school regulations. These problems require generic (programmed) decisions. According to Hoy and Miskel (1982: 271) such decisions are needed when a principal implements policy mandated by the board, monitors absenteeism among teachers, mediates student-teacher conflicts and interprets disciplinary procedures.

From observation in some schools however, monitoring absenteeism among teachers may not always require generic decisions. This investigation has observed and established that sometimes teachers are continually absent because the principal himself is always absent. (Refer to appendix).

In the case of unusual problems, the unique or non-programmed decisions might be adopted. According to Hoy and Miskel (1982: 271) these decisions are important in cases where there are no established procedures or guidelines. Unusual decisions require going beyond established procedures for solution. For instance, if students go on strike for some reason or go further and start stoning teachers and breaking school property the principal may decide to call in the police or may close the
school and send all the students to their homes. This kind of situation requires quick and intelligent
decisions (Musaazi 1982: 80).

Usually the principal is not in a position of possessing sufficient information or understanding at the
time the need for a decision first surfaces. Unfortunately studies have shown that all too often
administrators react too quickly on the basis of assumption, inadequate information, and/or someone
else's perception of a situation and begin looking for solutions before the situation has been
sufficiently defined (Gorton 1987: 7).

There are however, situations where the principal will be forced to make an on-the-spot decision and
there will be circumstances when he will be confronted by the press of time, and a paucity of
available information. It is thus important for the principal that in such instances he be decisive when
the situation requires it and avoid procrastinating in the hope that the perfect solution will at some
point surface or that the problem will resolve itself.

In most situations, particularly those involving important and long-range decisions, the principal
should take sufficient time to investigate and analyse the conditions necessitating a decision, to
reduce the possibility of an ineffective administrative decision.

The situation or problem analysis is productively approached by the principals when they seek
answers to questions, which are all contingency related, such as the following, according to Gorton

* What is known and unknown about the situation? What other factors must be clarified before a
decision be made?
* Can anyone else provide additional information or a different perception of the situation?
* To what extent is the administrator's bias or biases of others influence his perception of the
circumstance necessitating a decision?
* Who will be affected by the decision?
* How serious is the problem or question? How soon must a decision be made?

Two common mistakes principals need to guard against are, according to Hoy and Miskel (1982:
271):

* Treating a routine situation as if it were a series of unique events; and
* treating a new event as if it were just another old problem to which old procedures should be
  applied.

It is therefore important for the principal to analyse the situation and problem effectively in order to
avoid making incorrect decisions based on inadequate understanding of the situation. After defining
the nature of the situation and identifying the alternatives, the principal should then assess the
feasibility of the various alternatives. Consequently assessing alternatives will be discussed in the next paragraph.

3.1.2.1 Assessing alternatives

The principal should use decision making as a process of consciously choosing the most suitable way of acting to handle a particular situation once the various alternatives and possibilities have been considered for the achievement of the desired goal. According to Gorton (1987: 9), as the administrator evaluates each alternative there are two important factors that should be taken into consideration. These factors are both contingency related:

(a) The first concerns his assessment of his own capability and that of other individuals or groups who will participate in the implementation of the course of action. The first contingency question he should ask himself is: 'To what extent do I have/possess the competency, resources, personal influence, or power necessary to implement this alternative?' Another contingency related question he should ask himself is: 'To what extent do other individuals or groups involved in implementing the decision possess the necessary competency or resources?' The effective implementation of most decisions depends on the capability or resources of people rather than the administrator.

(b) The second factor is the type of reception his decision will be given by those directly affected. The principal should therefore determine how the affected individuals or groups regard the various contingent alternatives. For example (Gorton 1987: 10; Stoner & Wankel 1986: 160):

* Whom could he count for support with regard to each alternative?
* How solid could that support be?
* What would be the likelihood that a particular individual or group would reject or actively resist the course of action implied in each alternative?
* Is the acceptance of the group critical for the success of the decision?
* Which individuals or groups could exert sufficient influence or power to overthrow or overturn a particular decision?
* Would it be possible for the administrator to change the attitudes of those who might reject or resist the decision?

The answers to these questions would help the principal to ascertain the reception which a particular decision will probably be given by those who will be most affected by it.

Although there, undoubtedly, will be circumstances in which an administrator should make a particular kind of decision regardless of the adverse reactions of those who will be affected by it, he should not proceed in ignorance of those attitudes and feelings. The attitudes and feelings of those people who will be affected by a decision are contingency factors and thus, will, in most cases, play a major role in determining the fate of any alternative decision. Consequently the next section will focus on variables in decision making.
3.1.2.2 Variables in decision making

The principal should realise that there are contingency variables which may consciously or
unconsciously enter into the decision making process. According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 152)
the following factors, which are all contingency related, may influence decision making:

* Factors within the decision maker: These are preferences, philosophy of life, and
  presuppositions.

* Ideographic factors: These are factors which affect people in organisations, for instance, needs,
aspirations, convictions and decisions.

* Nomothetic factors: These are factors in the school which may influence decision making. The
effectiveness of the school and the uniqueness of every school's needs in terms of a certain
management style are some of the factors.

* Environmental factors: The school interacts with the community and the environment, and the
  parents, town and province may influence a decision.

Gorton (1987: 10) maintains that each individual's decision making is affected by his prior attitude
about the situation, group or question. If the principal's attitude is biased in some way, he may distort
the reality of a situation by not considering relevant facts, perceptions or alternatives. There are
circumstances when a principal will have to take subjective decisions. This depends on the
contingency factors like urgency and intensity of the matter. Gorton (1987: 10) clearly avers that it
will probably be impossible for an administrator to be completely objective in any situation.
However, it is important that he be aware of his personal biases as contingency factors and that he try
not to let them significantly affect his decision making.

There are numerous personal variables which can influence the decision maker, and ultimately the
final decision. The contingency variables may be risk orientation, attitude towards people,
educational philosophy, concern about status, and concern about authority and control. This could
even affect the principal's involvement of the teachers in decision making. Consequently the next
section will focus on involvement considerations.

3.1.2.3 Involvement considerations

In order to maximise the positive contributions of shared decision making and to minimise the
negative consequences, the principal needs to answer the following questions which are contingency
related:

* under what conditions should teachers be involved?

* to what extent and how should teachers be involved?

