

THE EFFECT OF MANAGEMENT STYLES ON

TEACHERS IN INDIAN EDUCATION

by

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To  
**Esrar, Arshaad  
and Raeesa**

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**May this serve to  
inspire you  
Insha-Allah**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study is motivated by growing concern among teachers and principals about who controls the learning process and was conducted in the Chatsworth/Phoenix area of KwaZulu-Natal among selected primary and secondary schools from the former House of Delegates. The findings are thus applicable to these schools only. Since both groups lay claim to this control, a clash between them becomes inevitable. Principals have been blamed for "objectifying" teachers. Level-1 educators accuse these autocratic principals of treating them as pawns in a public service chess game. Teachers desire stability and security in the classroom and want to be appreciated. Like other professionals, they tend to regard suggestions about how they should do their work as reprimands. Teachers want to control their destinies and influence their working conditions.

Instead of growing in their jobs, teachers complain of being "locked-in". Top-down bureaucratic principals prevent these educators from developing their decision-making skills. With these conditions prevailing in the teaching profession in the early nineties, the researcher set out to examine the effect of management styles on teachers in the classroom. Furthermore, he wanted to gauge the extent to which teachers were allowed to participate in decision-making, especially in those areas which affected their efficiency and job satisfaction.

With the gradual empowering of level-1 educators as a result of the teacher's trade union (SADTU) and the resultant decline of the prescriptive role of superintendents, principals have had to rapidly adjust their management style to become more democratic and recognise teachers as the key personnel in the education process.

At present principals have a high regard for their staff and view them as dedicated and motivated. Their managerial style show a strong bias towards participative decision-making, and they encourage teachers to initiate and implement new ideas. These principals have come to realise that if education in general is to benefit, they will have to adopt the "bottom-up" approach. Teachers dislike prescription and supervision of their work and cited these factors as a major cause of increased stress levels.

However, it is important for level-1 educators to understand that if they expect to enjoy the confidence of educational managers and to be part of the decision-making mechanism, they need to show a high degree of professionalism and a deep sense of responsibility – both of which they undoubtedly have in abundance.

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# CHAPTER 1

## ORIENTATION

### 1.1 Introduction

Irrespective of the leadership style chosen by an educational manager, his leadership ought to be aimed at guiding pupils towards adulthood and at promoting the welfare of his staff. There can be little doubt that his management style would influence the performance of teachers in the classroom. In fact no other person exerts as great an influence on every aspect of school life as the educational manager. A bad teacher can do great harm in a school; an incompetent, ill-equipped educational manager not only disrupts the school administration and organisation, but can ruin the educational potential of the entire school.

From experience, the researcher is aware of the pivotal role principals play in the school. Their management style is crucial to success. The principal is the hub around which school administration and organisation revolve. Parents and the community hold him responsible for the quality of education offered to their children. The way in and extent to which a school's aims and objectives are realised, the efficiency of its organisation, administration and teaching, the nature of its education and atmosphere - all these have a bearing on a school's prestige in the community. In turn, these factors are largely determined by the actions, energy, circumspect decision-making, insight, clarity of vision and leadership style of the principal.

The principal is the school manager, the organiser of the school's diverse activities and its representative on committees and boards on which other agencies in society are also represented. In the community he embodies all that the school stands for. In short, he heads everything that happens in the school. His relationship with the staff, and especially level-1 teachers, cannot be ignored.

Heavy demands are made on the principal and Bernard (1981 : 55) vividly describes the radical and varied nature of his task :

... father, confessor, educational statesman, chief justice, professional negotiator, initiator, co-ordinator, organisational analyst, entrepreneur of change, administrator, mechanic, Christian, philosopher and man of action, idealist and realist ambassador and fort holder, technical manager and technical educationist.

According to Bernard (1981 : 55-56), some principals are warm and approachable, whereas others cause a chasm to appear between them and their staff. Some are task masters, others are educational managers. Unfortunately there are also some who are none of the above, who merely let everything slide, with the inevitable result that the whole school drags itself along at a snail's pace while urgent issues are overlooked.

As school manager, the principal cannot get away from his leadership function. Hence there is a close correlation between the quality of a principal's leadership and the effectiveness with which he manages teaching staff. This can best be judged by

examining his interpersonal relationships with teachers. When there is understanding and close co-operation from both sides, managers as well as teachers are happy and perform well.

## **1.2 Team Building—A Requisite for Sound Management**

Good sports coaches are familiar with the importance of team building in achieving success. A team may have members with outstanding skills, but the team's performance ultimately depends on the collective cohesion, motivation and dedication of its members.

The same holds for education: at schools where management and teachers co-operate (participative management) the morale is high, results are good and stress is minimal. At the core of every school's success lies teachers' participation in setting goals, in critically examining work practices, and in building a strong workforce. "Lone wolf" pattern, a long-cherished norm in classrooms, is giving way to shared work and shared satisfaction.

Against this backdrop, the principal's role becomes paramount. His main task should be to promote lively, continuous interaction and a sense of professional duty to the community at large. Breaking down boundaries, expanding the scope of the teacher's role, increasing teachers' opportunities to benefit from accomplishments and improving the productive climate are the means by which this may be accomplished (Snyder & Anderson, 1987:26).

Sound educational leadership is a mixture of power, drive and delegation. Ultimately, schools will succeed to the extent to which they sustain creative teachers and their ideas. However, it is difficult to achieve teamwork in modern society. Current emphasis on competitiveness and individualism has seriously undermined the capacity of individuals to co-operate and collaborate with others. Unfortunately one finds selfish preoccupation and interpersonal jealousy to be the norm in the workplace and even in schools. Furthermore, the emphasis on materialism encourages people to value things (money, cars, clothing, home, business) above relationships and emotional qualities, such as caring, trusting, self-sacrifice and commitment. However, these qualities are central to teamwork. In other words, good management teams at school are built on self-sacrifice, co-operation, trust, commitment and the ability to assist others. School administrators who are groomed to compete with and distrust the motives of others, are at a serious disadvantage when it comes to effective teamwork (Dovey, 1987:3). This can give rise to conflict and frustration among level-1 teachers, and impair education of pupils.

### **1.3 Management Styles in Indian Schools**

The researcher, a level-1 teacher of twenty years' standing, had the opportunity to experience various management styles in numerous Indian schools he visited while conducting empirical research towards a master's degree. The various management styles obviously had an impact - whether positive or negative -

on teaching staff. At some schools the staff were contented while at other schools the researcher found level-1 teachers unhappy and generally dissatisfied with management staff.

In some schools, there is a very rigid hierarchical system with absolute control and authority vested in management staff. Right at the bottom of the hierarchy are the teachers, the people who are largely responsible for the practical and successful implementation of the school's activities.

In these schools, the predominant management style is one of prescription. It is a fact that teachers comprise the majority of educators in the school situation. They are the people who are directly affected by decisions taken at management level but unfortunately they are excluded from the decision-making process (Teachers' Journal, XIX (4):13-14). Joint decision-making must be seen as an attempt to democratise education rather than as an attempt to perpetuate bureaucracy.

A level-1 educator has little or no say in structuring the syllabus he has to teach, nor is he consulted when textbooks are prescribed. His initiative and creativity are ignored and stifled. This can lead to frustration and increased stress, which can eventually affect him emotionally.

The morale of educators appears to be low, especially after recent allegations of nepotism and corruption associated with certain promotions in the (now defunct) House of Delegates. Urgent steps must be taken to restore the confidence of educators in the bona fides of management personnel, so that

effective decision-making can take place at all levels in an atmosphere of mutual trust and acceptance (Teachers' Journal, XIX (4):15-16).

## **1.4 Significance of Study**

For some time now, educators have been speculating on the following questions:

- . What effect does the principal's management style have on teachers in the classroom?
- . Is the teacher performing optimally in the classroom, or not? If not, what are the factors that inhibit or stifle him?
- . Do principals, deputy principals and heads of department respect and appreciate the pivotal role of level-1 teachers?
- . Why do some principals advocate democracy as the dominant administrative style while others maintain top-down, "lone wolf" autocratic dictatorship?

From the above, it becomes apparent that a research study of this kind would focus on the problem areas and highlight the type of management style that would benefit education.

### **1.4.1 Literary or theoretical value**

Information about the theoretical background would be acquired from various sources (books, journals, periodicals, newspaper reports) on educational management style and its application in schools. The data collected by means of the questionnaires would reveal current trends in management style in Indian schools.

### **1.4.2 Practical value**

In the light of the information obtained, it would be possible to make certain observations and recommendations that could alleviate some and perhaps even all of the problems encountered by level-1 teachers in Indian schools. The data could also shed light on the effectiveness of the various management styles presently being used in Indian primary and secondary schools.

### **1.5 Purpose or Aim of the Study**

The aim of this study is to critically examine the effect of various management styles on teachers in the classroom. The need for the study is evidenced by the fact that the researcher has witnessed competent teachers resigning from the profession. When asked why they resigned, they offered the following reasons:

- . better job opportunities;
- . need for a change of career;
- . dissatisfaction with the high-handed, uncompromising approach adopted by management personnel;
- . being excluded from making important decisions that affected them directly;
- . increased stress because demands made by heads of department, principals and subject advisors were not clearly spelt out or not entirely attainable.

The aim of the researcher was to investigate the following:

- . the behaviour of the principal towards teachers on his staff;
- . the extent to which teachers are permitted to take part in decision-making;
- . the degree of support teachers receive in a number of different areas;
- . the morale of teachers in the school;
- . teachers' classroom performance;
- . factors that contribute to the stress experienced by teachers.

## **1.6 Statement of the Problem and Problem Analysis**

Management staff at schools seem rigid and not amenable to change. Schools also differ from for example, huge business corporations in that a superintendent cannot "rescue" a troubled school in the way that a managing director could "save" a sinking business (Snyder & Anderson, 1987:23). The researcher believes that the participation of teachers in goal setting, in critical examinations of work practices and in team building lies at the core of success in any school.

In the past three decades, education was characterised by increasing specialisation, with diverse conceptual frameworks guiding research. There was an increase in the number of theoretical perspectives used to view and analyse educational institutions.

The current climate of enquiry into educational administration is promising and conditions now allow for significant progress to be made in generating new knowledge. This is because of the following interrelated factors:

- . An increasing number of researchers are receptive to research paradigms and alternative theoretical perspectives.
- . The knowledge base for educational administration is expanding and has become technically more sophisticated.
- . A large number of more heterogeneous researchers are investigating phenomena in the field.
- . There is more emphasis on field-based research and policy studies that link researchers and practitioners.

Despite these positive factors, (in the past six years) specific studies dealing with management styles have only been undertaken in Indian schools in the past six years. It can safely be concluded that not much has been written or researched on the topic of management styles in Indian schools (McCarthy, 1986:3-6).

Indian teachers want a share and a say in decisions that affect them directly. Teachers want to be consulted before subjects are allocated and timetables drawn up by management at the

start of the new school year. They resent simply having decisions dumped on them and may eventually become antagonistic towards members of management, openly condemning their style.

Research of this nature would investigate the relationship between teachers and school management staff. Light would be shed on problem areas and suggestions made to create a degree of understanding on both sides. This would lead to better performance by a teacher in the classroom and harmonious interpersonal relationships.

### **1.7 Limitations of Study**

The sample of teachers, heads of department and principals represented only a small percentage of the total population of the teaching fraternity. It must be conceded that the findings would have been somewhat different if the total population had been used.

### **1.8 Delimitations of Study**

In this study, no attempt was made to select samples or to describe them in such a way that they could be assumed to possess characteristics typical of the larger population. The following delimitations were taken into account:

- . The aim of the investigation was neither to do a detailed, exhaustive study of all the effects management styles have on teachers, nor were all the styles of the various managers taken into account. Rather it was intended as a survey to

determine the extent to which the prevailing style was affecting teachers' performance, be it positively or negatively.

- . The study was confined to Indian primary and secondary schools in the greater Durban area.
- . The study was confined to Indian primary and secondary schools controlled by the Administration, House of Delegates (now defunct).
- . The study excluded private or special schools.

## **1.9 Method of Investigation**

The following procedure was used in the study:

### **1.9.1 Review of literature**

A broad spectrum of literature was studied. Primary as well as secondary sources were included in order to obtain the necessary information on management styles of principals.

By studying secondary sources, the researcher was able to develop a framework which would enable him to do the following:

- . ascertain the current thinking among leading educational authorities both overseas and locally on the question of management styles in secondary and primary schools;
- . review any conclusive research on management style in education;
- . establish the problem, significance and purpose of the study.

## 1.9.2 Personal interviews

Principals of primary and secondary schools were interviewed to obtain first hand information on management styles and their relationships with level-1 teachers. Principals were asked to comment on seven controversial issues they could have come up against as school managers.

The advantages of the interview as a means of gathering information are significant and include the following:

- . The respondent talks while the interviewer listens and observes.
- . An interview is less time consuming.
- . It provides quantifiable data.
- . It can be used to supplement other methods of data collection, such as questionnaires.
- . It provides an opportunity to deal in depth with a wide range of issues.
- . It allows the interviewer greater flexibility.
- . It allows for the broadest possible spectrum of expression on the part of the interviewee.
- . It reveals that which respondents consider to be important.
- . It may reveal a respondent's lack of information or misunderstanding of certain words or concepts.
- . It can bring to the fore the respondent's frame of reference, prejudices or stereotypes (Stewart & Cash, 1982:12-13).

### **1.9.3 Research by means of questionnaires**

The primary instrument used for collecting data was the questionnaires addressed to level-1 teachers, heads of department and principals of primary and secondary schools. The researcher did not find it necessary to set a different questionnaire for primary and secondary schools, since both experience the same problem.

The questionnaires (see appendices at the end of chapter 7) were distributed with a covering letter outlining the problem, and the area and purpose of the research. The questionnaires were structured as questions with a number of optional answers. The respondents had to cross the preferred answer.

The questionnaires for this research project were completed by five level-1 primary, five level-1 secondary teachers, two heads of department from both primary and secondary schools, and the principals of these schools.

### **1.9.4 Pilot study**

The research procedures (questionnaire and interview), as amended and approved by the former Research Bureau of the Division of Education, House of Delegates and by the Research Bureau at Unisa, were tested in a pilot study at two primary and secondary schools. It was pointed out to respondents that the purpose of the exercise was to test the research instruments, rather than to collect data. The pilot study was invaluable since

it gave the researcher the confidence to conduct the empirical investigation. It was gratifying that neither the questionnaires, nor the interview schedule required any modification and could be used in their original form.

### **1.9.5 Confidentiality**

An important aspect of the research design was assuring respondents that all data would be confidential. In order to ensure the validity of data, it was necessary to elicit truthful, unthreatened responses from teachers. This was unlikely if teachers felt that their responses might be revealed to the principals or other officials in positions of authority. The researcher therefore handed the questionnaires personally to the respondents (who were selected at random) and collected them himself the next day. In this way, teachers' questionnaires were never handled by principals.

## **1.10 Definition of Terms**

### **1.10.1 Principal**

The principal is the chief educational manager of the school. Head, headmaster, manager and educational leader are synonyms for principal. The principal administers and supervises all facilities and activities at his school, including school buildings, school grounds, equipment, staff, pupils and the instructional programme.

### **1.10.2 Deputy principal**

The deputy principal is the officer who is second in command. In the absence of the principal, it is the duty of the deputy principal to ensure that there are no interruptions in the functioning of the school.

### **1.10.3 Head of department**

Each head of department has a dual role function in the school. He has a teaching role in his specialist subject, as well as a supervisory function which entails the administration of his department and rendering of professional assistance to teachers.

### **1.10.4 School management**

School management or school managers include the principal, deputy principal, senior deputy principal and heads of department.

### **1.10.5 Indian**

"Indian" refers to a person classified in terms of the Population Registration Act, 1950 (Act 30 of 1950) as a member of the Indian group (Indians Education Act, No. 61 of 1965).

### **1.10.6 School**

In this study the term "school" refers to both primary and secondary schools. In terms of the Indians Education Act (Act 61 of 1965), the terms "primary" and "secondary" are defined as follows:

- . "Primary school means a school for the education of Indians up to such standard as the Secretary may determine". At present it refers to classes from class one to standard four.
- . "Secondary school means a school for the education of Indians not exceeding the tenth standard".

### **1.10.7 Decision-making**

Decision-making is a process whereby the awareness of a problem existing within a system, influenced by information and values, is transformed into competing alternatives among which a choice is made based on perceived outcome states of the system.

Although people make decisions all the time, managers make decisions which affect others. In teaching, the influence of decisions reaches even further to touch the lives of pupils, parents, the community and the future adult community of which the pupils will eventually form part. In education, a decision should never be made in a casual or arbitrary manner (Schreuder et al., 1993:70-73).

### **1.10.8 A Decision-Making Model by a School Principal**

Since joint decision-making is essential to participative management, the researcher asked each principal to cite an example of a decision he had recently made.

According to one principal, it may be difficult to identify the stages in decision-making since the distinction between various stages may be blurred. The complexity of the decision-making process (comprising eight steps) is illustrated by the example below.

#### **Step 1: Identifying the Problem**

Decisions are made either to correct a situation or to improve it. This means that unless the situation is fully understood, it will not be possible to identify a solution. It is useful to compare the present (problematic) situation with the ideal situation that we would like to adhere to. Questions such as when, where, why and how the problem arose or occurred are also helpful. From a mass of background information, relevant data can be extracted. The total should be seen in the context of what the school is trying to achieve. An example would best illustrate this.

#### **Problem**

"Teachers, prefects and cleaners are complaining that children are littering the school grounds."

**Restating the problem**

It may be necessary to restate the problem – going from the general to a more specific, direct form:

"Some children are littering in areas 1 and 2."

Initially it is therefore essential to place the problem in a realistic perspective. Principals too often tend to define problems narrowly, thereby restricting their options by treating only the symptoms.

**Step 2: Defining Objectives**

One must now consider an acceptable solution, namely the minimum objectives to be achieved. These should be stated in terms of ends, and not means. For example: "Pupils who are environmentally conscious will not litter."

**Step 3: Making a Pre-Decision**

Taking all the data into consideration, the decision-maker may decide to do any of the following:

- . make the decision himself;
- . delegate decision-making to another;
- . make a group decision.

**Step 4: Generating Alternatives**

The decision-maker identifies several solutions to the problems, including the following:

- . ignore the situation;
- . put more teachers on ground duty;
- . close the tuckshop;

- . talk to pupils at assembly;
- . confiscate sweets of pupils who litter;
- . curtail breaks, thereby minimising the opportunity to litter;
- . make pupils environmentally conscious.

#### **Step 5: Evaluating Alternatives**

Alternatives can now be ranked – some may be more effective than others, some may be difficult to implement. This is where the participative manager succeeds. He may make a group decision or may decide to "sleep on" the problem. The latter is only a temporary solution and although it does not solve the problem, it provides time for deliberation.

#### **Step 6: Making a Choice**

After deliberation the principal makes a choice. He decides either to put more teachers on ground duty or to talk to pupils at assembly.

#### **Step 7: Implementing the Choice**

Put the plan into action by programming, communicating and monitoring.

#### **Step 8: Follow-up**

The final step is implementing the plan. Continuous evaluation will indicate how appropriate the decision has been.

### **1.10.9 Group decision-making**

According to the same principal, group decision-making has definite advantages - "two heads are always better than one!" Group decision-making leads to a pooling of resources. The decision is more readily accepted by staff since they were consulted and took part in the decision-making process.

The researcher's experience has shown that many decisions in schools are taken without consultation. Principals who do this, feel that since they are accountable, they would rather be autocratic. They regard yielding in to staff demands as a threat to their authority.

Teachers interviewed by the researcher indicated that they want to take part in decision-making for the following reasons:

- . It is important for their morale and enthusiasm.
- . It has a positive effect on individual teacher's satisfaction in the profession.
- . Teachers prefer principals who involve them in decision-making.
- . Teachers do not expect or want to be involved in every decision.

## **1.11 Study Programme**

In *Chapter 1* the need for the study is motivated, and the aim of the research and method of study are outlined.

In *Chapter 2* the researcher gives a historical overview of the education of Indians up to the present. This shows the progress that has been made in Indian education.

In *Chapter 3* the researcher reviews literature dealing with management styles and related issues.

*Chapter 4* is devoted to current international trends in educational management.

*Chapter 5* deals with local research on the relationship between teachers' stress and workload and principals' management styles.

*Chapter 6* deals with the empirical investigation conducted at twenty primary and twenty secondary schools in the Chatsworth/Phoenix (high density) Indian residential areas. The following schools were included in the survey:

<u>Secondary</u>		<u>Primary</u>
	<u>Chatsworth</u>	
1. Arena Park		1. A.Y.S. Memorial
2. Asoka		2. Crescentridge
3. Brindhaven		3. Crestview
4. Glenover		4. Dawnridge
5. Meadowlands		5. Gitanjali
6. Montarena		6. Glenview
7. Newhaven		7. Highlands
8. Risecliff		8. Moorton Heights
9. Westcliff		9. Roseheights
10. Witteklip		10. Sunnyvale

**Secondary****Primary****Phoenix**

- |                             |                |
|-----------------------------|----------------|
| 1. Avonford                 | 1. Clayridge   |
| 2. Daleview                 | 2. Esselen     |
| 3. Earlington               | 3. Hopeville   |
| 4. Ferndale                 | 4. Longcroft   |
| 5. Greenbury                | 5. Rockford    |
| 6. Lenaria                  | 6. Rydalvale   |
| 7. Phoenix Secondary        | 7. Stanmore    |
| 8. Phoenix Technical School | 8. Stonebridge |
| 9. Rydalpark                | 9. Sunford     |
| 10. Stanmore                | 10. Swanvale   |

*Chapter 7* summarises the major recommendations and proposes suggestions for improved management styles among principals.

## CHAPTER 2

### THE EDUCATION OF INDIANS IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### 2.1 Prior to Unification

Indian immigration to the Colony of Natal started in 1860 when the indentured system was introduced throughout the British empire. "Indentured" in this context refers to a mutual agreement or contract between farm labourers in India and the British government which was aimed at developing the agricultural economy of the various colonies by means of cheap labour. Initially the arrival of immigrants in Natal was slow; by 1886, 6 445 immigrants had settled in Natal. By the year 1876, this number had risen to 10 335 and by 1894 there were 46 000 in Natal (outnumbering the 45 000 Whites). About 25% of these immigrants eventually returned to India, and yet, according to the 1911 census, there were 133 437 Indians in the Colony of Natal (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:4). One of the inevitable by-products of this increase in immigration was the establishment of Indian schools in South Africa to educate the children of this new labour force.

Initially neither the Government of Natal nor the farm owners were interested in providing educational facilities for Indian children, probably because of reasons such as the following:

According to British policy at the time, the Indians were "temporary" immigrants who would return to India as soon as their services were no longer required.

- . Acts 13, 14 and 15 of 1859 made no demands on employers as regards the provision of education for the children of Indian immigrants.
- . It was not in the interests of employers to develop a more educated class of Indians, since this would have resulted in a shortage of agricultural labour.
- . There were virtually no teachers among the immigrants, because teachers were not recruited for agricultural labour.
- . Natal's finances were in such a poor state that officials avoided providing education for Indian immigrant children.
- . Because the immigrants had very little or no schooling in their own country, they did not realise the importance of schooling. As a result, they did not, initially make demands on or representations to the Natal Government or to the British Government for the provision of schools (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:4).

It therefore comes as no surprise that Indian education during the 1860s was virtually non-existent. Fortunately there were a handful of humanitarians who expressed particular concern in this regard. The Rev. R. Scott, a Methodist minister, opened the first school for Indians in 1868 in Durban. The report of the 1872 Commission indicates that by that time there were four private schools for Indian children in Natal. With the establishment of the Indian Immigration Trust Board in 1874, the newly appointed Protector of Indian Immigrants made every attempt to persuade the authorities to provide educational facilities for the children of indentured and free Indians. He motivated his pleas by saying that educational facilities would encourage Indian families to remain on the plantations.

Unfortunately the Natal Government did not heed these requests.

## **2.2 The Period from 1878 to 1894**

By 1886, there were some 27 schools for Indian children in the Durban area. The missionaries introduced a bold initiative to provide the rudiments of education (the three R's) to the disadvantaged Indian community, but this stretched their limited resources to the maximum.

Average attendance at these schools was very low because most able-bodied children were expected to work and contribute towards the family income. School fees varied from three to twelve pennies per pupil per month. Only a small number of Indian children could actually afford to pay this compulsory fee. By 1886 there were 40 teachers which included thirteen trainee teachers (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:5).

Before 1894 the children of affluent Indian families could attend white primary schools on condition that they paid school fees, were "suitably attired" and conformed to "Western standards". When the Natal Education Department was established in 1894, it ruled that henceforth only those Indian children who had passed standard four would be eligible for admission to white schools. In essence, this was a meaningless concession since it benefitted only a handful of children from the most affluent Indian families. Unfortunately the Government of Natal was adamant to continue with its policy of school segregation, while the white colonists adopted a policy of increasing discrimination against Indians in all spheres.

In 1894 the Immigrant School Board was abolished and placed under the control of the Natal Education Department. During the time of the Indian Immigrant School Board's control of Indian education, three types of school came into being, namely state schools, state-aided schools and private schools. By 1893 there were two state schools with an enrolment of 340 pupils, and 24 state-aided schools with an enrolment of 2 249 (Behr, 1988:262).

Apart from the limited funds available for Indian education, there was a grave shortage of suitably qualified teachers. The suggestion to employ Black teachers in Indian schools was not acceptable to the Indian Immigrant School Board (Behr, 1988:263).

In 1909 there were 3 284 Indian pupils in Natal, and only 324 of them were girls. More than half the pupils were in classes lower than standard two. Overcrowding and a shortage of schools and trained teachers kept many children out of school.

In the Transvaal a school for Indians was opened in 1903 but it closed down within a year.

At the time of unification, the education of Indians in South Africa was still on a small scale considering the increasing number of children who desperately needed schooling. In the Cape, the Indians were grouped with the Coloureds because of their small numbers. In the Transvaal there were no separate schools for Indians while the Orange Free State debarred Indians. Natal was the only province in South Africa that provided schools specifically for Indians.

## **2.3 The Period from 1910 to 1965**

### **2.3.1 Natal**

By 1914 the progress of Indian education in Natal was slow, and by 1926 less than one third of Indian children of schoolgoing age could be accommodated in existing schools. This prompted the Government of India to negotiate with the South African Government on obtaining better education facilities for Indians in South Africa. The outcome was the Cape Town Agreement of 1927. The "upliftment clause" in that agreement stated that the Union Government took the view that "... in the provision of educational and other facilities the considerable number of Indians who remain part of the permanent population should not be allowed to lag behind other sections of the people" (Behr, 1988:263).

A request was made by the Union Government to the Natal Provincial Administration to set up a commission of inquiry into the education of Indians.

In May 1928 the Commission, under the Chairmanship of Mr J. Dyson, found existing facilities to be inadequate, especially as far as government-aided schools were concerned (Behr, 1988:264). The status of teachers was low and their salaries were unsatisfactory. The enrolment statistics for 1927 are presented in the table below (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:9).

**Table 2.1: 1927 Enrolment figures for Indian school children at government aided and government schools**

Schools	GOVERNMENT AIDED			GOVERNMENT			TOTAL		GRAND TOTAL
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	
Cl. 1	306	34	340	1 566	613	2 179	1 872	647	2 519
Cl. 2	268	26	295	836	251	1 087	1 105	277	1 382
Cl. 3	216	23	239	642	154	796	858	177	1 035
Std I	313	14	327	874	179	1 053	1 187	193	1 380
Std II	243	13	256	750	143	893	993	156	1 149
Std III	201	8	209	585	101	686	786	109	895
Std IV	211	5	216	381	40	421	592	45	637
Std V	159	5	164	134	13	147	293	18	311
Std VI	51	5	56	43	3	46	94	8	102
Std VII	42	2	44	2	-	2	44	2	46
Std VIII	2	15	17	-	-	-	2	15	17
Std IX	3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3
Std X	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Totals	2 017	150	2 167	5 813	1 497	7 310	7 829	1 647	9 477

From the table, we can deduce that the majority of children left school after standard two and that attendance dropped steadily at each succeeding level, with only one pupil reaching matric.

Mr Kailas Prasad Kichlee, Deputy Director of Public Instruction of the United Province of Agra and Oudh, visited South Africa to assist the Dyson Commission and had this to say about the increasing morass of illiteracy:

We have no teachers to deal with the pupils, even if the buildings existed, and they will take years to train. The position is that we have no buildings, no teachers and, as far as I know, no funds for buildings (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:9).

### 2.3.1.1 The condition of teachers

In Natal there were nine Indian government schools where the annual salaries of teachers varied from three hundred pounds (R600) for the headmaster to eighty pounds (R160) for a beginner teacher with Junior Certificate (Standard 8). An unqualified assistant-teacher received seventy two pounds (R144) per annum. Married male teachers received a twenty four pound marriage allowance (R48) per annum.

Conditions for the 215 teachers at the 43 government-aided schools were far worse because grantees were permitted to engage staff on any terms they liked. Officially salaries varied from two hundred and fifty pounds (R500) for a headmaster to sixty pounds (R120) for an assistant, although in practice many unqualified teachers received as little as twelve pounds (R24) per annum. There were three grades of teacher and irrespective of a teacher's qualifications, he or she was initially assigned to the lowest grade and could only be promoted upon the death or promotion of a senior colleague. As an incentive aspirant teachers were encouraged to accept a "supernumerary" position, which entailed a kind of on-the-job training in that they had to undertake a year's teaching without receiving a salary, after which they would receive permanent appointment. This was a rather desperate measure resorted to in the absence of a recognised diploma from a teacher training college.

Teachers in state-aided schools received neither a pension nor a marriage allowance. General facilities such as libraries, medical services, hostels, sports fields, school halls and extramural activities were virtually absent from Indian schools (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:10).

### **2.3.1.2 The Broome Commission**

In 1937 an Education Commission under the chairmanship of Mr Justice F.N. Broome was appointed to look into education in Natal. It summed up conditions in Indian schools as follows:

"Viewing the rapidity with which the present system of primary education has sprung up, and the shortness of the average school life, it would appear that the vast majority of Indian children do not acquire the rudiments of primary education (Behr, 1988:264).

The Broome Commission recommended the creation of a sub department to control and administer Indian Education and stated the need for the gradual introduction of a modified or free and compulsory primary education, as well as the desirability of a larger subsidy from the Central Government of the Union of South Africa.

### **2.3.1.3 Developments in the 1940s**

The 1940s saw some important developments, especially with regard to the provision of buildings and improved salaries. It had become general practice in Natal for the Indian community to erect its own school buildings. In order to encourage this

initiative on the part of parents, the Natal Provincial Administration provided a grant of one third of the cost of the buildings. In 1943 the building grant for new schools was raised to 50% of building costs, but the building programme could not keep up with the demand for schooling. In the same year, all teachers in state-aided Indian schools were assigned to the Natal Education Department and were given better salaries and improved service conditions.

Secondary education was provided from the 1940s and progress was slow, but sustained. By 1958 some 4 000 Indian pupils attended secondary school (i.e. 4,4% of the total school population of 90 000) (Behr, 1988:265).

Indian pupils wrote the Junior and Senior Certificate examination of the Natal Education Department. The pass rate was poor because of the lack of suitably qualified or graduate teachers and a lack of diversity of subjects which could be of interest to Indian pupils.

#### **2.3.1.4 Pupil-teacher ratio of the different racial groups**

In the last year for which Natal Provincial statistics are available (1957), 87 000 Indian children were taught by 2 600 teachers, a ratio of 33 pupils per teacher. There were 9 600 coloured children with 350 teachers, a ratio of 27 pupils per teacher. There were 54 000 children in European government schools, with

2 400 teachers, in other words 22,5 pupils per teacher. There were 1 428 000 African children with 25 000 teachers, or 57 pupils per teacher (McConkey, 1960:30-31).

### **2.3.2 Transvaal**

Prior to 1913, Indians had to attend coloured schools but in 1913, they requested a school to be established exclusively for Indian children.

From then on the Transvaal Education Department provided (at state expense) separate schools for Indians and coloureds. Only the areas where the establishment of separate schools was not practical or viable still had mixed schools for Indian and coloured pupils.

In 1950, the Administrator of Transvaal appointed a departmental committee of inquiry under the chairmanship of an inspector of education, Mr I.R. Griffith. This committee recommended that parent associations for Indian schools should be formed and recognised by the Transvaal Provincial Administration, that principals should be empowered to expel pupils for poor attendance, and that secondary education for Indians should follow the same pattern as that for European schools. Education up to standard ten (Senior Certificate) was free and books were also issued free. Subjects and courses were diversified so that pupils had the opportunity to select a curriculum.

During the 1960s, the Transvaal Education Department took steps to remove white teachers from Indian schools. This was done because it was felt that the time had arrived for Indians to take full responsibility for the education of their own children. By the mid 1960s white teachers had been eliminated from virtually all primary and secondary Indian schools (Behr, 1988:226-267).

### **2.3.3 Cape Province**

In the Cape, no provision was initially made for separate schools for Indian children who attended coloured schools.

### **2.3.4 Girls' education**

It would seem that Indian parents were traditionally averse to girls' receiving formal education. For example, in 1886 only 274 of the 1 702 children at school were girls. By 1927 the position had improved slightly in that of 9 477 pupils, 1 647 were girls. Four per cent of them attended classes beyond standard 4. Some of the reasons for this situation are the following:

- . parents' desire for an Eastern, as opposed to a Western style of education;
- . the sexes should be kept apart;
- . a girl's place was considered to be in the home.

These perceptions changed gradually and in 1945, the Durban Indian Girls' High School opened its doors (Teachers' Association of South Africa, 1992:12).

## **2.4 Legislation Aimed at Placing Indian Education Under the Control of a Single Authority**

### **2.4.1 Legislative enactments, 1965 to 1972**

In 1965 the Parliament of the Republic of South Africa passed the Indian Education Act 1965 (Act 61 of 1965), which provided for the transfer of control of all Indian education to the Department of Indian Affairs.

To organise and administer the education of Indians, a division for education was established within the Department of Indian Affairs. The takeover of Indian schools from the Natal Education Department was effected on 1 April 1966 and from the Transvaal Education Department on 1 April 1967 (Behr, 1988:267).

The Indian Education Act of 1965 made provision for all education, including special education, teacher training, nursery school education and vocational education, to be taken over by the Department of Indian Education.

In 1968, the Indian Advanced Technical Education Act (Act 12 of 1968) gave the M.L. Sultan Technical College an autonomous and enhanced status under the direct control of the Minister of Indian Affairs (Behr, 1988:268-269).

The purpose of the South African Indian Council Act, 1968 (Act 31 of 1968) was to create a body that would be representative of the country-wide Indian community and which would advise the Government and make recommendations on all matters affecting Indians. The members of the South African Indian Council (SAIC) were appointed by the Minister of Indian Affairs.

Provision was also made for the establishment of a council comprising nominated and elected members. The functions of the SAIC were the following:

- . to advise the Government at its request and make recommendations on all matters affecting the economic, social, cultural, educational and political interests of the Indian population of South Africa;
- . to receive and consider recommendations and resolutions of the Education Advisory Committee established under Section 31 (1) of the Indian Education Act of 1965;
- . to generally serve as a link and means of contact and consultation between the Government and the Indian people (Behr, 1988:268).

#### **2.4.2 Further powers delegated to the South African Indian Council, 1976 to 1983**

In 1976 the Minister of Indian Affairs delegated most of the powers vested in him to the Executive Committee of the SAIC (SA (R), GG OF 2/1/1976). These powers pertained mainly to the building, maintenance and establishment of schools, the awarding of subsidies, grants-in-aid and loans to the governing bodies of state-aided schools; the transfer of the management and control

of state-aided schools to the Department of Indian Affairs; the appointment, promotion, transfer and discharge of staff at state schools (including industrial schools, reform schools and certain state-aided schools); conditions of service of teachers; the classification of posts at schools; the institution of teachers' training courses; matters pertaining to compulsory school attendance; the payment of school and boarding fees; and regulations with regard to the proper functioning of schools.

In short, the Minister delegated all his powers in respect of administration of schools to the Executive Committee of the SAIC.

This takeover had the following advantages amongst others:

- . a revised and improved code of professionalism for teachers;
- . an improvement in school accommodation and the standard of education;
- . compulsory and free education for all pupils.

The Executive Committee delegated the above functions to the Director of Indian Education, so that the division for Indian Education continued to function as in the past.

In November 1980, the Department of Indian Affairs ceased to exist as a separate entity and became the Indian Affairs component within the Department of Internal Affairs.

In 1983 the Minister of Internal Affairs, Mr F.W. de Klerk, delegated to the Executive Committee of the South African Indian Council all the powers vested in him by the Indian Education Act of 1965 (S.A. (R), GG of 5/8/1983, item no. 1705).

### **2.4.3 Developments in Indian education flowing from the introduction of differentiated education for whites in terms of Act 39 of 1967**

The four-phase system of differentiated education was laid down in the National Education Policy Act, 1967 (Act 39 of 1967). In Indian education the present four-phase system is identical to that of the white Education System. The 12 years of schooling are divided as follows:

- . the junior primary phase, (Classes i/ii and Std. 1);
- . the senior primary phase, (Std. 2, 3, 4);
- . the junior secondary phase, (Std. 5, 6, 7);
- . the senior secondary phase, (Std 8, 9, 10).

At the end of the fourth phase, pupils write the Senior Certificate examination, which may be taken with or without matriculation exemption. All the subject options may be offered at higher, standard or lower grade.

#### **2.4.4 Compulsory school attendance**

Compulsory attendance was introduced with effect from 1973 for "every Indian child from the beginning of the year in which such child reaches the age of seven years until the end of the year in which such child reaches the age of 15 years with effect from 1 January 1979 (SA (R), GG of 17/2/1978, Regulation No. 276).

Although compulsory education had never been enforced, Indian parents had always regarded education as highly desirable for their children. In 1970, it was estimated that 99% of all educable Indian children between the ages of six and thirteen were at school (Behr, 1988:275).

#### **2.4.5 The financing of education**

Funds for Indian education are provided by the State. The Indian Education Act of 1965 and the Indian Education Amendment Act of 1979 established the important principle that the financing of Indian education was the responsibility of the State. The money is provided by the State Treasury through funds voted by Parliament for this purpose.

The State provides funds for the building and maintenance of colleges of education, secondary schools, primary schools, agricultural schools, vocational schools, special schools and pre-primary schools.

The State provides free books and stationery to all pupils up to Standard 10. The salaries of teachers are paid by the State, and all incidental expenses concerned with the running of the schools and other educational institutions, such as cleaning materials, furniture, teaching aids and library books, are provided.

Pupils in rural areas are provided with free transport to and from school. The money spent on Indian education from 1973 to 1983 is reflected in the table below (SA (R), 1977:77, 1982b:16,34).

**Table 2.2: Showing unit cost per Indian pupil/student for the years 1973 - 1983) (to nearest rand)**

INSTITUTION	FINANCIAL YEAR		
	1973/74	1975/76	1982/83
PRIMARY SCHOOLS	R 124	R 157	R 515
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	R 186	R 282	R 848
COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	R1 052	R1 594	R3 936

#### 2.4.6 Teachers' training

In 1965, the Minister of Indian Affairs established a Consultative Committee for Teacher Education. This committee consists of representatives from the institutions concerned with the training of teachers, the inspectorate of Indian Affairs, the chief educational planner of Indian Affairs and representatives of the Indian Teachers' Association.