The concept of the zone of acceptance is useful as we seek to answer the above questions. Bridges
(in Hoy & Miskel 1982: 281) proposed two tests to identify issues that clearly fall within the
subordinates' zone of acceptance: test of relevance and test of expertise.
The test of relevance is embodied in the question: Do subordinates have a high personal stake in the decision? If they have a personal stake in the decision, interest in participation usually will be high. If there is no personal stake, subordinates typically will be receptive to the superior's directives. The test of expertise deals with the extent to which teachers are qualified to make useful contributions to the identification or solution to the problem. Unnecessary frustrations may be caused to teachers if they are involved in decisions that are outside their scope of experience and sphere of competence. This is further illustrated in the following diagram:

```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Situation</th>
<th>Test of Relevance</th>
<th>Test of Expertise</th>
<th>Involvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Only occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>(Never)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Diagram 1: Situations and Involvement in Decision Making (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 282)

According to this diagram there are two marginal situations in which answers are less clear (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 281): First, it is possible for subordinates to have a personal stake in the issue while having little expertise. Should they be involved in this case? Not often. To do so frequently asks for trouble. A second situation results when subordinates have no personal stake in the situation but do have the knowledge to make useful contributions. Should they be involved? Only occasionally. To involve them indiscriminately in decisions is to increase the likelihood of alienation.

Sergiovanni & Starratt (1979: 125) listed the following critical questions that are contingency related which the principal should ask to determine the decision making style:
* Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?
* Do I have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?
* Is the problem structured?
* Is the acceptance of the decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
* If I were to make a decision by myself, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by my subordinates?
* Do the subordinates share organisational goals to be attained in solving the problem?
* Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions?
* Do subordinates have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?
Depending on the nature of the problem, more than one decision making style may be suitable or feasible. As a guidance for choosing within a feasible set, Vroom and Yetton (in Stoner & Wankel 1986: 162) suggest two criteria:

- When decisions must be made quickly or time must be saved, managers (principals) should use authoritarian decision making styles (time efficient ones).
- When managers wish to develop their subordinates' knowledge and decision making skills, the most participative styles (time investment ones) should be selected.

3.1.2.4 Resume

It has become clear that the Black principal cannot make effective decisions without the understanding of the internal and external environments of the school. Effective decision making does not occur in a vacuum, but it is influenced by situational contingencies and constraints, and the personal values and expertise of the individual making the decision.

3.1.3 The contingency approach to problem solving

The problem solving approach is based on the assumption that the parties are people of worthy motives and goodwill and that agreement is possible. Problems in schools usually take forms of disagreements, disputes, or conflicts. These may be between the principal and the teachers, or teachers and pupils, or pupils and the principal, or even the parents and the principal. Some principals have the natural tendency to assume that the principal is right and the other party is wrong. There is evidence to suggest that people in conflict tend to present their sides in favourable light. Too frequently, their emotions may have distorted their perceptions and their memory. Therefore the next section will focus on choosing the effective problem solving approach.

3.1.3.1 Choosing the problem solving approach

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 642) the point of departure in the contingency approach is that there is no single correct way of dealing with conflict (or problem) but that the solution should be determined in conjunction with the situation itself. For each problem situation alternative solutions should be sought which may then be evaluated and eventually used in such a way that the problem will not only be solved but that the school will be strengthened by dealing with the problem.

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 627) maintain that during the development of the school certain problems originate with the passage of time, in the external and internal environments of the school. In other words, the problems can originate and be experienced in and outside the school. In keeping with their duty to act responsibly and accountably, the principals must seek correct and applicable solutions.

It is important for the principal to, firstly, investigate the nature of the problem. He should investigate whether the problem is usual or unusual. This will help the principal get the contingent solution to the problem.
According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 158) problems which occur to the educational context vary in importance, urgency and intensity. The principal should thus determine which problems should receive priority and which should be dealt with later. There are problems which should be dealt with immediately while others need a degree of consideration before a decision can be made. Barker, et al (1983: 139) aver that most complex problems cannot be solved in a brief period of time.

The principal should limit the problem. In this step he should consider the following contingency factors:

* Relevance of group interests and needs.
* The importance of the specific issue to the group or others.
* Amount of time allowed for discussion and action.

Barker, et al (1983: 142) add that considerations such as cost of implementation, ease of implementation, short-range versus long-range effects of the solutions, and predicted adequacy of the solution should be made.

These authors believe that the principal should examine the composition of his group, the nature of the problem, the time and energy available to solve the problem, the resources available to implement the solution, and the battery of other issues which may be relevant to the group in a given context, before deciding upon a specific approach or approaches to solving the problem. These factors are all contingency related.

Much about dealing with problems in the school situation is described in paragraph 4.3.

### 3.1.3.2 Resume

It has been indicated that according to the contingency approach the problem solving approach should be tailor-made to fit the contingency nature of the problem at hand. This requires the principal to thoroughly investigate the nature of the problem. He should determine whether the problem is usual or unusual. Problems that occur in schools vary in urgency and importance. The principal should thus understand the circumstances surrounding the problem and other contingency factors related to it.

### 3.1.4 The contingency approach to school policy making

Policy making cannot be exempted from the influence of the situation. Policy should always be adaptable (Dekker, et al 1986: 109). In other words, policy making can never be regarded as a complete task. The school principal should ensure that the school policy is constantly adapted to the changing circumstances, not only in the educational situation, but also in the social, political and economic environment (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 151). The next section will thus focus on the contingency factors for the school policy.
3.1.4.1 Contingency variables for school policy

The following are some of the contingency factors or variables for school policy, according to Dekker, et al (1986: 121):

a) Ground motives
A school which serves the homogeneous community will be ruled by the same ground motive as that of the community. Hence, the school policy must reflect this particular ground motive or it will be alienated from the community which it purports to serve. Where a school serves a community with divergent or conflicting views as in the current RSA, this situation must be reckoned with when determining the school policy.

b) Cultural factors
The school should reflect every aspect of the community it serves. This should be evident in the school policy. The significant fact is that policy makers at school must be sensitive to the cultural changes, which means that they must always keep their finger on the community's cultural pulse, and evaluate school policy to ascertain whether it is still in keeping with changing circumstances.

c) Linguistic factors
Where a school caters for the unilingual community, the linguistic aspect of culture creates no special problems for the school policy. But South Africa is a multi-lingual country and more than one language is used in a school. This must be reflected and allowed for in the school policy.

d) Social factors
School policy makers should be able to justify their policies with regard to social influences as contingency factors. The following are some social aspects that need to be considered in the formulation of the school policy:
* Relationships within the school
  These have to do with attributes and feelings. Human relations that exist within the school have a significant influence during policy making as they reflect the morale of the school.
* Liaison with official and semi-official institutions, councils and associations
  A major reason for this liaison is that certain social forces affect the school through these organisations, and, as a result, influence the policy making process.

e) Economic factors
Schools do pursue a policy of meaningful saving. In other words, they endeavour to use funds available with optimum efficiency according to priorities. The school policy should reflect this.

f) Demographic factors
These relate to numbers, space, and movement. The numbers of pupils and staff during a given year have a substantial effect on matters such as the number and choice of subjects that can be taken. The
3.1.4.2

Spatial aspect is closely related to the numeric. The school may have difficulty in creating adequate space (e.g. classrooms and sports facilities) in view of the increasing number of pupils. The school policy also has to take account of the aspect of movement. For example, the presence of a large contingent of pupils who make use of public transport will affect the school's sports policy.

g) Physical and biotic factors

These factors refer to physical realities such as the climate of the region in which the school is situated, and man's physical, living body. Some schools are situated in regions with cold winters. Policy makers may decide to have a heating system installed. They should bear in mind however, that they may not consider any factor in isolation. They need to recognise the role played by other factors. The policy makers may need to consider at least the physical and financial factors.

The biotic aspect is concerned with the child's physical growth. The nutritional aspect is concerned with the school's feeding schemes in poor communities and the availability of the so-called junk foods at the school tuck shop.

3.1.4.2 Further considerations regarding school policy

Maake (1990: 69) warns that although it is only natural that there should be many points of similarity between policies of different schools, one's school policy cannot be used as such in another school. This is because every school is different from other schools. Each school's situation is unique. This means that a policy should not be rigid and inflexible, it should be capable of change. The school policy should be adjustable. According to the contingency approach the school policy should be determined by conditions within and around the school.

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 152) warns that if the policy is inflexible, it puts a damper on initiative and for this reason policy should be constantly revised and adapted to changing goals. It is thus important that the principal should be able to adapt his policy in carrying out his management task. Any policy based on the premise that it is complete is inevitably unable to keep pace with changing circumstances and it is therefore powerless and useless (Van Schalkwyk, et al 1986: 109). Van der Westhuizen (1991: 225) regards policy making as a dynamic and changing management task which should not only take into account changing circumstances in education, but also social, political and economic - hence community - values.

The changing character (from monocultural to multicultural character) of former Black schools clearly indicate that the school policy should be dynamic and adaptative. It is clear that there are various contingent factors which the principal must take into consideration when making school policy.

The principal and his staff must, in the formulating a school policy, bear in mind their school's particular circumstances, the teachers, the pupils and the community (Maake 1990: 69). Maake
further warns that it is important that a school policy be revised year after year. This constant revision and amendment of the school policy stems from the fact that circumstances keep on changing.

3.1.4.3 Resume
The school policy is meant to guide and give direction to the school activities. It should reflect the aspirations of all the people. It is thus clear that policy making is directed and determined by the situation. Each and every school is unique. Therefore the policy makers should consider the existing contingent conditions in the area or environment of the school.

3.2 The contingency approach to organising
Organising is important for the effective and smooth functioning of the school. It is thus important that the principal be a good organiser. From observations in some schools where the researcher works and visited, it is clear that for the principal to be able to organise school activities, he must be organised personally. (Refer to appendix). This therefore implies that the organising task of the principal is also influenced by the personality traits of the principal and the nature of the activities to be organised. Organising is also influenced by the organising skill and performance skill possessed by the principal and his teachers. These are some contingency factors in organising.

In this section an investigation will be made on how can the contingency approach be applied to the subtasks of organising. Firstly, the contingency approach to creating an organisational structure will be discussed.

3.2.1 Creating an organisational structure
Different organisational structures have been discussed in Chapter 2 of this work. The particular circumstances and situations would determine which type of organisational structure would be used and to what extent the span of control would be functional (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 172). De Witt (1986: 18) maintains that unforeseen problems and new circumstances call for easy handling as the familiar. Hence the organisational structure should be so flexible and adaptable that any question can be handled with equal efficiency. This requires sufficient openness and freedom in the structure without impairing its authority and unity.

The choice of the organisational structure may be influenced by contingency factors like personality traits and skills of the principal and the nature of the activities performed at school. It may also be influenced by the number of teachers and their skills. The number of pupils and the size of the school may also determine the type of organisational structure. All these contingency factors should be considered when creating an organisational structure. The next section will focus on the contingency approach to the span of control.
3.2.2 Span of control

It has been stated that different schools differ in size. According to De Witt (1986: 13) the following contingency factors affect the span of control:

* The diversity of the school activities
  The greater the diversity, the greater the need to have a department for every different task even at the top level.

* The growth rate of the school
  The slower the growth, the narrower the span, and vice versa.

* The idealism of the leader
  The greater and the more intense the idealism of the leader which he wishes to convey to subordinates, and convert them to his views and methods, the steeper will be the span.

* The range of knowledge
  Each person normally possesses a fairly sound knowledge in one particular sphere. Therefore his activities in the organisation must be confined to his field of knowledge.

* The range of time
  No one has more than a certain number of hours to bestow on work. There simply is not enough time available to devote effectively to too many subordinates, and this has an effect on the span of leadership.

* The span of energy
  This pertains to man's mental and physical ability, which is also limited, and hence exerts an influence on the span of leadership.

* The span of personality
  This implies that a person's management ability is circumscribed by his personality. Some leaders can handle a great number of subordinates than others.

The effective span of control depends on the following contingency factors, according to Gordon (1987: 588):

* The ability and expertise of the manager. The greater his expertise, the broader an effective span of control can be. Where a manager lacks ability, he must devote time to supervising subordinates and thus can operate effectively only with a small span of control.

* The ability and expertise of those in subordinate positions. Those with greater expertise require less supervisory time from their superiors; thus the span of control can be larger.

* The degree of interrelatedness of tasks performed in subordinate positions. The more similarity between the tasks of subordinates, the more individuals a manager can supervise. If the supervisor can duplicate instructions for more than one subordinate, the span of control can increase.

* The stability of the tasks that are performed by those in subordinate positions. As the tasks remain the same over time, subordinates require less supervision and hence the span of control can increase.
It is therefore clear that the main contingency determinant of the span of control is the teacher types. It is important for the principal to understand the types of teachers he has. For instance, in the case of teacher drop-outs the span of control would need to be less. In the case of professionals, the span of control would need to increase. It is also clear that the personality traits of the principal as the contingency factor may determine the span of control. For example, principals who possess qualities like intelligence, organisation, judgement, dependability, initiative, adaptability, and self-discipline can handle a great number of subordinates.

The next section will focus on the contingency approach to delegation as another subtask of organising.

3.2.3 Delegation

The style of the principal and his personality traits are contingency factors which have a great influence on delegation. For instance, the autocratic principal rarely delegates duties to his subordinates. The principal who believes that he is better and can do the job better cannot delegate duties to his teachers.

The expertise of subordinates is another contingency factor that shall determine delegation. The expertise will help in determining the type of tasks which may be delegated to certain teachers.

From the above it is clear that delegation is an art of management. It is also important for the principal to know his staff well. Delegation requires that the principal analyse systematically the needs and problems in his school and reflect on the reliability and capabilities of his subordinates.

3.2.4 Resume

It is undoubtedly clear that the Black principal needs to understand the nature of the activities taking place in his school, the characteristics and types of his teachers, and the expertise of his teachers. These contingency factors will then determine the style of creating an organisational structure. The time factor is also important in organising. According to the contingency approach effective organising is determined by these contingency factors of the situation. Effective organising will thus lead to effective and smooth running and functioning of the school.

3.3 The contingency approach to leading

In schools, as elsewhere in life, flexibility is desirable. It helps us respond appropriately to people and situations and to make adjustments when things don't turn as anticipated (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 642).

Principals should be aware of a variety of leadership styles available. Knowledge of the leadership theories described in Chapter 3 will help the principals to identify leadership behaviours as we encounter them. Principals should also use their own observations to learn about leadership in actual situations.
According to De Witt (1986: 141) the educational leader's situation may vary from one moment to the next. Each set of circumstances requires a different approach or method. Feldberg (in Maake 1990: 16) maintains that no leadership style can be reflected as being good or bad. Duncan (in Maake 1990: 16) also supports this view when he says: "Conceptually every leadership style offers certain advantages and disadvantages...". It is therefore clear according to the contingency approach, that every leadership style has its place in the school.

The principal will constantly have to adapt his conduct, which must sufficiently be flexible to cater for the divergent needs of his followers and to contend to the great variety of situations that may arise in the ordinary course of his working day (De Witt 1986: 141). Koonzt and O'Donnell (1957: 352) further aver: "As people, tasks and organisational environment vary, techniques of directing should also be varied". This implies that the principal should remain dynamic in his leadership. The next section will focus on the principal as a leader of his staff.

3.3.1 The principal as a leader of his staff.

According to Musaazi (1982: 53) the nature of the group i.e. subordinates, determines the kind of leadership that will be practiced by the leader. One other situational variable which is considered by the contingency approach is the personal characteristics of subordinates as they strive to accomplish work goals and derive satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 245). According to Hoy and Miskel (1982: 235) group effectiveness is the joint function of the leader's style and the situational favourableness i.e. group performance is contingent upon the leader's motivation and upon the leader's control and influence in the situation.

The other personal characteristic of subordinates is the locus of control. This refers to the degree to which an individual staff member sees the environment as responsive to his behaviour. Individuals who believe that events happen to them because of their personal behaviour are called internals. They think that the locus of control resides within themselves. Externals think that the locus of control resides in the environment. Internals respond positively to participative management style. Externals respond positively to directive management style (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 245).

Another characteristic of the staff is how they perceive their own ability. The directive management style is less accepted when the level of perceived ability relative to task demands is higher. Other characteristics which determine the leadership style are size, homogeneity, stability and polarisation of staff.

When we come to consider different styles of leadership we must remember that whereas styles can be distinguished, no watertight division can be made (De Witt 1986: 150). Thus a principal may by and large, follow a particular style, but at times he may employ attributes of another style. On occasion he may make use of features from two or three different styles for a particular task. According to Wood, et al (1985: 61) effective leadership is the function of the goodness of fit between the principal's personality, characteristics and situational variables in the school setting.
Thus, the principal's leadership behaviour differs from situation to situation - thus contingency bound.

It is certainly not easy to satisfy all the requirements, and this is where the calibre of the truly great leader is subjected to a crucial test. According to De Witt (1986: 142) the practical implications of the contingency approach for principals as leaders are:

* In the process of exercising leadership the principal may frequently be obliged to adapt his style to suit the situation.
* A particular situation may compel the principal to cede his position to someone else in staff who is better qualified to act as a leader in that situation.

In short, the principal's leadership style should meet the demands of the situation. In the next section an attempt is made to investigate certain conditions in the job and what the relevant leadership styles would be for each situation.

3.3.2 Job demands and leadership effectiveness

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979: 126) the job demands vary as objectives and tasks change or as attention shifts from one set of problems or objectives to another. In an attempt to match the leadership styles and job demands, Reddin (in Sergiovanni & Starratt 1979: 126) suggest the following as the general guides which are contingency related:

If the problems and objectives currently in focus result in the following job demands and conditions, then the related style (high relations and low task concerns) will be most effective:

* Teachers have high expertness or unusual technical skills.
* Teacher identification and commitment are necessary for success.
* The job is arranged in a way that teachers can largely decide how tasks will be accomplished.
* It is difficult to evaluate performance outcomes precisely.
* Teachers need to be creative and inventive in their work.

If the situation is such that following job demands and conditions are present, then a separated style (low relations and low task concerns) will be probably the most effective:

* The teachers' job is programmed in a routine fashion and requires the following established procedures, curriculum formats, and teaching strategies.
* The teachers' job is easy to perform and easy to regulate.
* Automatic feedback is provided so that the teacher can readily note his/her progress.
* Intellectual privacy and thinking are much more important than the teacher being actively involved in something.

If the situation is such that the following job demands and conditions are present, then the integrated style (high task and high relations concerns) will probably be most effective:
Teachers need to interact with each other in order to complete their tasks.

Teachers are interdependent, the success of one depends on the help of others, and vice versa.

Successful completion of tasks requires that the supervisor must interact with teachers as a group.

Several solutions are possible, and the number of solutions proposed and evaluated is improved by interaction among group members.

Teachers set their own pace as the group pursues its task.

If the situation is such that the following job demands and conditions are present, then the dedicated style (low relations and high task concerns) will probably be most effective:

- The supervisor knows more about the task or problems at hand than the teachers do.
- Numerous unplanned and unanticipated events are likely to occur which require attention from the supervisor.
- Teachers need to be given direction frequently in order for them to complete their task.
- The teachers' performance is readily measurable, and corrective actions by the supervisor are visible and can be easily evaluated.