This committee is responsible for dealing with such matters as alleviating the shortage of senior secondary level teachers of Afrikaans, Mathematics and commercial subjects.

When the Department of Indian Education took over the control of Indian education in 1966 and 1967, it obtained an embarrassing legacy of underqualified and unqualified teachers. In 1968 only 613 (10,6%) of 5 752 teachers employed were graduates and 1 113 (19,3%) did not have professional qualifications. As a result of various courses and programmes, the number of unqualified teachers was greatly reduced. At present there is a surplus of teachers.

#### **2.4.7 University education**

Prior to 1936, Indians in South Africa desiring full-time university education had to go overseas, or seek admission at the universities of Cape Town or the Witwatersrand or the South African Native College (University of Fort Hare). Other South African universities would not admit them.

In 1951, a faculty of medicine was established at the University of Natal for "non whites", where the majority of Indian doctors trained. In 1961, the University College for Indians was established at Salisbury Island in Durban Bay in terms of the Extension of University Education Act, 1959 (Act 45 of 1959). In 1964, a site of 160 acres at Chiltern Heights in Westville near Durban was acquired to provide a new campus.

In terms of Act 49 of 1969, the status of the college was elevated to that of a full academic university and it was renamed the University of Durban-Westville. This happened on 1 January 1971. Indians could also follow correspondence courses through Unisa.

## **2.5 Indian Education in the 1990s**

Indian education has certainly come a long way since 1860 and we are now standing on the threshold of another milestone, namely a unitary education system for all South Africans. The single greatest factor impeding Indian education is the lack of funding. As a result historical imbalances remain largely unattended to. Moreover, future progress is in jeopardy, especially in view of the general shortage of funds that may arise in the new, democratic South Africa.

Education in the new South Africa is no longer a so-called own affair. With the cauterisation of the remaining traces of apartheid, integrated schools, multi-cultural schools and exclusive, privately tended private schools offering equal opportunities to all pupils will be the predominant feature of the future education scenario in South Africa. Merit, and not race or skin colour, will determine admission to higher education.

## **2.6 Education in the New South Africa**

Education in the new, democratic South Africa should inter-alia be based on the following scientifically sound and educationally justifiable principles:

- . Equal opportunities for people of all racial groups should be emphasised.
- . No form of separation of the various racial and language groups should be regulated by laws and regulations.

- . The curriculum should emphasise the objective studying, evaluation and critical scrutiny of society by all interested parties.
- . Adult education programmes and in-service training projects should be a high priority in educational planning and policy.
- . The entire country's education should fall under a single ministry of education.
- . In principle, there should be as little separation of ethnic and language groups as possible since we share one fatherland.

A strategy of realism as opposed to idealism is needed in the best interests of education in South Africa.

In view of the unprecedented growth in student numbers and graduates in recent years, the question arises whether the labour market will be able to absorb this ever-growing stream of white-collar workers of all races.

It is possible that a situation may arise similar to that in Indonesia, where 6 000 graduates were unemployed, while a shortage of skilled workers, who could have been trained at technikons and technical colleges, was experienced. South Africa must avoid such a catastrophe at all costs by planning for relevant and people-oriented education.

In chapter 3, the researcher will present a review of relevant literature on management styles.

## CHAPTER 3

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON MANAGEMENT STYLES IN EDUCATION

#### 3.1 Introduction

According to B. Panday, former Chief Inspector of Education in the Department of Education and Culture, House of Delegates (Teachers' Journal, XXV (1), 1985:19), the educational system in any country is basically a social structure designed to cater for the educational welfare of its citizens. The structure is essentially hierarchical with different levels of authority and power. Each level controls the level below it to some extent. In this way the activities of the whole organisation are co-ordinated, and a system is given to the educational structure. At each hierarchical level there are clearly defined role functions. At school level there is what is known as the red book, which contains all the administrative rules and regulations laid down by the Department. All these measures are prescriptive and may be necessary to promote the efficient functioning of the organisation.

However, owing to the authority structure implicit in this system, the possibility always exist that the authority vested in individuals at each level may be abused. Those who enjoy a position of authority in the hierarchy are supposed to be specialists in their fields and can offer guidance to those of lower rank.

## 3.2 Leadership Styles

According to Hamachek (1970:575),

A principal's role as decision-maker and administrator is far more complex than the mere manifestation of a few acceptable leadership qualities. It is more complex than the current theory of human relations pretends, when it is alleged that leadership arises naturally from a group's assent to confer authority on one of its members. Hence merely to theorise about decision-making or the principal's role in management is to abstract and depersonalize the highly personal implications of his complex leadership role in school to a point where theorizing comes dangerously close to being quite unrealistic.

Principals reflect their own style of leadership, one that suits them. Every principal is regarded by certain members of his staff as a model of a certain leadership style which they regard as part of his professional and interpersonal personality.

It must be remembered that whereas it is possible to distinguish between styles, it is impossible to make a watertight division. A principal may primarily follow a particular style, but at times he may employ attributes of another style.

The leadership style of a principal can be any one or a combination of those listed below:

- . charismatic
- . autocratic
- . democratic
- . laissez faire

- . altruistic
- . bureaucratic.

Each leadership style will now be briefly discussed.

### **3.2.1 The charismatic leader**

He keeps attention focused on himself. He has charisma- a larger-than-life quality. His power over subordinates, his dedication and energy are often astounding. Though he could be reserved, modest or even humble, he is narcissistic since he likes to keep all attention fixed on himself. It is this narcissistic element that causes their followers either to like them tremendously or to reject them entirely. On the whole, such leaders keep people at a distance. Teachers are often wary of being drawn in by such leaders or permitting their influence to become excessive.

### **3.2.2 The autocratic leader**

Colgate (in Peters, 1976:110) has this to say about autocratic leaders.

Heads and schools cannot escape the challenge of changed circumstances. The traditional head who was a benevolent autocrat served his period exceedingly well. To my mind, however, the authoritarian head is obsolete today. To attempt this style would be to court disaster.

Such a principal makes demands on subordinates not on the basis of his personal talents or aptitude, but by virtue of his position. As a result, this style is marked by a considerable degree of one-sided authority.

He proceeds from the premise that he alone has the answers whereas none of his subordinates knows much. He makes all decisions and lays down policy. He issues an abnormally high number of commands, has a predilection for written regulations and rules, supervises personally and is not significantly interested in giving colleagues a say in matters. There is little feedback from staff and hardly any upward communication. The organisation is usually highly centralised with a limited span of control. Because of his tight control, teachers are very dependent on him, but they rarely like him or his methods. This leader dominates and finds it difficult to work with others (Reynders, 1977:47).

### **3.2.2.1 Characteristics**

The autocratic leader has the following characteristics:

- . He adheres to a rigid, fixed schedule.
- . He arranges all tasks and team assignments himself.
- . He uses personal criticism and praise to keep the team functioning.
- . He is intolerant of any sign of doubt or hesitation and often "streamrolls" over others.

### **3.2.2.2 Advantages of the autocratic leader**

The autocratic leader has certain advantages.

- . He offers no alternatives and handles affairs in a rigidly prescriptive manner. Colleagues with a certain kind of personality find this reassuring since it means that they need not take risky decisions themselves.
- . Insecure members of staff feel secure under such leadership since there is no doubt as to what is expected of them.

### **3.2.2.3 Drawbacks of the autocratic leader**

The autocratic leader has the following distinct drawbacks:

- . Research has shown that autocratic leaders usually have the following effect on their staff:
  - ... intense competition, lack of acceptance of all members, buck-passing, avoiding responsibility, unwillingness to co-operate, aggression among members and toward persons outside the group, irritability, and a decrease in work when the superior is absent (Wiles & Lovell, 1967:71).
- . There is no sharing of authority – he insists on doing things his way.
- . Because there is no delegation, staff members do not have the opportunity to develop professionally, so that there is no preparation for promotion.
- . Enterprising, creative thinking is discouraged.
- . Communication between colleagues is restricted since all channels of communication go via the principal.

- Because of the strained atmosphere and competition for status and power among colleagues, there is frustration, conflict and even aggression among team members.

### **3.2.3 The democratic leader**

According to research (Wiles & Lovell, 1967:127-128) a predominantly democratic style of leadership is best - not only for the principal, but for the overall success of the school. It contains the best built-in guarantees for job satisfaction, since "democracy is based upon the assumption that the group has the right and capacity to make its own decisions and that the leader's function is to help it do so in the best way possible" (Haiman, 1951:47).

#### **3.2.3.1 Characteristics**

This type of leadership involves the staff by means of mutual consultation in decision-making (Getzels et al., 1968:37). Decisions therefore do not lie with the leader alone, for the ideal democratic leader co-ordinates and directs the group's decision-making. He also helps them to function better so that the school's activities can be conducted highly effectively and in a spirit of harmonious co-operation.

Decisions are made only after proper consultation with colleagues. The head is a team member who takes part in group activities and does not operate single-handedly and in isolation. This brings about all the advantages of close interaction between principal and staff which in turn fosters a relationship of trust.

However, it also implies that colleagues must be prepared to make meaningful inputs, and to accept considerable responsibility.

Occasionally it may be imperative for the democratic leader to act autocratically. It must also be remembered that he can only act democratically to the extent that organisational rules and regulations and the orders of his superiors permit him to do so.

### **3.2.3.2 Advantages of the democratic leader**

- . Planning, authority and decision-making are largely decentralised.
- . Excellent multi-directional communication is possible. Group members have greater confidence to communicate with one another and to undertake joint projects.
- . The principal consistently tries to involve group members in determining goals and planning and executing activities.
- . The democratic leader confidently delegates duties and responsibilities.
- . Individuals are encouraged to display initiative and come up with creative ideas.
- . Leadership becomes the combined function of the group rather than the monopoly of one, autocratic individual. The inputs and expertise of all members are utilised so that there is less chance of adopting a wrong course of action.
- . A relaxed atmosphere of co-operation is created in which the worth and contribution of every colleague are acknowledged and appreciated.

- . This method generates a wholesome interaction among members of staff and between staff and principal. This enhances staff morale and reduces strain and conflict.
- . Because the group as a whole subtly pressurises anyone who raises irrelevant issues or fails to pull his full weight, a democratic group exercises healthy, effective discipline on its members.
- . On occasions this method permits the principal to act as listener, questioner, and partner to his colleagues, rather than always adopting the commanding speaker's role of the autocratic leader.
- . The principal has every opportunity to explore the skills, abilities and talents of every group member and to learn of their opinions and problems first hand.

### **3.2.3.3 Drawbacks of the democratic leader**

- . Group involvement can be taken too far to include areas of decision-making in which the ordinary teacher does not care to share or have a say. Involving them in these areas could be counterproductive.
- . Some leaders exercise 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. This may provoke resistance and disapproval from staff members since they could feel that the principal is paid to assume certain responsibilities and that he should therefore take such decisions on his own.
- . Lax colleagues could evade responsibility if there is a defeatist approach of passing the blame onto the next person.

- . The greatest drawback of this approach is probably the tremendous amount of time it takes to give everyone a chance to have his say and take part in discussions. In crisis situations this could waste precious time and prevent the correct decisions from being made timeously.

### **3.2.4 The laissez-faire leader (free rein or individual-centred leader)**

#### **3.2.4.1 Characteristics**

This style of leadership gives group members every opportunity to apply their own initiative and take responsibility. The focus is automatically on the individual and leadership is exercised mainly by suggestion and delegating. A principal can only attempt this style of leadership if his staff consists of professionally mature teachers with a high degree of conscientiousness. Although such outstanding professionals are then given free rein, he does not let go of all authority, but retains final control. The leader guides staff by appealing to personal integrity (De Witt, 1979:78).

It does not necessarily imply a situation where the leader has abandoned all control and shows a lack of leadership. Given the right kind of leader and a team of expert, professional colleagues, this style of leadership still permits proper goal and task orientation.

### **3.2.4.2 Advantages of the laissez-faire leader**

- . He allows for a great deal of scope for personal initiative and creativity.
- . If the leader has the sort of charisma that makes colleagues feel that they simply cannot let him down – because he trusts them so implicitly – this approach may bring out the very best in each one.

### **3.2.4.3 Drawbacks of the laissez-faire leader**

- . Everything is left to the group for the leader dislikes taking decisions.
- . In the absence of clear guidelines, staff may tend to formulate their own aims and decisions, which could cause conflict. It may also cause confusion and disorganisation.
- . Since there are no explicit instructions, staff members may proceed incorrectly. Others may lose faith in the principal as a leader since the lack of firm leadership leaves them insecure and frustrated.

### **3.2.5 The altruistic leader**

This leader often has difficulty in making decisions since he fears hurting other people's feelings. For him decision-making becomes a mammoth process of research, findings and recommendations so that all members can be treated fairly.

Although the altruistic leader possesses some admirable human qualities, he is bound to run into problems because he is indecisive, oversympathetic and irresolute in his actions. He is not charismatically self-centred and does not overstate his own

role, position or policy. His aim is rather to help each individual teacher as much as he can, to bring out what is best and noblest in him.

The great danger of this leadership style is that such unselfishness may cause the institution to be inefficient, for a teacher without a strong sense of duty might exploit the lack of control to his own advantage so that the quality of teaching and education will eventually deteriorate (Gorton, 1980:263-276).

### **3.2.6 The bureaucratic leader**

A bureaucratic leader occupies the leadership position in a bureaucratic system (Owens, 1970:135). His style of leadership is a combination of democratic, autocratic and "free rein" leadership.

His ability is to integrate, blend, balance and adapt components of his own style of leadership in harmony with the situation, the group and his own humanity, will largely determine his success as leader of the school. This type of leader adheres strictly to the letter of the law, rules and regulations.

If a bureaucrat applies his leadership style effectively, it has the following characteristics (Owens, 1970:60):

- . It is effective and specialised.
- . It is predictable because there are written rules and regulations. This gives rise to uniformity among staff and uniform rules and regulations.

- . It is impersonal because the letter of the law is the order of the day and the people involved are not taken into account.
- . It is quick because uniform rules are applied to resolve problems.

According to the bureaucratic leadership style, teachers are regarded as employees which results in a type of "head-subordinate" relationship. Authority comes from above - it is centralised and staff merely have to obey.

From the above discussion it would appear that the type of person an education leader is and the way in which he behaves as a leader, will determine how he executes his management tasks. It is also clear that leadership requires certain techniques and skills which may and should be mastered by educational leaders.

Leadership as a management task also implies that educational leaders work with colleagues within the context of the organisation. These people have to be mobilised to achieve the desired goals. Knowledge of motivation and human behaviour in the context of an organisation is therefore required.

### **3.2.7 Leadership styles in Indian schools**

During the interviews he conducted, the researcher met principals with one or a combination of the above leadership styles. However, in the main, the fact that many teachers were happy and at ease tended to suggest that principals were seeing the benefit of being democratic. Still leadership in Indian

schools is not without problems. The researcher agrees that in a situation where leadership problems arise, authority is a necessity. However, the danger is that the right to exercise authority may become a lust for power and prescription. In order to minimise the abuse of authority with its resultant frustration, there should be co-operation and consultation at all levels instead of prescription, especially with regard to decision-making. An essential pre-requisite for this is open and efficient channels of communication at all levels.

### **3.2.7.1 Prescriptivity in Indian education**

In some Indian schools, the headmaster still tends to be an absolute ruler and teachers have little freedom to initiate schemes of their own or to participate freely in planning at the school. In such schools there is an absence of consultation and co-operation and prescription is emphasised.

According to Panday (Teachers' Journal, 1985:20), prescriptive teaching can be classified into the following two categories:

- (a) Firstly, teaching is based upon sound learning principles which no doubt prescribe teaching. For instance every teacher has to take into consideration individual differences when he is teaching; he has to apply the principle of motivation to arouse and maintain interest in a lesson. Viewed in this context, prescriptive teaching is not only necessary but also desirable.
- (b) Secondly, there is what is called prescriptivity in methodology. If progress in education has to move ahead, this aspect is of great concern to all of us and needs careful consideration.

All qualified teachers are adequately equipped with methodology or subject didactics when they graduate from colleges or universities. Therefore they have the necessary expertise to teach their subjects. Furthermore, with teaching experience, their expertise is greatly enhanced. Yet the teacher is prescribed to, even when it comes to methodology.

The researcher knows that Indian education aims at uniformity and conformity in teaching. Guides are sent out for the teaching of various subjects and orientation courses are organised at various centres. Articles are published in education bulletins, lesson preparations have to be written out in a particular way, and the mark book must have a certain format. The rationale behind the abovementioned examples of prescriptivity would probably be conformity and uniformity.

### **3.2.7.2 Conformity and uniformity in Indian education**

The researcher has seen many teachers who became disillusioned when subject advisors continue checking to see whether guidelines have been followed, suggestions offered in orientation courses have been implemented or a certain article in the education bulletin has been read and applied.

It has been said that the teacher is trapped in this web and has to conform slavishly to these odious prescriptions, which deprofessionalise him. In many cases, teachers conform out of fear and anxiety for victimisation.

Conformity and uniformity is a disturbing feature in the educational system. Prescriptivity not only produces stereotyped learning, but also promotes convergent thinking. Since there is a lack of freedom and flexibility, the teacher disseminates subject matter in a prescriptive manner and merely expects effective

regurgitation of the material during the evaluative process. Prescriptivity stifles the teacher's individuality, originality, creativity and initiative and inhibits his style in the classroom.

Education can be greatly enhanced by departing from prescriptivity, particularly with regard to methodology, for there are as many methods as there are teachers. Each teacher's methodology is influenced by his own personality. The teacher has to be allowed to apply his expertise and his own resources to promote the educational development of the child. He needs independence and a great deal of flexibility to experiment with various methodologies and teaching techniques in order to find those that suit the need of pupils. A teacher who enjoys such freedom will teach with enthusiasm and will display initiative, originality and creativity. In this manner divergent thinkers will be produced.

### **3.3 Management Style and Decision-Making in Indian Schools**

#### **3.3.1 A primary school teacher's viewpoint**

Teachers should actively participate in the decision-making process. More opportunities should be afforded to teachers to make inputs in issues that affect them directly.

According to this teacher, the decision-making process should involve the election of a chairperson from the staff, a vice-chairperson and a secretary by the teachers. This committee's

function should be to liaise with management on matters affecting the staff and the school. At these liaison meetings, teachers should be able to air their views openly, without any inhibition.

At the end of each year, teachers should plan a detailed tentative calendar for the new year. All school activities should be incorporated. The calendar should then be presented to management. Amendments should be made in consultation with management. In the allocation and distribution of duties, management and the executive committee should first identify all the duties for the new school year. Teachers should be consulted on duty preferences. Duty rosters should be drawn up by management together with the executive committee, and should take into account teachers' preferences and should feature all activities scheduled for the year.

The fact that teachers will have played an active role in the decision-making process will do much to create a healthy working climate. It will enable teachers to work with greater willingness, confidence and co-operation. Since teachers will have been accepted as participants in the decision-making process, a warm, supportive climate will prevail and this will reduce stress and frustration among teachers and promote work satisfaction. Giving teachers the opportunity to take part in the decision-making process will expose their talents and enable them to make a contribution to school management (Teachers' Journal, XIX (4), 1989:13-14).

### **3.3.2 A head of department's viewpoint**

The head of department perceived himself as a sandwich filling, crushed between two "layers", the principal at the top and level-1 educators at the bottom. Being the liaison officer between management and staff, he bears the brunt from both sides. He is prescribed to by the principal and in turn he prescribes to level-1 educators. He cannot achieve his objective of promoting his subject because he is hamstrung by prescription. He has little say in the structuring of the syllabus, and in the selection of textbooks and resources. He seldom uses his own initiative, is stifled and becomes frustrated (Teachers' Journal, XIX (4), 1989:16-17).

### **3.3.3 A principal's viewpoint**

The task of "deciding" pervades the entire school organisation and administration. Decision-making is the most important of all management activities. Whether we are setting goals in our subject, planning our lessons or coping with issues concerning organising and carrying out curricular and non-curricular activities, making things happen according to our wishes depends on our ability to make and implement decisions. Ingredients for success include self-discipline, perception, creativity, dynamism and considerable skill in handling both individuals and groups.

Making decisions can be a painful process; it involves change, sometimes conflict, the risk of being wrong and accountable, and having to cope with a bewildering number of facts and alternatives. Yet, failure to make a decision is worse than the

risks involved and can frustrate and virtually paralyse colleagues and subordinates.

Before a decision can be made, the decision-maker must gather as much information as he can. When the decision is made, he must have the foresight to anticipate the outcome and ramifications of his decision (Teachers' Journal, XIX (4), 1989:17-18).

### **3.4 The Role of the Educational Manager**

#### **3.4.1 Introduction**

During the past few decades the task of the educational leader has undergone a radical change. Traditionally the educational leader was merely the head teacher and the task of running the school was one of limited complexity.

The educational leader required only professional training and experience to manage his school. De Wet (1981:143) points out that traditionally a competent teacher with a certain number of years' experience and the right personality was well equipped for the task and the demands of principalship. The ability needed by an educational leader to perform certain administrative and managerial tasks could be developed through experience. But, as a result of the increasing complexity of the school as an organisation, the educational leader has been subjected to changing demands, especially in respect of his management tasks. Managerial training, in addition to educational is now indispensable training (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974:118). Whereas the

principal's task used to be focused mainly on teaching, it has become more management directed (Rebore, 1982:10).

The educational leader can no longer perform his duties in a "chance" fashion. In this regard there is an urgent necessity for educational leaders to receive both academic and professional training in educational management.

According to Cawood (1973:6) the need for specialised training of those people who are likely to hold promotion positions in teaching was identified long ago in the USA. Very few educational leaders of today have undergone the training needed to cope with their managerial duties.

Extensive research in South Africa has firmly established that the task of the principal has undergone an evolutionary change and that his present task is mainly managerial. The principal's task has changed from being pedagogical-didactical to a more managerial one (Buckley, 1985:4).

In the light of these facts it is becoming increasingly important to expect a person in a promotion position in education to hold an academic-professional management qualification. If a teacher is expected to be academically and professionally equipped before he can teach, the same requirements should be set for promotion positions.

Obtaining a qualification in educational management does not guarantee that the person possesses managerial abilities – only that he has the management knowledge. A system of effective selection is therefore also necessary in appointing principals.

Traditionally principals have been chosen on the basis of previous experience, interviews, inspection reports, testimonials and especially their teaching achievements in a certain school subject. Information on a person's management capabilities and/or potential plays a very small role, if any when appointments are made. The shortcomings in the traditional methods of selection are that achievements alone are taken into account, and that information on the real or envisaged management potential is disregarded, whether such information is available or not.

It can be thus concluded that the present management situation in schools requires academically and professionally qualified people who have been selected in a reliable manner.

### **3.4.2 The educational leader as educational manager**

According to Marx (1981:57), all persons in supervising positions perform management work irrespective of the hierarchical level of the position or the nature and extent of the activities in which the person is involved. Every person who has to formulate and strive towards objectives in education, who has to organise, make decisions, and is in a leadership position where he must exercise control, is occupied with managing work.

Managing work comprises the creating, maintaining and executing of dynamic interaction so that these interactive activities will lead to more effective education and teaching.

The educational leader is not only an administrator or one who carries out policy; he also has authority in his own right. In every school there are various factors which cannot be accounted for by external policy, but have to be taken into consideration by the principal himself as he formulates school policy. Matters that fall in this category are for example the way in which syllabuses will be implemented, the allocation of classrooms, deployment of staff and planning the school timetable. In performing these tasks, the entire management action functions in an integrated manner.

The educational leader is dependent on people (teachers) to be able to fulfil his calling to ensure good education and teaching. He is in control of people's activities and if he wants to provide direction by means of leadership in order to achieve mutual goals, management is essential. In this sense management also involves the thought processes and actions by which problems, stress, solutions and the right of decision-making are approached.

The principal is not only an educational manager. He is the leader in the school and one of the tasks he has to perform is management work. It would thus be wrong to think of the principal only as an educational manager as this would refer to only one of his many activities.

### 3.4.3 The role of the educational manager

Experience alone can be the criterion in being appointed to the various kinds and levels of educational management position. This then contradicts most of the accepted modern theories of effective management which is acquired through an ongoing, structured in service training programme.

Bittel, quoted in the International Journal of Education Development (1984:113) states emphatically that "executives are made and not born". They require knowledge of organisation through the application of a systematic process of management, and skills such as decision-making, staff-building and information-collection and-analysis. Duncans quoted in the same journal, supports Bittel when he states:

At every stage the individual assumes and to a great extent depends, on the effective co-ordination of human effort and non human resources. This effective co-ordination does not, of course, just happen.

Principals must possess knowledge and skills in the area of leadership and human dynamics, since the educational manager's job is to make things happen through people. In other words, managerial competence is a sine qua non for successful management.

However, it is also possible for an educational manager to have had no formal training in management and yet be a successful principal.

In the past, there were some successful teachers who may also have been effective educational managers. This can probably be ascribed to the traditional view of the nature of education. Previously, formal education was for the very few and it consisted mainly of general literacy. To a great extent, the goal of education was therefore a simplistic transfer of book knowledge.

#### **3.4.4 New demands from educational managers**

However, in modern times the purpose of education and the accompanying curriculum have become more complex and greatly diversified.

Literacy is no longer adequate to produce the manpower needed for economic growth. Effective modern education requires a mixture of knowledge, skills and a thorough training in educational management.

Democratisation of educational opportunities have resulted in an explosion in student numbers with a corresponding increase in the demand for education, educational facilities and services. Above all, the academic and professional nature of present-day educational goals has brought together people of diverse specialisation to work together towards effective education. Managing such a complex organisation and greatly expanded services requires people who are professionally skilled in educational management.

Consequently, one is compelled to ask if teaching experience alone could serve as prerequisite for appointment to modern educational management positions.

Paradoxically though, teachers with no more than classroom teaching experience still seem to be selected and promoted to management positions. This tendency can possibly be ascribed to the fact that those responsible for selection are not capable of readily distinguishing between relevant and positive achievements and the mediocre in the realm of management expertise.

### **3.4.5 The educational manager's interpersonal relationships**

Many researchers agree that the heart of the executive role is dealing with people. This makes the manager's job complex, which means that managers must be multi-faceted. According to principals interviewed educational managers must be interested in the following:

- . getting teachers and other professional employees committed to achieving the desired goals and objectives of the organisation;
- . engaging them more productively to maximise their performance;
- . maximising scarce resources to facilitate the greatest possible output;

- . evaluating performance progressively and upgrading the competence of those engaged on the job;
- . releasing the potential of each member of staff to enhance his confidence and help him make progress in his job;
- . creating an atmosphere of high morale and concomitant co-operation.

Effective educational management can be divided into three major interrelated areas, namely:

- . the development of goals, policies and procedures;
- . the conversion process or execution;
- . goal achievement and evaluation.

Each of these will now be discussed.

### **3.4.5.1 Development of goals, policies and procedures**

This is also known as planning in that objectives are identified and procedures to carry them out are laid down. Planning consists of two functions, namely:

- . identification of objectives  
The identification of objectives delineates the responsibility of the manager into categorical statements of what is to be accomplished.
- . programming  
Programming means setting up a procedure by spelling out the means to be followed in order to accomplish objectives.

### 3.4.5.2 Conversion process

The conversion process implies action in that the plan is translated into action to reach the desired ends. The conversion process can be divided into the following five functions:

- staffing

Staffing is concerned with the identification, selection and deployment of the right type of personnel, in the right positions, at the right time in order to execute a programme.

- administration

This is the process of facilitating the application of the programme.

- co-ordination

Co-ordination in the main is the guiding and harmonisation of the efforts made by staff. It is administrative because it strives to ensure that materials and programmes are brought together in the proper place and at the right time so that the personnel assigned to accomplish a goal may carry out right activities at the right time.

- supervision

Supervision is the help given to personnel to improve their competence with regard to their specific jobs.

- control

This is a very significant aspect of the executive's work. An executive ensures progress towards the achievement of overall objectives through constant feedback. Therefore, control presumes knowledge of what is going on, which must be backed by facts that can constantly be measured and weighed.

### **3.4.5.3 Goal achievement and evaluation**

The educational manager is responsible for setting targets and providing yardsticks for measuring each person's contribution to the total organisation.

## **3.5 The Manager's Role in Effective Educative Teaching**

According to Lulsegg (1984:117-118), the teacher's main aim and responsibility is effective teaching, which will result in effective learning. Consequently he is concerned about his competence in a specific subject area as well as his skills in planning, delivering and evaluating his teaching.

On the other hand, the aim of the educational manager is to coordinate the management process effectively and efficiently. He must be professionally competent to fulfil his managerial responsibilities. Unlike a teacher, whose focus is on a fraction of the total responsibility of a school, the educational manager has an overall responsibility. Hence his survival depends upon his ability to perform his managerial responsibilities successfully.

## **3.6 Curriculum for Educational Managers**

The actual requirements for the training of educational managers vary from country to country. Lulsegg (1984:119) suggests that the following be borne in mind when the curriculum is formulated:

- . principles, procedures and practices of educational management, including –
  - planning
  - administration
  - supervision
  - performance and accountability.
- . the application of principles towards solving educational problems;
- . behavioural management, principles and action;
- . the economics of education (educational finance, business procedures and accountability);
- . the construction and operation of the school;
- . curricular-instructional principles and practices;
- . the educational, psychological and sociological growth and development of the child and adolescent;
- . research techniques and professional literacy, both spoken and written;
- . an awareness of the need for staff and management development programmes.

The elements listed above show the need to be specifically trained for managerial positions.

### 3.7 The Need for Effective Educational Management

At present, education is the greatest need in most Third World countries. The acquisition of knowledge alone is no longer enough; a true understanding of knowledge and the mastering of technological skills have become imperative.

According to the Voice of America (VOA) (1982) quoted in the International Journal of Educational Development (1984:119-120), several external forces, of which some are listed below, have forced educational management to become a branch of professional management:

- . the expanding population;
- . the explosion in knowledge and scientific breakthroughs;
- . technological developments which have changed lives, and the way we cope with them;
- . a knowledge of research findings in the behavioural and social sciences;
- . organisational theory and specialisation;
- . public interest in education.

In addition to these external forces, the following internal forces also had a critical influence:

- . the explosion in student enrolment and expansion of schools;
- . diversification of curricular and co-curricular activities;

- . professionalisation of teachers and the rise of specialist teachers;
- . the application of technological developments in education;
- . the rise and development of teacher labour unions and militancy;
- . growth of organisational complexity, both administrative and instructional;
- . accountability in education and the emphasis on behavioural objectives.

These forces demand changes in the organisation, administration and supervision of the educational system if they are to achieve the following:

- . to serve the needs of individuals and the nation;
- . to give adequate education to the many who attend school, but receive inadequate education;
- . to assist teachers to meet their personal needs to maintain a sense of perspective.

This all points to the necessity for effective educational management. According to Alfred Marshal, quoted in the International Journal of Educational Development (1984:120), education is "the most powerful engine of production, it enables us to subdue nature and satisfy our wants". He further states that the leaders and people of developing countries spend 15,30% of their total public expenditure on extending schooling and improving its quality. Such an expensive, important concern cannot be left to chance. The effective and efficient management

of teachers cannot, through teaching experience alone, obtain the skills required to run the affairs of a modern school effectively and efficiently.

Consequently, professionally trained, tested and seasoned educational managers are a prerequisite for the effective management of modern education.

How does a modern, progressive country like South Africa compare with the rest of the world with regard to its educational management system?

### **3.8 Inadequacies in Educational Management in South Africa**

The South African system of education has been under close scrutiny in recent years. Various inadequacies have been identified, which has led to debate and research in an effort to obtain relevant solutions. One pertinent issue that has been debated and researched is the inadequacy of the training policy for educational managers. The present policy does not satisfy the needs of those groups responsible for the management of schools.

Present structures for the managerial development of school principals in South Africa lag behind those in many developed countries. The current unstructured and uncoordinated management development programme in South Africa is unlikely to achieve lasting and meaningful managerial improvement in schools.

In what is regarded as a white paper on education in South Africa, the Human Sciences Research Council made no mention of the role, place, position or training of educational managers. The managerial task of the principal was therefore excluded from the proposed reform.

According to the report the education budget for 1987 was R8 610 million or 16,1% of the total budget - the biggest expenditure by the state. Placing education at the top of the budget, emphasised the importance attached by the state to the development of its people's potential.

If so much money is allocated to education, the state and the taxpayer have a right to expect responsible management of both people and materials. Carefully selected well-trained educational managers at all levels of education are required to ensure this, and the school principal has a critical managerial role to play.

### **3.8.1 The changed task of the school principal**

According to Van der Westhuizen (1988:378), research done in South Africa in the past 15 years has shown an evolutionary change in the task of the school principal with the current emphasis on educational management. He is of the opinion that the task of the school principal is no longer a pedagogic-didactic one, but a management task. The evidence seems to indicate that the extent and complexity of the principal's task will increase and that managerial duties will eventually occupy all his time.

Teachers and heads of department have proposed that the successful completion of an educational management course should be a recommendation or a prerequisite for appointment to the position of school principal. This is because a principal needs to have certain basic knowledge and skills, preferably before accepting the appointment as principal or at an early stage in his career as principal.

### **3.8.2 Management qualifications for school principals**

A teacher requires essential training and qualifications before he can be appointed in a permanent position, whereas no formal management qualification or training is required for appointment as school principal in South Africa. Any qualification or training in management acquired is, at present, done at the personal choice of a serving or prospective educational manager.

According to Payzant (1987:61), the implementation of uniform standards for the certification of school heads has already begun in 52 states of America. Fifty-one states demand a suitable management qualification, 26 states require previous management experience, 20 states specify the mastering of specific management skills, 13 states require relevant examinations to have been passed and 9 states request candidates to attend an assessment centre.

### **3.8.3 Authority in schools and the position of the principal**

When comparing the organisation of the school with that of most other organisations, the position of the principal is unique with regard to the power vested in it.

The principal is the leading figure in an organisation employing between 50 and 100 members of staff. Staff, parents, pupils and PTAs seem anxious about the considerable power vested in the principal. Very rarely will any member of staff address the principal by his first name. Although there may be consultation, the principal is expected to personally resolve major aspects of school policy.

When a subject head decides who shall teach his subject at different levels, his decision has the status of a recommendation only. The principal may accept or reject this recommendation of the head of department because of his effective authority in relation to that of individual members of staff. It is unusual for anybody to visit a school – to give a talk to a group of pupils or to discuss a matter with a member of staff – without first being introduced to the principal (whose permission for the visit had to be obtained in the first place!). Teachers appear to be unwilling to dismantle this long-standing personal authority vested in the principal since they like to have an "ultimate" power behind them when dealing with pupils and parents. In the same way, pupils and their parents feel they need to be able

to appeal to a principal on issues such as the behaviour or competence of a specific teacher (Torrington & Weightman, 1985:199-200).

### **3.9 Choosing a Management Style**

Since much of the modern literature on management concerns task completion, the only "why" offered to an educational manager is to adopt a style, do a job, complete a task or accomplish something. The "how" or way in which one goes about fulfilling the task or undertaking a project, can loosely be defined as managerial "style". As we move from the how to the why of management style, we need to recognise that why we do things ultimately determines how we get things done, - i.e. our management style. In developing a management style, we first need to answer the question: "why (not "how") do I approach my work?" It is always useful to ask this question, because each person wants to be able to choose an efficient style that will suit his personality. If we can find a theory that not only eliminates questions about how we do our work (for instance autocratically) but also why we operate that way, we may be able to choose our style and still be effective operational educational managers. Educational managers are free to choose among many styles, but we shall discuss only Theory Z and its effectiveness.

#### **3.9.1 Theory Z and school effectiveness**

Successful principals are also skilled instructional supervisors. The key to being a skilled supervisor is knowing what effective instruction consists of. People in business and industry have

experienced a major success by changing their attitude toward workers according to the Theory Z approach to management.

If educational productivity can be improved by studying the manner in which private enterprise achieves higher levels of corporate growth, educators could do well to look at schools through the lenses of Theory Z.

Recent educational research suggests that there are very prominent parallels between type-Z-style productivity in industry and increased effectiveness of schools. Where literature on Theory Z and school effectiveness are congruent, educators can move forward with even more confidence than when they rely only on other sources (George, 1984:78-79).

Productive schools have a number of characteristics in common. Such schools boast strong administrative and instructional leadership. They have a climate of safety and order, and communicate the expectation that both teachers and students will be successful in attaining their instructional goals. Effective schools have a clear commitment to specific educational goals, priorities and assessment procedures - a commitment that usually focuses on the attainment of basic school skills. Home-school support systems are operative in effective schools. In spite of a healthy and necessary diversity, effective schools show similarities with regard to several critical aspects.

According to George (1984:79), the portrait of the effective school and the image of the successful Type-Z corporation show an uncommon likeness. Effectiveness or productivity whether in business or education, centres on the same concept, namely commitment to an organisational philosophy. Each member of staff feels a sense of mission. Strong leaders involve staff in the development and maintenance of this sense of mission. As a result, the ensuing plan of action is consistent with the values of staff, clients and culture. In each instance individuals work separately and in teams to reach agreed-upon goals. The organisational climate is characterised by trust, subtlety and caring. Group cohesion and interpersonal affiliation needs are comfortably, appropriately and intentionally met.

Finally, in all productive (or effective) institutions, decisions are made through consensus, although sometimes it may be quite a laborious procedure. Therefore everyone has a say in the decisions that affect his life.

### **3.9.2 The theory Z school**

A theory Z school should be able to answer in the affirmative to the following questions:

- . Does the school staff have a written philosophy that is implemented in the daily activities of the school? Does each member of staff subscribe to the philosophy and have regular opportunities to participate in refining that statement?

- . Does the curriculum of the school fit the philosophy? Are the goals of the curriculum specific and clear? Will members of staff be able to determine the extent to which goals have been met? Are both extrinsic and intrinsic methods of accountability brought to bear in measuring the degree to which success has been achieved?
- . Are the instructional strategies used by the faculty in line with curricular goals?
- . Is the school organised in a way that permits teachers and students to get to know and care about each other and to extend these relationships over time?
- . Is there evidence of regular and continuing involvement of all persons, in appropriate ways, in the decisions that determine the course of life in the school? Are there vehicles in place to ensure that this occurs? (George, 1984:79).

### **3.9.3 Implementing theory Z in schools**

Principals who wish to implement Theory Z at their schools should do the following:

- . critically examine the school's philosophy, as it is at present;
- . define the desired leadership style with the involvement of school-building leaders;
- . develop the interpersonal skills of school leaders who will be expected to implement the changes – particularly the skill of recognising patterns of interaction in decision-making and problem-solving groups.
- . test school leaders' commitment to the participative system towards which you are moving;

- . develop and implement a school organisation which requires staff members to plan together on a regular basis; this will increase cohesion among teachers and students;
- . involve members of staff in aligning the curriculum and sharpening the focus of the instructional strategies;
- . accept the fact that the Type Z school is forever "in the process of becoming" and that the process rests on the continued willingness of leaders to model a management style which is essentially democratic and holistic.

Theory Z has proved successful in educational institutions in advanced, overseas countries. American schools may be much closer to a business than most educators would probably like to admit. At the centre of it all, however, is the realisation that social institutions, educational or corporate, are complex and more or less orderly systems. The fulcrum upon which productivity rests, is the ability to co-ordinate and synchronise the goals, procedures, organisation and processes of the institution so that harmony reigns. Theory Z is an attempt to help educators see institutional productivity as the result of an essentially indivisible effort (George, 1984:81).

If the principal is to be a strong leader, he must be able to motivate others - teachers, staff, students, parents - who are part of the school organisation. Unfortunately, current literature on effective schools and principals tend to leave the impression that the principal must be a superperson, a non-stop dynamo. Of course, personal dynamism, wisdom and decisiveness are great allies to any principal, but more important in reaching school goals is the principal's ability to motivate others. He involves all interested parties in goal-setting and decision-making and

recognises the importance of formal and informal communication to group processes. As leader, the effective principal attempts to assign in accordance with individual needs and talents, and solicits help wherever it may be found (Mc Daniel, 1983:19).

### **3.10 Characteristics of outstanding administrators**

Which leadership characteristics seems important in principalship? Principals may differ in personality and yet be equally successful because situational factors also affect their role.

The researcher asked level-1 teachers, heads of department and even some deputy principals which qualities they would like to find in a principal. Their responses are listed below in no particular order or ranking:

- . sociable and approachable;
- . impartial and fair;
- . tactful and discreet;
- . thoughtful and considerate;
- . punctual and reliable;
- . articulate - listens carefully - avoids overcomplication;
- . able to remain firm in spite of opposition but ready to change a decision if it was clearly the wrong decision or ill timed;

- . able to establish order and discipline without creating tension.

### **3.10.1 Adopting a style**

Each of us develops a set of fundamental principles to direct our conduct and attitude to others. A principal needs to state his working philosophy explicitly to his colleagues, and to show by all he does what his particular beliefs and values are. In other words, everyone should know what he stands for – and what he will not stand for.

According to Waters (1979:51) "... the success that the school and the head enjoy will be dependent upon a variety of factors, for the head who has the courage of his convictions [will find it] impossible to compromise about the things he basically believes in." What these are will be evident in the way in which he organises the school, in form and content of the curriculum and the manner in which it is applied in the school.

Everyone, especially level-1 teachers, prefer a head who is decisive. Instant decisions will frequently be necessary. The principal should not shy away from making decisions which only he can and should make. He should not feel anxious about using his legitimate authority because he has been vested with it. What is important, is that the principal should do what has to be done, when it has to be done and in the way it ought to be done. He must not delegate tasks that are clearly his responsibility. Principals are sometimes judged by the type and size of problem they are prepared to deal with. Certain duties have to be performed by the principal. He should concentrate

on the essential duties and delegate those that are of lesser significance. If principals looked at their priorities and redesigned their activities, they would find that they are contributing much more to the effectiveness of the school.

To summarise, the characteristics of effective educational administrators are listed below:

- . He concerns himself primarily with the education and welfare of the children at school.
- . He is aware of the nature of his job and the work of the school, and his accountability for it.
- . He is able to determine short- and long-term plans for the school, taking into account the opportunities and constraints placed upon him.
- . He is aware of standards which are attainable and of a variety of methods which could be used to reach these goals. He can communicate these effectively to colleagues, parents and superintendents.
- . He trains, supports, encourages and values his staff and assists in furthering their careers.
- . He uses and develops particular strengths and leadership skills in his staff.
- . He sees himself as the leader of a team in which all talents, imagination and efforts are co-ordinated and weaknesses are supported.

If principals are mindful of the above attributes and develop them, they will build an administrative team with authority as well as control. According to Williams (1980:126), responsibility without authority is an empty gesture. The ultimate goal is to have a team that is efficient, humanistic, trusting and satisfying. Building such a team will make the principal's task easier and his management style more acceptable to all.

### **3.11 Women and Educational Management**

According to Davies (1986:61), "women hold jobs, while men have careers". In spite of the fact that teaching is considered a "feminine" profession, there appears to be a widespread tendency for senior administrative positions to be held by men. Women teachers seem to be concentrated in the "lower" levels of the school hierarchy. When they are appointed to positions of responsibility, it is either in girls' schools or women's colleges.

One factor holding women back is the stereotypical view of Dupont, quoted in Davies (1986:70), who sees teaching in many countries as a feminine profession, but as it moves upwards towards administration, it becomes more "masculine" and therefore inappropriate for women. In the the same article, Adkinson says that management is a "masculine" domain. The more schools move away from charismatic leadership towards scientific management, the more appropriate men may seem for top positions. It is important to consider whether men and women exhibit different leadership traits or different capabilities for administrative performance once they reach the top. If they exist, these differences will influence future selection panels. In

the United States, a summary of all studies comparing male and female administrative behaviour during the last two decades, leads to the conclusion that, whether on the basis of administrators' own responses, superiors' ratings or subordinates' ratings, there are no differences between the sexes; in fact women have received higher ratings. They are better at instructional supervision and more aware of individual differences in teachers and pupils. They also tend to use the participative or democratic leadership style now thought to be associated with effective administration. There is no evidence that they are ineffective in decision-making, merely that they have less authoritarian ways of reaching decisions (Davies, 1986:70).

### **3.11.1 Women kept out by the tougher trend in management style**

The trend towards more professional management in schools is keeping women out of jobs. According to Wilce, writing for The Times Education Supplement (1985), tough management styles reflecting major trends outside schools are in vogue, and as a result, women are not being considered for school management positions.

The emphasis is on managing a school and one principal, quoted in the same article, said the following:

Management is like rugby league. Heads are looking for people whose voices can boom down corridors. Women are traditionally involved in the pastoral side.

The researcher has found that more men are turning to top-level jobs in primary schools as they find their prospects for promotion blocked in secondary schools. Males also have deep seated prejudices towards women.

All candidates interviewed for a promotion position are asked the same questions except for women who are also asked whether they could keep discipline. Women do not need to take additional courses to get senior jobs, as suggested by some. They need to value their qualifications and to have them recognised by those making the appointments. If more women are to occupy senior positions, a vital prerequisite would be experience in full-time caring for young children. Such experience is a very pertinent experience; most women have it and most men do not.

A female teacher summed this attitude up perfectly when she said:

Why do people always think that a man doing the same old job in the same old way for ten years is going to do it better than someone who has had a variety of experience and is coming back with a fresh approach?

### **3.11.2 The male rationale for denying women access to school administration**

According to Calabrese & Wallech (1989:105), two contrasting views are frequently used to explain the lack of female representation in educational administration; the first is organisational and structural, the second, personal and influenced by social stereotypes and sex-typecasting. These

contrasting views state on the one hand that organisational and structural factors discriminate against women by establishing artificial job requirements and encouraging the use of a formal and informal male network; on the other hand, women themselves are blamed for their low representation in school administration. Women have become a convenient scapegoat in deflecting attention from organisational and structural defects.

Reasons for low female representation in school management have been cited as sex-role stereotyping, discrimination, lack of self-confidence, family duties, organisational issues, lack of competence, and prejudice from other women.

Organisational barriers include discrimination, overt and covert sexual harassment and lack of encouragement. Women have no direct control over these types of issue. Social barriers include long held beliefs that are frequently referred to as stereotypes or myths, such as the fear of success, an inability to handle the emotional and physical stress associated with administration, being too emotional in conflict situations, self-restriction, lack of competence and logic, dependency, and lower personal expectations.

Social barriers are dehumanising, whether they are used overtly or covertly to deny women access to school administration. Some researchers suggest that male decision-makers incorporate many of these barriers into their decision-making process. These barriers then become the rationale for gender discrimination. In effect, organisational and structural causes are ignored (Calbrese, 1989:106).

### 3.11.3 Few women in school administration: Some explanations

Many career women believe that discrimination in the workplace still exists. In her study of career women in Canada, Bassett quoted in Nixon (1987:61), found that 88% believed that sexual discrimination was one of the factors holding them back in their professions. In teaching, unlike other workplaces, there are no structural barriers preventing vertical mobility. Male and female educators supposedly have equal access to influential administrative positions.

Numerous explanations (often interrelated) have been proffered for the underrepresentation of women in influential positions, including the following:

- . the tradition that men should occupy leadership positions;
- . the socialisation of women into helpful, dependency relationships;
- . women teachers' perceptions of the "cost" of accepting administrative positions;
- . the narrower background of professional preparation and/or experience of women teachers;
- . the lack of role models for women teachers.

Male prejudice is grounded in a fear of competition and also in a fear of degradation of the profession since women are not career-oriented (women do not intend spending a lifetime in the classroom unless it cannot be avoided). It can be argued that

the current underrepresentation of women in the upper echelons of the school system is a legacy from the male domination of yesteryear.

Although gender discrimination is gradually being broken down and more women are accepting their rightful place in the management of schools and education, the pace at which it happens, is still slow. No research has been carried out that proved that women managers are less efficient than their male counterparts.

Discriminative practices deprive individuals of the opportunity to have professionally satisfying lives – deprive schools of a larger pool of applicants from which to draw leadership talent, and foster a society with unrealised potential (Nixon, 1987:69).

### **3.12 Conclusion**

The researcher discovered that there are as many management styles as there are principals. Every principal's style is unique. How he manages his school will eventually affect all aspects of teaching and learning.

Speaking to numerous principals has revealed that educational managers who want their schools to run efficiently, must bear the following points in mind:

- . There must be strong administrative leadership by the school principal, especially in regard to instructional matters.

- . Principals must foster a climate conducive to learning.
- . There must be school wide emphasis on basic skills instruction, which entails agreement among professional staff that such instruction is the school's primary goal.
- . Principals and teachers must believe that pupils can reach high levels of achievement.

The researcher found that the modus operandi in most schools was one of managerial expediency. Records were kept painstakingly and teachers were prescribed to. The principal and his deputy were both occupied in educational "administrivia" – trivial tasks that could well be handled by clerical staff. Owing to a lack of management development policy, the educational manager has become solely responsible for making the best of his career and future.

The next chapter contains literature study of modern international trends in educational management.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **MODERN INTERNATIONAL TRENDS IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

There is a developing awareness overseas of the importance of modern educational management to the effective operation of schools and colleges. These schools and colleges have hundreds of staff members, thousands of students and budgets which can sometimes run into millions of pounds. Effective management is regarded as essential if these resources are to be deployed to maximum effect. More significantly, however, is the impact of effective management on pupils and teachers.

The researcher reviewed foreign literature dealing with educational management trends in selected countries. The emphasis was on research concluded, ways of dealing with stress and its effect on teachers, management styles of administrators and characteristics of outstanding administrators.

#### **4.2 The USA**

A number of events occurred in the USA in the late 1940s and early 1950s that accelerated the development of educational management and administration.

In 1947 a number of members of the American Association of School Administration (AASA) decided to arrange a conference in the same year.

This led to the establishment of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) which subsequently became an annual event. The conference consists of working seminars and the purpose is to bring about a higher standard of training in educational administration.

In 1950 the Kellogg Foundation made funds available for founding the Co-operative Program in Education Administration (CPEA). The programme is organised on a regional basis; development has resulted in the founding of eight regional centres at universities in the USA and one in Canada. The purpose of these regional centres is to promote educational administration in certain regions. The project involves research on various matters of which the most important to date has been the compilation of programmes for the training of school principals.

In 1959 the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) was founded. Members are mainly universities and some schools. UCEA operates according to five year plans and publishes various journals of which Educational Quarterly is the most important.

These developments gave rise to intensified research in the theory of school administration, and people like D.E. Griffiths, J.W. Getzels, J.K. Hempell, S.J. Knezevich and A.W. Halpin have made important contributions in this regard (Nell, 1981:46).

A further development in the USA was the establishment of development and training programmes for educational management and administration of which the simulated computer programs were the most important. In the period from 1969 to 1970 more than 180 lecturers and more than 40 training institutions were involved in the development of twelve simulated training programs.

At present various organisations in the USA meet at the national and regional levels and hold conferences on educational management. One of these organisations is NASSP (National Association of Secondary School Principals), which has more than 30 000 members.

Another important organisation in the USA which has contributed much to the establishment and extension of educational management is AASA (American Association of School Administration). Members are mainly inspectors, although a few school principals and professors also belong to the association. AASA publishes The School Administrator.

An international publication on research in educational management is currently available. This publication, Handbook of Research in Educational Administration, is the most comprehensive work on the latest tendencies in educational management.

## **4.2.1 Characteristics of outstanding administrators**

### **4.2.1.1 Research**

Most educators can distinguish between those educational administrators whom they regard as outstanding and those whom they regard as mediocre or even poor. What criteria do people use to make these distinctions? What does a principal do (or what does he not do) that causes him to be regarded as outstanding?

To find the answers to some of these questions, Linda Grace, Robert Bruser and Dean Stuck conducted intensive personal interviews with 13 Illinois principals considered by their colleagues to be outstanding. Their findings are reported in the NASSP Bulletin, 71 (502), 1987. Interviews were conducted to obtain the principals' perceptions on the following:

- . the characteristics of an outstanding principal;
- . the knowledge or skills a principal must have to be effective;

- . the actions a principal takes (or may take) to influence the quality of instruction in the school;
- . the behaviour of a principal that is likely to reduce his effectiveness as an instructional leader;
- . the areas in which principals feel the most need for in-service training.

The principals interviewed were the administrators of schools in eight communities with populations ranging between 3 000 to slightly more than 55 000. All schools were located in or within 50 miles of the St. Louis metropolitan area. Student enrolment ranged from approximately 200 to 2 000. The interviewees' tenure as principal ranged from less than one year to more than five years. More than 50% had served as principal for more than ten years; 33,3% had been principal for less than five years. Two of the thirteen principals were women.

The interviews lasted from approximately two hours to more than five hours. In addition, staff members were interviewed to ensure that the principals were indeed perceived by their own staff members, as well as their colleagues, to be outstanding. With one exception, this proved to be the case.

#### **4.2.1.2 Outstanding principals**

Both the administrators and their staff members identified the following characteristics of outstanding principals:

. Conscientiousness

Outstanding principals want to be principals and want to give their best to their jobs. They are unwilling to maintain the status quo and are always seeking ways to make the school a better place at which to learn and to work. They demand excellence of themselves and their staff members and usually get it.

. Enthusiasm

Outstanding principals are "doers and movers" with high energy levels. They set realistic goals for themselves and their schools and pursue them in an organised and enthusiastic manner. These principals maintain a high level of visibility within their schools and are usually regarded as the hardest working persons in their organisation.

. Sensitivity

Outstanding principals are good listeners. Because they tend to be caring and committed, they pay attention to their staff and frequently implement their suggestions. Outstanding administrators are willing to serve others when this is required, and receive good service from their staff members in return.

. Knowledge

Outstanding principals are perceived to be knowledgeable by their staff members, students and parents. This perception fosters confidence in the principal's abilities to be an excellent administrator.

. Objectivity

Outstanding principals are perceived as fair, objective persons who do not play favourites with staff, students or community leaders. They ensure that everyone understand the school's rules and then enforce them firmly and consistently.

- . Communication

Outstanding principals maintain open lines of communication with all members of staff.

#### **4.2.1.3 Knowledge/skill areas of outstanding administrators**

Outstanding principals appear to be masters of a variety of theoretical and practical aspects of school administration. Their knowledge and skills can be divided into two major categories: academic knowledge/skills, and knowledge and skills with regard to interpersonal relationships.

The following have been identified as the most important areas of academic knowledge and skills:

- . curriculum development and implementation;
- . programme evaluation procedures;
- . personnel evaluation procedures;
- . organisational communication (oral and written);
- . instructional methods and materials;
- . time management.

The most important skills and knowledge with regard to areas of interpersonal relationships are the following:

- . getting along with staff, students and community members;
- . knowing the power structure of the community served by the school;
- . knowing his own strengths and limitations;

- knowing when and how to be assertive without alienating important constituencies.

#### **4.2.1.4 Activities and behaviour of outstanding administrators**

Interviewees were asked the question: "What do outstanding principals do that makes them outstanding?" A summary of the recurring themes in their responses is given below:

- Outstanding principals develop and maintain a healthy climate in which to work and learn.

The attitude of the principal tends to filter down and pervade the entire school. Principals who have high expectations of themselves, their staff members, and their students are likely to -

- solicit staff and student input into decision-making;
- emphasise the positive activities and accomplishments of staff and students.

Principals who model and reinforce co-operative behaviour and encourage staff and students to feel good about their school, will establish an atmosphere of mutual trust and co-operation that will enhance everyone's performance.

- Outstanding principals emphasise good instruction.

The principals who were identified as outstanding had been able to establish their leadership ability by being aware of new developments and improvements in curriculum. Poor principals overdelegate responsibility for the curriculum, whereas outstanding principals regard the curriculum as one of their most important areas of concern.

- . Outstanding principals regard personnel evaluation as an effective means of instructional improvement.

They take time during the year to observe and evaluate classroom performance. Instead of using the evaluation process as a threat to a teacher's job security, outstanding principals try to recognise those things a teacher does well and work with the teacher to develop a systematic plan for improving weak areas.

- . Outstanding principals seek means to help their staff members grow professionally.

Not only do outstanding principals make an effort to stay abreast of developments in the profession themselves, they also encourage staff members to join professional organisations and to attend job-related workshops and conferences. In addition, they help plan meaningful in-service activities.

- . Outstanding principals communicate effectively with all constituents.

Rather than withholding information, outstanding principals communicate freely with staff members, students, community members and colleagues. Sharing information and keeping people informed of relevant news – good or bad – were two of the activities most frequently mentioned by those interviewed. Honesty and straightforward communication were named as keys to effective communication.

- . Outstanding principals know and accept their own strengths and limitations.

The persons interviewed recognised that even outstanding principals have limitations. The quality they suggested that made principals outstanding was the ability to recognise and accept these limitations and not let their egos become obstacles to getting a job done.

- . Outstanding principals recognise and reinforce others who do outstanding work.

They are not afraid to give credit to those whose accomplishments reflect positively on the school.

They do this by -

- sending letters of commendation;
- submitting news items to local publications;
- having an awards programme.

Outstanding principals know that success breeds success and are happy to acknowledge and share in the success of others.

#### **4.2.1.5 Activities that reduce an administrator's effectiveness**

Those interviewed stated that the following characteristics, activities, attitudes and behaviours tended to reduce the effectiveness of a principal:

- . insisting on autocratic decision-making procedures;
- . becoming desk or office bound;
- . relying too heavily on "the way we've always done things";
- . being insecure in the role of principal;
- . being easily swayed or influenced by groups;
- . accepting too many responsibilities and delegating too few;
- . overreacting to trivial incidents;

- . lacking knowledge of school programmes/curriculum;
- . failing to find time for supervision and classroom observations.

#### **4.2.1.6 Areas where training is needed**

Principals interviewed indicated that they were most in need of in-service training in the following areas:

- . instructional methodologies;
- . communication skills;
- . discipline/classroom management techniques;
- . personnel evaluation;
- . curriculum planning and assessment.

The outstanding principals who were interviewed suggested that the most effective means of in-service development for principals would be to convene regular round-table discussions among principals at all levels. The purpose of these discussions would be to share problems, concerns and accomplishments, particularly in the areas of curriculum and instruction. They also recommended that programmes should be initiated in which principals can teach other principals and that exchange programmes for principals and faculty members should be formalised and expanded.

#### **4.2.1.7 Summary of research**

Based on the observations and comments of those interviewed, it is evident that outstanding principals are knowledgeable in all areas related to the educational process, namely administration, supervision, curriculum and planning. Outstanding principals have the ability to relate to all kinds of people, to build a sense

of cohesion and a family feeling among staff and students and to create a climate in which people can work productively and learn effectively (Grace et al., 1987:72).

#### **4.2.1.8 Control versus autonomy in school autonomy**

The fundamental problem of school management is establishing a balance between controlling the school building while granting teachers their professional right of autonomy. This problem is generic to the management of all salaried professionals. In the case of teaching, virtually all work takes place within a bureaucracy, where teachers serve both as professionals and employees.

Aside from autonomy, professionals are usually identified by extensive study and commitment to their profession. They also identify with other professionals who are willing to make a lifelong commitment to professional standards and values.

Unfortunately, the administrative imperatives of the educational bureaucracy include the establishment of rules and regulations that act as the basis of the control exerted through a command hierarchy. This sets the stage for a clash of cultures between managers and professionals.

American schools are now trying to establish a mutually acceptable mix of teacher autonomy and administrative control. They aim to do this by breaking down the problem into the following three parts:

- . strategic autonomy;
- . administrative autonomy;
- . operational autonomy.

#### Strategic autonomy

This entails the freedom to select broad goals and policies. It is exercised by superintendents, school boards and central office staff, who are responsible for formulating the mission of the school and are accountable to the wider community.

#### Administrative autonomy

This is exercised by the principal and staff who have the responsibility to manage the activities of a unit within the system and who are accountable to the system's executives and to the unit's users (the parents).

#### Operational autonomy

This includes the freedom for each teacher, once a goal or problem has been targeted, to criticise and analyse it. However, this has to be done within organisational resource and strategic constraints. Teachers who exercise this autonomy are accountable to the school administration (Raelin, 1989:28).

### **4.3 Britain**

Growth in the field of educational management has been as phenomenal in Britain as in the USA. The CCEA (Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration) was founded in 1970. In 1978 a CCEA meeting of educational managers was attended by the USA, members of the Commonwealth and twelve non-Commonwealth countries. The head office of the CCEA is situated in Australia and the CCEA publishes a small newspaper, Newsletter. Since 1973 the CCEA has also been publishing Studies in Educational Administration.

In 1971 the BEAS (British Educational Administration Society) was founded, but the name was soon changed to BEMAS (British Educational Management and Administration Society). BEMAS publishes a newspaper, Educational Management and Administration. The leading figures in BEMAS are George Baron, More Lydd Hughes, William Taylor, Ron Glatter and Len Watson (Nell, 1981:47).

Another important development in Britain was the establishment in 1971 of the RMCs (Regional Management Centres). Twelve RMCs were created and they offer degree courses, diploma courses and special courses (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:108).

#### **4.3.1 Trends and innovation in educational management in the UK**

*Abstract:* Educational management is a relatively new subject in the university curriculum. Its content is often shaped by theoretical developments while little consideration is given to practical issues. Y.M. Karodia (lecturer, University of Durban-Westville) examines those factors in British society which have influenced educational management.

Interest in educational management in the UK has increased since the mid-1970s with the work of more senior staff of schools receiving greater attention. Prior to 1983 local education authorities (LEAs) organised induction courses for newly appointed head teachers, while staff with managerial responsibilities made their own arrangements in an attempt to extend and refine their skills. School management training was

developed on a formal and systematic basis only after 1983, with the Department of Education and Science choosing to concentrate its activities on the needs of head teachers and senior staff. At present, educational management as a discipline in the UK does not form part of initial teacher training at universities, but has to be studied later by those keen to advance their professional careers and those wanting to keep abreast of change. Within this context of change, faculties of education are becoming increasingly proactive, as opposed to remaining reactive, in taking the initiative in educational issues. In the past both universities and schools responded reactively to change because there was no alternative. This is no longer the case.

Currently, education in the UK is preoccupied with the Education Reform Act of 1988 which some British educational commentators refer to by the acronym GERBIL. Several developments indicate emergent trends in educational organisation and practice which are certain to influence educational management. These are the devolution of power, the demands for a correlation between education and vocation, increasing assertive action in the interests of minority communities and increasing demands for staff development.

The devolution of power with regard to financial management in schools is firmly entrenched in the 1988 Education Reform Act. In terms of the Act the bulk of school expenditure will be delegated by the LEAs to individual schools. The Secretary of Education expects that governing bodies will themselves delegate responsibility for the day-to-day management of schools to head

teachers. In addition to their day-to-day professional managerial responsibilities, head teachers will now have the added responsibility of managing funds, which in many schools amount to several million pounds.

The 1988 Education Reform Act had tremendous implications for staff development. It shifted the role of the LEAs from an administrative and managerial one to a professional and strategic one.

The latter roles were then delegated to schools. Head teachers were allowed to set aside five days each year (called Baker days after the Secretary of Education, Sir Kenneth Baker) to promote in-service training and staff development. "Twilight" and "weekend" courses have also been introduced.

Staff development programmes focus primarily on teaching, learning and school management. Teachers are allowed to identify their own problems and to select courses accordingly.

### **4.3.2 Recruitment and management development for primary headship**

(Paper by Alan A. Coulson, senior lecturer in Education Management, Education Management Centre, North East Wales Institute of Higher Education, Cartifle, Wrexham)

#### **4.3.2.1 Introduction**

One of the major recent developments in educational planning has been the infusion of funding into programmes of management training with a consequential increase in provision by

institutions of higher education. It is clear that there is as yet no general consensus as to what education management is about and that there is little agreement with regard to training approaches. In some ways, this is not bad because an oversimplified, unitary approach is unlikely to suit the needs of different sectors and clients.

If management courses are to have a chance of fulfilling the expectations of increasing the confidence and managerial competence of heads and teachers, - thereby improving the school system - the whole issue of management education for educational staff must be examined in depth.

Coulson considers two interlinked areas of concern, namely career development for teachers, especially a recruiting programme for principals, and management training. With regard to the latter, modification of the framework of expectations and demands of headship, which determine how head teachers carry out their functions, is considered an essential component of the preparation of individuals for management positions.

It is generally accepted that the head teacher is central to school effectiveness. The appointment of heads is acknowledged by LEAs. In 1985 considerable attention was given to the management training of serving principals. However, since the leadership style and motivational patterns of leaders or managers are relatively stable characteristics of the individual, training based on modifying leadership behaviour may be of limited value. What is more effective is careful matching of the person to the

situation. In other words, a person is more likely to succeed when put into situations which call for his particular management style. If there is validity in this claim, post-appointment training for principals is unlikely to yield substantial dividends in terms of managerial improvement or school effectiveness. This is all the more reason for paying careful attention to analysing the task of the principal and refining recruitment procedures. Increased attention to the overall management needs of schools might also lead away from the present primary-school management model of overdependence on an omnipresent and all-providing principal, towards the recruitment and development of balanced teams of professionally experienced peers. Such teams will contribute a range of complementary abilities and skills towards the management of the school.

This is not to say that education in management does not have a valuable part to play in school improvement. But, in order to be successful, training has to be integrated with an overall management development strategy for the teaching profession as a whole, and suitable programmes must be available to staff at different stages in their careers and different levels of seniority. Education for different positions within schools, including that of headship, would best precede teachers' appointment to managerial positions and prepare them for these jobs. It should also be linked to advancement procedures and provide support, guidance and development after promotion.

Short courses for primary school principals and senior staff are attractive for the three principle reasons given below:

- . they are concerned with finding ways of coping with new and changing demands in contemporary education;
- . they offer an opportunity to share ideas and practices with colleagues;
- . the course participant, if he is not already a principal hopes that attendance at such a course will increase his chances of promotion.

Unfortunately, many of those who participate in such programmes seem to do so mainly because they are in search of factual information and in the hope of learning how to display certain forms of behaviour which have come to be associated with leadership. In other words, the implicit assumption persists that leadership can be "injected" into people; that a leadership style can be assumed and performed. The person who follows this approach in learning about his relationships with colleagues, and particularly subordinates, tends to think in terms of shaping his behaviour in accordance with some leadership "model"; he seeks to join the ranks of that section of the educational community which is seen as demonstrating proper leadership. The shortcoming of this attitude is its incompleteness. In an unstable context where pluralistic and conflicting demands are made upon schools and those who manage them, principals can no longer simply perform; they must keep on learning and changing.

Courses for principals in the UK normally embrace a variety of activities, such as learning how other principals run their schools, learning theories of organisation and management, receiving advice and direction from experienced practitioners, inspectors and advisers and working on case studies or doing simulation exercises. Although all these practices are valuable, they are schematised, generalised and largely unconnected with the principal as a person.

In most of these courses traditional educational methods, such as lectures, discussions and exercises are used. This seems to have two implications: one, that the course participant is defined as a recipient; he is the object, not the subject, of the endeavour; and two, that it is acceptable to discuss tactics, strategies, policies and practices while taking only peripherally into account the persons involved. Attention is concentrated on socialising the individual into the leadership role, the acquisition of ideas and knowledge that principals "should" have and on displaying appropriate "head-like" attitudes and behaviour. The emphasis is therefore on adequate performance.

#### **4.3.2.2 Conclusion**

To summarise, Coulson says the following:

- . Given that the principal is generally accepted as the hub of the school, recruitment procedures for this vital position need to be much more rigorous and sophisticated.

- . Close analysis of the nature of the principal's work is seen as a prerequisite to improving recruitment processes.
- . Primary-school headship cannot be reduced to a set of prescriptive statements or a body of knowledge. Thus the diversity and subtle nature of much of the principal's work make it difficult to introduce improved working practices through traditional training methods with their mainly cognitive basis.

## **4.4 Japan**

Since the pivotal person in the administration of the Japanese educational system appears to be the principal, David B. Willis and Carol A. Bartell decided to begin their studies of Japanese educational management by examining principals' roles and responsibilities. Their research findings were published in the International Schools Journal, Volume 15, 1988.

In the USA numerous empirical studies have been conducted on the characteristics of administrators who are perceived as effective. Some of these studies presented principals who argue for a tough approach, while others presented principals who favour a humanistic view.

### **4.4.1 The position of the principal**

The principal is an important symbolic figure in the school, an embodiment of its traditions and character.

Stern and distant, principals are superparent figures and yet, at the same time, they are symbolic of the intimate relationship that exists between Japanese teachers and students. The principal is considered the ultimate teacher. He or she has probably been chosen from the ranks, and is a senior teacher with years of teaching experience. Above all else, the principal's role is to mediate and articulate common goals among disparate groups.

Japanese principals enjoy what Americans may feel to be inordinately high status, depending on the academic standing of the high school. Respect for knowledge gives special meaning to the symbolic position of principal. The actual job of a principal is really more along the lines of a public relations officer, since he or she is the major representative of the school in the surrounding community.

As such, the principal has to garner in resources, ward off outside actions of potential danger to the school and communicate with parents.

#### **4.4.2 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of the study of Willis and Bartell was to answer the following questions with regard to principals in Japan:

- . What are the defining characteristics of excellent principals in Japan, especially in terms of behaviour, values and goals?

How do the themes of Japanese culture influence outstanding principals?

To determine why Japanese teachers seek to become principals, it is helpful to look at general points regarding personnel and employment in Japan. The way in which the Japanese deal with personnel matters at all levels undoubtedly lies at the heart of their educational success. In many ways the principal is the ultimate source of authority in the orchestration of interpersonal relationships.

The key words are trust and solidarity. Great emphasis is placed on social order and a common identity and purpose. Other important terms include dedication, high morale, motivation, obedience, discipline, acceptance and group centredness. Intense personal commitment to the common endeavour is paramount and is inculcated at an early stage.

Most Japanese principals do not seek to become a principal. This may seem astonishing to those attuned to the Western system of ambition and ladder-climbing, but it is fully in accord with the highly centralised Japanese workplace with its emphasis on group effort. Whereas the primary commitment of the Western principal may be to his career, the Japanese principal is primarily committed to the group to which he belongs.

Salary is not even mentioned as a reason for seeking the position of principal. This partly reflects the fact that administrators earn only 10 to 20 per cent more than teachers with the same experience, but it also reflects a traditional

Japanese modesty about the self. Even so, the responsibility which Japanese feel towards the nature of their work still comes first and the salary second. Naturally, this has an influence on how people look at their work and careers. Responses seem to centre on the idea of realising one's own educational ideals and leadership skills as well as working with others to promote educational excellence.

#### **4.4.3 Qualities of educational leadership**

Principals feel that relations with teachers are important, along with a moral character, warmth and consideration. The importance placed on relations with teachers indicates that this is a key factor in the leadership role. Good teachers are considered essential to learning and it is therefore important to select them carefully, encourage and facilitate their performance and lead them towards sound educational goals. Japanese principals spend many years in the classroom as teachers, perfecting their own teaching skills. They are respected first of all for their teaching abilities.

#### **4.4.4 Effective schools and instructional leadership**

The main point of instructional leadership is to develop and foster effective schooling. An effective school has a positive climate. Students feel good about attending the school and teachers feel good about teaching there. The entire staff co-operate to foster a caring attitude. This is a safe and orderly environment. The administrative function (to support the faculty

and the staff and to serve students) is carried out well. There is a wide involvement in decision-making, which includes input from the faculty and staff as well as parents and the community.

#### **4.4.5 Concluding remarks**

Although there are many differences between Japan and the West, one of the most compelling findings of the research under discussion is the remarkable similarity in what constitutes and characterises effective schools. The strategies for achieving effective schools may differ from, for example those in America where principals are more directly involved in the day-to-day running of the school, while Japanese principals rely heavily on teachers to perform these functions, but the end result, the effect on students in the classroom, is very similar. The Japanese example is, in this respect, a mirror of the best practices in the USA. Good schools and good instructional leadership in any cultural setting has one overriding goal, namely the single-minded pursuit of quality, both in education and in human relationships (Willis & Bartell, 1988:30).

### **4.5 A Canadian Experiment: A Practical Approach to Management Training for School Leaders** (Paper presented at the Seventh ATEE Conference, Birmingham, England by Peter James Murphy, Faculty of Education)

#### **4.5.1 The present state of affairs**

Throughout Canada the school system is being increasingly subjected to demands for accountability. Never in the past have schools been exposed to continual external pressures to fully

account for how they utilise their resources. As enrolment declines and inflation continues, these pressures intensify.

Over the past three decades, schools have increased in complexity and size. In the 1950s most teachers had some personal contact, whether professional, cultural or social, with the senior administrators of the district. But, at present the educational system has become so large, that social services, bureaucracies and administrators have become distant from the teachers and their conditions of work. Therefore it comes as no surprise that school administrators report that the most common cause of stress is staff management. Furthermore, many find that other types of interpersonal relations, such as dealing with students and discussing problems with parents, generate considerable conflict. Individuals (whether they be parents, teachers or students) are no longer willing to accept administrators' directives without questioning them. Therefore, school administrators are forever finding themselves in conflict situations.

If administrators are to maintain or extend their present sphere of influence in the educational system, it is imperative that they exhibit proactive rather than reactive leadership behaviour. However, before they can respond effectively to the challenges facing them, many administrators need to be intellectually stimulated and professionally rejuvenated. There are very few professional development programmes that provide them with the

dynamic learning experience they require to cope effectively with the consequences of advances in technology, social reforms and planned educational change.

#### **4.5.2 Preparation for administration**

In Canada most preparation programmes for educational administrators are offered by universities. After doing a series of graduate courses and writing an examination or thesis, candidates are awarded a masters' degree, usually in educational administration. In the late sixties and early seventies, many of these programmes "placed a heavy reliance on a practical approach" (Peach, 1975:262).

In many ways the training offered by universities, which is the appropriate term for learning experiences provided, was inappropriate for performing the new responsibilities assigned to administrators. Wilson (1977:33) accurately described the changing climate in education during that period:

The reformers of the sixties who seemed to have wind of that period's exhilarating mood of change were to find by the turn of the decade that the formerly prevailing wind was coming from a decidedly less favourable direction. Retrenchment became the order of the day. From a point where there seemed to be money for buildings, teachers' salaries, educational research and development, and such like, all of a sudden the well seemed to have run dry. The excitement of the late sixties was replaced by an atmosphere of disillusionment.

The training of administrators in North America is in considerable disarray. One of the major reasons for this state of affairs is that the learning experiences offered to administrators tend to focus on the technical aspects of management. According to Hodgkinson (1978:5) management refers to those aspects which are more routine, definitive, programmatic and susceptible to quantitative methods. Those involved in the training experiences usually enjoy it. However, it actually does little to assist them in resolving the human relations problems generated by change or in deriving innovative strategies for coping with contraction.

If educational executives are to provide school systems with the effective leadership they need, preparation programmes must devote equal attention to administration management. Administration is often considered to be primarily concerned with the formulation of purpose, values and human relations. Therefore, executives must be educated rather than trained.

Traditionally, educational administrators have been extremely conservative in their actions. An incremental approach to decision-making was usually adopted. Incrementalism ensures the general maintenance of the status quo. This means that conflict is minimised, stability continues and the political system is preserved.

### **4.5.3 A co-operative approach to professional development**

In 1979, the University of Pretoria initiated a graduate co-operative programme for practising administrators. Management and administration received equal attention. The programme was of fourteen month's duration and consisted of three principal components, namely:

- . academic courses;
- . an administrative internship;
- . an applied research study.

Outstanding field administrators as well as renowned scholars were invited to provide instruction in their areas of expertise. For two months, the students studied educational finance, educational planning and the governance of education. In the remaining four months they were exposed to administrative concepts and theory, personnel management, planned change and philosophy of administration.

After completing the academic requirements of the programme, students embarked on a six-month administrative internship. As part of their responsibilities, students were required to conduct applied research for their sponsors. The problems they had to investigate tended to be complex, politically sensitive and related to new policies. Most students reported that this study was the most challenging task they had undertaken in their professional careers.

As part of their "core" studies, all students were required to register for a course in the philosophy of administration. The primary purpose of this was to encourage students to do self-analysis. After completing the exercise many students reported that they had increased their understanding of themselves. This seemed to give them more confidence for coping with the unknown.

#### **4.5.4 Concluding remarks**

If educational systems are to respond to the educational consequences of rapid technological change and contemporary social reform, a new breed of administrators will be required. These administrators must be knowledgeable with regard to administrative theory, they must be politically astute, able to facilitate change and be competent at resolving conflict.

Many existing preparation programmes, both in Europe and USA, do not offer administrators the learning experiences they need to fulfil the new roles assigned to them or the multitude of unique management issues they are expected to resolve. New professional development programmes are required which will assist administrators to manage change effectively.

#### **4.5.5 Managerial styles and perceived effectiveness of principals (A Newfoundland study by Wayne Eastman)**

This project sought to determine the perceived effectiveness of different managerial styles of high school principals in Newfoundland as judged by school board members. The question

whether men and women in similar positions were considered equally effective was also studied.

#### **4.5.5.1 Background**

This study was concerned with two types of managerial styles, namely the task-centred style and the relation-centred style. The orthodox viewpoint held in the past considered these options to be diametrically opposed.

After a review of the literature on leadership style and effectiveness, two relevant questions came to the fore: Is there a leadership style that will be effective in all situations? When is a task-oriented or a relation-oriented leader needed to ensure effective group dynamics?

Inherent in most studies that compare male and female leadership effectiveness, is the concept of stereotyping. The very small number of female administrators is ascribed to sexual stereotyping and studies have been done to substantiate this premise. Men were deemed more qualified than women with the same objective qualifications for a job traditionally associated with a male incumbent; the effect was reversed in typically female jobs (Adkinson, 1981:343).

Are men more effective administrators than women? Studies tend to support the premise that women are equally as or more effective than men. However there are significantly fewer female administrators than male administrators. Therefore, it is

necessary to comprehend the gap between research and reality. The following statistics reflect the situation in Newfoundland. Fourteen per cent of principals and 7% of vice-principals at senior high school are women . At junior high school level, women constitute 10% of principals and there are no female vice-principals. At elementary school level, 23% of principals and 30% of vice-principals are women (Lewis, 1988:9).

These statistics support the perceived effectiveness of women administrators in this province considering that women comprise 53% of the teaching population. Whether this inequality is primarily related to sexual stereotyping or to other factors has not been significantly researched in the Newfoundland educational milieu.

#### **4.5.5.2 Results and findings**

From this study, the only variable relevant to rating the effectiveness of principals was management style. The management style preferred by school board personnel was the person-centred approach. Thirty seven per cent of the sample rated the task-centred principal as unsatisfactory while 22,7% rated the person-centred principal as unsatisfactory. Furthermore, only 13% rated the task-centred principal as competent.