Although Reddin's formulation is intriguing and draws attention to the potential significance of the situation in moderating the effectiveness of the leadership style, it lacks systematic empirical support (Hoy & Miskel 1982: 258). Hoy and Miskel (1982: 254) further maintain that to say that a given administrative style will be effective if it is appropriate to the situation is tautological unless the specific situations and matching styles can be clearly specified and demonstrated.

### 3.3.3 Resume

The leadership role of the principal is important because it concerns motivation of staff and interpersonal relations among staff members. It has become clear that because situations differ, styles also differ. Therefore leadership effectiveness depends on the nature of the situation. It is necessary for the principal to understand the nature of the situation so that his style of leadership may be relevant and contingent.

### 3.4 The contingency approach to control

The word 'control' often has unpleasant connotations because it seems to threaten personal freedom and autonomy (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 577). During this time in Black schools the legitimacy of authority is being sharply questioned. There is a growing movement towards greater independence and self-actualisation for individuals. In this way then, the concept of organisational control makes many people uncomfortable. In spite of this, control is necessary in schools.

The question therefore is how can Black principals deal with potential conflict between the needs for personal autonomy and for organisational (school) control? According to Stoner and Wankel (1986: 577) one way to deal with the seeming disparity between these two needs is to recognise that excessive control will harm the
organisation as well as the individuals within it. This therefore implies that controls that bog down staff members and pupils in red tape or limit too many types of behaviour will kill motivation, inhibit creativity, and ultimately damage organisational performance. However, the degree of control that is considered extreme or harmful will vary from one situation to another (Stoner & Wankel 1986: 577).

Inadequate control, of course, will also harm the school by wasting resources and by making it more difficult to attain goals. Teachers and pupils may be harmed by inadequate control as well. According to Stoner and Wankel (1986: 577) a decrease in control does not necessarily lead to an increase in personal autonomy. In addition, if the lack of an effective system of control causes the principals to supervise their subordinates more closely, the freedom of those subordinates will be further reduced. This implies that the principal's exercising of control should be balanced and contingent i.e. it should be determined by the situation. Consequently the next section will focus on the contingency approach to personnel supervision.

3.4.1 The contingency approach to personnel supervision

The style of control to be used by the principal depends on characteristics of subordinates. Atkinson, et al (1993: 7) attempted to, contingently, match the management style with the characteristics of subordinates as follows:

The directing style is best used when staff lack both job and psychological maturity. The principal may use this style with an inexperienced teacher who needs considerable structure and supervision. One principal talked of 'wheelbarrows', the teachers who cannot do the work without being pushed behind. As teachers increase in maturity, principals should change to different style in order to maintain their effectiveness.

The supporting style is most effective when staff have high job maturity and low psychological maturity. Principals may use this style with highly creative teachers who have attained competence and self-confidence. The principal should make decisions in collaboration with teachers and then support the teachers' efforts towards performing tasks while giving attention to increasing their motivation.

The coaching style is most effective when staff have low job maturity and high psychological maturity. Principals using this style must help teachers acquire skills needed to carry out assigned tasks successfully. Principals should direct teacher tasks, explain decisions to teachers, and ask for their suggestions.

The delegating style is used most effectively when teachers have high levels of both competence (job maturity) and motivation (psychological maturity) to go beyond acceptable levels of job performance. The principal should demonstrate trust and confidence in them by delegating tasks and only monitoring the progress.
However, according to the contingency approach, the most successful approach is to move gradually through each leadership style as the maturity levels of the individuals or group increases. The next section will thus focus on selecting a supervisory model.

### Selecting a supervisory model

Atkinson, et al (1993: 62) identified supervisory models as traditional, peer and clinical:

- **Traditional supervision**
  
  In this type of supervision there is a high supervisor - low teacher involvement. This model may be the most practical in situations where there are high supervisor - teacher ratios.

- **Peer supervision**
  
  This is a formalised process by which two or more experienced, competent teachers who value collegiality agree to work together for their own professional growth.

- **Clinical supervision**
  
  This is characterised by a close, intense collegial relationship between the teacher and the principal. It is most effective with teachers who are committed to instructional improvement but lack technical skills.

According to Atkinson, et al (1993: 63) the appropriateness of the supervisory model depends upon a number of factors which are contingency related: the teachers' level of development, time available for supervision, the objectives of supervision, the principal's level of skill, and the organisation's expectations for supervisors.

The development level of teachers is a major factor to be considered in selecting a supervisory model. Teachers identified as 'professionals' might be asked to engage in a peer supervision with other professionals. Teacher drop-outs on the other hand, might be supervised by using traditional supervision.

The 'unfocused workers' are typically best served through clinical supervision. The principal must select the supervisory model most likely to raise the level of commitment for individual teachers who might be 'analytical observers'.

Another factor that might influence the selection of a supervisory model is the time available for supervision. Clinical supervision is by far the most time-consuming for the principal. The peer supervision is less time-consuming than clinical supervision. It is, however, important to note that the supervisor plays a definite role in this model. Of the three supervisory models, traditional supervision is generally regarded as the most time efficient, according to Atkinson, et al (1993: 67).

The other factor the principals should consider when selecting an appropriate supervisory model is their own level of skill. Clinical supervision requires the highest level of supervisory skill while traditional supervision generally requires the lower level of skill. In selecting the teachers for the
peer supervision, the principal must consider the teachers who have both strong technical and interpersonal skills.

According to the contingency approach it is thus clear that certain supervisory styles tend to be more effective with certain categories of teachers. For example, drop-outs generally respond well to a directive style; unfocused workers and analytical observers respond well to a collaborative style; and professionals respond well to a non-directive style.

3.4.3 Other contingency factors influencing school control

According to Dekker, et al (1986: 117) the most important determining factor of school control is the nature of the school as institution. The school is a unique institution and the techniques and styles of management applicable to, for example, business world cannot simply be transferred to schools.

Every school is unique in its own way and this uniqueness is determined by amongst other things, the size of the school. A larger school is obviously not only more difficult to control, but also requires different methods of control than the smaller schools.

The nature of the community served by the school also plays an important role in determining the demands made of school control. It is, for example, far easier to control a school which serves a homogeneous community. A heterogeneous community is subject to all sorts of conflicting forces, the effects of which will be reflected in the problems encountered by the school. Factors such as the economic level and the development of the community also have influence on school control.

All these contingency factors should be taken into account when exercising control.

3.4.4 Resume

Control should be adaptable to the nature and needs of the activities to be controlled (Van der Westhuizen 1991: 219). Control should always be flexible. According to the contingency approach this means that control should be able to adapt to changing circumstances and make provision for exceptions. In establishing control, then, the task of the principal is to find proper balance between organisational control and individual freedom. According to Stoner and Wankel (1986: 578) with too much control, organisations become stifling, inhibiting, and unsatisfying places to work. With too little control, organisations become chaotic, inefficient and ineffective in achieving their goals.

From the point of view of the contingency approach, it is clear that because organisations, people and environments keep changing, an effective control system requires continuing review and modification. While there is no single best supervisory model or style, the principal's challenge is to consider the relevant contingency factors and then select the model or style that is most likely to result in positive change in teachers' attitudes and behaviours.
4. THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO CERTAIN AREAS OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

The Black principal is expected to make contingent decisions and solutions in the following areas:

4.1 Pupil management

School unrest, alienation and violence have become common in South African Black schools. We have become so used to this that people often accept it as a given phenomenon. This therefore requires that the principal listens to students with a fair, consistent ear. Dunn & Dunn (1983: 117) suggest that students should be allowed to participate in resolving problems in which they are involved directly.

The principal should be dynamic in dealing with student protests. Hearings, inputs and feedback should be solicited and weighed. The principal has to weigh the student demands and their implications. He should also think of the tactics that might be used to escalate attention to their cause and demands. In former Black schools students even go to the extent of striking at the principal's personal property or family. They sometimes use abusive and vulgar language, defying and taunting several teachers.

The principal might receive complaints from students about certain teachers. Usually these complaints stem from excessive use of corporal punishment. The principal, in this case, should seek answers to the following questions which are contingency related:

* Did the teacher overreact?
* Did the punishment fit the crime?
* Did the teacher consider alternative approaches to the problem?
* What are some other solutions?

The answers to these questions will help the principal identify the contingent factors involved in the case.

There is another argument on the issue of student protests: Why must serious discussion and negotiation only take place after an eruption?. This implies that detector machinery must be devised to nip any problem in the bud. Negotiations or discussions are tough when tempers are frayed. This argument further implies that calm must be restored first in former Black schools.

The principal should listen to all complaints, requests and suggestions. He should analyse the situations to determine the heart of the issue, the essence of the problem or the real cause of the complaint (Dunn & Dunn 1983: 96). Wood, et al (1985: 59) suggest that principals must be dynamic and perceptive individuals as they deal with the complexities of human mind, the personalities of many individuals, and in multifaceted organisational structures in educational systems.

It is therefore clear that because principals deal with students in a development stage of life, they must develop dynamic and adaptive leadership styles - hence the contingency approach.
4.2 Dealing with teachers

The Black principal is expected to deal with teachers’ union manipulation and pressures. (Refer to paragraph 1.2.8). The important consideration here is: Can the principal work effectively with teachers who are determined to make union goals their primary objective? Another consideration is how can the principal align himself with departmental authority and simultaneously maintain an effective professional team relationship with his staff.

Factors identified by principals interviewed by the researcher (refer to appendix) as aggravating this problem are the following:

* Conflicting personalities of principals and teachers.
* Conflicting strategies of principals and teachers.
* Principals not considerate to teachers.
* Generation gap between teachers and principals.
* Requests by the teachers against the principal’s personal principles.

The principal is also expected to deal with complaints about the teachers. The complaints might be from parents, or students, or even other teachers. The question then is how much credence should the principal give to complaints about a teacher from parents? From other teachers? From students? (Dunn & Dunn 1983: 169).

The researcher has observed in schools where he has worked that typically, principals make decisions more rapidly when initiated by superiors than when initiated by subordinates. It is easier to delay decision making on questions raised by subordinates since they have less influence on career success than do superiors. Wood, et al (1985: 83) warn that principals should avoid the reputation of never acting on teacher-initiated problems. Subordinates soon become discouraged when approaching a procrastinating principal to make decisions.