A further breakdown of management styles by rating was done to see if there were any differences between the sexes. Male and female respondents rated the styles in a similar manner, both demonstrating a definite bias towards the person-centred style.

There was no perceived difference in managerial effectiveness between male or female principals.

#### 4.5.5.3 Conclusion

It was evident from this study that a significant number of the respondents preferred a person-centred leadership approach.

The bias can possibly be explained as follows:

- . Education is a profession where co-operation between staff and principal is necessary to maintain the status quo. In other words, the teacher-centred style is most likely to ensure principal effectiveness.
- . Another reason may lie with the "socialisation of educators" theory. In the majority of instances, the respondents were educated at Memorial University, Newfoundland, and hence serving school board personnel were placed in an educational environment where similar learning experiences could be obtained.
- . The qualifications of Newfoundland teachers may also have affected the selection process. At present, most teachers in this province possess at least one degree. It is therefore possible that board personnel view the authoritarian leadership style as inappropriate and consequently prefer a co-operative approach. Given the increase in teacher

qualifications and the resulting professional growth, many teachers are equally or better qualified than the principals with whom they work.

Before this study, one might have hypothesised that women and men in similar roles would not be found to be equally effective. However, no gender differences were found in this respect. The study indicates that there may be other reasons why women fill so few administrative positions. Administrative disparities occur for a myriad of reasons, including social expectations, career commitment, cultural traditions and family obligations. The inequalities present in the current decision-making process is even more pronounced when one considers that 53% of Newfoundland teachers are women, but that only 12% of educational leaders are women (Eastman, 1990:15).

## 4.6 Saudi Arabia

*Abstract:* This study, undertaken by Mahmoud Abdulla Saleh and Mohammed Othman Kashmeeri of King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, explores the role of the school administrator and its relationship to job related stress and dissatisfaction.

Stress is an occupational hazard of school administrators and a part of their work lives because of the multi-role they play. They are bombarded daily with stress-producing catalysts from different sources. Administrators lead hectic lives full of frequent interruptions, unscheduled meetings, conflict situations, petty annoyances and a mass of never-ending paperwork. This

administrative stress may lead to job dissatisfaction that may in turn, increase along with the greater complexity of modern education.

Although it has not been possible to establish consistent empirical relationship between job satisfaction and performance, it is generally assumed that workers who are not under excessive stress and are satisfied with their work roles will be more productive. Motivation lies at the root of this assumption. One conducts oneself in a certain manner in order to fulfil certain needs. Once these needs have been met, the result is satisfaction.

#### **4.6.1 Research on stress**

Much of the present literature on stress among school administrators point to the presence of role conflict.

##### **4.6.1.1 The study of Swent and Gmelch**

In a study of 1 800 school administrators, Swent and Gmelch found the five foremost stress-producing factors to be the following:

- . complying with state, federal and organisational rules and policies;
- . meetings that take up too much time;
- . trying to complete reports and other paperwork on time;

- . trying to gain public approval and/or financial support for school programmes;
- . trying to resolve conflicts between the school and parents.

#### **4.6.1.2 The study of Brimm**

In his study of 454 Tennessee principals, Brimm found that situations perceived by the principals as stressful to be largely related to their administrative duties. These principals said that complying with rules was their most stressful task. Making decisions concerning students and colleagues, evaluation of staff members, and attempts to resolve conflicts between the school and parents were also named as stress producers.

#### **4.6.1.3 The study of Wilson**

Wilson sought to identify the primary attitudes and habits of high-tension principals as well as those of low tension principals. He found that although the personal health and living habits of high-tension principals were generally not as good as those of low-tension principals, the major differences were with regard to administrative attitudes, opinions and perceptions. High-tension principals experienced feelings of emotional strain and insecurity.

#### **4.6.1.4 The study of Vetter**

Vetter found that psychological stress, including reduced job satisfactions and dysfunctional behaviour, often occurs when principals experience either role conflict or role overload; where an administrator realises that he does not have enough time and

energy to do everything that is expected of him; or where a leader acknowledges a lack of sufficient expertise or leadership flexibility to meet particular demands.

#### **4.6.1.5 The study of Herzberg and Schmidt**

Herzberg and Schmidt found that the major sources of dissatisfaction among school administrators were their interpersonal relationships with supervisors, subordinates and peers.

#### **4.6.1.6 The study of Frieson, Holdaway and Rice**

These researchers found the following five sources of job dissatisfaction to be the most prominent among Canadian principals:

- . administration policies;
- . workload;
- . a lack of funds which leads to larger teacher-pupil ratios and general frustration among staff;
- . attitudes of society;
- . a lack of physical facilities.

#### **4.6.1.7 The study of Schmidt**

In a study of 74 educational administrators, Schmidt found interpersonal relations with subordinates, policy and administration, interpersonal relations with superiors and interpersonal relations with peers to be the primary sources of dissatisfaction.

#### **4.6.1.8 The study of Iannone**

Iannone found achievement and recognition to be the greatest sources of satisfaction and also the greatest sources of dissatisfaction.

#### **4.6.2 Conclusion drawn by Saleh and Kashmeeri**

It appears that Saudi administrators are experiencing job-related stress similar to that of their Western colleagues. One could conclude that the role of the school administrator has inherent stressors that cut across international boundaries and cultural differences.

A lack of physical facilities was reported by headmasters as being a primary source of stress, since Saudi Arabia has recently been rapidly expanding educational opportunities within its borders.

Another area reported as a significant source of job-related stress was professional interaction. This includes disciplining students and handling conflicts with teachers, parents and superiors.

It has been assumed that significant job-related stress is likely to result in job dissatisfaction. Thirty per cent of Saudi headmasters reported experiencing job-related stress frequently or very often, and 24% reported being dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with integral elements of their job.

The study of Saleh and Kashmeeri show that stress has an influence on job satisfaction. It is a recognised fact that although human beings do not display consistent behaviour, one can generalise about relationships and attempt to make accurate predictions (Saleh, 1987:101).

#### **4.7 The Former Soviet Union: The Teacher and Bureaucracy: Some Considerations Concluded from a Case Study**

(From a study by Wolfgang Mitter, Deutsches Institut for International Paddagogische Forschung, Frankfurt. Published in Compare, 17 (1), 1987)

##### **4.7.1 Identifying the problem area**

When investigating the teacher's position within his socio-political environment, one has to focus on education and training as well as social status. There is abundant evidence of the significant influence that these two factors exert on the teacher's self-awareness and the quality of his professional work. However,

the impact of job satisfaction must not be underestimated, because it dominates the everyday activities of teachers and their relationships with various parties, including head-teachers, colleagues, parents and, above all, pupils. Job satisfaction can also be formulated as follows:

- . What is the scope of autonomy teachers can claim in using syllabuses, textbooks and other teaching aids in their classrooms?;
- . What are the possibilities of their devoting their energy to extra-curricular activities in the "school" and "social environment" as workplaces equivalent to the classroom?

Notwithstanding the continuing need for analytical investigation of the teacher's position in society, the present study is based on the alternative approach of a case study focused on the success and failure of an educational pilot project in the former Soviet Union. The study has resulted from the following three considerations:

- . The former Soviet Union definitely fell into the category of countries whose coherence is largely dependent on bureaucratic networks. Soviet policy-makers had confidence in the efficacy of a bureaucracy which was strictly organised in the form of a hierarchical ladder reaching from the central party and government bodies at the top, down to the administrative units at the local level. It goes without saying that the education system was an integral part of this network.

- . Since the beginning of 1984, the Soviet education system had been undergoing, ambitious and far-reaching reform which emphasised (or re-emphasised) the teacher's role in the innovation process.
- . The story in which the case study is rooted seems to be illuminating as such, since both its plot and conclusions drawn, certainly cross national borders.

Since it is the principal purpose of this paper to attend to the concreteness of the teacher's situation, the discussion of his social status occupied a secondary place. Excluding it altogether, however, would overdo the chosen orientation. Some striking sociological features of Soviet teachers are the following:

- . Entering the teaching profession is considered an indicator of social assent in general and as a career pattern for middle- and lower-class women. Taken as a whole, the teacher's social prestige is rather low, primarily because of two reasons: one, his long working hours (up to 60 hours per week, including extra-curricular requirements), and two, a drop in salary scale. Special grants have done nothing to significantly improve this negative trend.
- . The low social status of teachers contributes to the unattractiveness of the profession. There is a shortage of applicants and school authorities seem to have enormous difficulties to attract youngsters with "pedagogical motivations". Inspectors and head-teachers in rural areas where special "publicity campaigns" have been started, have recommended their weakest school-leavers for teacher training.

- . The attractiveness of the teaching profession for middle- and lower-class women explains the tendency towards "feminisation" - which is widespread in industrial countries. The Soviet variant, however, deserves special mention, in so far as "feminisation" comprises not only primary, but also secondary education: In 1983 74% of teachers and 36% of principals were women. These trends mirror widespread stereotyped attitudes towards gender. Another consideration is the negative impact on the "school ethos" which is said to result from the unbalanced gender representation among teaching staff (Mitter, 1987:60).

#### **4.8 An Agenda for Education Management in South Africa**

(Exploratory study into educational management practice in South Africa by P.C. Westhuizen, Potchefstroom University)

Although this chapter so far has dealt primarily with current international trends in educational management, the researcher decided to look at developments in South Africa as well so that a clearer comparative picture could emerge with a view to assessment of the local situation. The problem discussed by Van der Westhuizen is that present structures for the managerial development of school principals in South Africa lag far behind those in the rest of the world. Much of the current managerial development activity is unlikely to achieve lasting and meaningful improvements in schools.

Research in South Africa during the past 15 years has shown an evolutionary change in the task of the school principal, with emphasis on management as the main task. This tendency is obvious from the description of the school principal's task in terms of management as it appears in the New Guidelines for General School Organisation published by the Cape Education

Department (1982) and also the description given by the Transvaal Education Department (1986). There are also indications that the extent and complexity of the principal's management task alone could take up all his time. The primary concern is not whether a school principal has a management task, but how well equipped he is for his management work. Principals need to acquire certain basic knowledge and skills, preferably before taking up the principalship. It is generally accepted that the efficacy of educational management action is a deciding factor in the effectivity of a school. If the private sector expects entrepreneurship from its managers, then the teaching corps can rightfully expect entrepreneurship from school principals, or renewal in schools through management expertise. It can be concluded that the qualification, selection and managerial development of school principals require attention.

## **4.9 Concluding Remarks**

What is the relevance of overseas developments to our own situation? The shifting political scene in South Africa places added responsibility on educationists to meet the challenges of the future. It is therefore important to understand the main issues which affect educational management. These are the following:

- . In the past South Africa has been struggling to redefine its educational framework, particularly as a result of the challenges mounted against the educational system by disadvantaged communities. There is now a consistent rethinking of the form and content of education itself. It

has affected every aspect of the provision of education. This is the context in which educational management has to be viewed.

Are the management issues in education the prerogative of departments of educational management only? Should other departments in the faculties of education not also concern themselves with questions about the management of the curriculum, the management of resources and the management of change?

Careful attention has to be paid to the way in which decisions are made and implemented. This arises from the need to be sensitive to the needs of the educational constituency. South African educational managers have much to learn from overseas countries. Sound educational management can play a vital role in the development of a more relevant and acceptable education system for South Africa.

In the next chapter, the researcher examines research conducted on educational management in Indian schools.

## CHAPTER 5

### SOUTH AFRICAN RESEARCH PROJECTS WHICH HAVE A DIRECT BEARING ON EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT STYLE

#### 5.1 Introduction

Educational managers in South Africa and especially researchers in this field of study must take cognisance of the latest research in overseas countries. Moreover, it is of the utmost importance to take note of modern trends, in educational management especially of the successful innovations in Great Britain and the United States of America. Some states in the USA are constantly experimenting with new and exciting innovations to improve managerial effectiveness and these new projects should be studied and evaluated with a view to implementing them in South Africa. Furthermore, the South African educational manager must be conversant with the latest publications from the desks of leading overseas exponents in the field because their research and recommendations can stimulate relevant innovative approaches with regard to current educational management problems experienced in South Africa.

There are however, certain problems and pitfalls inherent in using findings of overseas research projects situ-situ and verbatim in the South African educational management situation. The same inherent danger applies to the vast number of overseas publications and magazine articles on educational management – even if they have a strong backing of scientific

research findings. The single biggest problem with all overseas literature is that a large percentage of the findings, conclusions and recommendations are just not relevant or applicable to present-day South African educational management. The other important factor that must be borne in mind, is that there are a great number of important and even crucial variables in the South African scenario, which makes situ-situ implementation in practice very risky and sometimes altogether unwise. Moreover, policy makers in South Africa may be doing the local educational management system a grave injustice and may even be accused of "Weltfremd" approach if overseas models are implemented chapter and verse, without any adaptation and modification according to the important variables of the South African educational management scenario.

The abovementioned arguments accentuate the importance of local research projects because findings and recommendations from such research usually take local conditions and important managerial variables into account. For this reason research projects carried out by South African education departments, research councils (e.g. the Human Sciences Research Council) and institutes for educational research affiliated to South African universities (e.g. UNISA's Institute for Educational Research) have a direct bearing on the present day South African educational management scenario. Moreover postgraduate research projects of students in educational management have proved to be invaluable sources of information, especially if the researchers carried out an empirical investigation, or if a valid

qualitative research method was used in the study. These research projects are valuable to our country in that the findings and recommendations can be fruitfully implemented in educational management practice in order to improve and modernise the local educational system.

In this chapter the researcher looks at four recent, local research projects which are directly relevant to this study:

- . an investigation conducted by the Natal Education Department into role functions, management styles and, especially the workload of teachers;
- . an investigation into staff management and communication as managerial tasks of the heads of department at primary schools (unpublished M.Ed. thesis by Govindammah Ramdass);
- . a study on the academic, administrative, pastoral and professional development responsibilities of senior deputy principals and deputy principals in South Africa (unpublished M.Ed. thesis by Mahomed Farouk Bayat).
- . a research project on managerial communication for secondary school principals (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation by Chandravathie Shah);

## **5.2 An Investigation into the Workload of Level-1 Teachers in the Natal Education Department**

The workload of teachers was the main thrust of an investigation, conducted by the Natal Education Department, although the problems of stress, role function and management style in the teaching profession, as well as other related managerial issues were also addressed. The researcher considered it necessary to focus on certain aspects of this research project for the following reasons:

- . As far as it could be ascertained, it is the only research of its kind in South Africa conducted by an education department to gain insight into the nature and extent of teacher workload.
- . The general workload of a teacher can certainly affect his performance in the classroom. A heavy workload can stress on the teacher and this can have a negative impact on his relationship with the educational manager.

### **5.2.1 The relevance of this study to educational management**

The researcher is of the opinion that the abovementioned investigation conducted in 1985 is still relevant to present-day educational management. It can be argued that factors pertaining and affecting white teachers could certainly apply to Indian education.

The abovementioned study was motivated by the realisation that the country was entering a time of economic hardship, which was bound to affect the capacity of the government to finance education. It was apparent to the Director of Education in Natal at the time that this development would have both managerial and curricular implications, since it would be necessary for the department to make the most effective use of its teaching staff. Furthermore, it became necessary to analyse teacher workload in detail, so that administrators, policy-makers and curriculum developers would be able to assess the staff implications of their decisions.

This research also focuses on an analysis of teacher workload for the express purpose of gaining insight into the exact nature and extent of teacher workload, so as to facilitate properly informed decision-making. This research was extensive in that it involved 2 397 teachers in high schools and 1 152 teachers in 50% of the primary schools under the control of the Department (Source: letter dated 25/9/91 from C.J. Talbot to the Executive Director, Mr Olmesdahl, included in The Report).

### **5.2.2 Review of literature**

The researcher's first task was to undertake a literature study. The literature abounds with studies that show that throughout the world the general trend in the last decade has been a style of decision-making which resulted in increasing stress for the

classroom teacher, exacerbated by relatively poor salaries (Investigation into the workload of teachers in the Natal Education Department, p. 40. Hereafter referred to as The Report).

Times Educational Supplement (3 October 1986) reported that a survey undertaken in China revealed that 90% of secondary teachers in that country suffered from some form of chronic illness, such as high blood pressure. It drew a close parallel between poor health and excessive workload. Another article in the same journal depicts the number of resignations of primary and high school teachers as being a major threat to educational development in China.

In Britain reports have also pointed to worrying trends. In a survey undertaken in 1989 it was found that low status, stress and the heavy demands of the job contributed more to low teacher morale than did poor salaries (Times Educational Supplement, 2 June 1989 in The Report).

The extent of salary-related dissatisfaction varies from country to country, whereas problems related to stress and burn-out are becoming increasingly widespread. Being less easily quantifiable and measurable than issues such as salary and the size of classes, burn-out is an elusive phenomenon, but there can be little doubt that it is causing considerable concern in educational

circles. Major problems of stress and burn-out stemming from workload are cited in numerous studies from Britain, the United States, Spain and Australia (The Report: Workload of Teachers: 1991:4-5).

### 5.2.3 Teaching – A changing career

While it is not necessary to embark on a detailed account of the specific ways in which the scope of the teacher's professional role has expanded, it may be appropriate to cite a number of examples of ways in which teaching has become more professionalised and demanding in recent times:

- . In the past, subject matter was regarded as "fixed" and non-problematic. Moreover, the task of the teacher was defined largely in terms of transmitting content. In recent times, not only has the "knowledge explosion" led to the continual redefinition of what is considered relevant knowledge, but the concept of "classroom-based" curriculum development places the onus on the teacher to select content and methods in accordance with the needs of individuals in the class. Such judgements make enormous demands on the teacher's professional expertise, as does a style of teaching based on problem-solving, which makes the teacher a facilitator of learning or a learning manager.
- . Whereas pupils in the past were readily classified as being either "clever" and educable, or as incorrigible "differs" of whom little was expected, the professional paradigm now requires that all pupils develop to their maximum potential. Moreover, parental pressure for children's academic achievement continues to grow as education becomes an ever-increasing determinant of life chances and occupational opportunity.

- . Social change and increasing disintegration of family life have extended the teacher's responsibilities beyond academic teaching into the field of pastoral care. Educators are called on to educate the "whole" child far beyond the parameters of the classroom.
- . The emphasis on the cross-curricular approach has meant that the academic expertise demanded of teachers has extended beyond subject boundaries, into other subjects and field of learning such as moral education, curriculum extension and remedial work.

It could thus reasonably be concluded that the increased professional demands on the classroom teacher would be manifested primarily in the following two areas:

- . the qualitative nature of pupil-teacher interaction in the classroom;
- . additional work required of teachers outside of their time-tabled contact time (The Report: Workload of Teachers, 1991:7-9).

Since the relationship between the broadening of teachers' responsibilities and duties on the one hand and classroom performance on the other hand, is extremely difficult to research and quantify, there is little available evidence of whether or not academic standards have been affected. However, common sense makes it difficult to see how teachers who are overworked and under stress would be able to teach more effectively. Maintaining acceptable standards may be possible up to a point, but the important question is, "What is the critical point beyond which standards are likely to be impaired?"

#### **5.2.4 Aims of the research by the Natal Education Department**

The aims of the research were as follows:

- . to describe the pattern of activities which make up the workload of teachers during a typical week;
- . to analyse the interaction between factors which have a bearing on teacher workload.

#### **5.2.5 Some problems associated with an analysis of teacher workload**

Apart from the problems typically associated with the general workload of a classroom teacher, several respondents commented on the difficulty of clearly delimiting the time spent on working, as seemingly unrelated activities might prove to have a relevant and important professional significance, often in unexpected ways. Many teachers stressed the fact that the job of teaching is never finished. A typical response along these lines was that of a teacher who wrote the following:

I would like to add that it is very difficult to quantify a teacher's workload into comfortable time slots for analysis. Time is taken up merely thinking of ideas, new ways, exciting lessons, collecting materials and stories, discussing manifest problems of children and that which generates the manifest, trying to find solutions - ways to "get through" to those kids who are rebellious, lazy and apathetic. A teacher can never say "Now I'm finished for today," for a teacher's job is

never finished. There is always something to do, some area to improve, to investigate. There is always a workload for a dedicated teacher (The Report: Workload of Teachers: 1991:42).

There were also problems of overlapping which made it difficult to assign a certain activity to a single correct category or where an activity fell into more than one category. In these cases, teachers were requested either to choose the category that they considered to be most appropriate, or to divide the time spent among the relevant categories.

#### **5.2.6 Teachers' comments on their workload**

Despite the relatively small amount of a teacher's non-contact time taken up by general management functions, administrative duties (which were regarded as part of general school management) were most frequently cited by both high and primary school teachers as unnecessary tasks.

Surprisingly, complaints about administrative duties did not involve to any significant extent the amount of non-contact time they took up. In fact, teachers who spent more than average time in this category were marginally less likely to complain about administrative duties than those with a very light load. There is, however, evidence that many teachers carry out administrative duties during teaching time when they are supposed to devote their attention to their pupils. Thus these tasks probably take up far more of teachers' time than suggested by the data.

Seventy nine comma one per cent of respondents claimed that they had to perform unnecessary administrative tasks. Of these, 242 primary school respondents (representing 21% of the entire sample of primary school teachers) cited collecting money and handing out receipts and keeping a journal (which they regarded as a duplication of the forecast) as being unnecessary. Six hundred and forty two high school respondents (representing 27% of the entire sample of high school teachers) cited the same complaints, but added the tasks of typing and duplicating notes and examination papers. Despite the fact that general administrative tasks have been shown not to be very time consuming, it is clear that these are a source of intense irritation to a substantial number of teachers.

Comments by teachers on the subjective response section of the questionnaires seem to justify the view that the overriding concern of the teachers used as respondents in the research sample, appeared to be with the academic aspect of their work. With some reservation, they also seemed to regard co-curricular duties as important. In fact, any aspect of the job that is related to the development of pupils was seen as important. On the other hand, they appeared to be impatient with what were widely perceived as peripheral activities, such as administrative tasks.

Some typical complaints of teachers in connection with general management were the following:

- . Writing out class lists for secretaries when this information is available in the office. Making lists to please heads of department. Too much administration involved in keeping journals and recordbooks to suit the whims of inspectors and principals.
- . Most people are unaware of all the extras that teachers are expected to do in the line of duty. Recordkeeping, though tedious, is very often no accurate indication of the type of teacher a person is. Teachers spend too much time on "decorative" aspects that could be put to better use in the actual teaching situation: "I don't want to be and never intended being a secretary or other type of worker. I don't enjoy clerical duties. I want to educate human beings."
- . There is too much "checking up" on teachers, who are professional people and should be treated as such.
- . Teachers want to teach and dispense with the forms, circulars and other pressures which do not further the aim of educating children in the classroom.

When asked to suggest solutions to eliminate or decrease unnecessary administrative tasks, teachers' suggestions centred on the need to streamline and simplify administrative procedures and also, where possible, to make use of adult assistance either in the form of parent volunteers or extra secretarial help. The following two suggestions are examples of what teachers would prefer:

- . The format of record keeping should be simplified and standardised.
- . Forecasts and journals should be integrated into a single record of teaching activity as far as actual recording of work is concerned.

### **5.2.7 General observations about teaching**

The most common general observation on teaching as a job focused on the immense pressure on teachers, the multi-faceted nature of the work and the commonly reported feeling that a teacher's job is never finished. Twenty five comma four per cent of primary school teachers and 26,3% of high school teachers who responded in this open-ended section commented along these lines, making it by far the most common observation. Some of these comments are given below:

- . As a teacher I feel that there is always something else to be done. It is very difficult to say that one's work is completely "up to date". The very stressful nature of the profession often means that late-night schoolwork is detrimental to one's performance in the classroom.
- . Part of the stress of teaching is directly related to the fact that one is constantly interacting with people – parents, children, etc. The emotional demands of the job, apart from all the organisational demands, are huge. Although one can never "measure" this emotional toll, it is certainly a huge part of one's "workload".

- . It is always necessary to prioritise your workload as there is insufficient time to complete all the work that one would like to do. This frequently leads to feelings of frustration and great pressure as one almost constantly has to meet certain deadlines.
- . I have found that the only way to cope with my workload during the term is to spend long hours on preparation during holidays.
- . One is "pushed" to such a degree from all sides that the joy of teaching has disappeared. One feels guilty every time a senior walks past the classroom. Without enjoyment in one's job - and there is little joy left in the teaching profession - why should one in fact teach? (The Report: Workload of Teachers, 1991:138-139).

Another common complaint raised by teachers was the extent to which their job interfered with their private lives. Some 14,2% of primary school teachers and 18,1% of high school respondents commented along these lines. A significant number of these high school teachers were married. Typical comments included the following:

- . Generally, I work each day until 4 p.m. Most evenings I spend two to three hours on reading/discussing subjects (obviously not every night). Half of each Sunday is spent on preparation. The end result is that teaching has taken over my private life. I see no change in the situation, as regards government policy. Hence, rather than accepting a transfer to a school closer to my new home, I have resigned.

- . My main objection is that my family do not see enough of me because of evening commitments, and after-school duties. On occasion I am not available to see my (young) children to bed, let alone read bedtime stories to them, or spend time just communicating with them. As my husband also teaches, we are often like "ships passing in the night!"
- . I am married and the mother of young children. Because of the amount of marking I am compelled to do at home – every night as well as over weekends, my family life, and quality of my marriage is deteriorating more and more each year. I am fortunate to have such an understanding husband, but there are limits even to his patience. I am fast reaching the conclusion that teaching is meant for single people only.
- . It's unlikely that I would be able to carry this workload if were married (The Report: Workload of Teachers, 1991:129-140).

## **5.2.8 Recommendations**

The most important finding of this research is a scientific and realistic picture of the heavy workload carried by teachers who fall under the Natal Education Department.

### **5.2.8.1 Co-curricular activities**

The most obvious method of reducing teacher's workload would be to drastically reduce or even abandon teachers' involvement in sport and other co-curricular activities.

It is accepted that co-curricular activities is general, and organised school sport in particular, are of formative value to the education of "the whole child". It is also acknowledged that teachers' involvement in school sport is well entrenched and that it would be difficult to overthrow this traditional viewpoint and stereotyped perceptions of what teachers' duties entail. In addition, because of their increasing financial commitment to and involvement in schools, parents have become more powerful, and many would probably oppose a curtailed sport programme or decreased teacher involvement.

Nevertheless, the argument is not about the value of school sport and whether it should continue or not. It is about whether or not teachers should be expected to supervise and control school sport as part of their duties. Co-curricular activities cannot be regarded as essential to the educational programme provided and paid for by the state. Therefore the wisdom of requiring highly trained teachers to spend large parts of their time on co-curricular activities must be questioned. This is especially so in the case of the vast majority of teachers whose professional training is not in sport and who do not feel qualified to coach it effectively. In the past, when teachers' workload may not have been a problem, it may have been acceptable, but in the present climate, and with increasing demands on their time, the involvement of teachers in co-curricular activities urgently needs to be examined and re-assessed.

### **5.2.8.2 The marking of written work**

Written work is central to the teaching and learning of most school subjects. Nevertheless, there would seem to be real possibilities for reducing the time teachers spend on testing and assessment. A large number of respondents in the research conducted by the Natal Education Department complained of being required to undertake what they regarded as unnecessary marking, especially marking that served no purpose other than satisfying the demands and requirements of subject advisors and principals.

It was impossible to tell from the research whether these complaints were justified, but because this perception was so widespread, it ought to be investigated scientifically with a view to ensuring that teachers are not required to do unnecessary or purposeless work.

### **5.2.8.3 Administrative and clerical duties**

Administrative and clerical duties do not form a major part of the average teacher's duties. Nevertheless, they are by far the biggest cause of irritation among teachers. Respondents in this research project suggested that many of their administrative duties could be pruned or eliminated.

Furthermore, this is an area where parental involvement, either through volunteers or the employment of additional clerical staff, could help to contain teachers' workload within reasonable bounds. There is no reason why some routine tasks cannot be devolved to pupils.

Among the areas that require urgent attention are the following:

- . Administrative tasks, especially record keeping, carried out by junior primary teachers need to be reduced. They recorded significantly more time spent on these activities than all other respondents.
- . Steps should be taken to obviate unnecessary tasks such as copying class lists that could be duplicated and copying marks from one book to another.
- . Schools should be encouraged to computerise their records wherever possible.
- . In recent years there has been a proliferation of meetings which teachers are required to attend. These include full staff meetings, departmental meetings, subject meetings, standard meetings, seminars and in-service courses. These practices should be re-assessed. Indeed, a logical extension of the emphasis placed by the Natal Education Department on professional development would be simply to allow its teachers to be professionals. This would involve giving them greater freedom to organise their activities more conveniently and time effectively, and reducing the number of functionaries and officials in the school and head office hierarchies.

A recent development has been the running of in-service courses during school holidays. This has the advantage of not disrupting the school. However, in view of the heavy workload of teachers and accompanying stress during the school term, it could be argued that teachers need their holidays to recuperate. Thus, this practice could well be counterproductive (The Report: Workload of Teachers, 1991:175-177).

### **5.3 An Investigation into Staff Management and Communication as Managerial Tasks of a Departmental Head at an Indian Primary School**

#### **5.3.1 Introduction**

In 1985, Govindamah Ramdass conducted a study to obtain the views of practising heads of department on the various aspects of their managerial tasks and to consider some of the factors influencing staff management and communication in Indian primary schools.

The motivation for this study was the lack of empirical data and the divergent opinions of educators about the head of department's position, task, and role in the educational system. For this reason Ramdass found it necessary to look afresh at the link between leadership and management which we shall examine below.

### 5.3.2 The link between leadership and management

In educational management, leadership implies challenging and managing the activities of everyone involved in education, so as to achieve predetermined aims and objectives.

According to Pigors (1956:12) "... personnel management is a matter of developing the potentialities of employees, so that they will get maximum satisfaction out of their work and give their best effort to the organisation."

Management is therefore aimed at getting things done through people, which implies that the members of an organisation must be motivated to perform their tasks effectively. Educational management is based on team work. Personnel must be united by the managers into a closely knit, single-minded educational community.

Derek Waters (1979:21) correctly states that management without leadership can be an arid process. Leadership without managerial skills can be both pointless and ineffectual, and achieve little for members of staff. In an organisation as dynamic and important as a school, imaginative leadership must be combined with skilful, caring management.

### **5.3.3 The nature and essence of leadership**

#### **5.3.3.1 Introduction**

Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organised group towards setting and goal achieving (Stogdill, 1974:17). In describing the nature and meaning of leadership, Katz and Khan identify the following three major components of leadership:

- . an attribute of an office or position;
- . a characteristic of a person;
- . a category of behaviour. School organisations contain individuals who are not in formal positions of authority, yet they possess and wield influence and power.

In educational management, leadership implies channelling and managing the activities of everyone involved in teaching and education, so as to achieve predetermined educational aims and objectives.

Thus we can conclude that a departmental head occupies a leadership position. His tasks include the following:

- . to help the school community to define educational goals and objectives;
- . to facilitate the teaching and learning process, i.e. to develop greater effectiveness in teaching;
- . to build a productive organisational unit;

- . to create a climate conducive to growth and the fostering of leadership;
- . to provide adequate resources for effective teaching;
- . to ensure that school appraisal and revision of educational goals take place continuously.

Gorton (1976:273) states that an important personal quality for effective leadership appears to be the extent to which an administrator is capable of perceiving a problem that needs correcting.

Leadership is usually stimulated by an awareness of the existence of a problem. Thus the departmental head should be accessible and non-defensive towards people who bring problems to his attention. He should also take the initiative in periodically seeking feedback from teachers, pupils and parents with regard to problem situations.

Many authors believe that dynamic leadership on the part of the departmental head is the most important prerequisite for change in elementary education. They see the departmental head as someone who creates an environment conducive to successful innovation. Such an environment will have the following characteristics:

- . It will allow humanistic discussions directed towards innovation;
- . It will provide adequate support and time for innovation;
- . It will allow constant evaluation of departmental staff.

As leader of instructional leadership the head of department will be particularly concerned with appraisal techniques used to improve leadership practices.

### **5.3.3.2 The leadership role of the departmental head**

Departmental heads, acting as links between the top management of a school and staff members, have the potential to shape the school through the exercise of leadership and administrative initiative. The departmental head is responsible for the work of a group of teachers. He is concerned with the effective management of his department. He is responsible for getting results through other people. This involves two broad areas of concern, namely the organisation of the department and its leadership. He is the designated leader of the department and has considerable authority to influence and change it.

It will be the departmental head's responsibility to see to it that all the required decisions are made. Sharing the process of decision-making with others whenever possible or appropriate is an important way of demonstrating trust. Although he is the designated leader he remains part of the group. The departmental head is responsible to see to it that appropriate decisions are made and implemented.

It is generally accepted that open communication leads to improved morale and effectiveness. So, wherever possible, the departmental head should inform teachers of a change in policy or a new managerial development that affects them.

The departmental head "belongs" to the staff, and they want him available to them in times of emergency. Furthermore, they want his support and want him to be as accessible as possible. It must be noted that management is essentially a human affair and that the main component of the departmental head's professional sphere is people, not things.

This emphasis on people makes it imperative for the departmental head to get to know his staff very well. This will help him to fulfil another role, that of initiator and facilitator. The members of a department in a school will also expect him to make things happen with them or, on their behalf. He should mobilise the skills and abilities of others by providing the resources and encouragement they need and by recognising and developing their capabilities to the full. In order to do all this, he delegates.

The departmental head also needs to recognise his own weak areas so that he can call on the strengths of members of his department to complement his own input. Although he is a designated teacher, he is very dependent on the group and will only be effective if his leadership contributes to the growth and

wellbeing of each member of the group. It is however crucially important for the departmental head to retain his own sense of professional identity and personal integrity.

The departmental head must be a good planner; he has to consider the goals of the school and set short- and long-term objectives. He must be an effective organiser, because he has to decide on an order and system for the various activities undertaken and provided by the school.

He must select and train his teaching and non-teaching staff. He must be able to co-ordinate and encourage staff members to work together to achieve the aims of the school. The departmental head must also be a motivator. By keeping up morale, providing inspiration, improving working conditions and dealing with frustration and other obstacles that prevent the achievement of goals, he must get the most out of his people and resources.

Part of his responsibilities regarding staff development is performance appraisal. In this capacity he accepts personal responsibility for the work of each colleague in his department.

His supervising role includes the important function of determining how well individual children as well as entire classes benefit from education they receive at school. The department head must therefore also be an evaluator, and must determine, together with his staff, how best to assess the success of their

work. As a result of assessment, it may be necessary to make changes either with regard to methodology, or the provision of resources. The departmental head must therefore be an innovator in that he has to attend to changes and their implementation in his department.

He must communicate well with staff, parents, pupils and other parties linked to the school. Teachers must have clarity about their tasks and how they might achieve the school's goals.

The greatest strength of an effective departmental head lies in being the main link between his department and the top management team of the school.

The departmental head is an extension of instructional administration. The supervision of instruction in particular will largely be performed by him.

Curricular innovation is another area in which the support of the departmental head is crucial.

Thus we see that the departmental head occupies an important leadership position. To an important degree, his success as a leader depends on the effectiveness of his management style. Irrespective of the leadership style he chooses it should always be aimed at pupils' progress to adulthood and the welfare of his staff. It is also important for the departmental head to be an impartial leader.

Many writers support Gorton's view that the most important personal prerequisite needed by a manager at the micro-level of school management to exercise effective leadership, is the ability to work with people. Effective leaders possess human relations skills and are generally likeable, even though their actions may not always be generally popular. Gorton (1980:274) is of the opinion that the following personal attributes are required of a departmental head:

- . sensitivity to the needs of others;
- . willingness to explain the reasons for his actions;
- . involvement of others in important decisions.

#### **5.3.4 Supervision of teachers in the subject area of the departmental head**

Beyers (1979:3) regards supervision as an integral part of the education programme and maintains that teachers not only need supervision, but are entitled to supervisory assistance and guidance. Supervision ought to clarify educational objectives and goals and Beyers stresses the implications of these goals.

Many authors emphasise the need for a healthy rapport between the supervisor and the teacher who is being supervised. To establish this rapport between the teacher and the department head and to improve instruction, the use of the following phases in clinical supervision as outlined by Sergiovanni (1977:371-375) is recommended:

Phase 1 requires the establishment of a healthy teacher-supervisor relationship. This phase is of vital significance, because the whole concept of clinical supervision rests on it. The supervisor has the following two tasks in this phase:

- . to establish a relationship based on mutual trust and support;
- . to encourage the teacher to participate as a co-supervisor.

Phase 2 requires intensive planning of lessons and units with the teacher. During this phase the teacher and supervisor together plan a lesson or series of lessons. The planning involves determining objectives, selecting subject matter, determining aids to be used, discussing anticipated problems and making provision for feedback and evaluation.

Phase 3 requires planning of the observation strategy by teachers and the supervisor. The teacher and supervisor discuss the kind of information to be gathered during this phase as well as the method for gathering it.

Phase 4 requires the supervisor to observe in-class instruction. The observation of the teacher in action takes place only after the teacher-supervisor relationship has been well established.

Phase 5 requires careful analysis of the teaching-learning process. As co-supervisors, the teacher and supervisor analyse the instructional events in the class.

Phase 6 requires the planning of the conference strategy. The department head and his team also plan the physical setting for materials, tapes and other aids.

Phase 7 is the conference itself. This is an opportunity for both teacher and supervisor to exchange information about what was intended in a given lesson or unit and what actually happened.

A common outcome of the first six phases of supervision is agreement on the teacher's classroom behaviour. As this agreement materialises, the seventh phase begins, the teacher and supervisor start planning the next lesson or unit and new approaches are attempted.

### **5.3.5 The supervisory role of the departmental head**

Many authors state that departmental heads are classroom teachers first and foremost. As teachers they are in a prime position to assist other members of their division in analysing and improving instructional practices. Since an increase in the size of a school makes effective supervision by administrative staff increasingly difficult, the departmental head may emerge as a necessary medium to provide continuous, day-to-day attention to the instructional needs of a particular division within the school. His group must be small enough for him to give teachers individual assistance and counselling. Van Schalkwyk (1982:152) states that:

... an important consideration in designing an effective organisational structure is the span of control of its administrators; it concerns the number of persons whose activities the manager has to co-ordinate.

Some of the most basic ways in which departmental heads can influence the instructional programme are listed below:

- . workshopping new teaching techniques by planning and supervising in-service training programmes and by holding demonstration lessons;
- . making classroom visits, evaluating and giving feedback to teachers;
- . supervising the testing programme and making certain that tests are providing the information that is needed;
- . scheduling time for teachers to discuss their problems;
- . devoting at least one faculty meeting a month to what is happening in each instructional area;
- . motivating professional growth;
- . developing the curriculum;
- . helping teachers develop syllabuses in order to achieve the objectives of the courses they teach.

### **5.3.5.1 Supervising probationers**

The supervision of probationers is an important duty of the head of department. Probationers are vulnerable and usually need substantial support and guidance, mainly by means of one-to-one discussion. They should not be given classes which even experienced staff find difficult to cope with (Bloomer, 1980:91).

### **5.3.5.2 Supervising student teachers**

There seems to be general agreement among authors that departmental heads must supervise student teachers. The departmental head will need to gain knowledge of any strengths or weakness of the student from his tutor so that these can be taken into account in composing the student's programme. There is usually a need for observation during the early stages. The departmental head will ensure that students have adequate time for preparation and reasonable freedom to experiment with different methods of teaching. Marland believes that if the practical teaching time of students is to be of maximum value, it is the duty of the head of department to put the broader aims into operation.

### **5.3.5.3 Teacher evaluation**

It has long been accepted that the appraisal of human performance is an activity essential to the wellbeing of society (Castetter, 1976:232). Evaluation as a process of appraising a teacher's performance is one of the most fundamental responsibilities of the departmental head.

Evaluation expert George Redfern says the primary outcome of a good personnel evaluation programme should be to stimulate, upgrade and better equip the person being evaluated to do a better job. He rightly states that personnel evaluation must focus more on what the teacher achieves and less on how teaching is done or should be done, because the results are more important than the process in evaluation. Marginality or

incompetence of teachers has to be faced and dealt with in a different and more intensive manner than the evaluation of capable teachers. Evaluation is necessary to assess the extent to which the department's current courses are achieving set objectives. Evaluation should also be used to ascertain whether the department's objectives, and therefore courses, have to be modified in the light of changes in the needs of pupils and changes in the interests and skills of staff. Evaluation must be a positive process, closely tied to the goals and objectives of the school system. Evaluation procedures should fit the particular school system in terms of size, resources and structure. The outcome of any evaluation programme should be the following:

- . a higher level of performance from teachers;
- . improved educational services of pupils;
- . a more accurate record of the status of performance of staff members.

#### **5.3.5.4 Orientation of newly appointed teachers in the school**

Most authors state that it is the task of the departmental head to orientate and assimilate novice teachers into the department and to make them feel at home in the overall school situation. This offers an excellent opportunity to develop rapport with new staff members and allows the departmental head to establish a working relationship which can later be used to guide the instructional procedures of new staff members. One of the greatest problems facing the novice teacher is to interrelate

theory and practice. This is where a helpful departmental head can make all the difference between professional success on the one hand, and frustration, despair and failure on the other.

### 5.3.6 Conclusion

The following general conclusions appear to be warranted and are based on interviews conducted by the researcher and the analysis of existing data in the educational management literature.

- . A review of the position of the departmental head in Indian schools leads us to conclude that if certain faults, more or less inherent in a departmental type of organisation, can be avoided or minimised, good departmental heads can be of value to both the supervisory and administrative programmes.
- . Of all the managerial posts in a school, the position of the departmental head is one of the most taxing, challenging and important supervisory positions. He is an essential link between the faculty and the educational manager of the school.
- . In the past, many departmental heads did not have a written job description. However, it appears that more schools are beginning to make job descriptions available to new departmental heads.
- . Training for managerial work in schools is comparatively rare and people are promoted on the strength of their expertise in one kind of work (teaching) to positions involving another kind of work, namely managerial skills. In most schools, there is little indication of on-the-job training being offered.

- . Heads of department have a lack of time to perform a heavy workload of administrative duties against a background of a full teaching time table.

### **5.3.7 Recommendations**

- . Schools should be organised in such a way that teachers in all areas are encouraged to contribute towards total integration in all fields. The departmental heads should not be a proponent of the comparatively superior value of his department as he sees it. He must have a broad view of the educational values of all fields.
- . Criteria should be established to determine the quota and feasibility of departmental heads' teaching load.
- . The department head should be helped to master new leadership and instructional skills and competencies. Practical work in instructional supervision and courses in curriculum construction and group processes are suggested. Local in-service training will help to improve some of his necessary skills.
- . Departmental heads should attend as many orientation courses as possible because education is not static, but dynamic.

Literature on educational management consulted by the researcher clearly indicates the need for a specialised kind of training for the departmental head because of his challenging and varied role. Furthermore, the experienced teacher must be timeously and gradually prepared for the task of departmental head, a task comparable to that of any other educational manager.

## **5.4 A Research on Senior Deputy Principals and Deputy Principals in Indian Secondary Schools in South Africa: Academic, Administrative, Pastoral and Professional Development Responsibilities**

### **5.4.1 Introduction**

The researcher felt it necessary to include a review of this dissertation (by Bayat, 1991) because it focusses on managerial styles in schools. The manner in which senior deputies and deputies carry out their duties (i.e. their management style) must of necessity have an impact on the teacher. In 1984, positions in Indian secondary schools in South Africa were restructured. The organisational change that gave rise to this study was the introduction of the position of senior deputy principal. Since 1984, (when the position was first created) up to 1991 no attempt was made to define the position of the senior deputy principal (Bayat, 1991).

The purposes of Bayat's study were the following:

- . to investigate the role of the senior deputy principal and deputy principal in the management of Indian secondary schools in South Africa;
- . to consider what the role should entail to achieve effective management with a view to ensuring an effective school.

The major findings that emerged from the study were the following:

- . Senior deputy principals and deputy principals do not have a clear conception of their roles and responsibilities in terms of academic, administrative, pastoral and professional development functions.

- . Most of the incumbents had not received any management training for the position.
- . Not all deputies enjoyed the autonomy to make decisions without first consulting the principal.
- . There was a considerable concentration of administrative, but low-level clerical tasks.
- . The overwhelming majority of senior deputy principals and deputy principals saw their positions as transitional – a step towards principalship rather than a career objective in itself.

The main recommendation made in the study was that role ambiguity should be eliminated by devising a comprehensive document outlining the roles and responsibilities of deputies in schools (Bayat, 1991:iv-v).

#### **5.4.2 Background to study**

When asked what a deputy principal does in a school, most teachers seem hard-pressed to answer in any detail. They may name one or two tasks, such as time-tabling, arranging "relief" teachers to cater for absent teachers or helping resolve acute crises, but few expect the deputy principal to do more than perform a variety of administrative and organisational tasks.

The position of deputy principal has evolved over the years with little or no clarity of job description. The role of the deputy principal has received very little attention so that there is a dearth of information and suitable sources on the topic. Yet,

this intermediate role of deputy principal is becoming increasingly important. There is substantial evidence in the literature, particularly in the United Kingdom and in the United States of America, that the role of deputy principal lacks definition.

In Indian secondary schools in South Africa, the lack of definite clarity of job specification is evident in the following extract (paragraph 19) from the Handbook for Principals which outlines the functions, duties and teaching responsibilities of the deputy principal.

#### Deputy Principal

##### Functions

The Deputy Principal in schools where such posts have been established shall exercise the functions and perform the duties of the Principal when the latter is absent from duty.

##### Duties

The Division does not wish to prescribe the duties of a Deputy Principal. Principals must acquaint the Deputy Principals with all the duties that he (the Principal) normally carries out so that in the event of the Principal's absence from school, the school organisation will not be affected in any way. Deputy Principals shall be given the opportunity to conduct and control certain important aspects of school administration under the guidance of the principal to prepare him to administer the school on his own. Specific duties that are assigned to the Deputy Principal shall be listed by the Principal and a copy of the list of duties must be available in the Office of the Principal.

##### Teaching

The Deputy Principal forms part of the teaching staff of the school and is included in the staff ration. The number of teaching hours is reduced in order to enable him to carry out the administrative duties that are assigned to him by the Principal (Department of Internal Affairs, 1982:B21-B22).

Thus the lack of role clarity or job description of deputy principals that prevails in other education systems in other countries is also evident in Indian secondary schools in South Africa.

The hierarchy of all secondary schools in the Republic of South Africa was restructured twice in the last 11 years, including that of secondary schools under the control of the then Department of Internal Affairs (Division of Education), later Administration: House of Delegates (Department of Education and Culture). In 1979 the positions of vice-principal, senior assistant teacher and assistant teacher were abolished and, instead the following designations were introduced: deputy principal, head of department and teacher. In 1984, a further major restructuring of the post structure in secondary schools resulted in an additional change that has a bearing on this dissertation – namely the creation of the position of senior deputy principal.

Hence, not only was the position of deputy principal not clear in terms of role or job specification, but now also that of senior deputy principal. Since 1984, when the position of senior deputy principal was created, there was no attempt made to define it until the 1991 research project. It was left to the principals of individual schools to determine, with or without the consensus of the senior deputy principal and deputy principal, the role they would play in the management and administration of the school.

From a historical point of view, it should be borne in mind that 65 positions were advertised for senior deputy principal in Indian secondary schools in South Africa. Personnel who could apply for these positions were deputy principals of secondary schools or those of equivalent rank in the education system.

Since there had been neither a training programme for deputy principals nor role clarity or a job description, those who were promoted faced the daunting task of taking up the position of senior deputy principal with a similar problem - lack of role clarity and no job description. Promotion to the positions of senior deputy principal and deputy principal hinged on professional educators' prevailing assumption that experience was the best teacher and that "on-the-job" experience would somehow give these people a measure of role clarity (Bayat, 1991:1-5).

### **5.4.3 Problems encountered by deputy principals**

Deputy principals in general are often confronted with problems that prevent them from making a worthwhile contribution to the management of the school - in the academic, curricular, administrative, pastoral and professional development fields (Bayat, 1991:42).

### 5.4.3.1 Deputies: Generalist or specialist?

In those Indian secondary schools with both a senior deputy principal and a deputy principal, the division of duties between them is often debated. Each school has to determine for itself to which extent it wishes its deputies to be specialists or generalists, or whether or not a rotation of tasks is desirable. There is no single way of doing this, and the solution will depend upon prevailing circumstances at the specific school and the unique strengths of its deputies.

Those who favour the generalist approach present the following arguments:

- . Since most schools have more than one deputy it allows for a team approach to management.
- . Deputies need to be able to advise the Principal on a wide range of policies; hence they need a "whole-school view".
- . Generalism helps to overcome rigid divisions elsewhere in the middle-management structure.
- . In the day-to-day running of the school, staff members may need immediate contact with a deputy principal. Rigid demarcation would lead to frustration and delay.
- . The generalist approach allow the individual deputy principals more extensive experience of all aspects of the school's management functions. It is a better form of preparation for headship and makes it easier for a deputy to substitute in the principal's absence (Bayat, 1991:42-44).

### 5.4.3.2 Stress related to the position

Several recent reports in the popular educational press and the publications of teachers' unions in England, publicised growing stress among teachers.

It is now generally accepted that too little stress on the individual may seriously impair job efficiency.

Because the deputy principal occupies a key position in the school, the result of reduced efficiency as a result of stress could well be detrimental to the overall wellbeing of the school.

According to a survey carried out by the British Secondary Heads Association in 1989, the major sources of stress among deputies were the following:

- . lack of time;
- . government initiatives and management of change, coupled with inadequate resources;
- . increased workload;
- . staff relations - particularly dissatisfied staff and low morale.

Knitton and Mycroft's survey (1986:52-54) shows that as many as 95% of deputies reported some level of job stress. Twenty five per cent of deputies considered their position to be very or extremely stressful.

An investigation of the wide range of possible influences on the stress levels of deputy principals revealed the following main stress factors:

- . the amount of internal administration;
- . the number of petty tasks;
- . lack of time and inadequate relationships with pupils.

The two main areas that emerged as being of particular importance in accounting for pressures felt by deputies were the following:

- . their wide range of responsibilities;
- . their experiences of role conflict in maintaining relationships with a wide range of people.

The dual nature of the deputy principal's job - that of teacher and manager - is in itself a source of stress. Not only does each initiative affect a deputy twice, says Harrison (1990:15) - in the classroom and in the office - but neither role can be fulfilled properly (Bayat, 1991:49-50).

#### **5.4.4 Conclusion**

The evidence in this study seems to support the hypothesis that deputies inability to create a niche for themselves in the educational management set-up in Indian secondary schools, results from the lack of a clear, precise role definition. An examination and analysis of the findings led to the following specific conclusions:

- . Senior Deputy Principals and Deputy Principals were involved in functions and duties relating to academic, administrative, pastoral and professional development responsibilities.
  
- . Although there was consensus of opinion in the literature survey that the post incumbent's duties and functions lay in these four main areas of responsibility, there was no discernible trend noticed. This was coupled with the fact that almost half the respondents stated a lack of clear and precise job description in their particular cases. This suggests that for most of the Deputies, the role demands of their positions were indistinct and ambiguous. This clearly points to a pronounced lack of role clarity and definition of precise terms.
  
- . Not all post incumbents enjoyed autonomy to make decisions in their positions without reference to the Principal or other members of the management role set.
  
- . Most Senior Deputy Principals and Deputy Principals had not received any formal training and/or preparation for their management positions. Many cited on-the-job training as a form of preparation, its deficiency has been documented.
  
- . There was considerable concentration on administrative – but low-level clerical – duties as this was visible evidence of their contribution to the "smooth functioning" of the school.
  
- . The overwhelming majority of the incumbents saw their positions as transitional – a step towards Principalship rather than a career in itself. The latter view would be a motivating factor in developing their roles to their full potential.
  
- . In institutions where the two personnel who are the focus of this study are incumbents, they do not develop specialised and differentiated roles according to the rank and status of each (Bayat, 1991:106-107).

### 5.4.5 Recommendations

Management training must be provided and undertaken at the appropriate stage to motivate and train deputies for middle- and senior-educational management positions. Moreover, the complex range of duties of deputy principals must be understood and reflected in the training programmes and methods of appointment, which should take account of the wide range of interpersonal and managerial skills required for effective management. Appropriate human and material resources must be provided to enable all categories of manager to function effectively.

Role ambiguity, as defined by Schwab and Iwanicki (1982, 61:62), is "the lack of clear, consistent information regarding rights, duties and responsibilities of a person's occupation and how they can be best performed." A deputy who can and unequivocally affirm the following statements has clarity as to his role:

- . I know exactly what is expected of me.
- . I feel certain about how much authority I have.
- . Clear, planned goals exist for my job.
- . I know that I have divided my time properly.
- . I know what my responsibilities are.
- . I receive clear explanations of what is to be done.

Although the diversity of roles and tasks inhibits too much generalisation, certain common factors can be isolated and considered. If the roles of senior deputy principal and deputy principal are too rigidly defined, deputies are likely to assume defensive position: they will be defending their personal territory (power base) rather than co-operating in taking a wider view of the needs of the school as a whole. Furthermore, according to Stone (1986:40), "... tight role definitions foster the static view of a situation that is dynamic". In essence, the roles of deputies should evolve in the medium term, partly because of the changing nature of the challenges facing them and partly because the interests of professional development imply a policy of role change and exchange.

It is recommended that education authorities focus on clarifying the roles, duties and responsibilities of senior deputy principals and deputy principals in Indian secondary schools with regard to the following four main areas: academic (or curricular), administrative, pastoral and professional (Bayat, 1991:107-111).

## **5.5 A Research on Managerial Communication for Secondary School Principals**

### **5.5.1 Introduction**

Shah's study was motivated by world-wide concern about the need for the professional development of principals. Management communication underlies all the main generic administrative processes and is the tool for integrating all the auxiliary processes, such as decision-making, problem-solving, negotiating,

delegating and co-ordinating, counselling and motivating staff. The inclusion of Shah's dissertation in this study is because of the direct relationship between educational managers and level-1 teachers. The development of principals and other members of top management can lead to improved communication and, hence to greater productivity in the classroom. Schools that have developed and articulated clear goals are more effective than those with vaguely defined goals. Goals which have been set by the principal, staff, pupils and parents are more functional than goals formulated exclusively by the principal. The principal must therefore be able to create structures for staff, pupils, parents and the community that will promote effective two-way communication in running the school. Conflict may result in the absence or deficiency of two-way communication (Shah, 1990:ii).

### **5.5.2 Conflict management**

Although conflict management has been discussed, it has not been possible to come up with an instant solution. The principal has to acquire a repertoire of skills and techniques from which to draw when dealing with a one-to-one or group conflict in which he is either the arbiter or a participant. Conflict can be dealt with in the following ways:

- . To ignore a conflict or avoid dealing with it can lead to the conflict resolving itself. However, the conflict must be carefully assessed before the decision is made to avoid it.

- . Appeasement involves "giving in". This is done when a leader feels relatively powerless or thinks it is important to give in, in order to retain a sound professional relationship. Teachers give in because they do not want to jeopardise their opportunities for promotion and merit pay.
  
- . Domination means that one party is assertive and unwilling to co-operate with the other party. One party tries to subdue the other through the use of power. Principals are prone to using this method of conflict resolution by exercising their position of power in the hierarchy.
  
- . In the compromise approach to conflict resolution, both parties try to understand what the other party is seeking in a given situation and try and meet the other party halfway (Shah, 1990:184-188).

### **5.5.2.1 Conflict management roles**

When managing conflict a principal will find himself in one of three roles, namely that of initiator, mediator or defender.

#### **(a) Initiator Role**

Principals sometimes initiate conflict in order to bring about curricular or other changes in the school. For example, a principal who is unhappy with his school's language problems, may invite an outside expert to address the language department thereby deliberately provoking the department to review language teaching in the school in order to introduce the needed change.

When introducing conflict into a school, the principal must remember that the conflict should be functional, that the school must have the resources to handle it and that personnel must be capable of dealing with it.

(b) Mediator Role

The principal may adopt the role of mediator between two or more parties in a conflict situation by lessening the potential for conflict or by acting as arbitrator in day-to-day conflicts.

(c) Defender Role

Educational managers generally use their authority to defend the organisation in the resolution of conflict. Principals dominate by the sheer forcefulness of their personalities, or by marshalling facts which may overwhelm the other party (Shah, 1990:188-189).

### **5.5.3 Communication problems in conflict situations**

Fisher and Ury (1981:33) maintain that: "Without communication there is no negotiation." They identify the following big problems in communication which must be monitored during negotiations (Fisher & Ury, 1981:33-37):

Negotiators could be talking to each other without understanding each other. Each party tries to play to the gallery in an attempt to impress the other.

- . The parties argue at cross purposes because neither is listening, and therefore they are not responding to each other.
- . Sometimes one party deliberately misinterprets that which is said by the other party.

The following suggestions are offered for coping with these communication problems:

(a) Listen actively

This involves taking a few notes, seeking clarification when something is unclear and requesting an idea to be repeated if its meaning is ambiguous. No response should be made during this period. The objective is to understand their perceptions, needs and constraints. When the other party concludes its presentation, reiterate that you have understood them. In this way, their chance of feeling misunderstood is minimised. Only at this point should you proceed with pointing out any problem you see in their proposal.

(b) Speak directly

Address the other party directly and avoid arguing. Assume joint responsibility for the problem and establish the feeling that a joint solution must be reached.

(c) Speak about your feelings, not theirs

You are in a better position to express how the problem affects you than the other party. For example, rather state that your needs are not being considered at all. It is inevitable that the other party will become angry and possibly go on the defensive, when they realise that they are being accused of being inconsiderate.

(d) Speak purposefully

Make only those statements which are significant to the issue. It is important to know what to communicate, when to communicate it and what purpose the information should serve.

(e) Perceive the other party's needs

Settling an issue implies perceiving the other party's problem. Conflict is very much a problem of how two persons or parties perceive a problem. The difference or conflict that exists arises in their thinking. There are several useful ways of dealing with problems arising from differing perceptions (Fisher & Ury, 1981:22-30).

(f) See the situation as the other side sees it

Each side is inclined to see only its own merit and only the faults of the other side. To enumerate the merits of the other side as they see it is an important negotiating skill.

(g) Don't deduce intentions or jump to conclusions

The easiest course of action in a conflict situation is to assume that you know what the other party wants and then to jump to conclusions. Jumping to conclusions block deliberation and the flow of fresh ideas.

(h) Look for an opportunity to act contrary to their perceptions

The best way to surprise the other party and win them over is to act contrary to their expectations. For example, parents are insistent that the school should not dictate student's hairstyles. The principal could settle the conflict and win parental support by stating that parents should be responsible for their children's hairstyles provided that they are neat and presentable.

(i) Make proposals consistent with the values of the other party

Avoid working for a win-lose situation. Try to arrive at an agreement which satisfies the principles and self-image of both parties. This is difficult, but if put into practice, this skill will prevent a recurrence of conflict over the same issue.

(j) Seek out the principles and self-image of the other party

One must discover the principles and self-image of the other party and compare these with one's own while attempting to reconcile the two as far as possible. For example, teachers wish to decide for themselves on their manner of record keeping and justify their point of view by the fact that

they are trained professionals. The principal, on the other hand, insists on uniform record keeping for ease of control. The common principle here is that records are necessary for the smooth functioning of the school. The principal should reconcile his principle with those of teachers by insisting that all teachers keep functional or purposeful records relating to the instruction programme, but leaving teachers to decide on how to compile their records. Both parties will have retained their self-image in resolving the conflict (Shah, 1991:194-197).

#### **5.5.4 Suggested procedures for dealing with conflict**

The chances of resolving conflict are improved when certain procedures are followed systematically. When negotiating a conflict, whether on a one-to-one or a group-to-group basis, one should follow procedures similar to those used in an interview. The following guidelines may be of use to principals when managing conflict:

- . When a conflict situation arises, determine whether it is a minor or major conflict. A minor conflict often resolves itself.
  
- . If the decision is to proceed with an investigation of the conflict, the first step is to state the problem and then identify the persons involved and the causes of the conflict. Moreover, the following questions should be asked:

- Who is involved in the conflict?
- Who is the leader of the group?
- Are there other persons outside the group supporting the cause? (Shah, 1991:207)

### **5.5.5 Recommendations**

The organisational structure of schools have changed with time. Schools have become larger and more complex. The principal is often confronted with a variety of interrelated, complex problems which call for outstanding management knowledge and skills. The development of a socio-technical system to communicate, integrate and co-ordinate the divergent activities of the school is the cardinal responsibility of the principal.

Communication is the most important means of formulating and conveying the details of such management functions as planning, organising, co-ordinating and controlling. Communication is also the most important means of motivating the members of an organisation to achieve its goals and maintain a high level of productivity. In fact, the communication process is the foundation of all management activities.

Therefore a principal is not capable of managing his school unless he is adept at management communication. He should be fully acquainted with participative problem-solving and decision-making techniques, because staff members prefer these to an autocratic leadership style.

## 5.6 Conclusion

From a study of the different dissertation which were discussed in this chapter, the researcher could draw the following conclusions:

- . The most valuable resource of any education department is its teachers. The workload of teachers points to the exceptionally heavy loads they have to carry. This places them under great stress, which could affect their classroom performance. Educational managers must at all times be mindful of the teacher's workload.
- . The position of the departmental head is a challenging one since he is the link between the staff and top educational management team. He should not pale into insignificance, but rather be readily available to the teachers. His role function is often not clearly demarcated, but he should nevertheless follow democratic leadership style.
- . In the case of deputy and senior deputy principals, most incumbents did not receive any specific management training prior to taking up the position and this could have a negative impact on their management style. Most deputies do not enjoy decision-making status. They spend considerable time on low-level clerical tasks which could be attended to by the school secretary.
- . It is imperative for a principal to be a dynamic, vibrant and democratic leader. To be effective, and to understand and utilise communication skills, the principal must be adequately grounded in the theory of communication. A close relationship exists between leadership styles and communication patterns. Therefore a thorough knowledge and understanding of leadership style is essential for effective educational management.

In the next chapter the findings of the researcher's empirical research are presented, analysed and discussed.

## CHAPTER 6

### FINDINGS OF EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

#### 6.1 Introduction

The researcher set out to investigate how management style affects the level-1 teacher in the classroom. To this end, questionnaires were addressed to

- . selected primary and secondary school principals in the Chatsworth and Phoenix areas;
- . selected primary and secondary heads of department at the same schools; and
- . selected level-1 primary and secondary teachers, at the same schools.

The return rate for each category is discussed under 6.4. In an effort to critically ascertain the principal's management style, the researcher also interviewed all the principals in the sample.

The most important findings are discussed in this chapter.

#### 6.2 Objectives of the Empirical Study

Some of the major objectives of the empirical investigation by means of the structured questionnaires were as follows:

- . to ascertain the managerial and personal behaviour of the principals towards teachers;

- . to determine to what extent the level-1 teacher participates in decision-making at schools;
- . to determine the role function of the head of department;
- . to ascertain the degree of managerial support teachers were given in a number of different areas related to teaching;
- . to determine the quality of teacher morale in the schools; and
- . to analyse managerial factors that increase the teacher's stress level.

### **6.3 Purpose of the Questionnaire**

#### **6.3.1 Advantages of a questionnaire as a method of investigation**

- . It is less time consuming than a personal interview.
- . It can be completed at a convenient time.
- . In contrast to the interview, the administration of a questionnaire does not involve a great deal of time and expense.
- . More people can be reached, thus obtaining a broader spectrum of views.
- . Standard instructions are given to all the respondents and the appearance and mode of conduct of the investigator do not influence the results.
- . It is easier to elicit a response on controversial issues through a questionnaire than through an interview.

### **6.3.2 Shortcomings of a questionnaire as a method of investigation**

Despite the advantages of the questionnaire method of investigation, it is to be used very carefully, for the following reasons:

- . Although the unstructured questionnaire has the advantage of giving the respondent freedom to reveal his views, unstructured questionnaires are difficult to analyse and quantify.
- . In the unstructured questionnaire, the subject may omit important points or emphasise aspects which are of no importance to the researcher.
- . The structured questionnaire has the disadvantage of forcing subjects to choose from a number of pre-selected answers to questions, or to an alternative that does not really reflect the respondent's point of view.
- . In all types of questionnaire, the danger of misinterpretation of the question exists as it is very difficult to formulate questions which convey the same meaning to all the readers.

## **6.4 The Questionnaire – Form and Organisation**

### **6.4.1 Questionnaire addressed to principals (refer to Appendix B)**

Eighteen secondary and 20 primary school principals had to respond to a questionnaire which had 30 questions and which dealt primarily with the way they managed their schools. The respondents had to answer most questions according to a five-point scale to elicit as accurate a response as possible.

In addition to the questionnaire, principals were interviewed. The interview lasted between 20 and 40 minutes, depending on the principals' responses. Principals had to respond to seven problematic situations they encountered or could encounter in their managerial practice in schools.

#### **6.4.2 Questionnaire addressed to heads of department (Refer to Appendix D)**

Here 44 secondary and 39 primary school heads of department were asked to complete the questionnaire which consisted of 30 questions. The main thrust of the questionnaire was to establish the role function of the head of department, his contribution to the management of education and how his managerial style affected the teacher in the class.

#### **6.4.3 Questionnaire addressed to level-1 teachers (Refer to Appendix E)**

A hundred secondary and 100 level-1 primary school teachers were selected at random to complete the questionnaire which consisted of 30 questions. Using the staff register the researcher drew five names at random from each of 20 primary and 20 secondary schools and in this way arrived at a fairly representative sample. The purpose of the questionnaire was to critically investigate how level-1 teachers perceived principals and heads of department in their managerial roles.

#### 6.4.4 Permission from the executive director of the education department

Before the research was conducted, all questionnaires and interview schedules were sent to the Research Section of the Division of Education, House of Delegates, for approval. Permission was granted by the executive director to conduct the research (see Appendix A).

#### 6.4.5 General matters regarding the empirical research

The researcher gave principals, heads of department and level-1 teachers the questionnaire a day before he collected them. In this way, the respondents had sufficient time to respond to the questions.

The return rate for the questionnaires is set out in table 6.1

**Table 6.1** *Return rate of questionnaire*

	RETURN RATE	
	SECONDARY	PRIMARY
Principals	90%	100%
Heads of Department	100%	89%
Level-1 Teachers	100%	100%
Average Return Rate	97%	96%

***Average Overall Return Rate: 96,5%***

The researcher was able to analyse the questionnaires using a personal computer. The information (in percentages) was summarised in tabular form for the purpose of interpretation and discussion.

## **6.5 A Discussion of Responses from Principals**

### **6.5.1 Principals' view of teachers**

According to the principals involved in this study, most teachers at secondary level and even some at primary level are individual subject specialists, who have been trained in the pursuit of a pure academic discipline. They received inadequate training in the fundamentals of the learning process. Because of this, they have become less concerned with the effectiveness and academic purity of their subject. According to the principals interviewed, the most "successful" teachers tend to be subject enthusiasts who, through necessity, have become very good at squeezing as many children through examinations as possible, irrespective of how much of what is "learnt" is soon forgotten.

After personal interviews with educational managers, the researcher came to the conclusion that many teachers are probably concentrating on doing the wrong things well. They are ill-equipped to cope with the changes to mould the child which require them to work with colleagues and across subject boundaries. Teachers need to be helped to realise that there are some useful techniques and skills which can be developed through training and experience. These skills and techniques cannot be learnt as an academic discipline, but must be experienced and practised in the day-to-day classroom situation. Educational managers must be able to guide teachers to become effective classroom practitioners.

### **6.5.2 The principal as motivator**

Principals spoken to felt that they could make a difference by providing

- . assertive, achievement-oriented leadership;
- . orderly, purposeful and peaceful school climate;
- . high expectations for staff and pupils; and
- . well-designed instructional objectives and evaluation system.

A principal should therefore

- . be able to work well with others;
- . be knowledgeable;
- . be able to show respect towards others;
- . be able to reveal courage in the face of dilemmas;
- . be able to solve problems; and
- . be able to encourage joint decision-making.

### **6.5.3 The principal's vulnerability and conservatism**

As a level-1 teacher with 20 years' experience, the researcher has noticed the vulnerability of principals. Since principals are easy targets, they, out of necessity, have become conservative. The principal's strategy is to keep dissatisfaction amongst staff members, parents and the general public to a minimum. The ideal principal does nothing controversial and avoids unfavourable publicity. He expects teachers to behave accordingly.

Principals value their autonomy to run the school and they see this as being threatened by unfavourable publicity. The extreme vulnerability and visibility of the principal sometimes lead to role confusion. He often feels that he must satisfy the demands of the various groups with which he interacts. For example, on labour issues, principals are not sure whether they belong with teachers or with superintendents. They like to see themselves as closely identifying with the teachers and with classroom problems, yet they know that much of their life is controlled from the superintendent's office since they are functionaries of head office bureaucracy.

Once an educator becomes a principal, his behaviour changes. It is no longer to the advantage of his managerial position to attract unnecessary attention to himself. In fact, the principal perceives attention as harmful.

The researcher found that one of the best techniques principals use to maintain the status quo is to tell one group one thing and to tell another something else. This works as long as he does not have to speak to both groups simultaneously. Usually he does not, for he can conduct his business through bilateral meetings.

Another way of trying to avoid any trouble is to deal with problems as they arise - crisis management. The principal endeavours to prevent small problems from becoming big ones. His door is always open and he responds to emergencies. Most principals interviewed are on call almost all the time. This means

that many principals hardly have sufficient time or energy to carry out plans of their own. Containment of all problems, big or small, becomes their central managerial theme.

#### 6.5.4 Analysis and findings of principals' responses to questionnaire

(see questionnaire attached as Appendix B – all statistics are quoted as percentages)

##### Question 1

The first question concerned the number of years of experience the 38 secondary and primary principals had. Table 6.2 reflects the combined responses of both secondary and primary principals.

**Table 6.2 Managerial experiences of respondents**

1 – 5 years	74%
6 – 10 years	11%
more than 10 years	15%

From the table above, an important conclusion can be drawn, namely that the sample included a large population (74%) of principals fairly new to their managerial positions or recently promoted. Only 26% of the sample had over five years' experience in the position.

Considering the large percentage of "new" principals, it would be safe to assume that they would be

thorough, to the extent of being labelled petty; and

- . inexperienced, as they would be feeling their way in their new managerial positions.

### Question 2

In this question, the researcher wanted to ascertain the status of the principal's school. All primary school principals were attached to P1 schools. (P1 schools have a student enrolment of 550 pupils and more).

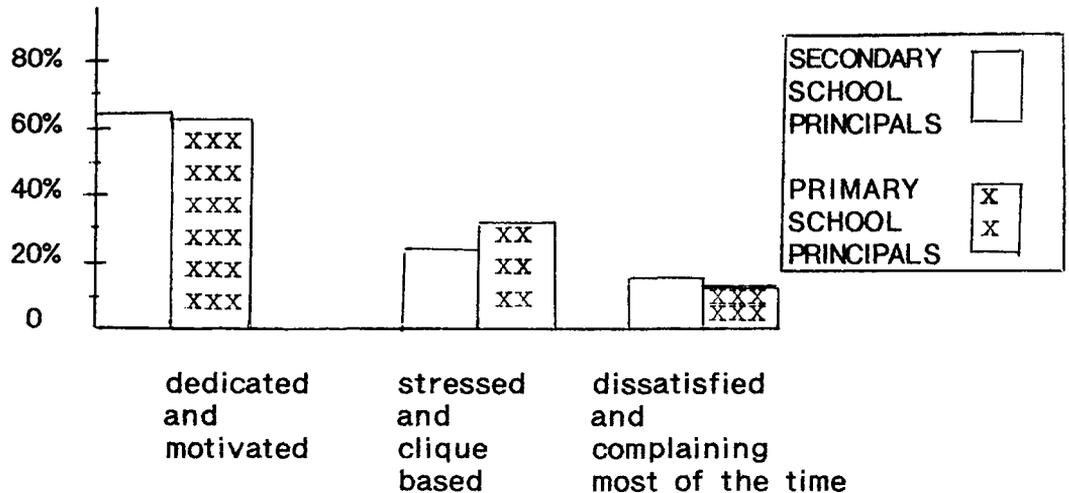
The breakdown for the secondary school principals was as follows:

- . 22% were heads of C1 schools, (C1 school has a pupil enrolment of 1 000 pupils and more);
- . 67% were heads of S1 schools, (S1 school has a pupil enrolment of 550 and more); and
- . 11% of the respondents were heads of S11 schools, (S11 school has a school population of below 550).

It is interesting to note that 94,5% of the respondents were heads of CS, S1 and P1 schools, indicating that these principals had to contend with a large student enrolment, more staff and a wide range of courses being offered.

### Question 3

With the third question, the researcher wanted to ascertain the principal's rating of staff members. The bar chart below shows the close resemblance between the secondary and primary school principals in their perception of the teaching staff at the respective schools:

**Chart 6.1 Principals rating of staff members**

Of the respondents, 58% (secondary and primary principals) perceived their staff to be highly dedicated and motivated, while 26% viewed their staff to be stressed and "clique" based. Only 14% saw their teachers to be dissatisfied and complaining most of the time. Two per cent of the primary school principals preferred not to place their staff into any of the given three categories.

Furthermore, it is cause for concern that 42% of the respondents did not view their staff positively. The researcher is thus of the opinion that it can be assumed that, if staff members are stressed and "clique" based or dissatisfied and complaining most of the time, then

- . the staff at that particular school would not function as a cohesive unit or team;
- . they would be divided, even when making crucial decisions;
- . effective teaching/learning would suffer; and
- . the principal's management style could be questioned;

**Question 4**

A little more than 60% of both primary and secondary principals do not agree with the statement in this question, namely that the work of the principal had become routinised. The responses are illustrated in table 6.3.

**Table 6.3 *Whether the principal's task is routinised***

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	28%	44,5%	11%	16,5%	-	100%
PRIMARY	21%	31,5%	16%	26,5%	5%	100%
MEAN	24,5%	38%	13,5%	21,5%	2,5%	100%

(One primary school principal did not respond to this question).

The response to this question is encouraging, since a large percentage of the respondents feel that their task is dynamic. With this type of approach, the management style of the principals would be dynamic and vibrant so as to address the different situational needs that may arise from managerial problems and challenges facing the respondents.

**Question 5**

Closely linked with question 4, this question asked respondents if they thought principals were concerned with maintenance tasks and pupil-centred tasks to the exclusion of the more important task of improving the organisation and supervision of the learning programme.

The responses here were closely aligned to those in question 4. The responses for both secondary and primary school principals are shown in table 6.4.

**Table 6.4** *Whether principal's were concerned with maintenance tasks*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	33%	33%	6%	22,5%	6%	100%
PRIMARY	25%	25%	10%	30%	10%	100%
MEAN	29%	29%	8%	26%	8%	100%

Taken together, 58% of respondents rejected the premise that their most important task was maintenance and pupil-related issues. They were more concerned with the all-important task of improving the organisation and supervision of learning. This would include enhancing the principal's management style. However, it is disturbing to note that a high percentage of respondents (34%) agreed that the major task of the principal was to maintain buildings and attend to general student-related matters.

#### **Question 6**

Principals were asked whether management ability was a criterion when they were selected for their positions, or whether they were appointed on experience, inspection reports, testimonials and the impression created during the interview. Of the respondents, 84% felt that management ability played a role in the appointment, while 16% felt that principals were appointed on

previous experience, inspection reports, testimonials and the impression made during the interview and not only on management ability.

The criteria for selecting principals have been a thorny and controversial issue in Indian education. This could perhaps justify the 16% of respondents who agreed with the statement.

The question which should thus occupy the minds of educators is how to instill or develop management skills in prospective principals. In this respect, tertiary institutions could play a pivotal role if they offered courses for aspirant candidates. At present there is an absence or a total lack of such courses at English speaking universities and technikons.

#### Question 7

It cannot be denied that schools periodically experience administrative problems. With this in mind, the researcher asked principals whether they would object to executives from the private sector coming into schools to assist and guide them in management techniques. The responses are tabulated on the next page.

**Table 6.5** *Whether principals object to outside assistance*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	44,5%	28%	11%	11%	5,5%	100%
PRIMARY	30%	30%	20%	15%	5%	100%
MEAN	37,25%	29%	15,5%	13%	5,25%	100%

Only 18% of respondents felt that it would be good and supported the idea that executives from commerce or industry could provide assistance to newly appointed principals. Sixty six per cent of respondents did not favour the idea at all.

The possible rationale the researcher can offer is the possibility that newly appointed principals would like to feel their way on their own, without assistance from others or from commerce or industry. A large percentage of the respondents could also be under the impression that managing education is unique and that little or no lessons could be learnt from business or industrial managers.

#### **Question 8**

This question was placed as a logical extension of question 7, but the responses elicited were quite unexpected being contradictory to principals thinking in the preceding question.

The question asked was whether the principal would support the idea of the development of a number of regional centres for education management training manned by well-qualified and experienced staff. The responses are tabled below.

**Table 6.6** *Whether principals supported development of management training centres*

	SECONDARY	PRIMARY	MEAN
YES	89	90	89,5
NO	11	10	10,5

It seems that principals are aware of their own limitations as educational managers. It can be concluded that they desire and want help. However, they are not prepared to accept help from just any manager from other professions. Business and industrial managers are apparently not popular in educational circles. Regional centres backed or run by universities with academics as lecturers would be acceptable to serving educational managers. Here one can almost detect a degree of professional snobbery in the thinking of principals.

### **Question 9**

Respondents were asked:

"Do principals provide meaningful opportunity for teachers to participate in decision-making about activities directly affecting them?"

Eighty four per cent of the respondents agreed that principals provided teachers with opportunities to take part in decision-making while 5% disagreed. Eleven per cent stated that principals sometimes provided opportunities for joint decision-making.

The researcher's experience in the teaching profession has made it clear that principals like to think of themselves as being democratic, whereas in practice they may be autocratic. When it suits them, they are temporarily democratic, but in most decision-related issues, they have pre-conceived ideas. The researcher, however, also realises the need for principals to take a hard line periodically, if certain duties or projects are to be completed on time.

#### Question 10

In this question, principals were asked to justify joint decision-making; they could choose from three options, namely

- . principals lack the information staff have;
- . the problem is unstructured rather than well-structured; and
- . subordinates' acceptance of the outcome is critical for implementation.