It is therefore important that the principal considers and weighs extenuating circumstances, specific conditions, timing, consequences and all factors involved before making final decisions as these are all contingency factors. By acting hastily (or unwisely) in style that is not comfortable for him, he might create a situation that could be both chaotic and embarrassing.

4.3 Dealing with student unrest and teacher militancy

It has already been stated that the black high school principal faces a demanding and questioning adolescent society. The problem of student unrest is not uncommon in Black high schools.

It is important that the principal should identify the cause and seriousness of the problem. The principal should classify the problem on whether it is caused by school related factors or external factors. The case of teacher militancy presents a problem to the Black principal. Other problems experienced in Black schools have been discussed in Chapter 1 as political agitation of pupils, vandalism of school buildings, schools becoming battlegrounds, chalk-downs, sit-ins and intimidation of principals. It is important to note that these problems are contingency related.
The following are the contingent guidelines for the principal for handling the student unrest and teacher militancy, according to Radzick (in Atkinson, et al 1993: 165):

First, describe the issue or problem that needs to be resolved. The principal needs to consider the following questions: What is happening? What are the facts? Is all relevant information available to you? What decisions need to be made? What factors, issues and consequences need to be taken into account?

Secondly, list all the possible responses you can think of. Which outcomes are possible? Which are desirable? Which objectives are most important, to whom?

Thirdly, describe the best response. What is the best course of action? What are the short and long term consequences for the principal and the school? What unintended consequences might emerge?

To discover how the problem occurred, the principal should ask himself the following questions: Did something go wrong? Did something break down? Were there unexpected results or outcomes? Is something that once worked no longer working?

To know the nature of the problem the principal should ask himself the following questions which are contingency related: Is the problem people, operational or technical? Is it with a particular department, class, service, or programme? Is it something tangible or intangible? Is it an external or internal problem?

To decide how significant the problem is, the principal should ask himself the following questions which are contingency related: Is the problem disrupting operations? Is it hampering the education of students? Is it causing conflict among people? Is it an everyday occurrence or is it infrequent? Is it affecting the staff and their productivity? Is it common or unusual? Is it affecting the goals, and if yes, which ones? Is it affecting the parents and other external people?

With the full understanding of the problem, the circumstances surrounding the problem and other factors related to the problem, the principal should then adopt the contingent management style to dealing with student unrest and teacher militancy.

4.4 Multicultural character of schools

The South African schools have changed from their monocultural character to a multicultural character. The schools in South Africa have been separated along racial lines. The former Black schools too, have to adopt the program of integration. The Black principal has to consider the following questions:
  * What are the conditions that would promote the genuine in-school integration and quality education for all, regardless of background?
  * How can classroom practices be modified through changes in teachers' attitudes?
  * Which program elements are essential to improve desegregation practices?
This situation might require the Black principal to reconsider his management style and adopt a style that would fit the cultural character of his school. This implies the contingency approach to managing the multicultural school.

5. PLANNING TIME AND PRIORITIES

It has been stated above that the principal should be considerate and listen to suggestions, requests, and complaints with a consistent and fair ear. This implies that the principal should be approachable. Various persons including teachers, parents, and pupils, come regularly to the principal’s office.

Should the principal’s door be open to staff, parents or pupils at all times? This question is contingency related. The principal must determine the contingency extent to which he wishes to adhere to either an open or closed door policy. Either position has both merits and problems (Dunn & Dunn 1983: 182):

* The Always open door invites friendliness, co-operation and a sense of interaction and power-sharing, but it denies the principal the opportunity to schedule desk work constructively, and to count on uninterrupted, productive time.

* The Always closed door gives the principal total control of access to his office, and, thus time can be allocated productively. Appointments can be responsive to the workload, and interruptions either can be minimised or eliminated, unnecessary meetings are discouraged. Although the principal’s productivity ultimately benefits the school, those who wish to confer may view the policy as a symbolic representation of the principal’s lack of interest in their work or an absence of human concern. They may feel frustrated by a sense of powerlessness as they wait to find out when their meetings will take place.

The principal’s need to complete work and deal with problems and plans should be accommodated through the scheduling of uninterrupted time. However the principal should be contingent when determining his open or closed door policy. Accessibility during the emergencies or crises should be immediate and the one exception to the closed door. It is therefore clear that the extent to which the door might be open or closed would also depend on the existing conditions in the school, hence the contingency approach.

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was stated in the introduction. The aim has been to investigate how the Black principal can use the contingency approach to help him with his managerial tasks.

It is apparently up to the perceptive administrator to determine which situational elements should determine the appropriate leadership pattern in order to achieve maximum effectiveness. Unfortunately, some ambiguity exists in defining the ‘appropriate’ situation for each style. The proposition that there is no one best style of leadership has a certain appeal, but the problem of matching specific situation with specific styles to maximise effectiveness remains complex.

In this work it has become clear that there is no single best style of organising, administering, or managing a school. It has become clear also that the selection of leadership and management style should be based on the contingency analysis of the
components of the situation. The Black principals should thus analyse relevant events in their situations in order to apply appropriate styles for dealing with those situations. It is important for the Black principal, when adopting the contingency approach, to understand management actions, systems analysis, planning, organising, leading and control techniques. The principal should thus be able to make correct predictions on the advantages and disadvantages of any particular management style.

In the next chapter the conclusions and recommendations will be made in regard to the use of the contingency approach to planning, organising, leading and control as the managerial tasks of the Black high school principal.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to capitulate on the whole research project, draw conclusions and make recommendations that will have some practical value for the management tasks of the Black principal.

2. THE PROBLEM RESTATING

The main problem in this study is: Can the contingency approach to managerial tasks help the Black high school principal solve the problems he is facing? This problem was further divided into four sub-problems, namely:

* What are the most important managerial tasks of the Black high school principal in the South Africa of the 1990's?
* What entails the contingency approach?
* How can the Black high school principal use this approach to help him with his managerial problems?
* What are the conclusions and recommendations in regard to the use of the contingency approach to planning, organising, leading and control as managerial tasks of the Black high school principal?

3. AIM OF STUDY RESTATING

The study was designed to:

* describe the managerial tasks of the Black principal of the South Africa of the 1990's;
* describe the contingency approach; and
* identify the situational contingencies that influence effective school management and to explore how the Black principal can use the contingency approach to help him with his managerial tasks.

4. SUMMARY

On looking at some Black high schools, the researcher was concerned about the seeming inability or unwillingness to make the necessary adjustments to their structures and styles of management by some Black principals. The researcher also felt that the Black high school principals are facing a number of problems and challenges in the environments of their schools. These problems were discussed in Chapter 1.

Available literature was consulted to establish the following aspects:

* The managerial tasks of the Black high school principal of the South Africa of the 1990's.
* The importance of these tasks for the Black high school principal.
* The key areas in which the principal should mainly carry out his managerial tasks.

The most important managerial tasks of the principals were defined in Chapter 2. These tasks were divided into planning, organising, leading and control. Also the subtasks like decision making, problem solving, delegating, policy making and co-
ordinating were defined. Attempts were made to define the areas of educational management like pupil management, dealing with teachers, dealing with student unrest and teacher militancy. It became clear in these aspects that the management functions are performed in changing conditions.

In Chapter 3 the contingency approach was described. The theories that gave rise to the contingency theory were discussed. These theories were trait and situational theories. It became clear that the earliest theories sought to identify the traits that leaders commonly exhibit, but that emphasis was soon replaced by the concern for the importance of the specific properties of the situation to explain the leader's behaviour. When the situational approach proved counterproductive, the contingency approach came into being. This theory is a merger of the trait and situational theories. According to the contingency approach, the task of the principal as a leader is to identify which technique will, in a particular situation, under particular circumstances and at a particular time, best contribute to the attainment of goals.

Having described the contingency approach, attempts were made to relate the management tasks described in Chapter 2 to the contingency approach as described in Chapter 3. Available literature, interviews and observations (refer to appendix), were used to establish the following aspects:

* Common situational characteristics of the Black school.
* Situational contingencies influencing the principal's management task.
* Importance of the contingency approach during this time in the history of our country.
* How the Black high school principal can use the contingency approach to help him with his managerial tasks.

It became clear, through the interviews, observation and literature study, that under one set of circumstances one type of leadership style is effective, under another set of circumstances a different type of leadership style is needed (refer to chapter 4). This investigation was an attempt to answer the question of what type of leadership style for what kind of situation. The contingency theory assumes that no one best style of leadership suitable to all situations can be identified, but rather that effectiveness of style is determined by its appropriateness to the situation at hand. The basic management styles were described, each effective in some situations but not in others.

From the foregoing discussion it would appear that being a leader requires one to be true to one's ideals but, at the same time sufficiently flexible so as to be able to perform so many specialised duties and functions for a group or organisation in a continuously changing environment. Leadership is the performance, in various and variable situations, of the functions of a leader, while at the same time, meeting the expectations, needs, aspirations and demands of the group.

The contingency theory, although a new approach, has already been developed to the point when it offers valuable insights for the Black principal. This theory has found that methods that are highly effective in one situation would not work in other situations.
5. CONCLUSIONS ON THE STUDY

The following conclusions emerged from this study:

5.1 The challenging role of the Black high school principal

The Black principal's managerial task is engulfed with problems. Some of these problems are fear, intimidation, disruptions, and destroyed culture of learning. These are some of the contingency variables which tend to affect the principal's management task. The middle position of the principal has taken on a more urgent and complicated character (refer to paragraph 1.2). The Black principal is not only in the middle of the hierarchy, but also in the middle of the political environment that has engulfed educational planning and decision making.