Here 87% of respondents chose joint decision-making because they felt that subordinates' acceptance of the outcome was critical for implementation. Principals, like other managers, may be guilty of appearing to be democratic so that the job could be done. If the decision is made by management alone, it may not go down well with the subordinates, who may reject it.

Seven per cent of the respondents resorted to joint decision-making because they were not sure that they had sufficient expertise to see a certain project through.



**Question 12**

It has been common practice for secondary and primary principals to chair lengthy staff meetings ranging from one to three hours outside teaching time. With this in mind, respondents were asked how teachers viewed staff meetings. Their responses are listed below:

**Table 6.7** *Educational managers' opinions on how teachers view meetings*

	LOOK FORWARD TO IT	DISLIKE MEETINGS	MIXED REACTION	TOTAL
SECONDARY	33%	17%	50%	100%
PRIMARY	25%	-	75%	100%
MEAN	29%	8,5%	62,5%	100%

Only 29% of principals felt that staff members viewed meetings positively, 8,5% felt that staff disliked meetings, while 62,5% felt that staff approached meetings with mixed feelings.

This information could indicate that principals are aware that many teachers generally do not view staff meetings positively.

**Question 13**

Respondents were also asked whether they circulated the agenda for a staff meeting a few days beforehand. Such a question, it was felt, would focus directly on the principal's management style, since democratic principals have nothing to hide and invite wide-ranging views on matters affecting staff. Personnel-oriented principals would circulate the agenda days in advance. On the other hand, an autocratic headmaster would table the agenda at the meeting. Of the respondents, 37% indicated that

they always circulated the agenda beforehand, while 56% stated that they circulated it quite often and 7% that they circulated it sometimes. None of the respondents would not circulate the agenda at all. The responses to this question tend to indicate that principals are moving towards democracy and participation in their management style.

#### **Question 14**

Still on the topic of staff meetings, principals were asked whether they would victimise teachers who opposed most of their suggestions at staff meetings. The responses are tabled below.

**Table 6.8 *Whether principals victimised teachers***

	ALWAYS	MOST OFTEN	SOMETIMES	NOT AT ALL	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	-	6%	11%	77%	6%	100%
PRIMARY	-	-	35%	65%	-	100%
MEAN	-	3%	23%	71%	3%	100%

This question was asked because level-1 teachers feel that principals subtly victimise them if they went against the headmaster's thinking. Of the respondents, 26% stated that they would victimise the teacher often or sometimes, while 71% stated that they would not do so. Three per cent of the principals refused to comment. These statistics are encouraging since teachers who can be at ease without any fear of victimisation by principals tend to be more co-operative.

**Question 15**

In this question, principals were asked which approach they preferred when planning their day-to-day running of the school and managerially related matters. No respondent opted for the top-down approach which could have labelled the principal an autocratic leader in the eyes of the staff; 32% adopted the bottom-up, democratic approach, while 68% stated that they preferred a combination.

The researcher is of the opinion that the 32% of headmasters who wish to manage by participation is a relatively small proportion. The 68% of principals who preferred a combination of approaches could assume that giving too much professional or managerial autonomy to teachers is not good. They believe that the principal must be in control.

With rapid democratisation taking place all around, the researcher would have expected more principals to opt for the bottom-up, democratic approach.

**Question 16**

The researcher wanted to determine what factors were responsible for failure when principals were planning. Two per cent of the respondents felt that it was because they thought that planning was an activity separate from managing, 5% felt that managerial planning was necessary for "big" projects only, 22% felt that the failure was caused by their using standardised,

traditional plans for new and changing circumstances, 11% believed that they had had unrealistic and too many goals, while 60% stated that their failure was not due to any of the above reasons.

### Question 17

In a question closely associated with planning, respondents were asked whether they designed and used flow charts or organisational charts to map positions and relationships of authority in their schools. The responses are shown in the table below.

**Table 6.9 *The use of flow charts by principals***

	YES	NO	NOT NECESSARY	TOTAL
SECONDARY	28%	39%	33%	100%
PRIMARY	55%	20%	25%	100%
MEAN	41,5%	29,5%	29%	100%

A large percentage (as high as 58,5%) of respondents found flow charts to be unnecessary. Perhaps these principals still prefer to use the personal touch in asserting their authority.

However, 41,5% found them to be necessary. Organisational or flow charts help planning and the efficient execution of tasks. Each member of the organisation knows what is expected of him and he learns to appreciate others' contributions.

**Question 18**

In this question, principals were asked about role diffusion, which implies a lack of clear definition of roles within the management hierarchy. The statement was made that while there was a need for delegation of authority and responsibility, principals could become victims of role diffusion. Their responses are reflected in the table below.

**Table 6.10 *Principals' vulnerability to role diffusion***

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	6%	33%	11%	44%	6%	100%
PRIMARY	15%	10%	15%	55%	5%	100%
MEAN	10,5%	21,5%	13%	49,5%	5,5%	100%

Close on half of the principals (49,5%) agreed that they could become victims of role diffusion, indicating that they are not sufficiently skilled in delegating. This is cause for concern, since it places a question mark on the participative management style of many principals.

**Question 19**

Principals are faced with the dilemma of whether or not to delegate and whether the subordinate would be capable of performing the task assigned. To this end, respondents were asked if they experienced this problem. Seventy seven per cent of respondents had no problem with delegating to subordinates, while 23% identified this as a dilemma.

These statistics indicate that the majority of principals have come to grips with delegating and are also confident about entrusting tasks to subordinates, hence paving the way for participative management.

#### Question 20

Principals were asked whether inexperienced members of staff should be assigned duties outside of teaching, since they required more support and guidance. Of the total population, 97% disagreed or strongly disagreed. This indicates that principals were not prepared to isolate the new teacher. Principals would allocate "light" extracurricular duties to him or her.

#### Question 21

If a staff member was unwilling to accept a delegated duty, principals were asked to what they would attribute this. The responses for both secondary and primary principals computed together are listed in table 6.11 in rank order.

**Table 6.11** *Why teachers do not accept duties*

(a) Reluctance to accept responsibility	42%
(b) Work overload	27%
(c) Other reasons	26%
(d) No response	3%
(e) Poor motivation	2%
TOTAL	100%

It is disturbing to note that 42% cited reluctance to accept responsibility as a reason for not taking on a delegated duty. This is an indictment against the level-1 teacher. Twenty seven per cent of principals cited work overload as a reason for level-1 teachers' not accepting delegated duties, while 26% saw other reasons, not mentioned, as the probable cause.

However, non-acceptance of delegated duties could be directly linked to the management style of the headmaster. If the principal followed a democratic leadership style and believed in participative management, this percentage could drop.

#### Question 22

Wherever people interact and work together, conflict is sure to arise. With this in mind, respondents were asked if they agreed with the following statement:

"The manifestation of organisational conflict is the product of poor management."

The responses for secondary and primary headmasters are listed below:

**Table 6.12** *Relationship between conflict and poor management*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	17%	43%	6%	28%	6%	100%
PRIMARY	-	30%	15%	40%	15%	100%
MEAN	8,5%	36,5%	10,5%	34%	10,5%	100%

Of the respondents, 44,5% agreed or strongly agreed that poor management was the cause of conflict, while an almost equal number (45%) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

From this it can safely be concluded that a sizeable proportion of principals appear to take the blame for staff conflict which can have a direct bearing on a teacher's performance in the classroom.

### **Question 23**

Principals were asked at which point in the academic year they delegated duties most often. The responses are shown in table 6.13.

**Table 6.13 *When principals delegate most often***

	SECONDARY	PRIMARY
(a) Beginning of the school year	88%	85%
(b) At the end of the year	6%	5%
(c) When principals apply for promotion	6%	-
(d) During examinations	-	-
(e) No response	-	10%
TOTAL	100%	100%

It is understandable that most of the delegation by principals is done at the beginning of the year, indicating that principals follow some form of year plan.

**Question 24**

Here the researcher made the following statement:

"Teachers are often judged negatively if open conflict arises. Principals should rather judge them on the basis on which they manage/handle the conflict rather than on the fact that it is present."

The responses are shown below.

**Table 6.14** *Principals' perception of teacher's ability to handle conflict*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SEC.	6%	6%	-	49%	33%	6%	100%
PRI.	5%	20%	15%	35%	20%	5%	100%
MEAN	5,5%	13%	7,5%	42%	26,5%	5,5%	100%

A large percentage of the population, namely 68,5% agreed or strongly agreed that principals misjudge the motives of teachers during conflict. This is cause for concern and could frustrate not only the teacher, but also the principal who has to arbitrate. Conflict in the classroom or with colleagues is inevitable and its handling all important. Principals should guard against hasty decisions, labelling such teachers as "trouble makers".

**Question 25**

Here respondents were asked which of the conflicts listed below were very prevalent among their staff members. The responses are ranked for both primary and secondary school headmasters in table 6.15.

**Table 6.15** *Prevalence of conflict among staff*

(a) Between teacher/pupil	58%
(b) Between teacher/department official	19%
(c) Between teacher/parent	12%
(d) Between teacher/management	6%
(e) No response	5%
TOTAL	100%

Only 6% of respondents were of the opinion that staff members were involved in management conflict. Though this percentage is small, ideally it should be nil, because both teachers and management staff could then concentrate more fully on academic excellence.

**Question 26**

An extension to question 25, this question asked principals to identify which of the conflicts listed below could escalate to such an extent that it could affect the organisation of their schools.

The responses ranked together for both primary and secondary headmasters are shown in the table below.

**Table 6.16** *Conflict that could affect school organisation*

(a) Teacher/management	45%
(b) Teacher/parent	18%
(c) Teacher/pupil	13%
(d) Teacher/department official	9%
(e) No response	5%
TOTAL	100%

The statistics show the vulnerable position of principals who are dealing with teachers in a conflict situation. Such conflict, according to almost half of the respondents, may adversely affect the smooth functioning of the school to the extent of disrupting the teaching/learning situation.

It is imperative for the principal to use a management style favoured by his staff if he wishes to avoid conflict which would affect the administration and organisation of his school.

#### Question 27

This researcher's own experience has shown that prescription and listening to teachers' presentation of lessons constituted the dominant role function of the old school (autocratic) principals. With this in mind, respondents were asked if they felt it was necessary to continue listening to presentations of teachers with five or more years' experience.

The responses for secondary and primary school principals are set out below.

**Table 6.17** *Whether principals felt it was necessary to listen to teachers' presentations*

	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	67%	28%	5%	100%
PRIMARY	75%	20%	5%	100%
MEAN	71%	24%	5%	100%

Of the respondents, 71% felt it was necessary to listen to teachers' presentations while 24% felt it was unnecessary. This researcher is of the opinion that principals have been so heavily prescribed to by their superordinates that they would have difficulty trying to abandon the idea of acting as watchdogs even over their experienced and competent subordinates. In the past (as recent as ten years ago), principals were judged/assessed by superintendents on the number of class visits and lessons listened to.

### **Question 28**

Principals were asked to respond to the controversial question of whether teachers were compelled to keep too many records. The responses are tabled separately for secondary and primary school principals in table 6.18.

**Table 6.18 *Principals' perception of record keeping by teachers***

	ALWAYS	MOST OFTEN	SOMETIMES	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
SECONDARY	-	29%	39%	32%	100%
PRIMARY	10%	20%	40%	30%	100%
MEAN	5%	24,5%	39,5%	31%	100%

Thirty one per cent of respondents rejected the idea that teachers were keeping too many records, 29,5% felt that they were always or most often keeping too many records, and 39,5% felt that teachers were sometimes keeping too many records. This researcher is of the opinion that a good strategy for an effective educational manager is to constantly ask himself

whether what he expects of his teachers is absolutely necessary or if it can be discarded. The same can surely be said of some of the antiquated records (like prep cast/forecast when the lesson programme book could suffice) frequently demanded by some headmasters.

**Question 29**

In this question, which dealt directly with the principal's management styles, respondents were asked whether teachers viewed the principals' new plans to be too ambitious and unrealistic. The responses for primary and secondary principals jointly are displayed below.

**Table 6.19 *Principals' perception of their new plans***

Too ambitious and unrealistic	14%
Not overambitious or unrealistic	83%
No response	3%
TOTAL	100%

If their plans were unrealistic and overambitious, it would not be viewed positively by the teachers, and this would be apparent to the principals. But from the above it seems that principals are co-ordinating and communicating their new plans and have the co-operation of teachers.

**Question 30**

In the final question, principals were asked what they considered to be the most important skill educational managers should possess.

The responses ranked for both primary and secondary headmasters are shown below.

**Table 6.20** *Principals's perception of educational managers' skills*

(a) To encourage joint decision-making	58%
(b) To be able to get along with staff	24%
(c) To know his own strength	10%
(d) No response	5%
(e) To be able to manage time	3%
TOTAL	100%

Of the respondents, 58% were most certainly thinking along democratic lines, since joint decision-making was the skill they considered to be the most important. The second highest ranked (24%) felt that the skill a good principal should have is the ability to get on with staff, once again pointing to a preference of participative management.

### **6.5.5 Responses obtained from interviews with principals**

The researcher interviewed the 18 secondary and 20 primary school headmasters. Each principal was asked seven questions on managerial matters that they could have encountered in their position as principal. The interview lasted between 20 and 40 minutes. The questions and a ranking of the main responses are listed below:

**Question 1**

When morale is low, how do you create a climate of trust among the staff?

**Responses**

- (a) First, the problem or problems leading to the low morale must be identified. This could be achieved either by calling a staff meeting or organising an informal workshop. The staff would then be provided with appropriate and ample opportunity to discuss the problem openly. They could thus vent their fears, anxieties, distrust and problems without fear of being victimised.
- (b) The principal must be a good, sympathetic listener. He should endeavour to remove any bias or fear and focus on the positive aspect of school life. At the same time he must attempt to win the support of the entire staff and build the ethos of the school in the most constructive and positive manner possible.
- (c) Other remedies suggested were the following:
- . one-to-one discussion with staff members;
  - . the use of small groups to discuss problems;
  - . complimenting the good work of individual teachers during a private interview with them;
  - . encouraging staff to participate more freely in the decision-making process;
  - . the use of "buddy" intervention. If an aggrieved teacher does not relate positively to the principal or management staff, his "buddy colleague" should discuss the problem openly and frankly with him.

**Question 2**

**How do you avoid insecurity among staff members when you wish to bring about a major change?**

**Responses**

- (a) The idea of change itself must not be unilateral: it must be the fruit borne of participative decision-making with staff. Staff must be fully informed of the merits and demerits of the proposed change.
- (b) Impress on the staff that such a change will benefit the pupils and that, although it could result in a degree of inconvenience to staff, the process of change will be made good by the granting of certain concessions to teaching staff.
- (c) Show members of staff, by practical example, if possible, the benefits or possible success to be derived from such an innovation.
- (d) Other responses were as follows:
- . prior to initiating change, staff and management have to get together to discuss the idea during a brainstorming session;
  - . inform staff in advance through circular;
  - . implement the change in stages; and
  - . allay fears and win the confidence of teachers.

**Question 3**

What, in your opinion, is the cause of stress among teachers?

**Responses**

- (a) One principal stated that there were multiple factors. According to him, teachers show a lack of commitment or dedication to the profession and a blurring of a sense of duty towards pupils, thus resulting in self-created stress situations.
- (b) Another principal was not so sympathetic with his colleagues and came to the defence of level-1 teachers. In the past, according to him, it was the departmental officials who thought they knew it all and were guilty of harrasing teachers. Now it could be principals.
- (c) Other reasons cited for stress were as follows:
- . inconsistency in the application of school policy and procedure by autocratic principals who over-prescribe;
  - . external forces such as parents, department officials and management staff;
  - . personal factors such as teachers frequently arriving late at school; consistently requesting leave to go off early; one day's sick leave; manifestation of domestic problems at school;
  - . factors held against the educational system; such as being required to keep too many record books; maintaining prescribed units of work; deadlines; working with large numbers of pupils resulting in disciplinary problems; not being promoted; not achieving merit awards; salary not in keeping with work demands; non-recognition of human worth; set routines that do not provide for change; not being consulted about change; having to teach pupils of

varying ability (disadvantaged black pupils being placed in the same class as average/above-average pupils); not having sufficient time to relax during breaks.

- . Pressure exerted from the teachers' trade union (SADTU) for stayaways and chalkdowns.

#### Question 4

What has been the most common cause of dissatisfaction amongst teachers against you as principal?

#### Responses

- (a) When a principal demands at least the average work expected of a teacher, the relationship with a specific staff member usually turns sour. If he looks the other way and accepts teachers' incompetencies, then he becomes very popular.
- (b) Teachers are also dissatisfied with the liberal and compassionate attitude principals show to students and also with the fact that principals do not inflict corporal punishment, or suspend or expel errant pupils.
- (c) According to principals, teachers also express dissatisfaction with principals who
  - . schedule lengthy staff meetings after school;
  - . expect teachers to be involved regularly in extra curricular activities;
  - . have favourites among staff members;
  - . do not allow staff to consume liquor on the premises after hours when matches or games are played;
  - . reprimand staff for "regular" Monday absenteeism;

- . demand work on deadlines and implement strict rules of employment, for example reporting on time in the morning and not leaving early; and
- . are not members of the teachers' trade union (SADTU) and who do not participate in chalkdowns and stayaways.

### Question 5

You have to mediate in a conflict between your favourite teacher and a prominent parent of the PTA. How do you handle the situation?

### Responses

- (a) Listen to both teacher and parent. Analyse what has been said. Arrive at a decision, even jointly with the deputy. One party will be at fault. Ask that party to accept blame without loss of dignity. Arrange a meeting of both parties to restore any loss of friendship and to maintain the status quo.
- (b) If the teacher is found to be the guilty party, he should not be humiliated or demoralised to such an extent that he cannot continue to function effectively.
- (c) Conflict and confrontation, which are sure to surface, must be kept to a minimum. The principal must be the "honest broker" aiming to find an amicable solution.
- (d) If the principal is unable to arbitrate, he should not point an accusing finger. He should rather resolve the problem by reaching a negotiated settlement.

**Question 6**

An outstanding teacher on your staff has sexually abused a pupil. Your reaction

**Responses**

- (a) According to a secondary school principal, such behaviour cannot be condoned or compromised. He believes, quite rightly, that the child's rights should be paramount. Any such action by the teacher must be condemned in the strongest terms. Such an individual cannot be entrusted with the responsibility of caring for children and should be dismissed.
- (b) The principal must conduct a thorough investigation. He should follow the recommended lines of investigation as laid down by the Department. (Use circular minute on child abuse to determine the steps/procedures to follow.)
- (c) Other lines of action:
- . Do not show the teacher any sympathy. Call for his immediate suspension.
  - . Be supportive of both teacher and pupil.
  - . Call in and inform the parents. Try to reach a compromise by trying to settle the matter within the school context.
  - . Since he is an outstanding teacher, take a look at all the factors or circumstances including the teacher's home background and perhaps recommend that the teacher should receive counselling.

**Question 7**

You give the teachers on your staff the authority to make an important decision, and when it is done, you find that it goes totally against your personal, educational or managerial philosophy. What do you do?

**Responses**

- (a) It is not the principal's philosophy alone that matters, but the ethos of the school and of education in general. If the decision goes against this, then those who made the decision will have to explain how they arrived at it.
- (b) Call a staff meeting and check whether all factors, variables and principles were carefully considered in arriving at the decision. If they have and the staff is able to present sound reasonings, the decision remains in place.
- (c) Explain your educational and managerial philosophy to staff but if their decision was reached by consensus and is democratic, you must abide by it. Democracy and the decision must prevail.
- (d) Accept the decision because if you don't do so, teachers in future would refuse to make further input to aid in decision-making.

### **6.5.6 Summary of main findings from questionnaire and interviews with principals**

The sample comprised fairly new principals, the majority having one to five years' experience. Such personnel would therefore be thorough and follow rules expecting teachers to toe the line. While these same principals saw their staff to be highly dedicated and motivated, many were critical of teachers who had become militant after the formation of the teachers' union. They saw this as an erosion of the principal's authority.

Principals agree that educational managerial ability is an all-important criterion for their role functioning. They are becoming broader in their outlook and circulate the agenda of meetings well in advance, having nothing to fear and hide and moving forward with open minds, ready to negotiate and change their ideas to accommodate teachers.

None of the respondents would opt for the top-down bureaucratic style; most prefer a combination of the top-down and bottom-up approaches. When initiating innovative changes, they avoid feelings of insecurity among teachers and inform staff all the time keeping the channels of communication open.

Principals canvassed in this survey were also quick to blame teachers for self-created stress situations. They provided teachers with the opportunity to participate in joint decision-making and were not in the habit of victimising teachers who constantly opposed their thinking at staff meetings – a view that level-1 teachers would categorically deny (see question 16 on page 241).

## **6.6 A Discussion of Responses from Level-1 Teachers**

### **6.6.1 The trying nature of teaching**

Although the researcher did not interview level-1 teachers, they made valuable inputs by means of the questionnaires. Since the comments were valuable and relevant, it was decided to include them. Listed on the next page are some of the inputs, presented in no particular order.

- . Teaching is not and has never been an easy job. Teachers have to take their work and their worries home with them.
- . Teaching is a profession where the responsibility is great, the potential for failure significant, and the remuneration small.
- . Teaching as a profession is undergoing changes. Teachers can no longer be assured of respect from students or parents.
- . What the teacher has to accomplish and how he is to go about it have become confused. Teachers have to grapple with guidelines, mandates and impossible principals.
- . All too often, the eyes of teachers convey weariness, frustration and stress – the telltale signs of the desperate.
- . Staffroom chatter these days is mainly about early retirement, how students have changed for the worse, and the perpetual flow of responsibilities.
- . Teachers arrive as late as possible and leave as early as they can. To make matters worse, more and more teachers are dissatisfied with the principal whose management style they find as the main problem.

### **6.6.2 Analysis of questionnaires from 200 secondary and primary level-1 teachers**

(See Appendix E: All statistics can be read as numbers as well as percentages, since the sample included 100 primary and 100 secondary teachers)

#### **Question 1**

The sample surveyed (respondents) to establish experience is shown in table 6.21.

**Table 6.21** *Years of experience of level-1 teachers*

	YEARS OF EXPERIENCE				TOTAL
	1-5 YEARS	6-10	11-15	MORE THAN 15	
SECONDARY	13	45	30	12	100
PRIMARY	19	38	24	19	100
MEAN	16	41,5	27	15,5	100

The sample is representative of teachers in general, with 84% of the respondents having more than six years' teaching experience. Hence a fairly balanced response to the questionnaire could be expected.

### Question 2

Respondents were asked to look back at the years in the classroom and to sum up how they felt. Their feelings are summarised below.

**Table 6.22** *Teachers' feelings about the profession*

	TEACHERS DISILLUSIONED	TEACHERS SATISFIED	TEACHERS PREFERRING CHANGE OF JOB	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	28	41	28	3	100
PRIMARY	47	51	26	4	100
MEAN	23,5	46	27	3,5	100

Of the respondents, 46% were satisfied and experienced job satisfaction, 23,5% were disillusioned and 27% would prefer a change of career.

The startling statistic is that a little over half of the respondents are either disillusioned or would prefer to change their career. The reason for this is not unexpected, especially when one considers the general comments made to the researcher by the teachers (discussed under 6.6.1).

### Question 3

Teachers were asked to rate principals from democratic to autocratic, or midway.

The ratings for secondary and primary schools are shown in the table below.

**Table 6.23 How teachers view principals**

	DEMOCRATIC	AUTOCRATIC	MIDWAY BET. THE TWO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	7	24	68	1	100
PRIMARY	11	24	65	-	100
MEAN	9	24	66,5	0,5	100

24% saw principals as autocratic and 9% as democratic. The conclusion one can draw from this statistics is that more teachers viewed principals to be undemocratic and autocratic. Hundred and thirty three out of 200 level-1 teachers (66,5%) felt that principals were midway between democratic and autocratic.

**Question 4**

The fourth question stated that the teacher's main task is teaching. Teachers were asked to agree or disagree that this main task is being overshadowed by demands from management for unnecessary paperwork and record-keeping. The table below shows the combined responses presented as a mean.

**Table 6.24** *Whether teachers are overburdened with paperwork*

STRONGLY DISAGREE	3%
DISAGREE	2,5%
NEUTRAL	8,5%
STRONGLY AGREE	51,5%
AGREE	34,5%
TOTAL	100%

There is clear evidence (86% of the respondents) that teachers are being asked to keep unnecessary records.

Teachers tend to blame principals and superintendents for this. Teachers also feel that if the paperwork would be decreased, they could concentrate on teaching.

**Question 5**

In another probing question, teachers were asked whether they felt that the principal was fast becoming a public relations officer rather than an educational leader. The responses are reflected below.

**Table 6.25** *Whether the principal is a public relations officer*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SEC.	1	6	23	21	48	1	100
PRI.	0	8	25	24	43	0	100
MEAN	0,5	7	24	22,5	45,5	0,5	100

A large percentage of the respondents (68%) agreed or strongly agreed that the principal spent his energy on public relations rather than on being an educational leader offering sound pedagogical guidance to teachers.

#### **Question 6**

Teachers were asked if they found the options presented by the principal to be limited with subtle attempts by him to influence the thinking when a controversial issue was discussed at a staff meeting. Hundred and forty seven or 73,5% of the respondents agreed that principals were subtly influencing the thinking at staff meetings while only 26,5% disagreed. According to these teachers, most principals are indeed foisting their thinking on staff, which means that they are acting like autocratic leaders.

#### **Question 7**

Teachers were asked if they agreed that principals were setting unrealistic goals and objectives for them (teachers).

The responses are tabled below.

**Table 6.26** *Whether principals set unrealistic goals*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	2	21	34	15	28	100
PRIMARY	6	25	33	8	28	100
MEAN	4	23	33,5	11,5	28	100

Of the respondents, 39,5% either agreed or strongly agreed that demands from the principal were unrealistic, while 27% disagreed or strongly disagreed. Thirty three and a half per cent were undecided. It can be concluded that principals set unrealistic goals and objectives.

#### **Question 8**

The question was: "Would principals allow staff to pursue a project which violated the headmaster's norms or policy?" Hundred and forty eight or 79% said that principals would not, 19% said that the principal would allow it and 2% could not give an answer. The response tend to indicate that many principals are not prepared to trust the judgement of teachers completely.

#### **Question 9**

This question was closely aligned with the previous one. Teachers were asked whether they felt that principals made personal decisions which ought to have involved the staff. The responses are shown in table 6.27.

**Table 6.27** *Principals' involvement in teachers' personal decisions*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	4	11	25	17	43	100
PRIMARY	1	17	14	18	40	100
MEAN	2,5	14	19,5	22,5	41,5	100

Of the respondents, 64% agreed or strongly agreed that principals denied teachers' decision-making rights whereas only 16,5% disagreed and 19,5% were neutral. The response, which can be interpreted as a serious indictment against principals goes contrary to question 9 of the questionnaire which was addressed to principals (see page 206) in which 84% of the principals said that they provided meaningful opportunity for teachers to participate in decisions directly affecting them. It is clear that teachers want to be part of decisions which affect them directly and that principals are not prepared to allow this.

#### **Question 10**

This was also linked to the two previous questions. Teachers were asked whether they felt that principals created a climate for teachers and principals to exchange ideas freely. The outcome is not hard to predict especially after the two previous findings. The table below shows the responses.

**Table 6.28** *Whether principals created a climate of healthy exchange*

	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	43	53	4	100
PRIMARY	40	59	1	100
MEAN	41,5	56	2,5	100

More than half the respondents (56%) stated that principals failed to include them in the decision-making process. This is a serious indictment against principals management style.

**Question 11**

Teachers were asked if they agreed that principals inhibited staff performance by arbitrary and autocratic practices (for example by not allowing for joint decision-making). Their responses are reflected below.

**Table 6.29** *Principals' involvement in teachers' personal decisions*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	4	16	27	22	31	100
PRIMARY	3	23	19	21	34	100
MEAN	3,5	19,5	23	21,5	32,5	100

Of the respondents, 54% agreed or strongly agreed that principals inhibited staff thereby preventing them from participating in joint decision-making, while 23% felt that principals made provision for joint decision-making.

This indicates that a substantial number of principals tend to manage autocratically.

**Question 12**

Another controversial issue is the question of favouritism. Teachers were asked if they thought that principals were guilty of selecting teachers who lacked the necessary skills, knowhow, experience, personality or drive to head new projects. Of the respondents, 34,5% agreed or strongly agreed while 32,5% disagreed. At least one third (33%) were neutral.

It seems that teachers again are faulting principals managerial style.

**Question 13**

From personal experience the researcher has observed that teachers express dissatisfaction at the way principals procrastinate as regards urgent issues. With this in mind, the researcher posed the question whether teachers thought that principals procrastinated, thwarted decisions and sat on the fence when teachers needed a firm, vigorous policy guideline in emergency situations like mass stayaways, chalkdowns or student boycotts. The combined responses are displayed below.

**Table 6.30** *Whether principals procrastinate over urgent issues*

YES	72%
NO	27,5%
NO RESPONSE	0,5%
TOTAL	100%

These statistics project a weak link in the management style of many principals.

**Question 14**

Teachers were asked to give their view on the extent to which principals feared authority from their superiors. The table below shows their responses.

**Table 6.31** *Whether principals are afraid of their superiors*

	ALWAYS	MOST OFTEN	SOMETIMES	NOT AT ALL	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	39	31	24	4	2	100%
PRIMARY	36	40	24	-	-	100%
MEAN	37,5	35,5	24	2	1	100%

Only 2% felt that principals are not scared of their superiors, 1% did not respond to this question, and 97% to varying degrees, felt that principals fear head office.

With such fear prevalent, teachers could regard principals as lacking courage when it comes to decision-making over controversial issues.

#### **Question 15**

If being scared of head office is one matter, subservience to the community is another. Teachers were asked whether they agreed with the statement that principals were subservient to the community to the point of "sacrificing" a teacher to please parents. Over half (53,5%) agreed that teachers would be the "sacrificial lambs" at the hands of the principal if there was a conflict with the community, while 24% felt that teachers are safe with the principal and 22,5% remained neutral. From discussion and the researcher's own experience, teachers want to be backed by the principal in a community-related controversy.

#### **Question 16**

Teachers generally fear for themselves if they constantly challenge and oppose the principal's thinking. The researcher asked respondents whether they thought that principals would victimise a teacher who was outspoken at meetings. The responses are tabled below.

**Table 6.32** *Whether principals would victimise outspoken teachers*

	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	63	36	1	100
PRIMARY	76	24	-	100
MEAN	69,5	30	0,5	100

Almost 70% of respondents felt that principals would victimise the teacher. The statistics speak for themselves as these teachers must have experienced or saw such victimisation at first hand. Furthermore, it indicates the autocratic style of the principal who wants the final say. If principals were democratic, 70% of the respondents would not go through staff meetings fearing victimisation.

#### **Question 17**

To probe the principal's style of management even further, respondents were asked to agree or disagree with the statement that the principal's strategy is to keep dissatisfaction to a minimum. There was overwhelming support for the statement, with 76,5% agreeing that principals expected teachers to "toe the line" without engaging in controversy or publicity, 6% disagreeing and 17,5% being neutral.

This points to principals' wanting nothing done that is controversial or which brings about negative publicity. They thus expect teachers to behave accordingly.

**Question 18**

In this question, teachers were asked if the principal would use a teacher to further his (the principal's) own ends, for example to secure a promotion. The responses are shown below.

**Table 6.33** *Whether principals would use teachers for personal gain*

	YES	NO	TOTAL
SECONDARY	80	20	100
PRIMARY	78	22	100
MEAN	79	21	100

The above table shows that 79% of respondents agree that principals use teachers for personal gain while only 21% disagreed.

**Question 19**

Prior to this study, many teachers complained to the researcher, that principals practise favouritism. To this end, respondents were asked whether they thought that principals were guilty of favouring teachers when it came to the allocation of classes, assigning duties and distributing teaching loads. The table below shows respondents' thinking.

**Table 6.34** *Whether principals were guilty of favouritism*

	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	83	16	1	100
PRIMARY	80	20	-	100
MEAN	81,5	18	0,5	100

Slightly more than 80% of teachers accused principals of favouritism, which is another reflection of their poor management style.

### Question 20

Teachers were asked whether principals should treat teachers as professional colleagues or as subordinates. The responses are ranked for both secondary and primary teachers.

**Table 6.35 *How principals view teachers***

As professional colleague with different but equal roles	91,5%
As subordinates	0%
Midway between the two	8%
No response	0,5%
TOTAL	100%

Teachers want recognition of their professional status. Much of their frustration with principals stems from their not being treated as professional colleagues with different but equal roles.

### Question 21

Teachers were asked which of four different leadership styles they preferred. Their responses to the options are ranked below in order of preference.

**Table 6.36** *Teacher preference of leadership style*

OPTIONS PRESENTED	SECONDARY	PRIMARY	MEAN
Working under a firm but sympathetic principal	39%	47%	43%
Being offered decision-making status	45%	38%	41,5%
Timeous praise for work well done	10%	8%	9%
Being "backed" in conflict situations	6%	7%	6,5%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%

The principal's character is of overriding importance to the teacher. From the data, it is evident that teachers wish to work under firm but sympathetic and just principals. Principals must be democratic and involve teachers as much as possible in a vibrant, dynamic and participative management style.

#### **Question 22**

Another issue that is close to the hearts of teachers is the issue of student discipline resulting in parental intervention. Teachers were asked whether they agreed that it did not matter whether the principal was a strong disciplinarian so long as he supported the teacher on issues relating to clashes with parents over student discipline. The responses are shown in the table below.

**Table 6.37** *Whether principals supported teachers over student discipline*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	4	27	22	20	27	100
PRIMARY	5	16	16	33	30	100
MEAN	4,5	21,5	19	26,5	28,5	100

Of the respondents, 55% agreed or strongly agreed that they expected principals' backing in problems with student discipline or clashes with parents. The reason could possibly be that the teacher's authority in the class is eroding and that he is legally prohibited, as classroom practitioner, from inflicting punishment on wayward students. His only recourse is to refer such cases to the principal. The teacher would expect the principal to support his recommendations even if it means going against parents' opinion.

**Question 23**

Teaching is a demanding profession and teachers were asked which of the four factors listed below increased their stress level. The responses combined for primary and secondary school teachers, are ranked in the table below.

**Table 6.38** *Factors increasing teachers' stress level*

An impossible principal	33,5%
Time pressures and deadlines	31%
Poor working conditions	18%
Pupil discipline	17,5%
TOTAL	100%

The statistics above show how important the principal is to the teacher. Moreover, it is evident that an unpopular principal increases teachers' stress levels. This is second to time pressures and deadlines set by management staff.

#### Question 24

In teaching, stress has been ever present. Teachers were asked which stress-coping tactic they used. The responses for both primary and secondary teachers are ranked in the table below.

**Table 6.39** *Stress-coping tactic used by teachers*

Keeping things in perspective	58%
Setting realistic goals	28,5%
Avoiding confrontation	9%
Steering clear of the principal	2,5%
No response	2%
TOTAL	100%

From the above, 58% of the respondents control stress by organising themselves well and keeping things in perspective.

The fact that 2,5% of respondents expressed concern about the principal could indicate that teachers do not have a general grudge against or an unreasonable dislike of the principal.

#### Question 25

According to the findings of the researcher, teachers object to supervision of their work because they have experienced how petty management teams can be. Keeping this in mind, the researcher asked teachers what they felt was management's motive in examining their work. The combined responses, not ranked, are shown as they appeared in the questionnaire.

**Table 6.40** *Management's motive when examining teachers' work*

Petty and fault-finding	41,5%
Broadminded and appreciative of what's done	10%
Midway between the two	48,5%
TOTAL	100%

Since only 10% of respondents felt that principals were broadminded and appreciative of what is being done, this may mean that a considerable number of teachers feel that their work often goes unnoticed or is faulted for trivial reasons. Moreover, since 48,5% of the respondents were mid-way between the two above mentioned extremes and 41,5% indicated that principals are generally petty and fault finding, it shows clearly that there is room for improvement in management's motive when examining the teaching staff's work.

**Question 26**

This question was linked to the previous question. Teachers were asked which method management employed prior to a classroom visit. The combined responses of both primary and secondary school teachers are ranked in the table below.

**Table 6.41** *Method used by principals prior to class visit*

Gives prior warning of visit	63,5%
Examines teacher's record thoroughly	23%
Jumps on the teacher	13,5%
TOTAL	100%

From the above statistics, principals are no longer jumping on teachers with the preconceived idea of catching them out, but rather give prior warning of their visit. By adopting this approach, principals are respecting teachers' rights and showing trust when it is needed most. This is certainly pointing to participative management style.

**Question 27**

Teachers were asked what management said after listening to their lessons and were given two alternatives. The combined responses are ranked in order of preference below.

**Table 6.42** *Principals' "verdict" after listening to teachers' lessons*

Will fault something despite its being a good lesson	57%
Give honest opinion about the lesson	40%
No response	3%
TOTAL	100%

The data in table 6.42 above suggest that more than half the respondents have little faith in the principal's assessment of their lessons. Do principals perhaps expect too much of their teachers? Have principals lost touch with the reality of present-day classroom teaching? Teaching today is a challenging endeavour. Students are militant, subject matter is often not to the students' liking and many students are in school only because of force or coercion from parents. Present-day teachers have to teach students with a negative outlook.

**Question 28**

While still probing class visits by management staff, respondents were asked what purpose such visits served and were presented with three alternatives. The responses ranked separately for secondary and primary schools are shown below.

**Table 6.43** *The purpose of classroom visits by management*

OPTIONS	SECONDARY	PRIMARY	MEAN
Undertaken since it is their duty	57%	61%	59%
Serves little or no purpose	31%	22%	26,5%
Serves a useful purpose	11%	17%	14%
No response	1%	-	0,5%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%

Of the respondents, 59% felt classroom visits were not undertaken with the positive intention of improving teaching but purely because it was a duty delegated from higher up.

A sizeable 26,5% were of the opinion that such visits by principals or management staff served little or no purpose. Only 14% of the sample felt that they benefitted from such visits.

From the data, it can be concluded that principals and educational authorities need to take a fresh look at the issue of classroom visits as well as the issue of teachers' experiences when undertaking such visits. Teachers with ten or more years' experience can do without classroom visits.

#### **Question 29**

Teachers were asked what quality they liked in management and were presented with four alternatives. Of the total population, 82% wanted management to encourage joint decision-making, 8% wanted the principal to be a strong disciplinarian, 7% wanted the principal to support a teacher in front of parents, and 3% wanted support against pupils even if the pupil was right.

**Question 30**

Finally teachers had to indicate what would be the general state of education if the principal and his management staff were to be removed from schools. Of the population, 41,5% of respondents felt that effective administration of the school would suffer and 10% stated that education in general would suffer. However, 46% felt that neither the education of the pupil, nor the teacher in the class would suffer.

**6.6.3 Summary of the main findings from questionnaire**

It is encouraging to note that nearly half the respondents find principals to be necessary in the profession since they stand for effective administration. The majority of teachers are satisfied with the profession and would not prefer a change of job. Over two thirds of teachers were not able to label principals democratic or autocratic, preferring to place them somewhere in between. More than 40% of respondents felt that principals created the necessary climate for healthy interpersonal relationships.

However, an increasing number of teachers are frustrated and disillusioned with the profession as well as with many principals who they feel are autocratic. These principals tend to emphasise the wrong aspects, controlling teachers with deadlines and time pressures. When teachers expect to be backed in a conflict, these principals side with the community and student.

Furthermore, if teachers critically question the principal's thinking and decisions, especially at staff meetings, they are sure to be victimised.

Principals were also accused of allocating "good" classes and lighter teaching loads to favourites amongst the staff, and of using teachers for their personal aggrandisement. Teachers were also open about saying that "an impossible principal" was a significant cause of increased stress.

## **6.7 A Discussion of Responses from Heads of Department**

### **6.7.1 The role function of the head of department**

Although the researcher did not interview heads of department, he was able to glean seven basic functions they performed at schools. These were the following:

- . *Promoting staff development* - he should be an in-service provider, assisting in the professional development of teachers.
- . *Communicating information effectively* - communicating information and ideas in a department and management is the responsibility of the head of department.
- . *Monitoring teachers' work* - so that he could keep himself informed about the quality of the teacher's work.
- . *Supervising classroom teaching* - this duty includes assessing the teacher's ability to select and utilise teaching methods and audiovisual resources.

- . *Monitoring pupil performance* – he is required to monitor the performance of pupils in his subject and assist the extremely gifted and talented as well as the very weak.
- . *Responsibility for organisational matters* – he is responsible for selecting reference and textbooks, planning tests and examinations, drawing up the timetable, supervising lesson plans, schemes of work and mark books.
- . *Assisting with general school administration* – principals require the assistance of heads of department to arrange "relief" teachers, monitor attendance, complete statistical returns for departmental purposes and supervise "ground duty".

### 6.7.2 Analysis of questionnaire completed by 44 secondary and 39 primary heads of department (see Appendix D)

#### Question 1

In the first question, it was established that the sample comprised 39 primary and 44 secondary heads of department.

#### Question 2

In this question, the years' experience of each head of department was established. This is shown in the table below.

**Table 6.44** *Years of experience of heads of department*

	1 – 5 YEARS	6 – 10 YEARS	MORE THAN 10 YEARS	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	12	27	5	–	44
PRIMARY	21	10	6	2	39
MEAN	40,5	43,5	13,5	2,5	100

Of the heads of department used in this empirical investigation, 57% had over six years' experience with 40,5% having one to five years.

### Question 3

Respondents were asked if their role function as head of department had been defined for them. It was pleasing that 63,5% answered in the affirmative. However, 34% stated that their role function had not been defined to them and 2,5% failed to respond.

It is disturbing to note that 34% of respondents are executing their professional duty without identifying or knowing the parameters of their role function. Even if the subject advisors of the department did not map out the role function, the principal should be held responsible since he ought to have communicated this important information to the head of department.

### Question 4

This question was closely linked with the third question. Respondents were asked whether at times they felt confused about what they should be doing. The responses are shown below.

**Table 6.45** *Whether heads of department are confused about their duties*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SEC.	16	27	14	9	34	-	100
PRI.	13	31	15	5	33	3	100
MEAN	14,5	29	14,5	7	33,5	1,5	100

At times more than one third (40,5%) of both secondary and primary heads of department were confused about their role functions; 44,5% of respondents refuted the statement and 14,5% were neutral.

Effective management in the teaching or learning situation is bound to suffer if 40,5% of the heads of department are confused or oblivious as to what they should be doing. Principals have to accept part of the blame for this state of affairs.

#### **Question 5**

In the fifth question it was asked whether the head of department agreed that he was like the "filling in a sandwich", crushed within two layers, the principal at the top and the level-1 educator at the bottom.

Half the population agreed while 38,5% disagreed or strongly disagreed. Of the respondents 11,5% were neutral. A considerable number of heads of department experience themselves as being crushed, indicating severe constraints on their mobility and personal management style.

**Question 6**

Still probing his role function, the head of department was asked whether he viewed himself as a liaison officer, bearing the brunt from the principal on one side and the level-1 educator on the other. The responses are tabled below.

**Table 6.46 *Whether the head of department is a liaison officer***

	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	64	34	2	100
PRIMARY	77	20	3	100
MEAN	70,5	27	2,5	100

Of the respondents, 70,5% agreed that they experienced themselves as being liaison officers between two forces; 27% disagreed while 2,5% did not want to commit themselves.

The data suggest that the head of department is often relegated to a kind of "junior messenger", shuttling between principal and teachers, whereas he could be gainfully occupied in the effective administration and organisation of classroom teaching.

**Question 7**

Heads of department were asked if they would, even subtly, victimise a teacher who opposed their suggestions or differed from them. The responses are shown below.

**Table 6.47** *Whether heads of department victimise teachers*

	ALWAYS	MOST OFTEN	SOMETIMES	NOT AT ALL	CAN'T SAY	TOTAL
SEC.	-	-	9	89	2	100%
PRI.	-	-	15	74	11	100%
MEAN	-	-	12	81,5	6,5	100%

A little more than 80% of the respondents would not victimise teachers who opposed their views. The data tend to suggest a more liberal and democratic managerial style among respondents.

#### Question 8

Heads of department were asked if they thought that the top-down model of prescription created mistrust and tension among teachers. Nearly two thirds (65%) agreed, 33,5% disagreed while 1,5% did not respond.

At least one third of respondents still believe that the top-down model does not create mistrust or tension. It can be assumed that these 33,5% of heads of department may in future become principals with an autocratic management style.

#### Question 9

Here, the researcher wanted to know how the principal would react when a head of department questioned an instruction given to him by the principal to pass on to teachers. The responses of heads of department are ranked in the table below.

**Table 6.48** *Principals' reaction when a head of department questions him on instructions to be passed on to teachers*

States its department policy	79,5%
No response	14%
Becomes officious/"throws" the handbook at them	2,5%
States that instructions should not be questioned	2,5%
TOTAL	100%

The data imply that the majority of respondents were of the opinion that principals are often undemocratic and hide behind regulations.

**Question 10**

Heads of department were asked how they thought level-1 teachers viewed them on a three point scale. The responses (not ranked) are presented below.

**Table 6.49** *How level-1 teachers perceived heads of department*

Dictatorial and officious	10%
Democratic and liberal	28%
Midway between the two	62%
TOTAL	100%

One tenth of heads of department felt that they projected a dictatorial and officious image; only 28% felt that their subordinates viewed them as democratic and liberal. Of the respondents, 62% felt that teachers saw them as being midway between democratic and autocratic leaders.

**Question 11**

Heads of department were asked to agree or disagree with the statement that their first and most important task was to promote their subject. Their responses are reflected in the table below.

**Table 6.50** *Whether heads of department viewed their most important task as promoting their subject*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	5	9	2	41	43	100
PRIMARY	5	13	15	31	36	100
MEAN	5	11	8,5	36	39,5	100

About three quarters (75,5%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that their first and most important task as head of department was to promote their subject, while 16% disagreed. It seems that the majority of heads of department are aware of their priorities and are committed to promote learning.

**Question 12**

As a follow-up question, heads of department were asked if their first task was to promote their subject, and to what extent they were achieving this goal. The table below shows their responses.

**Table 6.51** *Whether heads of department were succeeding in promoting their subject*

ALWAYS	8%
MOST OFTEN	52%
SOMETIMES	29%
NOT AT ALL	3,5%
NO RESPONSE	7,5%
TOTAL	100%

Of the respondents, 3,5% felt that they were not achieving the goal of promoting their subjects and 7,5% did not want to commit themselves. However, 89% felt that they were achieving the goal of promoting their subject to varying degrees.

### Question 13

In this question, the following statement was made:

Heads of department have a say in the structuring of syllabus, selection of textbooks and determining school policy and procedure.

Heads of department were asked to agree or disagree on a five-point scale. Their responses are tabled below.

**Table 6.52 *Whether heads of department have a say in the structuring of the syllabus***

STRONGLY DISAGREE	18%
DISAGREE	16,5%
NEUTRAL	7%
STRONGLY AGREE	14%
AGREE	44,5%
TOTAL	100%

Of the respondents, 58,5% agreed or strongly agreed that they had a say in structuring the syllabus, selecting textbooks and determining school policy; 34,5% disagreed and 7% were neutral. The data seem to indicate a gradual empowering of the head of department.

**Question 14**

Heads of department were presented with the following statement:

Management based on authority from the top and obedience from the bottom cannot develop an education for freedom, democracy and progress and can result in failure.

They were asked to either agree or disagree with this statement. Their responses are shown in the table below.

**Table 6.53** *Heads of department's interpretation of the successes of democratic education*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SEC.	2	9	7	52	30	-	100
PRI.	3	13	13	40	28	3	100
MEAN	2,5	11	10	46	29	1,5	100

Three quarters (75%) of the population agreed or strongly agreed that the top-down model was unsuitable and had no place in today's education, while 13,5% felt that autocratic management was still necessary.

**Question 15**

Probing their management style more directly heads of department were asked if they felt uncomfortable with supervising or evaluating the work of subordinates. Of the respondents, 30,5% agreed or strongly agreed that they were uncomfortable with supervising teachers' work, 55,5% did not feel uncomfortable and 13,5% were neutral. Supervision of teachers work by heads of department has been a bone of contention.

Some teachers interviewed have even asked heads of department to leave their classrooms. This could perhaps account for the 30,5% who feel uncomfortable supervising the work of "seasoned" teachers.

#### Question 16

As an extension of question 15, heads of department were asked if each had a quota of reports to write on teachers. This question was included because it has a direct bearing on the head of department's management style and teacher's reaction to it. Of the respondents, 80% said that they did not have a quota while 20% said they had. The 20% could be working under autocratic principals.

#### Question 17

Heads of department were asked to rate what they felt they achieved by supervising teachers' work. The ranked responses are shown below.

**Table 6.54** *What heads of department felt they achieved by supervising a teacher's work*

Improves his performance in class	59%
Supervision is frowned upon by the teacher	26%
Undermines the teacher and makes him feel insecure	7,5%
Creates unnecessary stress for teacher	6%
No response	1,5%
TOTAL	100%

Of the heads of department taking part in the survey, 59% had a positive outlook on supervision since they felt that it improved the quality of teaching. 26% were courageous enough to say that teachers did not like their work being supervised, and 6% saw supervision as stress inducing for the teacher.

### Question 18

Respondents were asked what strategies they thought were most important when supervising a new teacher. The responses ranked below reveal the thinking of the heads of department.

**Table 6.55** *What heads of department felt was most important when supervising new teachers*

Observing the progress of pupils	35%
Giving a demonstration lesson yourself	27,5%
Planning the teacher's lesson	20%
Commenting critically on the lesson	16,5%
No response	1%
TOTAL	100%

By observing the progress of pupils, 35% felt that they could make fairly accurate predictions about how the teacher was doing. Only 16,5% of respondents would comment critically on the lesson. This small percentage tends to indicate that heads of department are realising the negative effect of being overcritical when evaluating teachers' lessons. More than one fifth (27,5%) would show the teacher how to do certain things by giving a demonstration lesson. Since this question dealt directly with management style, which is a thorny issue, the statistical pattern tends to show a fair spread among respondents.

**Question 19**

Heads of department were asked what assistance they would give a new teacher who has problems with experiencing discipline. They could choose from four alternatives. Their responses are ranked below.

**Table 6.56** *Type of assistance a head of department would give to a teacher experiencing discipline problems*

Show the teacher how to get it right	50,5%
Point out the weaknesses in his class control	44%
Reprimand the pupils	4%
No response	1,5%
Reprimand the teacher in private	-
TOTAL	100%

A little more than half of the respondents (50,5%) would demonstrate to the new teacher how to handle classroom discipline, while 44% would point out to the teacher the weaknesses in his class control. Combined, 94,5% of respondents would use an approach that would win over novice teachers rather than antagonise them. No head of department would reprimand the teacher, possibly because he would be new and would have much to learn.

**Question 20**

In this question, heads of department were asked how they could improve the morale of teachers and were presented with four options. Their responses, ranked below, indicate their thinking.

**Table 6.57** *How heads of department could improve teacher morale*

Constantly encouraging and respecting the rights of a teacher	39,5%
Creating a feeling of trust	38%
Conducting themselves professionally even if they are under stress	18,5%
Preventing friction among staff members	4%
TOTAL	100%

Close on to 40% of the respondents would not violate the human dignity and fundamental rights of the teacher, thereby creating an "open, inviting atmosphere". More than a third, (38%) would improve the morale by creating a feeling of trust, 18,5% would conduct themselves professionally even if there were under stress and 4% felt that by preventing friction among staff members they would improve the general morale of newcomers in the teaching profession. The responses here tend to point towards mutual respect and greater teacher participation.

**Question 21**

Heads of department were asked how they could be of help to teachers, and had to choose from four alternatives. Their responses are ranked below.

**Table 6.58** *How heads of department could be of help to teachers*

Listening to teachers' grievances	41%
Arranging subject committee meetings	38,5%
Selecting suitable textbooks and teaching aids	15,5%
Keeping record books of outstanding teachers to motivate others	3,5%
No response	1,5%
TOTAL	100%

Of the respondents 41% felt that they could be of help by listening to teachers' grievances. This data indicate that teachers have grievances and by listening to them, heads of department are showing themselves to be pursuing a democratic approach. The 38,5% of respondents who would arrange subject committee meetings could imply heads of department who are more businesslike and interested in the academic aspect of the work.

### Question 22

At a deeper level, respondents were asked why they felt teachers carried out their instructions. Over half (57,5%) felt that it was because the level-1 teacher wanted to be a better educator. This is encouraging, because the statistics tend to indicate that heads of department want to help in the learning situation. The researcher feels that it is cause for concern that 23% of respondents felt that teachers were carrying out instructions because they wanted to prevent victimisation and 11,5% because they feared that they would not be promoted unless they do so. More than one third of respondents cited fear as the cause of prescription.

The researcher is of the opinion that education in an open and democratic society must be free of fear and mistrust.

### Question 23

In this question the head of department was asked how he ensured professional growth for himself as well as for the team of teachers.

A little more than three quarters (76,5%) kept abreast of innovative trends by reading current education literature. These trends are discussed then at subject committee meetings. Of the remaining quarter, 20% would keep abreast of innovative trends by attending workshops or seminars, 2,5% would keep abreast by holding numerous subject committee meetings and 1% would do so by improving their educational qualifications.

#### Question 24

Heads of department are prescribed to and in turn have to prescribe to teachers. They were asked how they would solve the problem of prescription. Nearly two thirds (63%) would ensure that guides and suggestions are openly discussed before implementation. Nearly a third (33%) would give teachers the freedom to use the method of their choice and 4% would take a critical look at who is prescribing what to the teacher and why. The responses tend to point to a more democratic and participative management style among heads of department.

#### Question 25

Heads of department were asked what they would do to promote professional growth among teachers. They were presented with four options and responded as follows: 44,5% would hold workshops after school for teachers, 24% would motivate teachers to study further, 21% would ask teachers to attend orientation courses and 10,5% would ask teachers in their teams to register for in-service programmes.

From the responses, it may be noted that every head of department saw the need for professional growth and would do something about improving teachers professionally.

#### Question 26

Heads of department were asked what purpose they thought their supervision and evaluation served. Of the respondents, 69,5% felt that it improved teaching and promoted an effective learning situation, 21% felt that it improved instruction techniques, 8,5% did it as a direct instruction from the principal, and 1% did it to correct methodology.

Teachers are generally suspicious of supervision of their work and this was borne out when they were questioned. (see Question 25 on page 241).

#### Question 27

Heads of department were asked why teachers sometimes, rebelled against supervision and evaluation and were presented with four alternatives. Of the respondents, 59,5% felt that teachers viewed the exercise as no more than a fault-finding expedition, a fact that became evident in the questionnaire addressed to teachers. (see Question 25 on page 247). A quarter (25%) of the respondents were not in favour of supervision because they wanted professional autonomy, while 7% felt that teachers don't want to be classified or categorised. A small group (3,5%) felt that teachers believed that supervision does nothing to improve teaching practice in the classroom while 5% did not respond.

In the light of these responses, it would be useful for educational authorities, principals and heads of department to take a long and hard look at the purpose and scope of supervision in schools.

**Question 28**

Heads of department were asked if they agreed with the remark that the manifestation of organisational conflict is the product of poor management. The results are tabled below.

**Table 6.59 *Whether heads of department felt that conflict resulted from poor management***

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	7	23	6	16	48	100
PRIMARY	8	8	15	20	49	100
MEAN	7,5	15,5	10,5	18	48,5	100

Of the respondents, 66,5% agreed or strongly agreed that conflict resulted from poor management, while 23% disagreed and 10,5% remained neutral.

If one considers the numerous conflicts at schools, this response tends to lay the blame on the management style of, inter alia, heads of department.

**Question 29**

Still with regard to supervision, heads of department were asked whether they agreed that supervision or instruction narrows education down to an examination of techniques, speech, record keeping and supervision of written work. Their responses are shown in the table below.

**Table 6.60** *Whether heads of department agreed that supervision was an examination of techniques*

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	11	43	9	14	23	100
PRIMARY	8	31	18	10	33	100
MEAN	9,5	37	13,5	12	28	100

From this data, it may be seen that there is a close division of opinion, since 46,5% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that supervision reduced education to an examination of techniques, while 40% agreed with the statement. In essence 40% of respondents were saying that supervision is petty since the emphasis was on record keeping, speech and perhaps marking of pupils' books.

**Question 30**

Supervision of teachers work has been greatly reduced as a result of pressure being applied by the teacher's trade union (SADTU).

Heads of department were asked whether they felt relieved now that supervision has been greatly reduced. The results are tabled below.

**Table 6.61** *Whether heads of department were relieved because supervision has been reduced*

	YES	NO	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL
SECONDARY	87	11	2	100
PRIMARY	77	20	3	100
MEAN	82	15,5	2,5	100

The responses clearly show that supervision is a controversial issue which is viewed negatively by teachers. The fact that 82% of heads of department were happy that supervision has been reduced indicates that respondents were not comfortable with examining teachers' work.

### **6.7.3 Summary of main findings from questionnaire**

Many heads of department see themselves as liaison officers crushed between the principal on one side and teachers on the other. Many are prescribed to by the principal and in turn delegate to teachers. This makes them unpopular. However, they would not victimise teachers who disagreed with them.

Most heads of department view the top-down model of prescription with suspicion because it makes them unpopular and may cause stress among teachers. They agree that management based on authority from the top and obedience from the bottom cannot develop an education for freedom and democracy.

The majority of heads of department taking part in the empirical research feel that their first duty is to promote their subject and to encourage effective learning. Therefore they do not feel uncomfortable supervising subordinate's work since it would benefit the child in the class. Still, these respondents feel more relaxed now that strict supervision has been reduced.

## **6.8 Overview of the Empirical Research**

The researcher set out to investigate how management styles affected level-1 teachers in the classroom. In order to do so, twenty selected principals from primary schools and twenty selected principals from secondary schools from the Chatsworth and Phoenix areas were interviewed. They also had to complete a questionnaire.

A questionnaire was also given to 100 primary school level-1 teachers selected at random and 100 secondary level-1 teachers selected at random from the same schools as those from which the principals were selected.

Since management styles also affect heads of department, the researcher spoke to and gave questionnaires to 40 primary and 40 secondary school heads of department, at the same Chatsworth and Phoenix schools.

The findings tend to support the hypothesis of the researcher and the literature reviewed, namely that autocratic leadership on the part of principals and heads of department impacts negatively on teachers' performance in the classroom. When teachers question these autocratic leaders critically, they are often victimised, either openly or subtly.

Teachers reject authority from the top-down and want participative management so that they can have a say in the decisions that affect them.

However, the researcher (himself a level-1 teacher) has also found numerous educational managers who see the benefits of democracy and engage teachers fully in decision-making or even allow them to initiate and complete essential school projects. This certainly augurs well for education in the future.

In the last chapter, chapter 7, the researcher will make certain recommendations on the basis of this study.

## CHAPTER 7

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 7.1 Introduction

The researcher set out to critically examine the positive and negative effects that the prevailing management approaches and styles of educational managers have on teachers in the classroom.

Furthermore, the researcher wanted to gauge to what extent teachers were allowed to participate in decision-making, especially in those areas which had a direct effect on their efficiency, job satisfaction as professionals, and to what extent they were allowed to make a meaningful contribution to the day-to-day running of schools.

In order to conduct the investigation in the most efficient way, the researcher first made a thorough study of local and overseas literature. After this, principals were interviewed and questionnaires distributed to respondents in educational practice. In total 200 level-1 teachers from secondary and primary schools in the Chatsworth and Phoenix areas of KwaZulu Natal and 44 secondary and 39 primary heads of department were asked to complete questionnaires on management styles at their schools. Questionnaires were also given to the principals of the same schools.

In conducting the investigation, the researcher also wanted to identify the "ideal" school and examine the contributing factors.

It was found that an effective school projects a positive climate. Students feel good about attending it and teachers are happy to be part of it. The entire staff work together to foster a warm and harmonious environment. Staff as well as the community are widely involved in decision-making. The researcher found an overwhelming number of schools gearing themselves towards this ideal, a move which augurs well for teacher morale, job satisfaction and effective classroom education. The prescriptive and autocratic managerial style of domineering principals in the Chatsworth and Phoenix areas of KwaZulu-Natal is slowly disappearing and teachers are being consulted on many crucial areas which form part of the daily administration of schools.

Most principals have a high opinion of their staff and regard them as dedicated and motivated. However, the same principals are also critical of the militancy of level-1 educators, especially after the establishment of teachers' unions.

The predominant management style of most principals show a strong move towards a truly democratic approach. This was evidenced, among other things, by circulating the agenda of staff meetings in advance, a facet of personnel management hitherto clouded in secrecy. Furthermore, principals listen to the suggestions and ideas of their subordinates and some are even prepared to "throw aside" the norms of yesteryear to initiate and support the innovations of teachers. Very few principals

would implement the top-down bureaucratic model in their management style. Nowadays most principals prefer a combination of the top-down and bottom-up approaches. If principals intend to initiate a change in educational management policy, most of them will inform staff well in advance and invite discussion on the issue. Principals say that teachers' stress is self-induced.

## **7.2 Changing the Macro-Educational Management Structure and Administration**

Since this research dealt primarily with the preparation, role and responsibilities of the principal, only minimal attention was directed towards other administrators, such as superintendents and head-office bureaucracy, simply because the scope of the project would have become too wide and diverse and many incomparable, divergent variables would have had to be taken into account if handled differently.

However, it would not suffice to consider only the principal if educational progress and managerial effectiveness are chosen as major long-term educational goals of the school system. We should be emphasising the ways in which all levels of school administrators can best contribute to teaching and learning. As the instructional leader of the school, the principal must have among other management attributes, the expertise to evaluate teachers and assist in staff development. Some educators spoken to expressed doubt about the logic and feasibility of placing these responsibilities with the principal, citing as obstacles the

principal's current extensive obligations with regard to personnel management, maintaining discipline, decision-making, chairing meetings and supervision, to name but a few.

### **7.3 Recommendations**

Some broad recommendations which, if implemented correctly, could possibly improve the general management style of the educational manager, are listed below:

- . If we are to develop better preparation and in-service training programmes for each management role in education, we must be able to base our decisions in this regard on relevant, modern, scientific knowledge, rather than on mere tradition or prevailing patterns – a negative and constraining influence in Indian education.
- . The research base to be established would help to determine which elements are central to a specific educational management role and peripheral to others. With this kind of viable and more scientific information, we should be able to create programmes that will effectively prepare managers at each level of the educational system for their responsibilities.
- . While there has been an increase in research on the way in which the principal fulfils his management role, little work has been done on how superintendents, head office clerks and other school administrators (support services like psychological services, remedial education, guidance and counselling) affect school management, teaching and learning, and how their management roles and responsibilities interact. Since the abovementioned core of decision-makers in the educational system's hierarchy has a direct, decisive influence on the managerial role of the school principal, reliable, current information in these areas

is essential. Moreover, research that sheds light on the content and outcomes of existing management preparation programmes for the various levels of school administrator is essential to the upgrading of educational management efficiency.

Experienced educational management experts should be examining the research base on which the future in-service educational management programmes will be founded and should be engaged in active, enquiring and participative professional dialogue. This is essential because a participative approach with informed, far-ranging exchanges yield creative, relevant, comprehensive and professionally sound results which will be of practical value to the school manager.

There is a an urgent need for obtaining the regular and active involvement of senior departmental administrative officials in both the building and central office administration positions. There are two key reasons why it is critical for educational management in schools and colleges of education to maintain ongoing professional interaction with top departmental officials in the field. The first reason is that we have a mutual responsibility for improving educational management practice through the dissemination and application of new knowledge, through keeping abreast of changes in schools and through the development and testing of new scientific management theory. The second reason is related to the complaint that preparation programmes for educational managers are often presented by people who have never been in these positions themselves. We must be able to demonstrate a realistic, current awareness and understanding of problems and conditions in schools if we are to provide effective and enriching learning experiences for practising educational managers.

- . The researcher found a critical lack of scientific research on the different in-service training strategies. There is also a lack of research data about what is presently happening in schools, colleges of education, technikons and universities and what their real purpose is with regard to an in-service, structured, ongoing management upliftment programme. Strategies such as coaching and teaming seasoned administrators with novices is a short-term, pragmatic approach. We can also provide superior in-service training mechanisms that take into account the nature of the learner, the constraints and opportunities of learning, effective instructional strategies and immediate and future management training needs.
  
- . The researcher furthermore identified a need for finding the best way of identifying potential management talent. The identification and selection of individuals with the qualities and characteristics necessary for educational leadership is central to the success of efforts to improve schools and the educational management preparation programme.
  
- . The researcher discovered two contradictory myths about who operate schools. Since these create acute management problems and frustration in schools, a brief analysis is justified.

One myth is that schools are run by those officials hired to manage them, namely superintendents from the education department and principals. They also make the decisions that determine the way in which schools operate. Hence, when schools fail, principals are blamed for poor leadership, "short-sighted, inefficient management" or "weak supervision and administration".

The other myth is that schools are run by those in control of the teaching-learning process, namely teachers and departmental heads. It is argued that unless these professionals have an important, guiding effect on the classroom and pupils, their leadership is wasted.

Since each group assumes that the other controls education and since each can, to a certain extent, operate without the other, an unusual penalising role confusion comes into play. Teachers learn to work without the support and help of the school's top educational management team. There is a real danger that the maintenance of separate zones of concern and behaviour, with the occasional inspection, can eventually pass for good leadership in the minds of principals.

As long as the two abovementioned management myths are able to fulfil their separate and different organisational needs, they can probably co-exist peacefully and no one in educational management will be any wiser. In fact, the authority of educational managers with a "top-down" management approach rests on very different assumptions from the day-to-day "micro authority" underlying the power of teachers to influence school operations from the "bottom-up". The "top-downers" emphasise control, regularity, standardisation and predictability, while "bottom-uppers" prefer professional autonomy, local decision-making, decentralisation and pragmatic discretion, in order to shift authority to the level closest to effective classroom teaching.

The tension between the top and the bottom of the school organisation relates to the issue of where authority rests in the organisation. In the practical educational management setting, there are two separate, even conflicting and competing bases of authority.

Educational managers base their authority on their status as key executive decision-makers. Their expertise stems from their rank in the hierarchy and their specialised knowledge of the management operations of the educational system. Teachers, on the other hand, have a different type of authority. Theirs is based on a knowledge of their subject matter and their views on truly educative teaching for the long-term benefit of their students. While superintendents would focus and generally speak about broad curriculum goals and objectives, teachers explain how a particular lesson could actually enrich a group of students for life. These two almost conflicting myths will in practice allow top management to go on believing that they are running the school while allowing teachers to have a simulated confidence that they control what really counts – management of classroom activities, the education of students, and subject-oriented programmes. Although such beliefs may be personally satisfying for educational leaders and their followers, enabling them to go on functioning in their respective domains, these convictions make genuine, meaningful educational reform difficult, since leaders and followers each believe that they have what they want. This situation also prevents teachers and other staff from challenging the control that top educational managers do in

fact have. Conversely, reform initiated by top leadership is often doomed because teachers did not take part in the planning or decision-making process.

✓ An increasing number of school managers and teachers are recognising these myths and are realising that education reform depends on a reorientation of the way that each group perceives its role function. If teachers go on believing that they control pupils, classes and the curriculum and school managers continue to hold that all power and authority emanate from them, meaningful school reform would hardly be possible. Somehow the myths surrounding control must die and a new consensus and paradigm for school management must emerge if any progress is to be made.

Centralised administration, or "top-down" control, has in the past been accepted as central education policy in order to guarantee comparable standards and a predetermined quality of education for all students. This approach gradually gave rise to a large, top-heavy bureaucracy. As modern education took on more functions (e.g. special education, remedial education, vocational education, career education, sex education) the need for extended systems of control and inspection also increased. This drive to expand educational services and to manage school systems in a control-oriented way led to a belief in autocratic and rational management, stringent, centralised planning, the idea that with adequate bureaucratic control and "lock-step" uniformed policy-making, school functions could be increased, enhanced and made more effective.

Professional managers' distrust of teachers, children and parents comes in part from their unpredictability, their demands and their apparent unwillingness to be controlled by "one-eyed" bureaucrats in the system. Meanwhile, teachers and others at the bottom of the traditional control structure, distrust and often choose to ignore top management, considering this level of the educational structure to be irrelevant, unimportant and annoying. Since principals and other mid-level educational managers are often caught in the middle between demands from staff members and their lack of power to influence the top hierarchy of decision-makers, teachers cease looking to senior educational managers for help.

#### **7.4 A New Perspective on the Role of the Educational Manager**

Many of the issues dealt with in the course of this thesis and especially those dealt with in this final chapter, point to a central, urgent need: Policy-makers in South Africa should look afresh at the role of the modern educational manager in order to improve the quality of our schools. In the following pages the researcher will focus briefly on this issue. A principal is generally required to fulfil the following six major roles as an educational manager:

- . general manager of a school;
- . instructional leader;
- . disciplinarian;
- . human relations facilitator and personnel manager;
- . evaluator;
- . conflict mediator and negotiator.

These role functions will now be briefly discussed.

### **7.4.1 Manager**

The school principal is first and foremost an educational manager. Nowadays he is expected to procure, organise and co-ordinate both physical and human resources, so that the educational goals of the school can be attained effectively. His other main role is to develop and implement policies and procedures which will result in the efficient operation of the school.

The researcher found that principals do not favour the modern, universally accepted term "educational manager", preferring rather to think of themselves as educational leaders, which can be regarded as a more restricted role perspective. However, principals should recognise that where different people and resources are brought together in one location, there is a need for someone to organise, schedule and co-ordinate - in short, to manage - the entire operation. That "someone" must inevitably be the principal. Therefore, instead of resisting the role of manager, the school principal should accept and implement it in such a way that the school is efficiently managed. By successfully fulfilling all the facets of the role of educational manager, a headmaster can help others to accomplish tasks and goals. In the process, he can generate a more positive attitude and thus be perceived by teaching staff as moving towards a more acceptable management style.

## 7.4.2 Instructional leader

Although the school principal is primarily more an educational manager than an ivory-tower type leader, a modern trend nevertheless developed which emphasises the instructional leadership dimensions of the position. One of the problems related to the new, diversified role of the school principal as instructional leader, is that various researchers define the role in different ways and with varying degree of precision, thereby creating confusion for the headmaster who is expected to perform it.

Some teachers interviewed by the researcher primarily view the principalship as a "pure" leadership position; any activities in which the principal engages in order to improve instruction are regarded by these respondents as mere facets of his leadership activities. Other respondents feel that there are certain types of activity or action, such as classroom observations, in which the principal is expected to participate if he is to function as an instructional leader. Compounding the problem is the fact that the principal is frequently encouraged to be an instructional leader and yet may not be perceived by teachers as possessing the expertise in the subject necessary for helping them to improve their performance. As a result, level-1 teachers sometimes have a low opinion of the principal and this has a negative effect on his management style.

### **7.4.3 Disciplinarian**

When respondents were asked to comment on the role that they expect the principal to play in the school, that of disciplinarian was cited as the most important. Students also tend to see the headmaster as a disciplinarian. However, the researcher discovered that principals, tend to reject the role of disciplinarian because of its negative connotations and because the duties associated with the role are frequently frustrating, irritating and unpleasant to perform. Teachers interviewed in the course of this research project like principals who have tight control over discipline as part of the management style they favour. They are, however, of the opinion that principals should not bow to pressure from parents and Departmental superintendents to down play disciplining wayward students since "to spare the rod is to spoil the child". The task of teaching becomes more complex if teachers experience a serious problem with discipline in the school, a pattern which is on the increase in Indian secondary schools.

### **7.4.4 Facilitator of human relations**

The principal should practise good human relations in all aspects of his job and with people in general. However, the two areas in which this becomes particularly important are the development of high staff morale and a humanistic school environment. Teachers want principals to be aware of the pressures exerted on them daily and to adopt a caring, warm attitude towards them. Teachers are only human and teaching

is nowadays very demanding because of the attitude of the present "breed" of student. Teachers favour the management style of principals who are supportive and who always stand by them.

#### **7.4.5 Conflict mediator**

This function has been discussed in chapter 3, but it must be stressed that principals are presently confronted with serious disruptions on the part of students, militancy from teachers and community demands for greater involvement in school decision-making. At present, conflict resolution and negotiation skills comprise a major part of the educational manager's job. In the resolution of conflict, the principal basically acts as mediator. Teachers like principals who are firm but sympathetic. They view with suspicion principals who play favourites with staff members. They look up to and admire neutrality and objectivity in principals.

#### **7.4.6 Evaluator**

The increased emphasis on school accountability has put additional importance on the role of the principal as evaluator. In most cases, this role tends to centre on the evaluation of staff - a contentious issue that prompted the researcher to critically examine the principals' management styles. Indian education, in the researcher's opinion, has largely been characterised by prescriptivity and supervision, both of which will now be discussed in some detail.

#### **7.4.6.1 Prescriptivity in education**

Prescriptivity has long been a bone of contention with level-1 teachers. They chiefly blame principals for this state of affairs and claim that principals have become puppets of head-office bureaucracy.

Prescription refers to the act of laying down what is to be done as well as how it should be done. Teachers view prescriptions as an unnecessary infringement of the rights of the individual, since it is usually associated with harrassment and persecution.

The educational system can be viewed as a social structure designed to cater for the welfare of its citizens. The structure is hierarchical in nature with different levels of authority and power. Each level controls the level below it. In this way the activities of the whole organisation are co-ordinated and the educational structure is built up. However, owing to the authority structure implicit in this system, there is always a possibility that the authority vested in the individual may be abused. The responses of teachers interviewed tend to convey that this has indeed happened in Indian education. Those who "toe the line" receive favourable reports and are promoted, while those who question prescriptivity are overlooked for promotion.

The researcher believes that in order to minimise the abuse of authority there should be co-operation and consultation at all levels instead of prescription, especially with regard to decision-making. All qualified teachers are adequately equipped with methodology or subject didactics when they graduate from

colleges and universities. They therefore have the necessary expertise to give of their best in teaching their subjects. Furthermore, their expertise is greatly reinforced by actual teaching experience. Yet, teachers have been subjected to prescription of methodology, a situation they find intolerable, since it not only produces stereotype learning but promotes convergent thinking. Moreover, prescriptivity stifles the teacher's individuality, originality and creativity.

Respondents feel that the education of the child will be greatly enhanced by the removal of prescriptivity, particularly with regard to methodology. Teachers must be allowed to use their own professional expertise and resources to promote the educational growth of their pupils. They also need independence and a great deal of flexibility to experiment with various methodological approaches and teaching techniques to suit the needs of specific pupils. Only when this is done will a teacher be in a position to foster self-direction among pupils - thereby helping to produce divergent, innovative thinkers.

#### **7.4.6.2 Supervision of teachers' work**

If prescription is one area which increases the teachers' stress, supervision of their work is definitely another.

According to teachers interviewed, supervision of their work is the most widely discussed subject in the staffroom. Teachers believe that the emphasis in Indian schools falls on the number and frequency of supervision reports by supervisors rather than a genuine concern to help the level-1 teacher.

Teachers feel that supervisors cannot understand or follow the development of a learning process by merely making theoretical intrusions. Compiling a report on the basis of one or two hours class visitations as against the total number of unobserved hours' is unscientific and therefore unacceptable to teachers.

The present position regarding supervision in schools is based on a false premise, namely the basic assumption that there are inherent defects in teachers' work. As a result of this premise, a negative approach is adopted by most supervisors. They visit the classroom with a view to finding fault. Admittedly, no lesson is perfect. However, the positive aspects of the lesson are mostly ignored. It is frustrating for teachers to find few positive remarks in the supervision report and a considerable number of negative comments. Some reports contain a great deal of praise in the body, but towards the end, the supervisor makes an assessment that is inconsistent with what was said earlier. Teachers see such reports as reflecting basically a negative approach on the part of supervisors.

To compound the issue further, supervisors do not have a uniform pattern of assessment. Because of differences in individual requirements, the reports also differ. One departmental supervisor may assess a teacher's lesson as "GOOD", yet the same lesson would be assessed as "SATISFACTORY" by one of his colleagues.

Of all professional practitioners in modern society, the teacher is surely the most supervised employee. He is closely supervised by his heads of department, by the deputy principal, by the principal and by the supervisor. If the head of department for some reason dislikes a teacher and gives him an unfavourable report, this will echo right up the line to the supervisor, simply because supervisors are in the habit of reading the last report before writing a new one.

No concession is made for the teacher's "off-days". It is irrelevant whether the teacher is ill, stressed or depressed. By its very nature the situation is simulated and unnatural with an outside person present in the classroom. A report has to be submitted and the result is usually unfavourable. The teacher may have waited three years for this visit and then in a single day, he is assessed, criticised, judged and condemned. Because of this, teachers have become militant, formed a union and even resorted to striking as a form of protest against an unprofessional and unjust system. The researcher certainly does not deny the need for supervision, but the way in which it is done needs a critical and scientific re-appraisal.

Supervision of a teacher's work can be improved by creating a healthy climate devoid of suspicion. Furthermore, supervision should be arranged with the full co-operation of the teachers involved. There should be no "surprise attacks". Details such as the date and purpose of the visit should be made known to the teacher. A positive attitude to supervision should be adopted. Credit must also be given where it is due.

Supervisors should be objective in their reports. Previous reports, assessments and the principal's views on a teacher should not prejudice lesson assessment.

At no stage have teachers protested per se against supervision of their work. However, they want supervisors to be objective. They want supervision to be undertaken by well-informed, capable and discerning supervisors who believe in respecting the worth and contribution of the educator.

## **7.5 Other Role Players' Expectations of the Principal**

If the principal is to make a wise decision, he needs to be knowledgeable about the expectations of various groups in the school and in society. These groups include teachers, students and parents.

### ✓ 7.5.1 Students' expectations

Although there is little doubt that the principal's personal relationship with students is the most important aspect of students' expectations of his role, students also expect the principal to do the following:

- . Organise advisory groups which represent the viewpoints of all persons interested in the school. Actions by the principal which are not impartial will usually be perceived as ineffective by students.
- . Obtain and apply the recommendations of individuals and parent-teacher bodies in resolving problems. Failure by the principal to seek and apply the recommendations of individuals and all advisory groups that were approached in this study would probably mean that students regard the solutions arrived at as ineffective.
- . Explain school policies, practices, procedures, regulations and facts regarding rumours to the entire student body. Failure to do so would be regarded by students as ineffective behaviour.

If principals are prepared to act as set out above, they will surely be conceived as more "user-friendly" by students. It will also improve the image of the principal's management style, thereby casting him in a more positive light.