The principalship in former Black schools is now a vortex created by forces throughout the social order which exert pressure on educators. Some of this pressure comes from legitimate agencies - school boards, parent organisations, community advisory councils or labour unions and NGO's. But it also originates sometimes in its most precious form, from groups whose legitimacy itself is controversial - student protesters, minority activists, street gangs, textbook vigilantes, and spontaneous, single-issue parent groups.

5.2 The managerial tasks of the Black principal are situational

Although most principals are not aware of this, the principal's management task is influenced by the contingencies of the situation. The effectiveness of the Black principal's management task depends on the nature of the situation. The evidence indicates that under one set of circumstances, one type of planning, organising, leading and control is effective, under another set of circumstances, however, a different type of each of these tasks is required (refer to paragraph 4.4). The success of these tasks is the function of the situational favourableness and unfavourableness. Not only is it important to know what actions have to be carried out and how this should be done, but also what forces, factors or influences make it necessary that these actions be particularised for every contingency.

5.3 The contingency approach is significant in the management task of the Black high school principal

The principal has to make provision for flexibility and adaptability in his planning. When making a decision, the principal should define the nature of the situation, assess alternatives, consider variables in decision making, consider the involvement of teachers, etc. (refer to paragraph 4.3.1.2). In problem solving the nature of the problem determines the style the principal would use in solving the problem (refer to paragraph 4.3.1.3). With regard to school policy making, the principal should ensure that the school policy is constantly adapted to the changing circumstances in the educational, social and political environment (refer to paragraph 4.3.1.4).

The organising task of the principal is influenced by contingency factors like personality traits and skills of the principal, nature of the activities performed at school, number and skills of teachers, number of pupils and the size of the school. The particular circumstances and the situation would determine which type of organisational structure would be used and to what extent the span of control would be functional (refer to paragraph 4.3.1.5).
In leadership task, the principal should consider for example the nature and characteristics of subordinates. In exercising control the principal should consider the contingency related factors like the teachers' level of development, time available for supervision, and his own level of skill (refer to paragraph 4.3.4).

5.4 Every style of management has its place in the school
This becomes evident when the principal has to analyse the relevant events in his situation in order to apply appropriate methods for dealing with the situation. According to the contingency approach there is no universal best style of managing (refer to paragraph 3.10). The effectiveness of the style is primarily determined by the favourableness or unfavourableness of the situation. It has become evident that finding general principles applicable to all situations encountered by the Black principals is difficult, if not impossible.

5.5 Personality and need dispositions influence the choice of the management style
Some principals are influenced in their choice of a management style by their own personality and need dispositions which tend to be rather consistent and unchanging over time and in different situations. The principal's basic personality and need dispositions are the contingency variables and may not make it possible for him to adapt his leadership or management style to a new situation (refer to paragraph 3.3.3.4 and paragraph 4.2.1).

5.6 Factors determining which leadership style will be effective were identified
Some of the contingency factors identified as determining which style will be effective for the principal are leader-member relations, task structure, position power, personality, past experiences and expectations of the principal, subordinates' characteristics, expectations and behaviour, and the peers' expectations and behaviour (refer to paragraph 3.3.3). The extent to which the situational variables affect the principal will depend on his perception of the situation.

5.7 Flexibility and adaptability are important for the Black principal
Flexibility would help the principals respond appropriately to situations and to make adjustments when things do not turn out as anticipated (refer to paragraph 2.5.5.5 and paragraph 3.6). Principals should be aware of the variety of leadership styles available. Obviously, some principals find it easier than others to adjust to different life situations. It has become apparent from interviews that most principals actually do have a great deal of potential flexibility in responding to situational influences on their leadership style (refer to appendix). If principals are flexible in management style, then presumably they will be effective in a variety of management situations.

5.8 Situational contingencies which influence the management of the Black school have been identified
The effectiveness of the principal cannot be determined adequately without standing the total situation and both the internal and external environmental conditions of the school. The situational characteristics of the former Black schools that directly affect the Black principal's management task have been identified as, for example, the personality of the principal, local population characteristics, local economic conditions, local customs and
traditions, the political structure, social tensions, community groups, teacher types and disruptions (refer to paragraph 4.2).

It is important for the Black principal to understand and beware of these contingency conditions as they will affect his management style.

5.9 **Personality traits of the principal play an important role in managing the school**

There are personality traits which are required in most situations. There are certain characteristics possessed by effective leaders as opposed to ineffective leaders. Those characteristics are intelligence, motivation, self-confidence, organisation, initiative, dependability, self-discipline and knowledge (refer to paragraph 3.2.1.2). The researcher regards these characteristics as some of the basic requirements of the position of the principal. It is however, important to note that there are personality traits of the principal that may change with the situation. The type of person the principal is, as well as the way he behaves as a leader, determines how he executes his management tasks.

5.10 **The conflicting attitudes and values between principals and their teachers are a great problem**

There is a great deal of conflict and mistrust between the principals and the teachers (refer to paragraph 4.4.2). The teachers feel that their principals are exploiting them and are a cut above their heads. The teachers therefore want accommodative styles of management. From the interviews with some teachers and from observations in some schools (refer to appendix) this research established that:

- Principals are bullying or domineering
- Some principals are possessive of the school, e.g. "This is my school, I'll do what I like..." There is more 'I-feeling' than 'we-feeling'.
- Principals show favouritism and discrimination. They do not treat teachers fairly and equally.
- School inspectors are used to threaten teachers.
- Teachers want the principal to welcome their ideas and input. In general, they want more co-operative and democratic participation in the running of the school.

5.11 **Understanding the characteristics of teachers by principals is important**

Individual teachers have their own personal characteristics which they display as they strive to accomplish work goals. Some personal characteristics identified in this study are the locus of control and how they perceive their own ability (refer to paragraph 4.3.3.1). Teachers are also categorised on the basis of their level of commitment and the level of abstraction (refer to paragraph 4.2.8). It is important for the principal to understand these characteristics of his teachers as they are contingency factors.

5.12 **The principal as 'man' is always situated**

In this study 'situation' referred to those relationships which have a bearing on decisions and actions which he must take. It has become apparent that the principal thinks, judges, interprets, chooses and acts out of his situation. He cannot escape from this given reality. The principal's situation is unique. It is not fixed and it
changes continuously. According to the contingency approach it is not the school that is managed but the situation (refer to paragraph 1.1).

5.13 Understanding job demands is significant for leadership effectiveness
Principals should select management styles in a manner that is consistent with the contingency theory. They should identify the unique characteristics which define the task at hand. Job demands vary as objectives and tasks change (refer to paragraph 4.3.3.2). It is important for the principal to know the job demands which best characterise his school and the implications these demands would have for his management style.

5.14 Every school is unique
Each school differs from the other schools in its own way. The size of the school, the nature of activities taking place, subordinate characteristics, role definitions and both the internal and external environmental conditions of the school - all these contingency factors determine the uniqueness of the school. This is mainly significant for those principals who blindly abide by their peers' expectations, behaviour and attitudes (refer to paragraph 4.3.4.3).

5.15 Periodic review of rules, regulations, procedures and policies is necessary
Periodic review of all rules, regulations, procedures, policies and programs should be undertaken to determine if they still meet the contingency requirements of the school. Rules, regulations, policies and procedures often become outmoded. School regulations become anachronisms with the changing conditions. Thus, the periodic evaluation of these is necessary (refer to paragraph 3.3.1.4.2).

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

From this study the following recommendations were made:

6.1 The Black principal should understand and beware of the school's external and internal conditions as they have an impact on his management task
This implies that the Black principal should always study the conditions within and outside his school. The principal should be aware of contingency factors like population characteristics, local economic conditions, local customs and traditions, local political structure, local social tensions, local community groups and teacher types (refer to paragraph 4.2). Our society is continually changing. This has presented the principal with a need to understand and interpret the new demands society is placing on the school. This would make his management more realistic and adaptive.

6.2 The school management councils and PTSA's must play an active role in managing the school
If there is no participation by the citizens in the school life, then the activities within its walls are static and unchallenging. The schools should no longer be allowed to become the battlegrounds of conflicting community political philosophies. The Black principal can enhance harmony between the school and the community by developing the partnership between the parents and the school. The community will then feel duty-bound to
protect the school and its welfare. This has some contingency implications for the school as a whole: The school management councils should represent the whole community. These councils should represent the wishes of the people, not the principal's alone (refer to paragraphs 4.2.4, 4.2.5, 4.2.6, 4.2.7).

6.3 The Black high school principal should possess a repertoire of behavioural styles tailored to the contingencies of the situation

The selection of the management style should be based upon the careful analysis of significant contingencies of the situation. Principals should be able to make correct predictions concerning the advantages and disadvantages of any particular management concept or management technique. In the contingency view, the effective leader is able to match leadership, planning, organising and control styles to the contingencies of the situation in order to achieve the behaviour on the part of subordinates that will contribute most to achieving the goals of the school. Principals have to employ new strategies to meet the challenges of the times (refer to paragraph 3.4).

6.4 All prospective principals should be interviewed thoroughly by a panel consisting of the chief inspector, area manager, and no less than three members of the school management council

It is recommended that the interview questions should aim to assess the contingency factors like psychological maturity and job maturity of the prospective principal. The aim would be to ensure that the prospective principals possess the required skills and qualities to manage their schools effectively and efficiently and to assess if they would meet the expectations and the demands of the contingencies of the situation and environment of the school concerned (refer to paragraph 1.2.10). In this regard, the assessment centre can play an important role.

6.5 The prospective principals should have completed a course in educational management

This would help ensure that the Black principals know exactly what tasks they are expected to perform in their schools. This is the contingency factor that would determine how effective and efficient the principal performs his tasks. Most organisations employ only qualified people for the managerial job. It is however surprising that the school manager in South Africa is not obliged at any stage of his career to obtain managerial qualifications. The school principal should be a new kind of professional, destined to take his place with the scientist and the educator in shaping the society of the future.

Possession of any senior degree should not be regarded as a recommendation. The course in educational management is required. From the researcher's observation in some schools it became clear that there seem to be less relationship between the years of experience of the principal and his positional competence. Managing can no longer be only a practical art requiring merely native intelligence and experience. The rapid growth of underlying knowledge in management and the obvious need for even more, create more challenges for the Black principal. Principals should familiarise themselves with the components of the management profession. This includes an understanding of the management tasks and other areas of management (refer to paragraph 1.2.10).
6.6 Black high school principals should be willing to learn more about management

There can be no question that the Black principal's role is expanding and changing. Virtually every principal will increasingly be faced with requirements and opportunities for improvement and for a far more intellectual approach to managing. This implies that the danger of becoming (obsolete) for the task will continually be greater for Black principals. The only insurance against managerial obsolescence is the absorption of new knowledge on a continuing basis. Black principals need to be willing to learn and to take advantage of new knowledge and techniques. This willingness would be a contingency factor in that it will influence and determine the effectiveness of the principal's style of management. This requires of them a humble approach to their successes and limitations.

They need to recognise that there is no terminal degree for management education. Without continuing study, the principal's knowledge and performance will soon become obsolete. No one is ever completely educated.

It is therefore recommended that in-service courses for the principals should receive priority and if this is done, it will provide a more dynamic basis for education as a whole. The aspect of in-service training opportunities for school principals in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes required for effective school principalship is still neglected in this country and should receive priority (see Botha 1994). They (principals) need to attend course, such as UNISA's Further Diploma in Educational Management: FDE in Education Leadership that will be important for principals from 1996.

There is a great need for the creation of the Principals' Centres. These centres could be in the nearest colleges of education and universities. These centres would offer school principals various opportunities for professional growth and development (see Botha 1994).

There is also a need for professional organisations or associations for principals. These associations would offer opportunities for contact among high school principals to discuss ideas, programmes, experiences or problems (refer to paragraph 1.2.10).

All these will serve as contingency factors as they will influence and help improve the effectiveness of the principal's management task and style.

6.7 The Black principals should establish effective communication systems with teachers, pupils and parents.

This would enable the principal to understand their feelings and attitudes. It would serve as a detector mechanism whereby the principal would get to know the atmosphere prevailing inside and outside the school. This would allow the principal to apply the style of management that is suitable to the contingencies of the situation.

Principals should note that professional educators often resent being managed because they view themselves as experts and the organisation as a resource and environment in which they must have free reign to exercise their talent. The control of a potentially troublesome and unpredictable clientele requires student participation and
interaction as part of an anticipatory managerial strategy. As anticipators and reactors, principals should not only
learn to be where the trouble is, but also learn how to interpret trouble when it occurs and decide what remedies
will work best depending on the contingency nature of the situation. Other Black principals manage unstable
schools where human relations are volatile - in these circumstances, the principal should interact with students,
teachers, and parents to take the pulse of the school and to head off trouble (refer to paragraphs 4.4.1 & 4.4.2).

6.8 Frequent evaluation and assistance of principals by the deputy chief education specialists (inspectors) is
necessary
This research has established that some principals misuse their authority positions. They do not attend school
regularly. They are tempted by power. It is therefore recommended that inspectors should visit schools regularly
(this is not happening in some areas especially in most circuits of KwaZulu-Natal). They would need to check
how effective the school is functioning and give all possible assistance to the principals. The principal should
have identified the limiting contingency factors like his underqualification and others which inhibit his
effectiveness and the assistance from the inspectors should be based on those expressed problems and needs.
Visits by the inspectors once a year to the school is really not enough. In most cases the inspectors come to
schools for inspecting and assisting the teachers. However, in this study it is recommended that inspectors
evaluate principals regularly on how they perform their managerial tasks.

6.9 A new conducive learning environment should be created
Principals should not just wait for contingency factors in unfavourable environments or situations to dictate to
them the management styles and strategies. They should also attempt to create environments or conditions that
would be favourable for their management techniques to be effective. Black principals should now work towards
providing an environment and an atmosphere where teachers can impart knowledge to help pupils gain real
understanding and insight into the subject matter. Pupils will, in this way, develop physical, mental and moral
skills and wholesome attitudes and appreciations. The environment must be conducive and the processes at
school must promote the development of creativity, originality and reasoning powers. Pupils would not riot and
go on strike if they realise this is happening to them (refer to paragraph 1.2).

6.10 There is a great need for empowerment of principals.
Principals should be empowered to make decisions without any pressure from above. School principals should
become to a lesser degree the executions of policies which are determined at the top levels. The responsibility to
find their own policies and the executions thereof should be transferred more and more to school managers. They
will thus be held accountable for the results of their schools.

It is the principal who studies and understands the contingency nature of the school situation and can make
appropriate decisions. The bottom-up strategy of policy making is still not well rooted in South Africa. The
work still mainly proceeds along prescriptive lines by the top authorities. The principals are caught between the
demands of the education department and those of their students and parents. More authority should be given to
the school principal so that he may, using the contingency approach, determine the policy of his school to a
greater extent. This will give the principal more powers and autonomy to deal with the situation as he closely sees it.

6.11 Proper consultation between principals and the department is necessary.

The education authorities should not just get information about the situation in schools over the radio or newspapers. There should be proper consultation between the department of education and principals. The department will, in this way, get views of principals about the situation in their schools. At the present moment the department is mostly unaccessible to principals. It is recommended that the department should come closer to principals through principal’s forums, seminars or workshops. In this way the department will understand the contingency nature of the situation in schools. The department will understand that its regulations cannot be applicable in the same way in all schools.

6.12 Rules and regulations from the department should be capable of application in individual situations.

It is recommended that departmental rules and regulations should not be restrictive. This could inhibit creativity and flexibility from principals. The rule or regulation should be in such a way the principal can adapt it to his own unique situation, depending on the contingency nature of the situation.

6.13 Flexibility and adaptability of schools.

Schools must be freed from the bureaucratic bonds in which they are trapped. Schools will be much more flexible and adaptable when local managerial bodies (like parents and teachers) have authority to take steps (within limits) to change things in order to meet the real needs of their communities. South Africa has a need for school managers who are competent to make independent decisions instead of being prescribed from the top.

6.14 Further research on the life world of the principal.

Further research is needed where the life world of the principal and his problems can be studied. This should be done in order to implement a well planned strategy to provide school principals with the necessary and relevant managerial expertise and skills. Such research should present fundamental knowledge regarding managing in a way that can be useful and operational.

6.15 Environmental scanning by the principal is needed.

A successful school is one that can act in harmony and proactively with its environment. The environment of the nineties requires the principals to identify change in the environment and apply techniques to observe changes and trends in this environment in good time and to manage those changes effectively.

7. CONCLUSION

The present and the future of any organisation are in the hands of its management. Schools can only fulfil their tasks when they are effectively managed. Effectiveness results from the appropriate matching of the style of management to the situation. Effective principals simply make better schools.
Increased pressures on schools make more urgent the need to increase the efficiency (achieving more with less) and effectiveness (reaching one's objectives) of management and leadership. The challenges faced by Black principals involved adapting their schools to function in turbulent environments managing the multicultural character of schools and creating new workplace cultures. Whilst schools have universal problems, they also face problems which are unique. The role of the principal has changed in recent years. South Africa needs principals who can ride the waves of change.

The contingency approach to management and leadership as it makes provision for different leadership behaviours in different situations. This approach emphasises the point that effective leadership styles will vary with context, what Getzels and Guba (in Hoyle 1986:108) termed a transactional style. The contingency approach is particularly useful in the complex environments of South African schools for the very reason that it is so flexible.

It is hoped that the useful of the contingency approach to planning, organising, leading and control as the managerial tasks of the Black high school principals all 9,9 managers with the prospective, style, attitude and conduct of a true leader. In conclusion we refer to Burns and Stalker (in Hoyle 1986:42) who stated that 'the beginning of administrative wisdom is the awareness that there is no optimum type of management system.'
APPENDIX

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. INTRODUCTION

In the school situation there are four basic managerial tasks which should be carried out by the principal, namely: planning, organising, leading and control. In this research an attempt is made to determine the relationship between the management styles of Black high school principals and the situations in which these managerial tasks are carried out.

The study in this research is not only based on literature study and interviews, but also has an observation element with a background knowledge and experience by the researcher.

2. RESEARCH TECHNIQUES USED IN RESEARCH ON THE CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO MANAGERIAL TASKS OF THE BLACK HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

2.1 The interview as a method of research

The researcher was fortunate to attend the school management and leadership programme for principals, deputy principals and H.O.D.'s at Allemanskral in Orange Free State. The attendants were from Southern Natal, Northern Natal, Southern Transvaal, Northern Transvaal, Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Qwaqwa and Orange Free State. This programme was run by Teachers Opportunity Programmes. The programme lasted for two weeks from 3 to 15 July 1994.

The researcher got a chance of interviewing principals from the different regions. The principle of representativeness was observed. The purpose of the interviews was to get an insight into the managerial and leadership styles of various principals.

2.1.1 Types of questions

Two types of items were used in the interviews:

(a) Fixed-alternative items

These items offer the respondent a choice among two or more alternatives. They ask for Yes-No or Agree-Disagree answers. According to Kellinger (1966: 470) these items have advantages of achieving greater uniformity of measure and thus greater reliability and of forcing the respondents to answer in a way that fits the response categories previously set up.

(b) Open-ended questions

These items impose no restrictions on the content and the manner of respondent answers. According to Kellinger (1966: 471) the open-ended items have the following advantages: They are flexible, they have possibilities of depth, they enable the interviewer to ascertain the respondents' lack of knowledge, to detect ambiguity, to encourage co-operation and achieve rapport, and to make better estimates of respondents' true intentions, beliefs and attitudes.
2.1.2 Criteria for good questions

The researcher observed the following criteria on setting the questions:

(i) The questions were related to the research problem and research objectives.
(ii) The types or questions were the right and appropriate ones.
(iii) The items were clear and unambiguous.
(iv) The questions did not demand knowledge and information that the respondent does not have.
For example, before asking the respondent what he thinks of the contingency approach, the researcher first tries to find out whether he knows what the contingency approach is and means.
(v) In case of questions that demand personal or delicate material that the respondent may resist, special techniques are needed to obtain information of a personal, delicate or controversial nature.

Other precautions observed by the researcher are the following:

During the interview there was logical progression such that the respondent was:

* drawn into the interview by awakening his interest,
* easily brought along from items which are simple to answer to those which are complex,
* not affronted by an early and sudden request for personal information,
* never asked to give an answer which could be embarrassing without being given an opportunity to explain.

The following are some of the questions that were asked from principals:

1. Which behaviours do you see producing best results in your school?
2. How flexible are your management styles?
3. Do you agree that the principal should employ the leadership styles that fit the situation in and around the school?
4. Do you agree that the principal should force all situations to fit his particular style of management?
5. How often do you think that the Black principal of today should be flexible instead of traditional and old-fashioned?
6. Rank the management styles according to the order of importance to you:
   - Task-oriented style
   - Relationship-oriented style
   - Impoverished style
   - Integrated style
   - Balanced style
   - Directive style
   - Supportive style
7. Do you believe that as a principal you should have only one style of managing?
8. Are there any influences on your choice of management style?
9. How often is your management style influenced by conditions in and around your school?
10. How often are your peers' expectations and behaviours influential in your choice of management style?

11. Do you think it is important for the Black principal to understand the local community customs and traditions, physical and biotic factors and cultural factors?

12. What variables help you determine the most effective management style?

13. Is it important for the principal to consider his teachers' characteristics, expectations and behaviours influential in your choice of management style?

14. Do you think that the personal qualities of the principal are important in managing a school?

15. Do your teachers possess job maturity?

16. Do your teachers possess psychological maturity?

17. How often do you share the experiences and opinions with fellow principals in other schools?

18. Do you think that it is important for the principal to identify community leaders and establish contact with them?

19. Can you describe the community system in your school?

20. How do you get along with your teachers?

21. How often do you experience defiance from your teachers?

22. Do you mistrust your teachers?

23. How often do you consult with your staff before making a decision?

24. How often do you hold staff meetings?

25. How often do your teachers participate in discussions during staff meetings?

26. How often do you find yourself having to enforce a decision which is opposed by most, if not all of your teachers?

27. How often do you consider your personal interests when making a decision, making policy, solving a problem, delegating and controlling?

28. How often are you absent from school? Would you mind giving reasons?

29. How often are your teachers absent from school?

30. How often do you experience student strikes in your school?

31. How often do you find yourself having to enforce a decision which is opposed by most, if not all, of your students?

32. How often are your discipline procedures understood by all concerned?

33. How often do you change your discipline procedure to meet with your changing student, parent and teacher attitudes over time?

34. How often are the parents in your school involved in helping the principal and teachers solve difficult discipline problems?

35. If White, Indian and Coloured pupils would come to your school, would you still use the same management style you are using now?

36. You are either in a rural or urban school. If you are in an urban school, are you managing your pupils the way you would to rural pupils? Vice versa.
2.2 Observation as a method of research

The researcher visited the schools mentioned below with the aim of observing their principals at work. The researcher was aware of the fact that some principals could act differently, even artificially, when observed. However the researcher also realised that a principal cannot do what he cannot do. He cannot act in a way he has not learned to act.

The researcher used three forms of observation, viz:

* Casual - the eyeball inspection of what is happening.
* Participant - the observer (researcher) had a defined and active role in what was happening.
* Systematic - the researcher employed prearranged categories.

The persons mentioned below were observed in their school. The researcher was not just a passive spectator. He was looking for the following:

* situational contingencies of schools
* perceptions of discipline in given schools
* student activities
* decision making styles
* attitudes of pupils towards teachers
* perceptions of school policy
* communication channels
* subordinate characteristics
* parent participation
* management styles

Principals who were interviewed at Allemanskral in 1994

1. Shaku S. Sozama Secondary School Eastern Transvaal
2. Maphaha N. Tshilhena High School Northern Transvaal
3. Budeli M. Manvuka Secondary School Northern Transvaal
4. Maleba J. Lehlasedi High School Northern Transvaal
5. Makhoba A. Mphanama Comp. Secondary School Eastern Transvaal
7. Gaaje M. Kanana Secondary School North West
8. Vanyaza V. Coeckani Secondary School North West
9. Mokgadi W. Are-Fadimeheng Secondary School North West
10. Marolen T. Mabuya High School Gauteng
11. Rojie B. Lesiba Secondary School Gauteng
12. Seuoe M. Aurora Girls School Gauteng
13. Kala T. Lungisa Senior Secondary School Eastern Cape
14. Mboni N. Qwalasela Public School Eastern Cape
15. Ramatsebe M. Ngwathe Secondary School OFS
16. Maketela J. Lekgulo High School OFS
17. Ngidi S. Umkhumbi High School KwaZulu-Natal
18. Ngobese P. Maweni High School KwaZulu-Natal
20. Nzama F. Sikhethuxolo High School KwaZulu-Natal

Principals who were observed and interviewed

1. Shaku S. Sozama Secondary School Eastern Transvaal
3. Ngobese P. Maweni High School KwaZulu-Natal
4. Majola H.M. KwaZenzele High School KwaZulu-Natal
5. Ndlovu K. Velaphi High School KwaZulu-Natal
6. Dumakude S.D. Fundokuhle High School KwaZulu-Natal
8. Hadebe E.B. Mlakothi High School KwaZulu-Natal
9. Hadebe N.H.S. Mayizekanye High School KwaZulu-Natal
10. Hadebe M.A. Somashi High School KwaZulu-Natal
11. Zulu T.M. Nogida High School KwaZulu-Natal
14. Xaba S.S. Msinga High School KwaZulu-Natal
15. Dlamini V.C. Sgwje High School KwaZulu-Natal
16. Masikane R. Buhlebuyeza High School KwaZulu-Natal
18. Gumbi V.P. Emtshezi High School KwaZulu-Natal

Experts interviewed

The experts were interviewed at Allemanskral in the Orange Free State in 1994. These unstructured interviews had the following aims:

* soliciting the opinions of the experts on the use of the contingency approach to management tasks by the principal;
* soliciting their assessment of the contingency approach;
* assessing if this research has got the generally accepted findings;
* verifying the conclusions about the contingency approach and the managerial tasks.
Presentation of the findings from interviews of experts:

* The contingency approach is the adaptation approach which involves making the school more compatible with its environment.

* Respondents pointed out the confusion about how the principal should assess the favourability of the situation, as the contingency approach suggests.

* There are other situational contingencies (besides relations) that are the detriments of the appropriate management style.

* Respondents stressed the need for the principal to clearly understand the conditions in and around the school.

Experts who were interviewed at allemskral

1. Atkinson R. University of South Carolina
2. Wyatt J. University of South Carolina
3. Tonnson S. University of South Carolina
4. Sanga I. University of South Carolina
5. Welsh M. University of South Carolina

7. PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS FROM INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS

7.1 Managerial styles and the situation

* Principals mostly regard teachers as lazy. Thus they have mixed feelings about democratic or authoritative styles. It became clear that there are principals who regard themselves as omnipotent and indispensable. Some principals seem to lack confidence in themselves and they use authoritative style as a defence mechanism (of Maake 1990: 29).

* More principals agree that the style of management should fit the nature of the situation. A few principals believe that the situation can be forced to suit the particular style of the leader/principal. Actually they see this as impossible to force situations to suit particular styles.

* Most principals believe that the Black principal should be flexible in the face of many odd situations confronting him. A few principals dispute the need for flexibility as this might divert the principal's attention towards attaining the objectives.

* When principals had to rank leadership styles according to order of importance to them, the majority ranked them as follows:
  1. Task-oriented style
  2. Relationship-oriented style
  3. Integrated style
  4. Balanced style
7.2 Contingency factors

A number of varying factors influencing the principal's style were mentioned as:

* fear of and intimidation by students and local community
* characteristics of teachers (psychological and job maturity)
* disruptions (political violence)

* Some principals are influenced by their peers to a certain extent. The researcher has observed some principals who cannot be creative or original on their own. They mostly rely on copying from their peers. One principal who was closely observed was even using words normally used by his peers.

* Most principals believe it is important for the Black principal to understand the local community customs and to respect them in order to avoid clashes and conflict. The respondents also saw the need to understand the fact that there are pupils who have to walk about 12 km to school sometimes when it is raining or cold.

* Most principals think it is important to consider the characteristics, expectations and behaviours of their teachers. A few principals do not attach any importance on these characteristics, expectations and behaviours. Their main concern is to get the work done. Some principals are only concerned with their own expectations.

* The personal qualities of the principals play a significant role in managing a school. There are qualities that are considered indispensable for the principals: intelligence, judgement, organisation, dependability, initiative, adaptability, self-discipline, and insight. Principals who are partial, restricted, dull, stereotyped, evading, erratic, uncertain, disorganised, pessimistic and traditional hardly win the co-operation or the staff.

* Most respondents thought it is important for the principal to identify with the community leaders and establish contact with them.

* Other respondents raised the issue of high pupil numbers. This has a great effect on their supervisory tasks.

7.3 Behaviour of principals

* Most respondents communicate with the staff through staff meetings and instruction books. Some principals do not plan the meetings. This is evident when they call the meetings for the items/issues that could be conveyed through instruction books. Some decisions affecting teachers are taken behind closed doors. There is little consultation on important work issues. Participation in staff meetings is generally poor. Principals are also poor facilitators of communication and participation.
Some respondents can get along well with their staff. In some schools, however, there is no co-operation between the principal and staff. These two sides look at each other with suspicion. Teachers regard principals as a cut above their heads.

Some respondents experience defiance from their teachers quite often. Teachers sometimes join the protest marches, and go-slows. There are other forms of defiance like refusal to take the principal's orders.

The principals, quite often, enforce decisions which are opposed by most of their teachers. Some respondents doubted the integrity and capability of their teachers to make sound decisions.

7.4 Pupil management

In some schools the problem of student strikes still exists. However, recently, most schools seldom experience the strikes.

More principals found themselves having to enforce decisions opposed by most of their students. The issue here is the difference of perception. More students are accused of demanding a laissez-faire type of management. They thus resist decisions which, according to them, are oppressive.

In some schools the discipline procedures are inconsistent. Some principals are partial in their discipline. In some cases favouritism also influences the discipline of the school. In some schools, however, discipline procedures are clearly understood by all concerned.

In most cases principals follow certain discipline procedures as long as they seem effective to them. Thus mostly discipline procedures are not often changed to meet the changing student, parent and teacher attitudes over time. Some principals indicated, however, that discipline in school today is not the same as it was 10 years ago. This mainly due to the nature of today's adolescents.

More principals agree that they would change their management styles if White, Indian and Coloured pupils would come to their schools. Their styles would need to be accommodative.

Some principals in rural areas agreed that they would change their styles when managing pupils in urban areas. Vice versa.
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