### **7.5.2 Teachers' expectations**

Since teachers work closely with principals, they are constantly evaluating their management style. Most teachers consulted by the researcher in this study do not recognise the traditional superior-subordinate relationship between principal and teachers that existed in the past.

Nowadays teachers want the principal to set fair standards of behaviour and to show understanding of and respect for teachers' competence and work. They also want principals to communicate with them frequently and to refrain from curtailing individual initiative or freedom.

Teachers strongly desire to play a relevant, practical and significant role in decision-making. They want principals to provide for their active participation in curriculum development, grouping and promotion, control of pupils and drawing up the year programme. In addition, teachers emphasise that if they were to serve on a committee, the committee must have the power to make decisions rather than simply to make mere recommendations on issues already decided on by the principal.

## **7.6 Ethical Demands made by Teachers on Principals**

In the day-to-day management of a school, the principal needs to be careful as far as his own ethical behaviour is concerned. With the current pressure on schools to excel academically, decisions made by principals may not always be weighed in an

acceptable ethical context. Upon closer examination, it is clear that many of the routine issues confronting principals each day, are basically of an ethical nature. Unless principals practise good ethics, they could transmit the following negative and unacceptable message to teachers, students and the community: High moral standards are not valued in the learning place.

Principals make hundreds of decisions each year that affect the school. Below are examples of ethical issues which demand careful thought, scrutiny and objective evaluation.

- . Performance evaluation of teachers should be honest, substantive and based on adequate classroom visits. Principals should not deceive themselves or their staff about the importance of high-quality evaluations of teachers. Flowery reports designed just to please border on dishonesty.
  
- . Even if a teacher does not take criticism well, but needs to improve in a critical area, the principal should still give the criticism, even at the risk of being criticised himself. Often, principals avoid constructive criticism of teachers in order to maintain peace. But this only reinforces poor teaching practices that can adversely affect pupils. Teachers want and appreciate sensitive, constructive criticism and the principal must have the courage to give it.
  
- . Teachers should be assigned classes and duties based on their competence and effectiveness in the classroom. If the principal is going to allocate duties on the basis of favouritism, staff should not be led to believe that competence is the main criterion for assignments.

- . When teachers are told that they can make the final decision on an issue, they must be allowed to do this, even if it goes against the principal's own philosophy.
- . When parents are involved in a conflict with a teacher, the principal should not play the parties off against each other. He must be honest and professional with all parties.
- . Principals must accept accountability for their actions instead of passing the blame to other management staff or a teacher to take the pressure off himself. Teachers, students and even parents lose confidence in headmasters who are indecisive and "pass the buck".
- . Principals must support teachers on controversial issues when they feel they have acted reasonably and legitimately. Principals must not be intimidated by a few parents' threatening to go to the superintendent if they do not get their way.

With control shifting from the superintendent's office to the principal, school-based management will gain increasing momentum. Principals will have increased authority and decision-making power. This is all the more reason for school principals to strive for ethical excellence in the day-to-day management of their schools while recognising the basic professional rights of the teacher.

## **7.7 The Rights and Responsibilities of Teachers**

Principals should be mindful of the rights of teachers. To transgress these rights would be to create frustration, division and dissatisfaction. Therefore principals should be aware of the following statements made by teachers interviewed for this study:

- . The teaching profession should enjoy academic freedom in the discharging of professional duties. Since teachers are particularly qualified to judge the teaching aids and methods most suitable for their pupils, they should be given a central role in choosing and adapting teaching material, selecting textbooks and applying teaching methods within the framework of approved programmes and with the assistance of the educational authorities.
  
- . Teachers and their unions should participate in the development of new courses, textbooks and teaching aids.
  
- . Any system of inspection or supervision should be designed to encourage and help teachers in the performance of their professional tasks and should not impair their freedom, initiative and responsibility.
  
- . Where any direct assessment of the teacher's work is required, such assessment should be objective and should be made with the knowledge of the teacher. Teachers should have a right to appeal against assessments that they deem to be unjust.
  
- . Every effort should be made to promote close co-operation between teachers and parents in the interests of pupils, but teachers should be protected against unfair or unwarranted interference by parents in matters which are essentially the teacher's professional responsibility.

- . Parents who want to level a complaint against a school or teacher should first be given the opportunity to discuss it with the school principal and the teacher concerned. Any complaint subsequently addressed to a higher authority should be put in writing and a copy should be given to the teacher concerned.
  
- . Investigations of complaints should be conducted in such a manner that teachers are given a fair opportunity to defend themselves. The proceedings should not receive any publicity.

When principals win teachers over and recognise their professional worth, the following advantages show up almost immediately:

- . The greater the degree of professional freedom and autonomy given to teachers, the greater the resultant degree of creativity and innovation.
  
- . The greater the degree of creativity and innovation, the higher the morale of the teaching staff.
  
- . The higher the morale of the teaching staff, the greater the resultant productivity.
  
- . The greater the productivity of the teaching staff, the greater the amount of freedom and autonomy that will be given to teachers.
  
- . The greater the degree of freedom and autonomy in professional matters, the greater the positive response from teachers.

### **7.7.1 Making schools more meaningful for teachers**

In order to make a school more meaningful and challenging for teachers, their role should not be restricted to teaching. If the planning is to be effective teachers should be involved in planning and controlling as well as teaching.

The planning phase includes the planning and organising of the various professional functions of the school, problem-solving, goal-setting, use of human resources, allocation of materials and the managing of technological systems. Planning is an essential ingredient that gives meaning to a job by aligning it with goals. The teaching phase is the implementation of the plan and ideally involves the co-ordinated expenditure of physical and mental efforts and the utilisation of aptitudes and special skills. Control includes measurement, evaluation and correcting the feedback process for assessing achievements against goals. Feedback gives the job meaning; its absence is a common cause of job dissatisfaction. When all these phases have been properly implemented, the planning process provides an opportunity for teachers to unleash all their untapped professional talent.

### **7.7.1.1 Using job enrichment to make the planning process more effective**

In an effort to elevate the effectiveness of staff involvement in the planning process, an organisational concept as job enrichment is not new in some American states. Although new to public education, this concept has been successfully used in business and industry.

The researcher feels that its introduction in Indian schools is to be welcomed since its underlying principle is "every teacher a manager". To regard teachers as managers must not be regarded as an act of good human relations, or a means of exploiting teachers, but as a sound practice that benefits both the school and the staff. Job enrichment involves the delegation of administrative responsibilities that are usually reserved for school administrators. The traditional role of principals is to plan, organise, lead and control the performance of teachers, while the traditional role of teachers is to teach. Job enrichment implies that when teachers assume some of the planning responsibility and control with regard to their jobs, they will be more responsive to educational change and improvement.

Inherent in the job enrichment concept are the following assumptions:

- . Most teachers want to participate in a meaningful way in achieving the goals and objectives of the school.
- . The majority of teachers are capable of performing better than they are currently doing.

- . As teachers broaden their skills, new opportunities should be afforded them.
- . When teachers are involved in a planning process that allows them to put their capabilities to better use they are more prone to exercise self-direction and to improve their efforts towards the attainment of goals and objectives.

### **7.7.1.2 The advantages of teacher participation**

The suggestion that teachers should be allowed to participate in certain organisational decisions is in itself not new, but the case for participation has changed dramatically over the last few years. Traditionally participation has been viewed as something that management cedes to employees, either altruistically (out of "goodwill") or as a transaction cost (e.g. to "buy" employee acceptance of certain basic management decisions). Research confirms that participation is indeed associated with a number of positive outcomes that can ultimately benefit the employer, including better employee morale and increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, acceptance of change, co-operation and reduction of conflict.

There is strong evidence that involving employees in decision-making does not guarantee the abovementioned results. When employees have the formal authority to make decisions, but their actual discretion is tightly circumscribed by a prescribed agenda, organisational norms, limited resources or other such negative factors, the purported benefits of participative strategies are often minimal or non-existent.

This helps to explain why employees often express scepticism at their employer's motives and intentions in "giving" them opportunities to participate in decisions made at higher levels of the organisation. They may see participation as constituting little more than a "rubber stamp". Teachers spoken to by the researcher view participation at best as a meaningless exercise and at worst as a manipulative tool. Much of the recent interest in employee participation has arisen because managers are beginning to recognise that participation can have a direct impact on organisational effectiveness. Managers acknowledge that they need the knowledge, skills and opinions employees can bring to organisational decision-making.

### **7.7.1.3 The nature of teachers' work**

Another, less obvious argument for enhancing teacher participation in school involves the nature of the teacher's work. Teaching is increasingly characterised as a decision-making process taking place in unpredictable conditions in a highly interactive setting. Given the nature of teacher's work, it is misleading to frame the issue of "teacher participation" as a question of whether teachers should be involved in school management. Teachers are already managers or "executives". They are "line" managers with direct and ongoing contact with the school's primary clients, namely students.

The more teachers are involved in planning, implementing and evaluating school policies, programmes and resources, the more influence school management can be expected to have in the classroom. This influence need not be exercised through more direct supervision or more detailed bureaucratic prescription. One of the greatest strengths of participation as a management strategy is that it tends to build consensus with regard to goals and priorities, allows for the relaxation of controls over the means that individuals will use to serve those ends.

#### **7.7.1.4 Isolation experienced by teachers**

Teacher participation also promotes horizontal integration among teachers. Most teachers have few opportunities to engage in substantive dialogue and exchange of information, even though their pedagogical knowledge, skills and information about students are arguably a school system's most valuable resource. The solitary nature of most teaching assignments, the physical layout of school facilities and restrictive time schedules usually preclude interaction, as do organisational norms that discourage giving (or seeking) advice and treat work as something necessarily and exclusively done in the classroom.

### **7.8 Frustration and Tension Experienced by Teachers**

The views of a level-1 educator about the causes of frustration and tension among teachers are given below.

- . Administration of education is centrally controlled through a network of bureaucratic structures. Since control and administration is actualised largely through prescriptive measure, uniformed policies do not allow for unique, individual or local circumstances. This does not augur well for democratic principals, especially at school level. It therefore restricts innovation.
- . Prescription stifles the democratic principles of individuality and creativity, and promotes domination and authoritarianism. It also has a detrimental effect on interpersonal relationships resulting in tension. Staff members become reserved and rarely voice opinions on matters that may seem controversial.
- . The system of evaluation and the criteria for merit awards and promotion are causing much stress and frustration among teachers. There seems to be little clarity on the purpose of evaluation. Teachers are subjected to panel inspections, group inspections, subject inspections and individual evaluation. The nature of the inspections seem to indicate that the emphasis is on prescriptive record keeping.
- . Staff and subject committee meetings are also causes of concern for teachers. Both of these will now be discussed in some detail.

### **7.8.1 Staff meetings**

The staff meeting is one of the most criticised of all supervisory activities. It is generally scheduled at the end of the school day when teachers are tired. It is dominated by the principal. It provides little opportunity for teachers to participate. The following recommendations made by the researcher's respondents are worth considering:

- . The meeting should be scheduled during school time, if possible, rather than at the end of the day. School can be dismissed early once a term to provide more time for deliberation.
  
- . Staff input should be sought when the agenda is drawn up. This may mean establishing a staff meeting planning committee or requesting staff to submit items for the agenda.
  
- . The agenda of the staff meeting should be circulated to all staff members at least two days before the meeting. If staff members are to react, discuss and make decisions on agenda items at the meeting, they will need to familiarise themselves with and think about the issues to be discussed. This will allow for greater staff involvement.
  
- . The chairperson, generally the principal should create a friendly and non-threatening atmosphere. He should chair the meeting in such a way that as many staff members as possible can participate. He should mediate differences of opinion.
  
- . Follow-up activities need to be initiated after the staff meeting in order to implement decisions that were made and investigate questions or problems that were raised. A fairly common complaint of many teachers is that there is no follow-through after staff meetings. If staff is to feel that their meetings are worthwhile, the principal will need to initiate and co-ordinate appropriate follow-up activities after each meeting.

### **7.8.2 Subject committees**

Committees provide an appropriate problem-solving procedure for improving instruction and are also an excellent group activity for staff development. Educational managers should attempt to utilise committees to improve instruction whenever it seems that a situation would be more thoroughly investigated and considered if several people, rather than only one individual, were involved.

Although committee work can be an excellent method for improving instruction and capitalising on the expertise of various staff members, the experience of those involved with committees has not always been positive. Teachers have frequently felt that they were not meaningfully involved and that the educational manager had had his mind already made up before the committee was convened.

### **7.9 Topics and Areas Arising from this Research which needs Further Investigation**

While the researcher focused primarily on the teacher-principal relationship to determine management style and its effect, greater insight and clarity can be gained by critically examining the role function of superintendents. A research project to determine whether superintendents have a place and contribution to make in the education scenario would constitute an "eye-opening" empirical investigation.

It would also be interesting to make a detailed study of the workload of teachers to determine whether their grievances are legitimate. Are teachers, for example, carrying an undue and excessive workload and are there areas of prescriptive work that can be dispensed with?

It would also be interesting to ascertain if management style is the only factor that has either a negative or a positive impact on level-1 teachers. Are there for example, other factors like prescription and supervision of teachers' work which come into play?

Lastly, the question of service/merit awards and promotion requires careful and detailed study since it has long been a bone of contention and has caused much bitterness and dissatisfaction in the profession.

## **7.10 Conclusion**

The most valuable resource available to any principal in the teaching-learning scenario is his teachers, because they are the people who are professionally certified to educate. Educational managers need to realise the worth of teachers' contribution to the development of the educand. In the words of one level-1 respondent, "teachers need space", and principals must grant them this.

It is a common criticism against the education system that school-leavers, on entering the employment field, have difficulty working independently. The present school system requires a teacher to be present in each class for every period of the school day. This could work against pupils' learning effectively on their own and taking personal responsibility for their own learning programme. Principals should sometimes also allow pupils to work independently without the presence of teachers, so that the vital life skill of independence can be inculcated in pupils. Principals must change their management style from narrow, autocratic and puritanical to broad and accommodating.

Written work is central to the teaching and learning of most school subjects. Nevertheless, it is possible to reduce the degree of testing, assessment and marking. Teachers complain of being required to undertake unnecessary marking that serve no purpose other than satisfying the demands of principals, subject advisors and superintendents. Educational managers need to look into the whole question of marking of written work.

While administrative and clerical duties do not form a major part of the average teacher's duties, they cause by far the most irritation to teachers, whose accounts suggest that many of their administrative tasks could be reduced or eliminated entirely.

In recent years there has been a proliferation of meetings that teachers are required to attend. These include full staff meetings, departmental meetings, subject meetings, standard meetings, sports meetings, seminars and in-service courses. This

practice should be re-assessed. The great shift in emphasis required by an education department with regard to professional people presently teaching in schools would be to allow them to be true professionals. This would involve giving them greater freedom to organise their activities in more convenient and time-effective ways, and reducing the number of people to whom teachers are responsible or people who exercise stringent control over their professional activities. A recent development has been to encourage the holding of in-service training courses during school holidays. This has the advantage of not disrupting the school. However, in view of the very heavy demands made on teachers and the accompanying stress, it could be argued that teachers really need their holidays to gather their strength.

Teachers must be made more aware of the pivotal role played by educational managers in the school. While they may be head-office functionaries, it must be appreciated that they become unpopular since they have to delegate tasks or sometimes prescribe.

Middle managers, like heads of department, also reduce teacher influence by reserving important decisions for themselves, limiting the number of options presented to teachers for consideration or failing to represent teacher opinions effectively. Heads of department should take the lead in initiating quality circles, a practice that has been widely adopted in the private sector. This is primarily because of increased acceptance of the doctrine that increased worker participation in decision-making

enhances productivity and organisational effectiveness. These quality circles work best when teachers are encouraged to solve problems, and participants' efforts receive meaningful recognition. Top administrative support is very important.

Lastly, it is important for level-1 educators to understand that if they expect to enjoy the confidence of educational managers, they need to exhibit a high degree of professionalism and a deep sense of responsibility.

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Sir

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS**

Your letters dated 1993-04-02 and 1993-08-09 have reference.

1. Permission is hereby granted to you to conduct your research at the 20 schools indicated in your letter provided that :
  - 1.1 prior arrangements are made with the principals concerned;
  - 1.2 participation in the research by educators is on a voluntary basis;
  - 1.3 completion of questionnaires is done outside normal teaching time; and
  - 1.4 all information pertaining to educators is treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only.
2. Kindly produce a copy of this letter when visiting/approaching schools.
3. The Department wishes you every success in your research and looks forward to receiving a copy of the findings.

Yours faithfully

  
DEPUTY DIRECTOR-GENERAL

930925/ram/sit 1993-08-30

**APPENDIX B – TO PRINCIPALS****RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE ADDRESSED TO PRINCIPALS OF SECONDARY AND PRIMARY H.O.D. SCHOOLS****RESEARCH WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

Dear Principal

Your help is needed to gather information to draw conclusions about what effects management styles have on teachers in Indian Education. This is the basis of a doctoral thesis I'm currently undertaking through Unisa.

The South African system of education has been under close scrutiny during recent years, being a source of great concern to those directly involved in education. Various inadequacies which have been identified have led to debate and research to seek solutions to these issues. One such issue is the fact that the present policy and practice of educational management for school principals is inadequate and hence does not satisfy the needs of the group responsible for the management of schools.

This, in no way should be construed as a criticism against your ability to manage your school. Much of the progress in education must be credited to you, the principal. However an area that needs investigation is how the style of your management affects the level-1 teacher in the class.

Please respond frankly to the questions. You can rest assured that your responses will remain confidential as you are not required to write the name of your school or your name anywhere on this questionnaire.

Yours faithfully

---

**A.G. RAMJAN (RESEARCHER)**

P.S. : The running time of this questionnaire in a pilot study was 6 minutes.

The attached interview schedule with open questions takes approximately 10 minutes.

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR EFFORT AND CO-OPERATION.**

APPENDIX B – TO PRINCIPALSRESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE TO PRINCIPALS OF SECONDARY AND PRIMARY H.O.D. SCHOOLS

Show by means of a cross, in the appropriate square below, which of the following apply to you.

1. Your experience as a principal is:-

- |     |                |                          |
|-----|----------------|--------------------------|
| 1.1 | 1-5 years      | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1.2 | 6-10 years     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1.3 | over 10 years. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. The status of your school is:-

- |     |        |                          |
|-----|--------|--------------------------|
| 2.1 | CS     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.2 | S1     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.3 | P1     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.4 | S11    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.5 | P11    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.6 | other. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

3. You perceive your staff as :-

- |     |  |                          |
|-----|--|--------------------------|
| 3.1 | highly dedicated and motivated           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3.2 | stressed and "clique" based              | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3.3 | dissatisfied and complaining most times. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

4. The work of the principal has become routinised, content-centred and responsive, rather than dynamic, process-orientated and anticipating.

- |     |                   |                          |
|-----|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 4.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4.4 | agree             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4.5 | strongly agree.   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. Principals are concerned with maintenance tasks and pupil-centred tasks to the exclusion of the more important task of improving the organisation and supervision of the learning programme.

- |     |                   |                          |
|-----|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 5.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5.4 | agree             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5.5 | strongly agree.   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

6. When a principal is selected for the job, his management ability is of little importance since he is chosen largely on previous experience, inspection reports, testimonials and impression created during the interview. Is this system of selection fair?
- 6.1 yes
- 6.2 no.
7. To solve the administrative problems, executives from the private sector should be lured into schools to guide newly appointed principals.
- 7.1 strongly disagree
- 7.2 disagree
- 7.3 neutral
- 7.4 agree
- 7.5 strongly agree.
8. Would you support the idea of the development of a number of regional centres for education management training manned by well qualified and experienced staff?
- 8.1 yes
- 8.2 no.
9. Do principals provide meaningful opportunity for teachers to participate in decision making about activities directly affecting them?
- 9.1 yes
- 9.2 no
- 9.3 sometimes.
10. When you engage in joint decision making with staff, it is because :-
- 10.1 you lack the information staff has
- 10.2 the problem is unstructured rather than well structured
- 10.3 subordinate's acceptance of the outcome is critical for implementation.
11. Democratic participation is time consuming and even costly. Hence you :-
- 11.1 take decisions on your own
- 11.2 include only your management staff in taking the decision
- 11.3 consult the superintendent and take decision
- 11.4 none of the above.
12. Your observation of teacher's attitude to staff meeting.
- 12.1 they look forward to it
- 12.2 they dislike the idea totally
- 12.3 there is a mixed reaction.
13. Do you circulate the agenda a few days before the meeting?
- 13.1 always
- 13.2 most often
- 13.3 sometimes
- 13.4 not at all.

14. Do principals victimise teachers who oppose most of their suggestions at staff meeting?
- 14.1 always  
14.2 most often  
14.3 sometimes  
14.4 not at all.
15. When planning, which approach do you prefer?
- 15.1 the top-down, bureaucratic approach  
15.2 the bottom-up, democratic approach  
15.3 combination of the above two.
16. As principal, you may have experienced failure in planning. Which would you say was yours?
- 16.1 assuming falsely that planning is an activity separate from managing  
16.2 plans are necessary for "big" projects  
16.3 applying standardised, traditional plans for new and changing circumstances  
16.4 having unrealistic and too many goals  
16.5 none of the above.
17. When planning, have you designed flow charts or organizational charts mapping out the positions and authority relationship in your school?
- 17.1 yes  
17.2 no  
17.3 I find them unnecessary.
18. While there is need for delegation of authority and responsibility, principals can become "victims" of role diffusion. (Role diffusion implies a lack of clear definition of roles within the management hierarchy).
- 18.1 strongly disagree  
18.2 disagree  
18.3 neutral  
18.4 agree  
18.5 strongly agree.
19. To delegate or not to delegate? This fear is induced by fear of losing control or by doubt about the subordinates ability to perform the task. Have you experienced this dilemma?
- 19.1 yes  
19.2 no.
20. Inexperienced or weak members of staff require more support and guidance in planning and execution of duties. Therefore these teachers should not be given duties outside the classroom.
- 20.1 strongly disagree  
20.2 disagree  
20.3 neutral  
20.4 agree  
20.5 strongly agree.

21. When a teacher on your staff is unwilling to accept a delegated duty, it would be because :-

- |      |  |                          |
|------|--|--------------------------|
| 21.1 | of poor motivation                     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21.2 | he has work overload                   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21.3 | of reluctance to accept responsibility | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21.4 | of other reasons.                      | <input type="checkbox"/> |

22. Do you agree with the statement : The manifestation of organisational conflict is the product of poor management?

- |      |                   |                          |
|------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 22.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22.4 | agree             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22.5 | strongly agree.   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

23. When do you delegate the most?

- |      |                                |                          |
|------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 23.1 | beginning of the school year   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23.2 | during examinations            | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23.3 | just at the end of the year    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23.4 | during the promotion "rounds". | <input type="checkbox"/> |

24. Teachers are often judged negatively if open conflict arises (in the classroom or with colleagues). Principals should rather judge them on the basis in which they manage/handle the conflict rather than on the fact that it is present.

- |      |                   |                          |
|------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 24.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24.4 | agree             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24.5 | strongly agree.   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

25. The conflict you observe most amongst your staff is

- |      |  |                          |
|------|--|--------------------------|
| 25.1 | between teacher/pupil                  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25.2 | between teacher/management             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25.3 | between teacher/parent                 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25.4 | between teacher/departmental official. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

26. Which of the conflicts listed below can lead to such proportions so as to affect the organisation of your school adversely?

- |      |                                |                          |
|------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 26.1 | teacher/pupil                  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26.2 | teacher/management             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26.3 | teacher/parent                 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26.4 | teacher/departmental official. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

27. Do principals feel it necessary to listen to the lessons of teachers who have 5 or more years of experience?

- |      |     |                          |
|------|-----|--------------------------|
| 27.1 | yes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27.2 | no. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

28. Are teachers keeping too many records?

- 28.1 always
- 28.2 most often
- 28.3 sometimes
- 28.4 not at all.


29. Are new plans implemented by principals viewed by teachers to be ambitious and unrealistic?

- 29.1 yes
- 29.2 no.


30. The most important skill a good principal should have is

- 30.1 to be able to manage time
- 30.2 to be able to get along with staff
- 30.3 to be able to know his own strength
- 30.4 to encourage joint decision making.


- THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT -

APPENDIX C – TO PRINCIPALS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY AND PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

RESEARCH WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

1. When morale is low, how do you create a climate of trust among the staff?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
2. How would you avoid staff feeling insecure when you wish to bring about a major change?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
3. What, in your opinion, has been the cause of stress among teachers?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
4. What has been the most common cause of dissatisfaction amongst teachers against you as principal?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
5. You have to mediate in a conflict between your favourite teacher and a prominent parent of the P.T.A. How do you handle the situation?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
6. He's an outstanding teacher and has sexually abused a pupil. Your reaction.  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
7. You give the teachers on your staff the powers to make an important decision, and when it is done, you find that it goes totally against your philosophy. What do you do?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

APPENDIX D – TO HEADS OF DEPARTMENTRESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE ADDRESSED TO HEADS OF DEPARTMENT OF  
SECONDARY AND PRIMARY H.O.D. SCHOOLSRESEARCH WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Head of Department

I need your help to determine the effect your style of management has on teachers in the classroom. This is the topic of a doctoral thesis I'm currently reading for, through Unisa.

Much uncalled for criticism has sometimes been levelled against members of management in schools relating to supervision since it is an issue close to the hearts of teachers and one that is also subjective.

This is the opportunity to scientifically test whether these criticisms are justified or whether the "plight" of the level-1 teacher is exaggerated.

You must not write your name, nor the name of your school on this questionnaire. Be assured that your response will remain confidential and used only for research purposes.

Yours faithfully

---

A.G. RAMJAN (RESEARCHER)

P.S. : The running time of this questionnaire in a pilot study was 6 minutes.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR EFFORT AND CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX D - TO HEADS OF DEPARTMENTRESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE ADDRESSED TO HEADS OF DEPARTMENT IN  
SECONDARY AND PRIMARY H.O.D. SCHOOLS

1. You are head of department at a:

- 1.1 primary school   
 1.2 secondary school   
 1.3 other.

2. You are head of department for:

- 2.1 1-5 years   
 2.2 6-10 years   
 2.3 over 10 years.

3. Has the role-function of the head of department ever been defined to you?

- 3.1 yes   
 3.2 no.

4. Heads of department feel confused at times about what they should be doing.

- 4.1 strongly disagree   
 4.2 disagree   
 4.3 neutral   
 4.4 strongly agree   
 4.5 agree.

5. Heads of department are like the "filling" in a sandwich, crushed within two layers - the principal on the top and the level-1 educator at the bottom.

- 5.1 strongly disagree   
 5.2 disagree   
 5.3 neutral   
 5.4 strongly agree   
 5.5 agree.

6. Can the head of department be seen as a liaison officer, bearing the brunt from the principal on one side, and the level-1 educator on the other?

- 6.1 yes   
 6.2 no.

7. Would you, even subtly, "victimise" a teacher who opposes your suggestion or is at variance with you?

- 7.1 always
- 7.2 most often
- 7.3 sometimes
- 7.4 not at all
- 7.5 can't say.


8. Does this top-down model of prescription, from the head of department's view, create mistrust and tension?

- 8.1 yes
- 8.2 no.


9. When heads of department critically question the principal about an instruction given them to pass onto their subordinates (level-1 teachers), then the principal:

- 9.1 states it's departmental policy
- 9.2 "throws" the handbook at them
- 9.3 threatens the h.o.d.'s future promotion
- 9.4 states that instructions should not be questioned.


10. Subordinates (level-1) view heads of department as:

- 10.1 dictatorial and officious
- 10.2 democratic and liberal
- 10.3 midway between the two.


11. The first and most important task of the head of department is to promote his subject/s:

- 11.1 strongly disagree
- 11.2 disagree
- 11.3 neutral
- 11.4 strongly agree
- 11.5 agree.


12. If his first task is to promote his subject/s, is the h.o.d. achieving this goal?

- 12.1 yes
- 12.2 no.


13. Heads of department have a say in the structuring of the syllabus, selecting of textbooks and determining school policy and procedure.

- 13.1 strongly disagree  
 13.2 disagree  
 13.3 neutral  
 13.4 strongly agree  
 13.5 agree.


14. Management based on authority from the top and obedience from the bottom cannot develop an education for freedom, democracy and progress and can spell signs of failure.

- 14.1 strongly disagree  
 14.2 disagree  
 14.3 neutral  
 14.4 strongly agree  
 14.5 agree.


15. Heads of department feel "uncomfortable" to supervise/evaluate the work of a subordinate.

- 15.1 strongly disagree  
 15.2 disagree  
 15.3 neutral  
 15.4 strongly agree  
 15.5 agree.


16. Do heads of department have a certain quota of reports to make on subordinates?

- 16.1 yes  
 16.2 no.


17. Supervision of a teacher's work:

- 17.1 undermines and makes him insecure  
 17.2 makes him a better teacher in the class  
 17.3 creates unnecessary stress for him  
 17.4 is frowned upon by the teacher.


18. When supervising a new teacher, which is most important?

- 18.1 commenting critically on the lesson  
 18.2 giving a demonstration lesson yourself  
 18.3 planning the teacher's lesson for him  
 18.4 observing the progress of pupils.


19. He is a new teacher and is experiencing discipline problems with pupils. The head of department should:

- 19.1 reprimand the teacher in private
- 19.2 reprimand the pupils
- 19.3 point out the weaknesses in his class control
- 19.4 show him "how its done".


20. Heads of department can improve the morale of teachers by:

- 20.1 conducting themselves professionally even if they are under stress
- 20.2 creating a feeling of trust
- 20.3 preventing friction amongst staff members
- 20.4 constantly encouraging and respecting the rights of the teacher.


21. Heads of department can be a great help to teachers by:

- 21.1 arranging subject committee meetings
- 21.2 keeping outstanding record books of "top" teachers to motivate others
- 21.3 selecting suitable textbooks and teaching aids
- 21.4 listening to teacher grievances.


22. When a head of department prescribes, teachers carry out the instructions because:

- 22.1 of fear of anxiety
- 22.2 he could be victimised
- 22.3 he wants to be a better teacher.


23. You ensure professional growth for your team of teachers as well as for yourself by :

- 23.1 keeping abreast of innovative trends by reading current education literature
- 23.2 holding numerous subject committee meetings
- 23.3 attending workshops/seminars
- 23.4 furthering educational qualifications.


24. To solve the problem of prescription:

- 24.1 guides and suggestions should be open to discussion before implementation
- 24.2 teachers should be given freedom to use the method of their choice
- 24.3 ask critically who is prescribing what to the teacher and to what end


25. To assist in the professional growth of teachers, the head of department should:

- 25.1 motivate teachers to study further
- 25.2 ask them to attend orientation courses
- 25.3 ask them to enrol for in-service programmes
- 25.4 hold workshops after school for them.


26. When heads of department supervise and evaluate, they do it:

- 26.1 to improve instruction techniques
- 26.2 to correct methodology
- 26.3 to improve the teaching/learning situation
- 26.4 because the principals say so.


27. When teachers react strongly against heads of department supervising and evaluating their work, its because:

- 27.1 they want professional autonomy
- 27.2 it neither improves instruction nor eliminates the inconsistent
- 27.3 teachers don't want to be classified or categorised
- 27.4 they view it as a fault-finding exercise.


28. Would you agree that the manifestation of organisational conflict is the product of poor management?

- 28.1 strongly disagree
- 28.2 disagree
- 28.3 neutral
- 28.4 strongly agree
- 28.5 agree.


29. Supervision/instruction narrows education down to an examination of techniques, speech, record keeping and supervision of written work.

- 29.1 strongly disagree
- 29.2 disagree
- 29.3 neutral
- 29.4 strongly agree
- 29.5 agree.


30. Do heads of department feel more relaxed now that supervision and inspection of subordinates have been greatly reduced?

- 30.1 yes
- 30.2 no.


APPENDIX E – TO LEVEL-1 TEACHERSRESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE ADDRESSED TO LEVEL-1 TEACHERS OF SECONDARY AND PRIMARY H.O.D. SCHOOLSRESEARCH WITH UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Level-1 Colleague

Your help is needed to gather information and to draw conclusions about what effects management styles have on teachers in Indian education. This is the basis of a doctoral thesis I'm currently engaged in through Unisa.

In order to make the profession meaningful and challenging for teachers, their role should not be restricted to teaching alone. Teachers should be involved in joint decision-making, problem-solving, project initiation, goal-setting and the drawing up of syllabi.

Up until now, teachers had little say in structuring the syllabus or prescribing/selecting text books. Their task was generally confined to teaching in the class and doing routine extra-curricular duties.

A research topic of this nature would probe the problem with a view to improving the cause of education and perhaps the lot of the teacher in the class. Please consider the options carefully before making your final choice.

Yours faithfully

---

A.G. RAMJAN (RESEARCHER)

P.S. : The running time of this questionnaire in a pilot study was 6 minutes.

Do not write your name or the name of your school on this questionnaire.

Your responses will remain confidential.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR EFFORT AND TIME

APPENDIX E - TO LEVEL-1 TEACHERS

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE TO LEVEL-1 TEACHERS IN SECONDARY AND PRIMARY H.O.D. SCHOOLS

Show by means of a cross, in the appropriate square below, which of the following apply to you.

1. Your experience as a level 1 teacher is :

- |     |                |  |
|-----|----------------|--|
| 1.1 | 1-5 years      | <input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1.2 | 6-10 years     |  |
| 1.3 | 11-15 years    |  |
| 1.4 | over 15 years. |  |

2. When I look back at the years spent in the class:

- |     |                                   |  |
|-----|-----------------------------------|--|
| 2.1 | I'm disillusioned                 | <input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2.2 | I've had job satisfaction         |  |
| 2.3 | I prefer to have a change of job. |  |

3. Principals are:

- |     |  |  |
|-----|--|--|
| 3.1 | democratic (allows freedom)            | <input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3.2 | autocratic (dictates most of the time) |  |
| 3.3 | midway between the two.                |  |

4. The teacher's main task in the profession is teaching. However, this is over-shadowed by demands from management for unnecessary paperwork and record-keeping.

- |     |                   |  |
|-----|-------------------|--|
| 4.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4.2 | disagree          |  |
| 4.3 | neutral           |  |
| 4.4 | strongly agree    |  |
| 4.5 | agree.            |  |

5. The principal is fast becoming a public relations man rather than an educational leader.

- |     |                   |  |
|-----|-------------------|--|
| 5.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/><br><input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5.2 | disagree          |  |
| 5.3 | neutral           |  |
| 5.4 | strongly agree    |  |
| 5.5 | agree.            |  |

6. At staff meetings, where a controversial issue is discussed, do you find the options presented by the principal (Chairperson) to be limited with subtle attempts by him to influence the thinking?

- 6.1 yes
- 6.2 no.

7. Principals set unrealistic goals and objectives for teachers:

- 7.1 strongly disagree
- 7.2 disagree
- 7.3 neutral
- 7.4 strongly agree
- 7.5 agree.

8. Would principals allow the staff to pursue a project which violated their own norms/policy?

- 8.1 yes
- 8.2 no.

9. Principals make personal decisions which should have involved the staff.

- 9.1 strongly disagree
- 9.2 disagree
- 9.3 neutral
- 9.4 strongly agree
- 9.5 agree.

10. Do principals create a climate in which they together with the staff, could exchange ideas freely?

- 10.1 yes
- 10.2 no.

11. Principals inhibit staff performance by arbitrary and autocratic practices. (e.g. not allowing for joint decision-making).

- 11.1 strongly disagree
- 11.2 disagree
- 11.3 neutral
- 11.4 strongly agree
- 11.5 agree.

12. Principals are guilty of selecting teachers who lack skills, know-how, experience, character or drive to head new projects.

- |      |                   |                          |
|------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 12.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12.4 | strongly agree    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12.5 | agree.            | <input type="checkbox"/> |

13. Do principals procrastinate, thwart decisions, and sit on the fence when the staff need firm, vigorous policy guideline in an emergency situation? (e.g. mass stayaway/chalk down/go slow).

- |      |     |                          |
|------|-----|--------------------------|
| 13.1 | yes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13.2 | no. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

14. Do you get the impression that principals are scared of authority from their head office?

- |      |             |                          |
|------|-------------|--------------------------|
| 14.1 | always      | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14.2 | most often  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14.3 | sometimes   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14.4 | not at all. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

15. Principals are subservient to the community. They would even "sacrifice" the teacher to please parents.

- |      |                   |                          |
|------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 15.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15.4 | strongly agree    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15.5 | agree.            | <input type="checkbox"/> |

16. If a teacher becomes outspoken at staff meetings, do you feel that the principal would "victimise" him subtly?

- |      |     |                          |
|------|-----|--------------------------|
| 16.1 | yes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16.2 | no. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

17. The principal's strategy is to keep dissatisfaction to a minimum. They do nothing controversial nor do they like publicity. They expect teachers to behave accordingly.

- |      |                   |                          |
|------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 17.1 | strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17.2 | disagree          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17.3 | neutral           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17.4 | strongly agree    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17.5 | agree.            | <input type="checkbox"/> |

18. Would a principal use a teacher for his own gains, for example, during the promotion stage?

- 18.1 yes
- 18.2 no.


19. Are principals guilty of playing favourites with teachers when it comes to allocating classes, assigning duties and heading projects?

- 19.1 yes
- 19.2 no.


20. You expect the principal to:

- 20.1 treat teachers as professional colleagues with different but equal role
- 20.2 treat teachers as subordinates
- 20.3 midway between the two.


21. Which is most significant to the teacher?

- 21.1 being offered decision-making status
- 21.2 being "backed" in conflict situation
- 21.3 being allowed to serve on committees which have the power to make decisions rather than recommendations.


22. It does not matter whether the principal is a strong disciplinarian so long as he supports the teacher on issues relating to student discipline/parent clashes.

- 22.1 strongly disagree
- 22.2 disagree
- 22.3 neutral
- 22.4 strongly agree
- 22.5 agree.


23. Which increases your stress level?

- 23.1 pupil discipline
- 23.2 poor working conditions
- 23.3 time pressures and deadlines
- 23.4 an impossible principal.


24. Which stress coping tactic do you use?

- 24.1 avoiding confrontation
- 24.2 being realistic with your goals
- 24.3 not bothering with the principal
- 24.4 keeping things in perspective.


25. When work is examined, teachers say that management are:
- 25.1 petty and fault-finding
  - 25.2 broad-minded and appreciative of what's done
  - 25.3 midway between the two.
26. Before visiting teachers, management:
- 26.1 give prior warning of the visit
  - 26.2 "spring" on teachers
  - 26.3 distance themselves from the teacher concerned.
27. After listening to the lesson, management:
- 27.1 give honest opinion about the lesson
  - 27.2 will fault something, despite it being a good lesson.
28. The management staffs visit to a class:
- 28.1 serves a useful purpose
  - 28.2 serves little or no purpose
  - 28.3 is undertaken, since it is their duty.
29. The quality teachers like to see of management is:
- 29.1 that they must "support" a teacher in front of parents
  - 29.2 that they must "support" a teacher in front of pupils even if the pupil is right
  - 29.3 that they must be strong disciplinarians.
30. In the absence of management staff at schools :
- 30.1 education in general will suffer
  - 30.2 teachers will suffer
  - 30.3 neither the education of pupil, nor the teacher in the class will suffer
  - 30.4 effective administration of the school will suffer.

- THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT -