MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES IN EDUCATION

Applying Organisational Communication in Educational Management

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that the contents in this thesis constitute my own original work, which has not previously been presented to another institution, either in part or whole for the purposes of obtaining a degree.

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Abstract

MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES IN EDUCATION

APPLYING ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

By Aneel Ramcharan

Human Resource Management has become one of the most discussed approaches to the practice and analysis of employment relationship in our modern society. In this thesis I present my recommendations that organisations will function more effectively and efficiently if the people who work in them are encouraged to develop professionally and to use that approach to undertake organisational tasks. Increasingly human resource management is being recognised as crucial, not only to the individual but also to the promotion of effective and efficient organisations. In this thesis I will focus on educational management in two ways – from the perspective of the individual and from the perspective of the organisation.

Educational management is a diverse and complex range of activities calling on the exercise of considerable knowledge, skill and judgement by individuals, but its practice is dependent on the culture of particular organisational settings. I focus on this constant interplay between individual capability and organisational requirements, which make human resource management for educational managers both challenging and exciting. In this thesis I will examine how the concepts, skills and insights gained through

professional development can be applied by educational managers to specific organisational tasks and systems. At best this thesis encourages school managers to ask questions about their own organisations and to develop their own solutions appropriate to their organisations. My research involves a mixture of theory and practical examples, which it is envisaged will spur students of learning and educational managers to apply and refine in the future.

In the final phase of my research I reveal how the concepts, skills and insights gained through professional development can be applied by educational managers to specific organisational tasks and systems in the effective use of human resources.

Writing conventions

I wish to draw the attention of the reader to the following conventions that I am following in this study:

- I am using the abbreviated Harvard style of referencing, for example Hilliard 1999: 52, meaning Hilliard 1999, page 52.

- I have made a conscious effort to limit the use of footnotes as far as possible in order to facilitate the uninterrupted reading of the thesis.

- Illustrative graphics, tables and graphs are all given as Figures 1–90 in their chronological sequence of appearance.

- For commonly used terms full terms are used in headings. Acronyms are used in paragraphs.

- In consultation with my promoter I consciously tracked down relevant information relating to verbal and nonverbal small group communication, and included the relevant material in my thesis, accompanied by the website address (URL) of the websites where I found the material. An example of a typical website address is:

http://www. howardcc.edu/profdev/resources/learning/groups1.htm

- It should however be kept in mind that the Worldwide Web (WWW) is ephemeral and ever changing. It may well be that websites from which I garnered information will go offline or alter

their contents over the course of time. While it is inevitable that some of the servers will shed documents, the periodic updating of files on most websites ensures the renewal of knowledge that does not happen as readily in the print media.

- In instances where authorship could be established for website contents, or for an electronic document downloaded from websites, the author is given, followed by the website address as in:

  Bell 1998:

http:// www. howardcc.edu/profdev/resources/learning/groups1.htm

- I give the URL in place of page numbers because Website contents are not paginated.

- In the bibliography I have separated the references in authored and non-authored references, and authored homepages that relate to the communication process. The non-authored references include websites.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis in memory of my Father

The Late

Mr Ramcharan Jagalal

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Chapter 1

ORIENTATION

Introduction

In this chapter I shall briefly present a preview of what the reader will encounter in each chapter of my thesis. My research focuses on managing human resources in education. In this thesis I make a concerted effort to reveal how the application of organisational communication is particularly relevant to educational management. This chapter may be seen as a navigational guide to the reader of what to expect within this thesis.

The organisation of my thesis

In chapter 1, I provide a brief outline of the structure of this thesis. It provides the reader with insights into the rationale for the structure of this thesis.

Chapter 2 focused on the statement of problems and the research methodology that I used to resolve the problems that I identified. In Chapter 3 I explained the key concepts that informed this study and followed this with a literature survey in Chapter 4.

In chapter 4, I discuss communication in organisations in accordance to the various theoretical approaches. I also give a detailed account of the importance of communication along a hierarchical structure in organisations. The duties and responsibilities of the educational manager are also explored in this chapter.

In chapter 5, I trace the historical development of human resource management. I look at the theoretical approaches to human resource management in organisations. The various principles underpinning the Ubuntu management approach are also discussed.

In chapter 6, I look at current research on communication as well as the various forms of communication. Nonverbal as well as intercultural communication are also given attention in this chapter. Lines of communication, which, do not form part of the formal hierarchy (grapevine), are also explored. For this informal type of communication to be successful, there must be a cordial relationship amongst the employees. This congenial atmosphere is not too easy to achieve if the managerial style is autocratic and the morale of the employees is low. In this chapter I impress upon the need for constant efforts to be made to ensure that communication between employer and employee are regular and lucid at all times.

In chapter 7, I looked at the individual and professional development. The theories X and Y and the multidimensional intelligence within an individual are also discussed. This chapter also brings to the fore the need for motivation within organisations. Stress management, which has both physiological and psychological components are also discussed with particular reference to the role of management. Disaster/ crisis management is also looked at and a possible plan of action that could be implemented in the event of a fire is also discussed.

In chapter 8, I looked at the individual and professional development. Four important aspects of human resource management are discussed namely, human resource planning, appraisal, staff selection and professional development portfolios. Aspects of particular reference to school development are also

discussed in an attempt to impress on school managers the need for compliance to the process of whole school evaluation.

Chapter 9 provides the reader with theories on leadership. These theories have important implications for the organisation as a whole. I also discuss the need for leaders to be flexible and dynamic in their approach in dealing with human resources. The concepts of the integrated quality management system and performance improvement are also explored. Various methods of enhancing employee performance are also discussed.

In chapter 10, I discussed staff development and teamwork. I impress upon educational managers to encourage team building and group formation at schools so that duties may be shared and explored by groups and teams rather than by individuals. I also highlight the need for good human relations in organisations.

In chapter 11, I discussed the concept of change management together with the forms and steps involved in the change process. I also looked at organisational change from a schools perspective. The changing school climate is highlighted together with the need for educational managers to embrace the change process positively in order to ensure a smooth transition in the implementation and adoption of the various changes that are being promulgated in the educational setting.

In chapter 12, I discussed the concepts of information and knowledge management. The chapter begins with a discussion of the digital convergence that currently surrounds education and the impact of such a convergence in terms of modern technology. Record keeping and maintenance are also given due

attention as we move away from a paperless work environment to a more technologically, digitally inclined working environment.

In chapter 13, I discuss industrial relations and the important role that labour unions play in our current work environments. Disciplinary and grievance procedures are given due attention in this chapter.

In chapter 14, I discussed a possible model for the application of organisational communication to human resource management. I make a concerted attempt in impressing upon educational managers to be fair and consistent in dealing with employees.

In chapter 15, I discuss the fieldwork that was undertaken and how it was encoded onto the SPSS 11.5 statistical programme. Empirical research has uncovered a number of general rules and relationships, which I address in chapter 16.

In chapter 16, I provided the results of the survey conducted with an analysis comprising of graphs and tables.

In chapter 17, I presented the conclusions of my research and make a number of recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM & RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Introduction

In this thesis I applied the principles of organisational communication to the management of human resources in education. There are three phases in this study:

- In the first phase I analysed the principles of organisational communication as set out in Mersham and Skinner's New Insights into Business & Organisational Communication (2001).
- In the second phase I evaluated the views of educators towards management members, via a survey of selected schools in the eThekwini Region.
- In the third phase I developed an effective method of improving staff /management relations.

Statement of problems

The greatest resource or impediment of any organisation is its human resource. The assumption is made that organisations will function more efficiently if the people who work in them are encouraged to develop professionally and to use that approach to undertake organisational tasks. One of the crucial tasks for educational managers is to apply the principle of professional development not only to themselves but also to the people and tasks that they manage.

A major change brought about by Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) is the fact that it requires a co-operative environment where all stakeholders are synchronised in effectively being able to respect the individualism of learners and fellow colleagues.

The most general complaint from educators relate to the bureaucratic structures in education, which have left them disillusioned and demotivated. In this thesis I, apply the principles of organisational communication to highlight the many tasks of the modern school manager and develop an efficient method in which managers are able to create constant awareness of management activities.

The requirements of such a procedure are that:

- School Managers have set role functions
- Educators must use the proper channels of communication to liase effectively with management
- A consultative approach allows democracy in the decision-making processes which impacts positively on educators.

Increasingly human resource management is being recognised as crucial, not only to the individual but also to the promotion of effective and efficient organisations. In this thesis I, focus on educational management in two ways – from the perspective of the individual and from the perspective of the organisation. Education management is a diverse and complex range of activities calling on the exercise of considerable knowledge, skill and judgement by individuals, but its practice is dependent on the culture of particular

organisational settings. It is a recognised fact however that it is this constant interplay between individual capability and organisational requirements, which make human resource management for educational managers both challenging and exciting. In this thesis I examined how the concepts, skills and insights gained through professional development can be applied by educational managers to specific organisational tasks and systems.

In order to evaluate current human resource management skills adopted, a survey of methods being used was carried out at 50 randomly selected schools in the Lower Tugela circuit, which falls within the eThekwini region. The Lower Tugela circuit will be targeted because it constitutes rural and semi-rural educational settings where problems of implementation are more acute than at schools in urban settings. By focusing on delivery in rural and semi-rural settings, a robust procedure of educational resource management can be developed.

In the final phase of my research I will create a model of how the concepts, skills and insights gained through professional development can be applied by educational mangers to specific organisational tasks and systems in the effective use of human resources.

Hypothesis to be tested

The following two hypotheses will be tested in this study:

- Facilitators at public schools in the Lower Tugela circuit have a clear understanding of organisational communication and their role functions.

- Public schools in the Lower Tugela circuit follow sound educational management techniques in the management of human resources.

Aims

1. To determine by means of a literature survey what sound principles of human resource management are;

2. To determine by means of an analysis of documentation from the Department of Education, what role functions of educational managers are being prescribed;

3. To determine by means of an attitude survey whether educators are aware of organisational communication principles that can be applied to human resource management.

4. To determine by the same survey what forms of human resource management, educational managers at systematically selected schools in the Lower Tugela circuit are currently practicing.

5. To determine whether the resource management skills currently being used are effective in sustaining educator motivation.

Research Methodology

This research consists of a literature survey, followed by survey research conducted among randomly selected public primary and secondary schools in the Lower Tugela circuit of the eThekwini region.

Quantitative research methodology was used to analyse the responses from the various public schools. The quantitative research was conducted in the following phases:

- An appropriate questionnaire was constructed.
- Permission was sought and obtained from the relevant educational authorities in the eThekwini region of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education & Culture for a voluntary, anonymous survey to be conducted among intermediate phase educators in its Stanger circuit.
- Permission of Principals in the Lower Tugela circuit was sought and obtained for the survey to be conducted among educators in their schools.
- Questionnaires were disseminated and retrieved with the assistance of school principals and their management teams at each school selected for the survey.
- The responses on the questionnaires were encoded and analysed in the statistical program SPSS 11.5

Envisaged value of research

The value of this research will be in the documentation of the various forms of communication being used in schools at present, as well as the coordinated application of organisational communication principles to human resource management in educational management.

CHAPTER 3

KEY CONCEPTS

Introduction

In this chapter I will define the key concepts relating to my research regarding organisational communication and educational management. The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the main concepts that I will be working with, and which I will analyse in greater detail in subsequent chapters.

Communication

Williams 1992: 13 views communication as interactive and transactional. The most effective interpersonal conversations are highly transactional. That is, both individuals participate equally in the exchange. The transactional quality of communication also extends to situations that do not necessarily involve two or more individuals, for example, a reader of a newspaper can write a letter to the editor, a viewer can call a TV station to complain about a program, or a listener can participate by telephone in a call-in radio show.

According to Mersham & Skinner 1999:2, "to communicate," means:

- To exchange thoughts, feelings and information
- To make known
- To make common
- To present something that somebody else understands.

Balliram 2003: 21-22 states that, communication involves the exchange of meaningful symbols (messages) among sources and receivers via a medium. Most of our communication is transactional, that is, it can be seen as a dynamic process by which we exchange messages to satisfy our needs.

Myers and Myers 1985: 18-19, describe communication as a sharing of meaning. To communicate is to process stimuli from raw data into meaningful information. This creative act of generating meaning performs the function of reducing uncertainty. The cues you select out of your internal, physical, and social environment all serve the purpose of clarifying what an encountered situation is all about so that you can adapt to it.

Smit and Cronje 1995: 354, define communication as "a process involving the acquisition and the use of information for planning, organising, leading and controlling."

Communication Science

The major references do not define Communication Science as a discipline. Mersham and Skinner 1999, 2001a and 2001b for instance use the term without defining it. Communication Science can be analysed as a systematic study of the codes, the modes, means and the objectives of the different forms of human communication.

Organisational communication

Mersham and Skinner, 2001: 4 define an organisation as having two elements, namely people working together towards a common purpose or goal. These authors further indicate that organisational communication is the necessary communication that takes place in an organisation to achieve a common goal or

purpose. An organisation is a stable system of people who work through a hierarchy of ranks and division of labour. Organisational Communication includes varied activities such as giving direction, counselling workers, interviewing new employees, evaluating staff, motivating people, analysing problems, resolving conflicts as well as establishing and monitoring work performance.

Group communication

Balliram 2003: 42 states that group communication is communication within groups of people and by groups of people to others. Two divisions become apparent in this category, namely small group and large group communication.

Small groups behave differently from pairs. Their interaction is face to face. Examples of small group interaction include a family or a group of friends going out for the evening. A committee meeting at work also constitutes a small group.

Large groups behave differently from small groups. Large groups often come together for purposes that differ from that of small groups. Examples of large groups include an audience at a concert or a business organisation.

Mass communication

Balliram 2003: 29 refers to mass communication as communication received by or used by a large number of people. Example of mass communication includes an open-air concert for a thousand people. Mass communication involves a number of people, which ordinarily would not constitute a group. Mass communication includes tele-communication as well as mass media.

Public communication

Steinberg 1999b: 53, states that public communication refers to a scenario where a communicator, example a teacher does most of the talking while several people do the listening. Groups of people being addressed in the public speaking context are much larger than in the small group context. The result is that interaction between the members is severely limited or even impossible. Rugbeer Y 2002: 20 states that, the relatively face-to-face nature of public communication allows recipients actively to participate in the communication process through their occasional responses to what the communicator says. This allows the communicator to make on-the-spot adjustments to the message.

Verbal communication

Steinberg 1998: 483 states that communication in relationships follows a pattern of social penetration, in which the breath of topics and the depth of discussions tend to increase during the course of the relationship. At first we tend to talk about fairly superficial things. Gradually, we increase the depth and breath of what we are willing to talk about. Gender differences also exist in communication patterns, content and styles. These differences can interfere with effective communication.

Nonverbal communication

According to Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com nonverbal communication is the process of sending and receiving wordless messages by means of facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, and tone of voice. Also included are grooming habits, body positioning in space, and consumer product design (e.g., clothing cues, food products, artificial colours and tastes, engineered aromas, media images and computer-graphic displays). Nonverbal cues are

produced and received below the level of conscious awareness. They include all expressive signs and cues (audio, visual, tactile, and chemical) used to send messages apart from manual sign language and speech. Nonverbal communication is an integral part of small group communication.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming provides a non-judgemental environment for members to share ideas and find the best solutions. Before the session begins every member must understand the problem at hand. Learners must be encouraged to generate ideas individually. The recorder writes down all the ideas presented during the session. Learners must be encouraged to voice their ideas. Others may need time to build of others' ideas. Learners can make the most of particular ideas if others do not claim ownership to them. The solution must only be decided on when all members have had an opportunity to share their ideas. When the feasibility of the solution is being looked at, learners should be as honest as possible. The final decision must be informed and well thought-out.

Staff development

Staff development relates to the development of an individual educator as a member of a staff in a particular school, or to the development in some way of the whole staff. A school development committee and an elected staff development team will usually formally manage effective staff development. Emphasis is placed on good communication and the active dissemination of information. Staff development programmes in schools are ideally built on a number of first principles. They should be seen as forming a continuing process rather than disjointed stop-start provisions.

Management

Management has become an important activity within education, as with all other public services. This concept remains unpopular as many regard this concept as the source of all problems. Some educators have claimed that it has generated a set of values hostile to the interests of learners and the work of educators and lecturers. However unpopular the concept may be, critics do realise the need for management in a diverse way.

- The management of funds (financial management),
- management of staff (human resource management),
- conflict management,
- information and knowledge management
- as well as safety and security management.

Dealing with all of these areas is essentially a management task in organisations. Bennett 1999: 62 contends that management is a principle; a rational activity in that it is concerned with finding the most effective and efficient ways possible of deploying resources best suited to achieve the purposes of the organisation.

Human Resource Management

Human Resource Management deals with people in their work environment and how they are managed.

Beach 1985: 109 defines human resource management as

" ... a process for determining and assuring that the organisation will have an adequate number of qualified persons, available at the proper times, performing jobs that meet the needs of the enterprise and which provide satisfaction for the individuals involved."

Human resources management embraces all the core functions of general management including:

- Planning – aims to be achieved,
- Organising – by analysing the activities to be carried out,
- Commanding – through leading,
- Communicating – through various structures,
- Co-ordinating – activities so that targets are achieved,
- Evaluating – effectiveness of managerial activities.

Human resource management also involves operative functions, which include:

- Communication and negotiation,
- Recruitment and selection,
- Leadership and motivation,
- Appraisal and Staff Development

It must be noted that the very essence of human resource management is people management, which requires communication at various levels. These

levels and there implications are dealt with in sufficient detail throughout the different chapters.

Conclusion

In this chapter I defined the key concepts relating to my research regarding human resource management from an organisational perspective. The key elements of the communication process in direct small group communication as well as in public communication are given due attention. I focused on what management entails and its implication to the educational manager.

In subsequent chapters, I will discuss how each of these concepts forms an important part of Organisational Communication with particular reference to the management of human resources in educational management.

CHAPTER 4

THE NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Introduction

In the previous chapter I outlined the key concepts that form the backdrop to my research. In this chapter I will present the results of a more extensive literature survey of some of these concepts that play a central role in this study. I begin by exploring the importance of organisational communication.

The importance of Organisational Communication

Virtually everyone belongs to some form of organisation, for the majority such organisation represents their place of employment. The relationship between individuals and organisations is one of interdependence. Organisations amount to nothing without individuals and humans have no employment without them. Work in an educational setting is divided horizontally into posts or jobs, which are then grouped together to from a hierarchy or pyramid. This hierarchy consists from bottom to top of subsections, subdivisions, divisions, branches, and ultimately departments. It is clear that work assigned to each level should form a logical entity, that is similar work should be grouped together so that it can best be accomplished as a coherent whole. This is an essential prerequisite to maintaining efficiency and avoiding the overlapping of functions. Bovee *et al* 1993: 285 states that grouping activities also ensures that like activities are performed in close proximity to each other, thereby greatly reducing the excessive movement of people. Part of the horizontal division of work also encompasses the linking and coordination of tasks so that work is completed in accordance to timeframes.

We live in an organisational society. Much of one's daily life is spent in an organisation. Such organisation could include factories, municipal offices, libraries, schools, technikons, universities, hospitals, churches, social clubs, banks, supermarkets, and so on. It is the communication process that gives life to an organisational structure. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 6 illustrate that Katz and Kahn emphasise that communication is "the very essence of a social system or an organisation".

The specified role function of an individual largely dictates his/her behaviour within an organisation. Human resource management is that part of management, which is focused on the people in an organisation. In the school situation, the educators request learners to conform to school rules and the code of conduct, which are usually negotiated with the school governing body. The learners are obliged to comply with the code of conduct. Failure on the part of learners to comply with the code of conduct could result in suspension and expulsion. Similarly in a factory, workers are obliged to comply with factory policies. One such example could be the wearing of helmets or protective gear when entering certain areas of a factory. Such rules and policies serve a regulative function. Of all the resources at the disposal of a person or organisation it is only people who can grow and develop and be motivated to achieve certain desired ends. Organisations are never completely static. They are in continuous interaction with external forces as may be seen in the figure below.

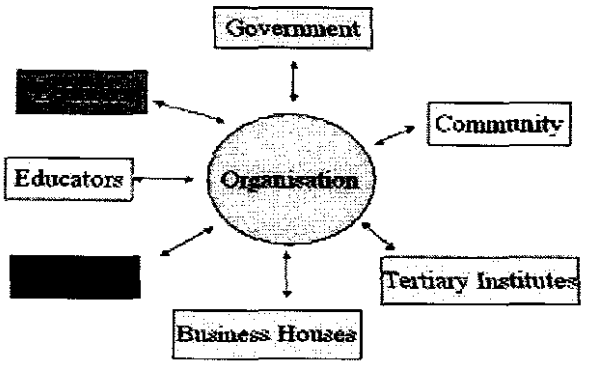

FIGURE 1 EXTERNAL FORCES

The Pastor in a church, principal at a school, chief executive officers in businesses are leaders with specific duties to perform. Each has a role function to perform and their behaviour in the organisation has to comply accordingly. A variety of factors as depicted in the figure above are bound to influence and affect the leader's role function in his work environment. The above-mentioned leadership characteristics will determine how democratic or autocratic the relationship between members of the group is, and how cooperative and confrontational the forms of communication within the group are. The Department of Education and Culture is a firm adherent to the government's policy of "Batho Pele," which means ' people first.' This deals with "service delivery" in all schools. One of the most significant skills that we need in customer service is the ability to communicate properly.

The nature of Organisational Communication

Organisations are important in modern day society. Any successful organisation requires a set of objectives that are appropriate for its survival. It is essential that corporate planning be instituted for quality production at any given time. The social and political changes within the country have created a greater need for effective organisational communication than ever before. The teacher unions and the Department of Education emphasise a need for transparency in the activities of the school and especially from the directives from management.

Mechanisms need to be in place to ensure the smooth operation and transition of society at large. Fourie 1985: 43 states that a lack of effective organisational structures may lead to a lack of coordination channels and result in decision making having to pass through too many channels to execute decisions effectively. An inefficient organisational structure could result in insufficient co-ordination, which could result in decisions being made at the wrong levels. Allen 1993: 103 outlines the purpose of an organisational structure as being a mechanism that prevents the duplication of work. He further contends that people are utilized according to their abilities in the execution of set tasks. This implies that the work given to people should be within their capabilities, training and scope of interest. Management competence is an essential element in organisations. Three essential elements have been identified that constitute capability (Wilkinson 1992: 43):

- *Knowledge* – relevant information relating to the school's context, functions and processes which the manager needs to possess or have ready access to.

- *Skills* – techniques that can be acquired through training and that can be improved through practice.

- *Higher order capacities* – generic cognitive abilities, which determine appropriate action.

It needs to be noted that while knowledge and skills are prerequisite tools in the process of managing a given situation, it is the higher order capacities, which are the vital elements in the process of using knowledge and skills in effective action. It is essential that the school manager have the professional

knowledge of principles and practices, knowledge of theories and models of management and knowledge of the social, political and legal contexts.

Equally important are the discrete skills of persuading, bargaining, explaining, listening, reporting, informing, counselling, appraising, chairing, interviewing and team building. Skills have been enumerated in key areas like curriculum, organisation and resource management and development programmes are often predicated on the assumptions that these can be effectively managed through the acquisition of skills that are teachable, learnable and transferable. The following higher order capacities have been identified from a distillation of complex interrelated concepts: reading the situation, balanced judgement, intuition and political acumen.

The principal of the school has a multiple role function both in and outside the school. Activities outside the school may involve his/ her family, religious affiliation, community responsibilities and involvement in sporting and cultural bodies. In the school context he/she will also play various roles in dealing with the officials from the department, educators, the school governing body, parents, learners, revenue office and other interested parties that have dealings with the school. The principal needs to manage all these roles effectively and efficiently. There is a need for the principal to prioritise. Planning is an important aspect for ranking entities in order of priority. Ranking entities in order of priority is an essential form of communication in organisational communication, which must be practised and managed effectively. This will aid the principal in executing each role without sacrificing the other. Effective time management also needs to be given attention so that the volume of work can be effectively managed.

Theoretical approaches to Organisational Communication

The Classical Approach

Hoy and Miskel 1978: 3 identify Frederick Taylor as the father of this school of thought. Taylor's work as an engineer gave him the idea that workers can be "programmed" like machines to carry out tasks. This approach hence propagates that the smooth running of the organisation is more important than the needs and feelings of the people who work in the organisation. The key element of the classical approach is production. Scientific management efforts are constantly applied to increase worker performance.

Hence the classical approach is mainly concerned with production and administrative matters. A great deal of emphasis is placed on how the organisation can be made more efficient to increase production. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 18 refer to the classical approach as the scientific management approach. In present day society this approach is constantly under attack as it emphasises productivity over the needs of workers. This approach views communication in a one-way direction –command and control through vertical, formal channels.

Human Relations Approach

Critics to this approach hi-light the similarity to the classical approach, but further emphasise that management tend to manipulate employees by pretending to be concerned about them. Manipulation is enforced in a "subtle" way without the employers being aware of it. Critics indicate that worker output are still the main concern, it is only the motive that is well hidden. The human relations approach strives particularly to recognise people and provide them with their

rightful place in management and the organisation. In education, dynamic interaction between people is the main concern.

Human Resources Approach

The human resources approach emphasises the concept of participation. This approach advocates participation of employees in decision making rather than the imposing of rules and regulations on employees by management. Theorist, like Rensis Likert and Douglas McGregor have tried to change management's conception of employees. They advocate a "participatory management" approach, which serves as an incentive and motivating factor for higher production.

The human resources approach allows the employees a degree of democracy in the actual decision making processes, which is much needed in all organisations. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 20, state that this approach allows for worker satisfaction. The principle of a "happy worker is a productive worker" is emphasised. The Scanion plan is hi-lighted by Mersham and Skinner 2001: 22, who point out the relevancy in terms of the South African context. The emphasis of the Scanion plan lies in two basic elements:

- All members are given the opportunity of making suggestions, with the idea of improving productivity.
- All members are rewarded equitably for improved productivity (Frost et al 1974: 5)

Critics of this approach argue, that the concepts of "conflict and competition" are not given due consideration. It is indicative that these concepts have a direct influence on productivity in present day society at large.

The Systems Approach

The systems approach advocates the principle of links in an organisation. The individual in an organisation are not seen as isolated persons. All members of an organisation are linked as interdependent parts of the whole organisational structure. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 24 state that the systems approach reveals the inter-relatedness of components and stresses the arrangements of these parts as the key to maximising performance. This approach has applicability to a wide range of organisations, namely schools, prisons, hospitals, and many kinds of business firms. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 24 contend that the systems approach is grounded in a theoretical perspective called the "general systems theory".

The essential element of communication in the system is emphasised by most theorists. Communication serves to link the interdependent parts or subsystems. In the systems approach the organisation is viewed as an open system – open to new ideas, responsive to the environment, and dynamic in nature. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 32 define a structure as the arrangement of the components within an organisation. Structure also refers to the relationships that exist in an organisation as regards power status and other variables.

According to Blau and Meyer 1971: 80 organisational structure refers to the properties of an organisation, not to any individual aspect of its members. An organisation requires members to conform to and follow instructions of certain delegated individuals according to the hierarchy of the organisation. Marx 1981: 243 states that an organisational structure is a specific framework of established posts in which people carry out certain actions, and are so grouped that they can pursue a common goal. Communication is the metaphorical thread that holds the

various interdependent parts of an organisation together. According to Marx 1981: 243 an organisational structure is a specific framework of established posts in which people carry out certain actions, and are grouped accordingly in order to pursue a common goal.

In the educational scenario work is also divided vertically in order of intricacy or difficulty and according to the seniority of the posts. This largely takes the form of a pyramidal structure. This determines the mutual relations between the various levels of authority and also fixes the responsibility and reporting systems, whereby the flow of information is facilitated. The vertical division of work cannot operate effectively without adequate delegation of authority. If work were to be delegated and decentralised at least to some extent, it would mean that only a few persons are forced to handle all the governmental and administrative functions. This is of course an impossible feat. Delegation is therefore an essential part of the organising process and goes hand in hand with the vertical division of work. Work is divided vertically to expedite the execution of the functions and to give employees an opportunity of sharpening and expanding their own skills and expertise.

Figure 2 below, helps us get a clearer picture on the main processes of managing and leading effective schools in South Africa. The departmental manual, entitled "Managing and Leading Schools", 2002 discusses aspects of communication that are required for effective schools. School Management teams (SMT's) are encouraged to create "the right school culture." Some of the features that define this are:

- **Management support**: the degree to which managers provide clear communication, assistance and support to their staff.

- **Control**: the number of rules and regulations, and the amount of direct supervision that is used to oversee and control staff and learner behaviour.

- **Conflict tolerance**: the degree to which school community members can talk openly about conflicts and criticisms.

- **Communication pattern**: the degree to which communication in the school is restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.

These are just a few examples showing the department's interest in the relevant forms of communication for effective school management.

The following organogram (Figure 3) by Majozi 2003: 50 serves to illustrate the formal organisational structures of a secondary school.

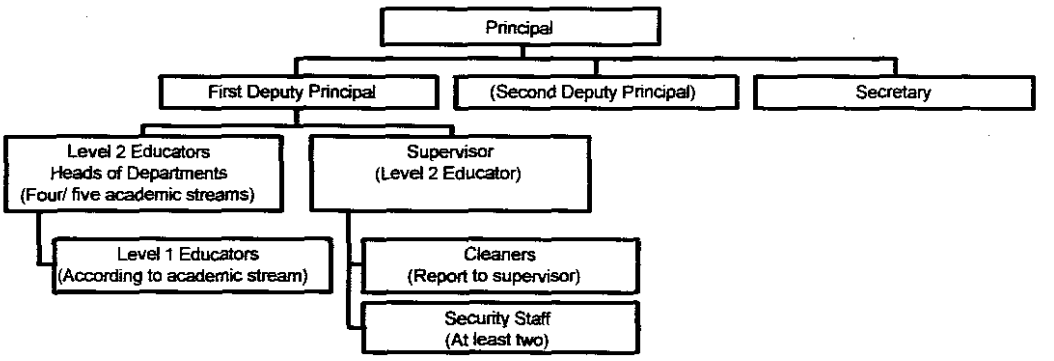

FIGURE 2 ORGANOGRAM OF EDUCATIONAL FUNCTIONAL HIERARCHY

Marx 1981: 252 states that in a functional organisation, efforts are made to obtain and draw expert advice, not only by means of counselling and recommendation but also by enforceable authority.

From the above organogram it becomes evident that there is a hierarchical structure in education, which is bureaucratic in nature. The learner is dependent on the educator for advice and guidance; the educator in turn seeks assistance

and guidance from the head of department, who in turn seeks guidance from the principal.

In terms of the protocol structures that are existent, the principal is the link to the Superintendent. The principal informs the superintendent of activities and any problems that are being experienced. It then becomes the responsibility of the superintendent to investigate such areas of concern and to advise the principal accordingly.

All policies that are promulgated by the state department have to be strictly adhered to. During the course of a year various circulars are submitted to schools to ensure that schools are made aware of the latest policies and regulations that govern various aspects of education. According to Marx 1981: 259 the following are characteristics of the functional organisation structure:

- Expert advice is easier to obtain.
- There is delegation of authority.
- Various people may give instructions.
- There is uniformity in the organisation.
- Various people within the structure are allowed to make contributions as regards decision-making, as well as enforce them.

Departmental manual entitled "*School management teams Instructional Leadership*" provides a detailed duty schedule of the duties of the SMT as well as other employees. In this next section I briefly summarise the duties and

responsibilities of the school principal as the educational manager responsible for the effective functioning of the school.

Duties and responsibilities of principals in public schools

The main aim of the job:

- To ensure that the school is managed satisfactory and in compliance with applicable legislation, regulations and personnel administrative measures as prescribed.

- To ensure that the education of the learners is promoted in a proper manner and in accordance with approved policies.

Core duties and responsibilities of the job:

- **General/Administrative**

  - To be responsible for the professional management of a public school.

  - To give proper instructions and guidelines for timetabling, admission and placement of learners.

  - To have various kinds of school accounts and records properly kept and to make the best use of funds for the benefit of the learners in consultation with the appropriate structures.

  - To ensure a School Journal containing a record of all-important events connected with the school is kept.

- To make regular inspections of the schools to ensure that the school premises and equipment are being used properly and that good discipline is being maintained.
- To be responsible for the hostel and all related activities including the staff and learners, if one is attached to the school.
- To ensure that Departmental circulars and other information received, which affect members of the staff, are brought to their notice as soon as possible and are stored in an accessible manner.
- To handle all correspondence received at the school.

➢ **Teaching**

- To engage in class teaching as per workload of the relevant post level and the needs of the school.
- To be a class *teacher* if required.
- To assess and record the attainment of learners taught.

➢ **Personnel**

- Provide professional leadership within the school.
- To guide and supervise the work and performance of all staff in the school and, if necessary, to discuss and write or

countersign reports on teaching, support, non-teaching and other staff.

- To observe class teaching and offer professional advice to educators where necessary.
- To ensure that workloads are equitably distributed among the staff.
- To be responsible for the development of staff teaching programmes, both school-based, school-focused and externally directed, and to assist educators, particularly new and inexperienced educators, in developing and achieving educational objectives in accordance with the needs of the school.
- To participate in agreed school/educator appraisal processes in order to regularly review their professional practice with the aim of improving teaching, learning and management.
- To ensure that all evaluation/forms of assessment conducted in the school are properly and effectively organised.

➢ **Interaction with stakeholders**

- To serve on the governing body of the school and render all necessary assistance to the governing body in the

performance of their functions in terms of the S.A. Schools Act (No.84 of 1996).

- To participate in community activities in connection with educational matters and community building.

➢ **Extra- and co-curricular**

- To serve on recruitment, promotion, advisory and other committees as required.

- To play an active role in promoting extra- and co-curricular activities in the school and to plan major school functions and to encourage learners' voluntary participation in sports, educational and cultural activities organised by community bodies.

➢ **Communication**

- To cooperate with members of the school staff and the School Governing Body in maintaining an efficient and smooth-running school.

- To liase with the Circuit/Regional Office, Supplies Section, Personnel Section, Finance Section, and so on concerning administration, staffing, accounting, purchase of equipment, research and updating of statistics in respect of educators and learners.

- To liase with relevant structures regarding school curricula and curriculum development.
- To meet parents concerning learners' progress and conduct.
- To cooperate with the School Governing Body with regard to all aspects as specified in the S.A. Schools Act No. 84 of 1996.
- To liase with other relevant government departments, for example departments of health and welfare, public work, and so on, as required.
- To cooperate with universities, colleges and other agencies in relation to learners' records and performance as well as INSET and management development programmes.
- To participate in Departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses in order to contribute to and/or update professional views/standards.
- To maintain contacts with sports, social, cultural and community organisations.

A school is a complex organisation, and the multi-faceted nature of a school cannot be limited to a certain logical conceptual process, which follow one another mechanically. The emphasis on the systems approach is the orderly functioning of the system. As such it is the leader's role to plan according and delegate tasks appropriately to the relevant personnel to ensure the smooth and orderly functioning of the organisation.

Communication between equals and between unequals

In an organisation such as a school there is communication downward from the chief administrative officer, through subordinate positions, and to persons holding positions at all levels in the organisational structure. Whether in small group, public or organisational communication some communicators will have equal status and some will have unequal status. Myers and Myers 1985: 22-23 state that you can relate to people either as equals or as non-equals. Non-equal relationships include two different positions. One communicator is in the superior, one-up position while the other occupies the one-down or inferior position. Work is often divided vertically in order of intricacy or difficulty and according to the seniority of the posts. This determines the mutual relationships between the various levels of authority and also fixes the responsibility and reporting systems, that is, the flow of information is facilitated. A superintendent may address a letter or speak only to the principals with regard to certain matters.

Non-equal relationships are often set by social or cultural factors as in the case of doctor-patient, learner-educator, and parent-child relationships. The one-up person usually defines the nature of the relationship, while the one-down person accepts and goes along with the decision.

In equal relationships, communicators exchange the same kind of behaviour. Mutual respect and a feeling of partnership exist. Friends, peers, and colleagues are usual examples of relationships among equals. Communication becomes truly a two-way process only when there is an upward as well as downward flow of information, ideas, and attitudes.

Mersham and Skinner 2001: 40-44 hi-light the following effects of structure on communication.

Downward Communication

According to Mersham and Skinner 2001: 40 downward communication refers to messages sent from the higher levels of the hierarchy to the lower levels. The vertical division of work cannot operate effectively without adequate delegation of authority. If work is not delegated and decentralized at least to some extent, it would mean that only a few persons are forced to handle all the administrative functions. Downward communication flows are more frequent in an organisation than upwards flows. When there is contact between individuals of status, communication from the superior to the subordinate takes place more easily than communication from the subordinate to the superior. Work is divided vertically to expedite the execution of the functions of government and to give educators the opportunity of sharpening and expanding their own skills and expertise. Instructions and orders are the most common forms of downward communication. Along with these order-giving messages are the accompanying explanations of procedures, goals and the like. Managers are also responsible for giving appraisals of workers and for motivating them, all in the name of productivity and for the good of the organisation as a whole.

Lateral or horizontal communication

Mersham and Skinner 2001: 42 state that lateral communication occurs between equals, manager to manager, worker to worker, in other words with people at the same level in the hierarchy. Horizontal communication flows in an organisation are more frequent than vertical flows. This is because individuals communicate more openly with their equals than with superiors. Horizontal exchanges between organisational equals are usually also less subject to distortion, because peers share a common frame of reference, and are more likely to be informal than formal.

Lateral communication helps the sharing of insights, methods and problems. At its best it co-ordinates the various activities of the organisation enabling the various divisions to pool insights and expertise. It is also a means of enhancing and promoting teambuilding. Lateral communication also facilitates the easy flow of information between equals. Figure 3 below, illustrates lateral or horizontal communication in the school setting.

LATERAL COMMUNICATION

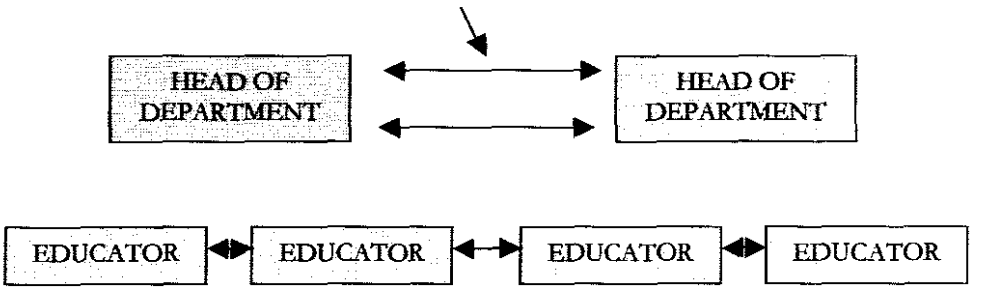

FIGURE 3 LATERAL OR HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION

Upward communication

Mersham and Skinner 2001: 43-44 state that upward communication refers to messages sent from the lower levels of the hierarchy to the upper levels. This type of information is usually concerned with job related activities, example, what needs to be done, solving problems, making suggestions, measuring success and improving morale. There is often relatively less upward communication in an organisation compared to downward communication. Top executives tend to initiate a high proportion of messages, but receive a lower proportion. Upward communication provides management with the necessary feedback on worker morale and possible sources of dissatisfaction. At the same time it tends to give subordinates a sense of belonging to the organisation. It also serves to provide management with the opportunity to acquire new ideas from those actually working on the production line.

Communication on the group level

According to Williams 1992: 169 you have already spent many hours of your life in face-to-face communication that involves more than two persons, a situation that can properly be called group communication. This may be in informal groups as when chatting with friends, or it may be a more formal group that is part of a business or organisation. Although many of the generalisations made about individual communication apply to communication in groups, we humans do have various strategies for adapting to the presence of more individuals entering into the interactions. We tend to communicate a bit differently when more than one person is listening to us; sometimes we may be addressing multiple persons in the group. And, of course, not only may we attend to what a person in a group is saying to us; we may simultaneously monitor the group reaction. Also, as in the study of interpersonal communication, we will see a manifestation in group behaviours of communication and the development of social structures among people.

Conclusion

In this chapter I examined what an organisation is and the theories of organisational communication. I also reveal the structured nature of communication in organisations. The importance of communication at the various levels is also given attention. I systematically reveal the important role that school management teams play in communicating effectively with personnel at the various levels.

CHAPTER 5

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Introduction

The key element in any functional organisation is its human resources. Human resources have become increasingly acknowledged as important because of the greater emphasis being placed on the assumption that organisations cannot function effectively without communication mechanisms in place. In studying the historical development of Human Resource Management it is important to examine theories, developed at any given time, which centre on people as workers. Examining and understanding the progressive development of theories and approaches helps to place current theories in perspective. People study the past in order to reach a better understanding of Human Resource Management in its present form. The different approaches from the West are briefly discussed. In the last section of the chapter we will review the basic modern trends and ideas.

Different approaches to Human Resource Management

Mechanistic approach

This approach views employees as mechanically controllable in facilitating production. People were viewed in the same light as machines. The principles applicable to machines were simply applied to humans.

During the Industrial Revolution in Europe the emphasis fell on increased output of production. Machines were designed and production processes organised to achieve mass production through machines specialisation. The principle of "cheap but efficient" machinery was also applied to labour. Whatever was demanded of a machine was also demanded of the labourer. In attempting to

lower input costs, even children, who could do the work more cheaply, were employed. Workers' anxieties and needs were not considered a factor, which affected production.

It was taken for granted that workers were completely controllable, predictable and interchangeable. The latter refers to the view that all workers have the same ability. Their unique personalities, human needs and aspirations were ignored. It was assumed that as long as workers were not suffering pain and received remuneration, they would be content.

As far as the performance of tasks was concerned, job specialisation was the order of the day. The founder of this school of thought used techniques such as time and motion studies, incentive wages and specialised supervision to achieve maximum production output. Work was split up into small tasks, which required no special skills and were of a routine nature. A great deal of emphasis was placed on productivity while the human element in workers was neglected. Management teams, which followed this approach, were wholly " task oriented" and not in the least "people oriented. Motlatla 1992: 110 endorses the concept that every person is a complex being with experiences and his or her own personality; the mechanistic approach led to major personnel problems. The most important of these were the following:

- *Technological unemployment*: To a large extent, machines replaced labour. Workers were often dismissed on the spot and left destitute. Society started objecting to the employers' conduct to the extent that the reputation of some organisations was severely damaged. This resistance eventually led to the formation of trade unions and to the introduction of unemployment insurance.

- *Security:* The fear of dismissal posed a threat to the worker's security needs. Membership of the trade union helped to counteract the threat and to satisfy these needs. When large numbers of unemployed people started appealing to government bodies for assistance, government was compelled to act. Legislation was passed which, in certain cases, made membership of the unemployment and pension funds compulsory.

- *Organised Labour:* Exploitation by employers led to large numbers of workers joining trade unions. The majority of employers did not realise that it was in fact their conduct that stimulated the growth of the trade unions. Employers attempted to undermine the unions, for example they refused to employ people who were members of trade unions. Such action aggravated the conflict between employers and unions, and this in turn contributed to the vigorous growth of the unions.

- *Pride in work:* Jobs were so segmented that tasks became extremely simple and routine. Employees had to perform a small task allocated to them. They were not given the opportunity to show initiative or to work place their personal stamp on their work. Employees did not see the finished product, which contained their share of their work. This led to labourers no longer taking pride in their work, which resulted in a loss of motivation.

Paternalism

The mechanistic approach continued until about 1920 after which management, fearing the power of the unions, was compelled to adopt a different approach to personnel. In an attempt to neutralise the unions, management decided that they themselves would provide the services for which the unions had been fighting. It would appear that the new, more humanitarian approach was not based on employees' needs and aspirations. Instead, it was intended to counteract the trade unions. The new approach resulted in employees adopting a more paternal attitude to their staff. Despite these benefits, trade unions continued to receive strong support, for two main reasons. Firstly, workers perceived management's gestures as a means to demand still higher productivity in exchange for better physical working conditions. Secondly, solely management made the decisions about these benefits. Employees had no say in matters, which concerned them.

The social-system approach

Trade unions continued to flourish and conflict with management were very common. The workers were still dissatisfied and management controlled production with an iron fist. Management did not understand the dissatisfaction, since they were providing the workers with many benefits.

It was at this time that probably the first scientific research was conducted into workers in the workplace. In about 1924 the so-called Hawthorne studies were undertaken in the USA. The results were so significant that this research was the genesis of the fields of study in the Industrial Psychology and Personnel Management. (Human Resources Management) The contributions made by this research were identified quite " by chance". Elton Mayo's purpose in conducting

the research was to establish the effect of factors such as lighting and rest periods on productivity. Briefly, the experiment was conducted as follows:

The productivity of six women who were assembling relays was measured. After that they were taken to a special room similar to their workplace, in which the intensity of the lighting was increased progressively. The workers knew they were 'guinea pigs" in the experiment. During the experiment, they were under the direct supervision of their supervisor. Every time the intensity of light was increased, they were asked their reaction to the change in lighting. Throughout the experiment, the productivity of the workers increased.

On completion of the experiment, the workers returned to their normal workplace, where their productivity was measured again. The research workers expected to confirm that productivity would now decline to a normal level. However to the astonishment of all concerned the productivity of the six workers steadily increased. In order to explain this confusing outcome, further research was undertaken. This time other factors, such a rest periods, different wage systems and other results were similar to the initial observation. Regardless of the changes in any of the variable, productivity increased. Therefore there was no direct relationship between any one variable and productivity.

Research was not undertaken to identify the factor or factors responsible for raising productivity. In the course of this investigation, it became clear that the "human processes" had not been taken into account during previous experiments. The workers were proud to have played a part in the research. They frequently had the opportunity of expressing their views to management and research workers. Group morale and group cohesion had increased. The absence

of strict control and supervision had enhanced their self-esteem. Therefore, the factors, which had resulted in higher productivity, had been socio-psychological.

One of the most important contributions of the Hawthorne study as cited by Motlatla 1992: 111 was the proof that improved output results from meaningful and real participation by the workers in decisions affecting their work environment. Management realised that their mere provisions of facilities according to the paternalistic approach was not sufficient. Since there were no instant answers to questions about the utilisation of Human Resources, a new approach emerged, the social-system approach. According to this approach an organisation should be viewed as a complex environment. It is complex because the system consists of a multitude of parts. These parts are mutually dependent and affect one another continuously. In a broad sense, cultural, social and economic conditions affect the organisation. In a narrow sense, shareholders, trade unions, management styles, the personality traits of employees and group processes all affect activities inside the organisation. This approach unlike the others does not contain a "recipe" for dealing with workers. Essentially, it emphasises the complexity of the social system within which both the organisation and the employees find themselves. Management, therefore are aware of and sensitive to each worker as a complex and sensitive entity.

Arising from this approach and the era in which it was developed, organisations were compelled to accept social responsibilities. They had to heed demands for a more equitable distribution of profits between shareholders and workers. They had to answer charges of utilising scarce resources wastefully and of causing pollution. Organisations required increasing numbers of skilled labourers, particularly because of the development of technology. The high cost

of training and the shortage of skilled labour compelled organisations to become involved in social matters in order not to lose trained staff. Workers no longer regarded leave, sick leave, bonuses, medical aid and other benefits as privileges, but as rights.

Approaches in the late nineties

From the thirties onwards, research into the management of Human Resources gathered considerable momentum. A large number of research workers published new approaches.

In the fifties two models of motivation were published. Maslow' Hierarchy of Needs was to have a considerable influence on subsequent approaches. Similarly, Herzberg's Hygiene Factors and Motivation influenced later thinking. It is important to note that in both models the point of departure is the needs of the individual worker.

In 1960, McGregor announced his Theory X and Theory Y in which he discussed how workers had been treated in the past and how they should be treated in future. According to Theory X, workers have an inborn aversion to work, prefer not to accept responsibility, have no ambition and want to be supervised closely. McGregor's Theory Y, on the other hand, proposed that workers are creative, reliable and will co-operate voluntarily. McGregor said that to access the advantages of Theory Y, management should take certain steps, such as ensuring that employees have a greater share in decision-making, that a supportive work climate is created and that workers enjoy greater freedom.

Human Resource Management in South Africa

Until the end of the first half of the nineteenth century, virtually all-economic activities were confined to the agricultural sector. Farming methods were relatively primitive and to a large extent, farming was conducted at a subsistence level. Farm labourers and their families moved to live on the farms. Owing to the long distances between farms and the lack of transport, farm labourers were largely restricted to one geographic area. Working on the farms was virtually a tradition and labour turnover was extremely low. Farmers supplied the material needs of the labourers, such as their clothes and food.

The "management style" was highly autocratic and reminiscent of the mechanistic approach. The fact that the farmer looked after the material needs of the labourers and their families also reflected a paternalistic approach. The farmers' children worked on the farm.

With the discovery of diamond and gold in the second half of the nineteenth century, labourers flocked to the mines. Large numbers of skilled immigrants, particularly from Britain, arrived in the country. Many of these technically skilled workers took up management and supervisory posts because of their experience and training. The management styles to which they had been exposed in Europe were consciously or inadvertently applied here too. Maximum production and maximum profits were stressed and the workers were seen as mere factors of production. A highly mechanistic attitude prevailed on all the mines. Severe discipline and strict supervision were exercised over the workers.

The workers were regarded as lazy and unreliable. At that time, management did not regard personnel work as a specific and separate task of

management as is regarded today. If they did perform personnel work, they did so accidentally. The expansion of capital, raw materials and the number of workers were seen as the means to achieve higher profits.

As was the case in Europe, workers realised that if they joined together, they would be in a position of strength when dealing with management. In response to united action by the workers, management started showing a more paternalistic attitude towards their employees. On the mines, meals and housing were provided for the workers. At about this time, South African workers started showing resentment towards the large number of immigrants who were seen to be a threat to their livelihood.

Up to and including the Second World War, no organised and purposeful personnel work was carried out. Suddenly, during the war there was an increased need for competent pilots. The advantage of testing and selecting candidates soon became apparent. The success achieved in the use of aptitude tests in this area probably contributed to the establishment of the National Bureau of Personnel research, later known as the National Institute for Personnel Research (NIPR).

The work conducted by the Bureau was probably the single most important stimulus for the growth of a more scientific approach to Human Resources Management in South Africa. Initially, and for many years subsequently, great emphasis was placed on the selection of employees. It was believed that if the right person were appointed to the right position, he or she would be totally productive and satisfied. However in practice it did not turn out this way. As in countries overseas a renewed search began in South Africa for methods that would ensure the optimum employment and utilisation of staff.

Various factors contributed to the gradual establishment of Human Resources Management as a separate field of study. Improved means of communications made overseas literature more readily available in South Africa. The universities started presenting courses in specialised aspects of the social sciences. The Human Science Research Council (HSRC) was established to improve overall co-ordination. Valuable research into Human Resources Management was done at the NIPR and the HSRC. Postgraduate students at universities also contributed to a more scientific approach to Human Resources Management. Today, Human Resource Management meets all the requirements necessary for being considered a science and a fully recognised profession.

Modern trends

Modern organisations are increasing their use of the supportive, collegial models. Herzberg's maintenance factors apply mostly to the autocratic and custodial models. The figure below illustrates a trend towards a more open human organisation.

	AUTOCRATIC	CUSTODIAL	SUPPORTIVE	COLLEGIAL
Basis of model	power	Economic resources	leadership	Partnership
Managerial orientation	authority	money	support	Teamwork
Employee orientation	obedience	Security and benefits	Job performance	Responsibility
Employee psychological result	Dependence on boss	Dependence on organisation	participation	Commitment and self-discipline
Employee needs met	subsistence	security	Status and recognition	Self-actualisation
Performance result	minimum	Passive co-operation	Awakened drives	enthusiasm

FIGURE 4 MODERN TRENDS FROM NEWSTROM & DAVIS (1993:31)

Newstrom & Davis 1993: 38 appropriately summarise the above as follows:

"There is generally a movement towards a wider distribution of power, more intrinsic motivation, a more positive attitude towards people, and a better balance of concern for both employee and organisational needs. Discipline has become more a matter of self-discipline instead of being imposed from the outside. The managerial role has advanced from one of strict authority to leadership and team support. Much progress has been made during the last few years. We are building a better quality of work life."

The Ubuntu management approach

Ubuntu is the main pillar of traditional African values, which bond people together. The Ubuntu principle centres on love, gentleness, sharing and caring for each other. The spirit of patriotism is an important part of Ubuntu. In a manner of speaking it is a management style, which recognises the need to listen, accommodate and respect individuals. Ubuntu is based on the democratic principles of inclusivity, consultation and participative decision-making. This in turn implies a need for empowerment of others and the decentralisation of authority. The Ubuntu principles also call for an integrated and collective approach to development. Mbigi 1995: 84 states that South Africa needs to adapt western concepts to address our management challenges. Mbigi further contends that there are four cardinal factors, namely morality, interdependence, spirit of man and totality, which are central to the Ubuntu principle. He also states that, "All people are entitled to unconditional respect and dignity".

The principle of morality

It is believed that no institution can attain its highest potential without a sound moral base. The purity of both motives and behaviour is critical to effective strategic implementation. A code of trust and ethics expresses the mode of morality existent in an institution. Any institution, which is corrupt, loses its credibility.

The principle of interdependence

Within this principle underlies the need for collective co-operation of all stakeholders within an organisation. Unity within an organisation leads to greater co-operation and quality of work, which raises the reputation, and credibility of the organisation. All organisations need to develop towards this principle.

The principle of spirit of man

The basis of functionality of any organisation should revolve around the need for people to receive unconditional respect and dignity from within the organisation. Harmony at work is a key factor to quality production.

The principle of totality

There is a constant need for individuals within an organisation to review and assess their functionality in the organisation. There is a need for every individual to contribute to the improvement of the organisation. Organisations need to further encompass a developmental attitude based on sound transformative lines, which are embodied in the organisations constitution. Social, political, economic and business development factors also need to be addressed to ensure that conflict and differences are remedied at the earliest stage. Managers need to democratise their institutions by developing inclusive and collaborative managerial practices. It is imperative that managers create a value system throughout their organisation that constantly serves to motivate human resources to maintain a high standard in their daily work.

Conclusion

This chapter traced the development of human resources management over a period of time to its present day implementation. Various management styles and principles have been examined. It is important that the modern day resource manager be aware of all the possibilities existent in the management of

human resources. The next chapter focuses on the research that has been conducted in communication with particular reference to the educational scenario. The various forms of communication are also looked at in an attempt to create a better understanding of the communication process, which is essential in any working environment.

CHAPTER 6

CURRENT RESEARCH ON COMMUNICATION IN EDUCATION

Introduction

The school leader devotes virtually all of his time to dealing with people as individuals or in groups. Hence communication with others consumes virtually most of the school leader's time. Van Miller 1965: 475 recognises this fact when he said: 'Administration is first and foremost communication'. The major hurdles to effective communication are problems of perception, language, organisational structures, networks and channels, which form the setting for communication. Farr 1987, states that such barriers give rise to many misunderstandings and the Human Resources Manager needs to be able to diagnose these and to develop strategies for countering them. Effective communication takes place in a multitude of contexts including interviewing, leading and motivating and in negotiation.

What is communication?

Communication is information in transit. It occurs between people in organisations. People need to receive and transmit information to coordinate their activities and execute their tasks. Rugbeer Y 2002: 44 states that humans communicate by the use of verbal as well as nonverbal skills in the communication process. Conversation is the prototype for human communication. When two humans communicate, they focus attention on an entity. A personal process of knowledge construction thus begins.

Rasberry and Lemoine 1986: 23 define communication as a process of 'sorting, selecting, forming and transmitting symbols between people to create

meaning'. For communication to take place there has to be a source, transmission through channels and a receiver. The illustration below, figure 5 serves to illustrate the communication process in its simplest form.

Communication models

In the section that follows I highlight the role of the different communication models as postulated by theorists and their role in the communication process.

The general communication model

This is made up of three elements: the source, message and receiver. (As per figure 5 below)

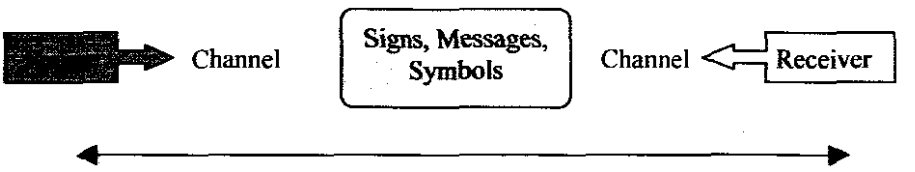

FIGURE 5 COMMUNICATION IS A TWO WAY PROCESS

The source may be an object, example a picture or a person; the message may take many forms such as a question, an appeal, or even a smile. During the communication process messages are sent by the communicator and received by the recipient (receiver). The message usually has a content, which could be factual information, thoughts, ideas or feelings expressed by the participants. According to Mersham and Skinner 2001: 10 the message initiates a behavioural reaction in the recipient. The receiver of the message thus responds accordingly whether verbally or non-verbally. The characteristics of the receiver will influence the way he/she perceives the message and interprets it. In the communication process the three elements can take many forms. The message may have wider implications than we intend because we communicate more than the spoken word. Generally,

most theorists who have a technical view of communication view communication as a linear or one-way sequence of events from person one to person two. This simple model makes a fundamental conceptualisation, even if it is not sophisticated enough to understand the intricacies of most communication in organisations.

The general model of communication includes the following variable:

- Information source (sender)
- The message (filtered by the sender – encoded in words or gestures)
- Channel (can be blocked by distracters)
- The receiver (decoded for meaning)

The communication destination is reached when there is a shared understanding between the sender and the receiver. Lopez (1965) states that the feedback by the receiver indicates that the message has been interpreted correctly.

Rasberry and Lemoine (1986) have introduced other variable into the communication process which adds to it complexity. Significant new variable that have been included are:

Meaning (verbal and non-verbal): which affects the way messages are encoded and decoded. According to Steinberg, 1994: 15, encoding is the process of transforming verbal and nonverbal signs into messages, whereas decoding is the transformation of verbal and nonverbal signs into messages. Mersham and Skinner 2001: 10 indicate that encoding is a form of expression from the source

of an already conceived idea into a message appropriate for transmission. To encode is therefore to change a meaning into a series of signs and symbols, such as language. Encoding is the activity required to transform ideas into observable sensory signs. The idea is in your mind but you have to put it into sensory signs that must be observable to the person with whom you are communicating. The definition of encoding is therefore the transmission of inner thoughts, beliefs and feelings into external, material signs. Mersham and Skinner 1999: 18 state that decoding is the reverse process that occurs in the mind of the recipient. It is the activity required to interpret the sensory data into meaningful information. If the message is encoded in spoken word, the recipient receives the sound waves through the auditory sense. The brain will recognise these sounds as speech to which meaning will be attached. The message is now decoded.

Channels (methods and paths of communication). They can be both formal and informal. Mersham and Skinner, 2001: 10 state that the channel is the means by which a message travels from a source to a recipient. It is the route by which the messages travel. In organisational communication a number of channels may be identified. These are related to a formal hierarchical chain of command and are usually connected with official activities like meetings, memos, reports and discussions. Informal channels operate unofficially through the 'grapevine', which can often be a speedy way of helping the official channels convey a message or correct the misinformation of a previous message through a formal channel. The 'grapevine' can be a vehicle for unwarranted gossip, scandal or rumour. Mass media channels include newspapers, magazines, films, radio and television. Interpersonal channels involve the face-to-face exchange between a source and a recipient.

Decoding (understanding meaning) Decoding is defined as the transfer of raw sensory data into meaningful information. Mersham and Skinner 2001a: 10 explain that decoding is the translation of received stimuli into an interpreted meaning. Recipients therefore decode messages by changing the symbols and signs into meaning.

Feedback: Completes the cycle of communication. According to Steinberg, 1994: 16 feedback is the response of the participant to each other, which may take on different forms. Examples of feedback include a smile, a request for more information, or applause to a speaker at a meeting. Feedback is the means by which we are able to negotiate ideas and exchange meaning. Steinberg, 1994: 16, states that feedback allows for the mutual exchange of opinions so that mutually satisfactory conclusions can be reached. Mersham and Skinner, 2001:13 state that feedback may be thought of as a dynamic two-way process. It also serves as a measure of effectiveness of the communication process. Feedback is thus a reciprocal, sharing component in the communication process.

Noise: (conceptual noise) Noise or distortion can operate at each stage of the communication process, to which the sender or receiver are especially vulnerable to. Steinberg 1994: 16 states that noise is a stimulus that interferes with the transmission and reception of messages. Noise thus interferes with the success of the communication by distorting the message so that the message received is different from what was actually intended. The outcome of personal encounters will depend on:

Semantic noise: Words and symbols mean different things to different people. We interpret messages in terms of our own backgrounds, needs and purposes and in relationship to particular contexts or situations. Interferences due to the meaning of words, example when spoken to in a language that you cannot understand or when a doctor uses terms which you do not understand you are uncertain of what the problem is. In South Africa, English is the main language of managerial organisational communication. Mersham and Skinner 2001:13 further emphasise that multilingualism policies should be encouraged within organisations to further re-enforce the African Renaissance.

External noise, namely stimuli in the environment that distract attention, example, a bad odour, a cold room or an uncomfortable chair. Physical barriers such as fatigue, discomfort and excessive comfort interfere with the communication process.

Internal noise, namely the feelings and thoughts of the individual that may interfere with communication, example, moods and personal prejudices, lack of confidence, emotions, beliefs and prejudices. This affects the way in which messages are represented and interpreted and can be a fundamental barrier to education particularly in the sphere of interpersonal relations.

Riches 1991: 166 contends that communication involves the meeting of minds through the ebb and flow of actions, reactions, questions and answers. Windahl et al 1992: 221 have defined communication as 'the exchange and sharing of information, attitudes, ideas and emotions'. This emphasises that communication is not confined to the written and oral exchange of simple messages. Communication thus embraces the collective activity of sharing an experience at a variety of verbal and non-verbal levels.

How do we communicate?

We use symbols, signs and gestures to communicate. The way we stand, sit or walk, our facial expressions, our choice of clothes, suburb, house or car, all communicate some message about the way we think about others and ourselves. Because it is difficult to transfer thoughts or meanings from one mind to another, man developed symbols or signs to convey these meanings to each other. In other words, we are constantly communicating, either consciously or subconsciously.

With whom do we communicate?

Communication is essential for survival in society today. Just as early humanity needed to communicate in order to survive, we need to communicate effectively to function in a complex human society. We live and interact with other human beings in a social system, starting with the family, then friends, a larger group of acquaintances, then a particular community (church, school, college, workplace). These systems overlap and interconnect and we move between them over varying lengths of time.

To communicate effectively in society we must be aware of society as consisting of systems, and we must know something about its social and cultural standards. When we know something about the people around us, we are able to communicate in a way that is acceptable, understandable and effective. To do this we must find a way of communicating which uses the appropriate words, behaviour, time and place, and expresses the right feelings for a particular situation.

When and where do we communicate?

When we communicate, we observe unwritten rules, which tell us what wording or behaviour is appropriate in a given situation. We absorb these 'rules' naturally as we grow up and socialise. We will only greet some people, while we may ask others how they are and expect a brief response. We may have a brief conversation with some, whereas we can exchange endlessly with friends and family. If someone you normally only greet tells you his/her marital woes, or a total stranger in a lift makes a personal remark, the rules have been broken. The time, place and message are inappropriate.

Riches 1991: 166 state that it useful to classify the communication activities into different spheres. These he propagates as follows:

Basic mechanical aspects of communication: These include mechanical/electronic devices to transmit (encode) and receive (decode) messages. The systems theory has also been used to make sense of how communication inputs are transformed through management functions like planning, organising and leading into outputs.

Interpersonal communication: This concerns the behaviour of people when transferring information etc. from one to another, and involves verbal, non-verbal and listening skills. Teaching has its roots in such communication.

Organisational communication: This recognises the fact that within an organisation all the members are sending and receiving signals simultaneously in a dynamic interaction with one another. There is a network of communication experiences and all within that network influence the process. Analyses of these processes are important in schools and colleges.

Communication takes place for a variety of reasons and through a variety of methods. Reasons for communicating might be to inform, explain, persuade, reprimand, encourage, thank, appraise, propose, consult, apologise or praise. Smithson and Whitehead (1990) state that people utilise many methods of communication.

According to Mersham and Skinner 1999: 18 messages are composed of signs and symbols, which have (for the source and the recipient) a certain meaning. Communication is both verbal and nonverbal, both work together to convey the message.

These might include:

- Written form of letters, memoranda, reports, minutes, articles, brochures, pamphlets, newspapers, periodicals, telex, tele-messages, or

- Oral form, through conversations, interviews, group discussions, meetings, conferences, public address, telephone, teleconferences, or

- Visual form in the shape of diagrams, charts, models, photographs, graphs, illustrations, pictures, slides, films, video tapes, television, regalia and insignia on an academic robe

or

- Body language including facial expressions, listening skills, body gestures, appearance and behaviour.

The need for the adoption of an explicit communications policy in education

Communication is an everyday activity, which is quite complex. Without communication, all that we think of, as human experience would cease to exist for it is a vital component of all spheres of life. Riches 1999: 165 states that management cannot take place without communication, and organisations cannot exist without it. Mistakes are often made because communication is not seen as a two-way exchange, but as a directive from above, without consideration for those for whom the communication is intended. Negotiation in communication is often vital if the message is to be fully received accepted by the parties concerned and acted upon. Because of the many changes that are taking place in educational institutions, effective communication is more than ever critical for its effectiveness. Riches 1999: 165 cites the following changes in education:

- An increased complexity, both structurally and technologically
- The market forces operating within education highlight the need for effective communication between organisations and people.
- Government education and general legislation, e.g. with regard to employment law – careful communication is required if community misunderstandings are to be avoided.
- Increased complexity in organisations such as schools and colleges highlighting the increased importance of two-way communication along a co-ordinated chain of various hierarchical levels in education management.

- An increasing need for concentration, efficiency and effectiveness, which points to the need for communication with clarity and sensitivity.

What becomes apparent therefore is the need to have in place an explicit communication policy that lucidly spells out the communication structures that can be used by personnel. Bendix 2000: 334 recommends that the following guidelines be used in drawing up an effective communication policy:

- The policy should ensure that information is given and that consultation takes place between the parties concerned before management takes decisions on matters of major interest.

- The method of communication should in no way derogate from the freedom of association; they should in no way cause prejudice to the freely chosen workers representatives.

- Steps should be taken to train those concerned in the use of communication methods and to make them as far as possible conversant with all the subjects in respect of which communication takes place.

- Workers' representatives should be afforded the means to communicate information rapidly and completely to the workers concerned.

- A communication system should be designed to ensure genuine two-way communication between representatives of management and the workers.

- The communication policy should be adapted to the nature of the undertaking concerned, account being taken of its size and of the composition and interests of the workforce.

- The medium of communication and its timing will depend on the circumstances of each particular situation, account being taken of national practice.

Looking at some of the guidelines above one may deduce that having such a policy will allow for speedy interaction between parties without unnecessary delays. It must however be noted that such a policy needs to be reviewed from time to time to ensure that it obliges to the legality of higher structured policies.

The semiotics of communication

Icons, indices and symbols

Icons: refer to real items in the real world. Famous personalities like Mahathma Gandi, Nelson Mandela, Hitler and Mother Teresa are often referred to as icons within our society. Icons can portray positive as well as negative images. Hitler is often viewed as a negative icon, largely because of his rigid military rule and dictatorship. Society at large view Nelson Mandela as a positive icon, largely because of his long struggle in prison together with his humanitarian views on democracy. Mother Teresa is also viewed as a positive icon because of her motherly, sympathetic and caring nature towards people at large.

Indices: refer to concepts within categories. Indices are used to indicate items in the real world. This could include examples like, 'Dark clouds are an indication of rain'. Indices tend to form a semiotic web of knowledge, which is a

result of the integration of thinking and knowledge. Meaning tends to be inferred from past happenings and experience.

Symbols: also forms a semiotic relationship of integration. We cannot identify words if we do not know the letters of the alphabet, we cannot read if we are not able to identify words. In the same way we are not able to follow instructions if we do not know what they mean. Symbols are also imprinted in our minds. Examples of this could include: Modes of transport, types of food, types of plants, and birds in our environment. Symbols are also used in abstract applications. Examples could include a + b = c, were a, b and c each have specific values. Hence there is a semiotic relationship between the given symbols, which actually represent number values.

Effective communication is learnt through training and experience. We learn to communicate more effectively by having the appropriate techniques or skills, having the opportunity to practice them and having our performance reviewed by experienced commentators in a non-threatening environment. A clear flow of communication within an organisation can greatly enhance its effectiveness.

Communication Networks Model

A more sophisticated perspective on communication flows from the study of the relative effectiveness of various communication networks. (Figure 6, below)

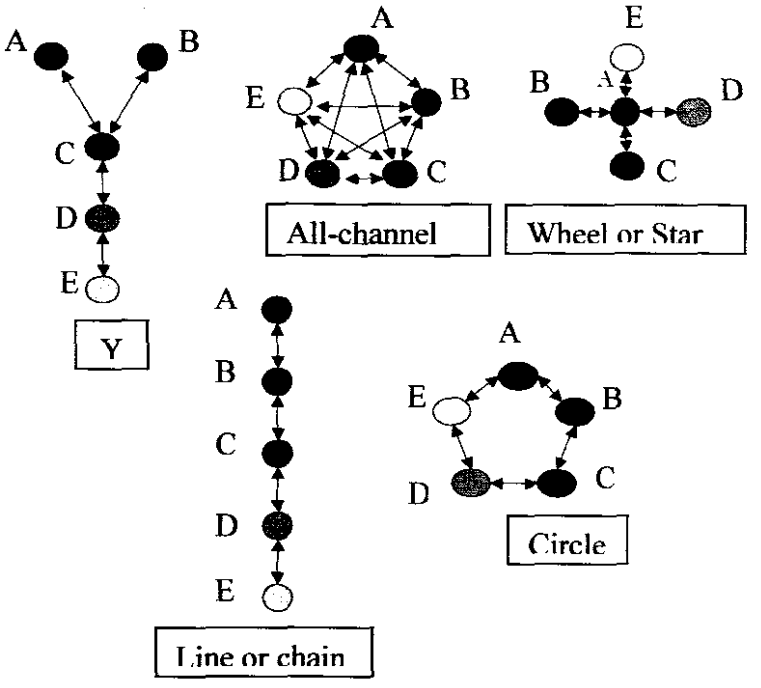

FIGURE 6 PATTERNS OF NETWORKING (FISHER 1982; GAMBLE & GAMBLE 1987: TUBBS AND MOSS1991)

Mersham and Skinner 2001a: 48 state that as a result of the complexities of modern day business, organisations have evolved a number of communication networks. Networks simply represent the structure of channels through which messages pass from one person to another in groups. These networks may be viewed from two perspectives – either as small groups left to their own resources or as formalised structures established by an organisation for communication within the company.

Networks represent general types of group communication patterns and can be found in most groups and organisations. Groups are faced with real problems and decisions. Beginning in the 1950s, many research studies have been conducted to test the importance of various networks on the effectiveness of communication (Guetzkow and Simon 1960; Fisher 1981; Gamble and Gamble 1987; Trenholm 1991; Tubbs and Moss 1991). Figure 6 illustrates a number of

networks that might exist in a five-member group. The wheel, chain and Y are centralised networks. In the wheel, A – who occupies the central position, is able to communicate with the other four, but they are only able to communicate with him. In the network, A, B and E can communicate with only one other person, and in the chain the same is true for A and E. In the centralised network the person with the most channels of communication tends to become the group leader. The wheel arrangement corresponds to a manager at the hub with subordinates on the periphery. The circle and the all channel patterns are decentralised and sometimes leaderless. In the circle, each member is able to communicate with two others, and in the all-channel network, each member is able to communicate with all the others.

Steinberg 1994: 103 states that two early sociologist, Bavelas (1950) and Leavitt (1951) conducted research on small groups to measure the problem-solving abilities of different networks. They studied four communication patterns: the chain, the wheel, the circle and the Y network. Leavitt manipulated the freedom with which information could be transmitted from one subject to another in each network and then compared the results. The wheel, which is the most centralised of the four networks proved to be the fastest and the most accurate in solving problems. The circle network proved to be the slowest, using the most amounts of messages and was the least accurate. The circle groups showed the highest morale and more readily corrected their errors than the others.

Steinberg 1994: 103 goes on to explain that later experiments modified these earlier results by showing that problem solving efficiency depends on the type of task. While they confirmed the greater speed and accuracy of centralised

networks for solving simple problems, they showed that decentralised networks are faster and more accurate in solving more complex problems (Shaw 19981). The reasons for this is that decentralised networks are able to develop better plans for performing complex tasks because members can communicate their ideas directly to each other, without having to go through a central person. Later experiments also reveal that both group morale and individual satisfaction with the operation of the group are higher when people are not cut off from each other. The general consensus among researchers is that the all-channel network seems to be the most desirable. While it initially tends to be more inefficient, the opportunities for free discussion and feedback ultimately result in greater accuracy and satisfaction.

Lewis (1975) elaborates on the above findings as follows:

CHARACTERISTIC	***CIRCLE***	***CHAIN***	***WHEEL***	***ALL-CHANNEL***
SPEED	Slow	Fast	Very Fast	Slow/Fast
ACCURACY	Poor	Good	Good	Poor/Excellent
MORAL	High	Low	Very Low	Very High
LEADERSHIP	None	Marked	Very Pronounced	None
ORGANISATION	Unstable	Emerging stability	Very Stable	Unstable
FLEXIBILITY	High	Low	Low	High

FIGURE 7 COMMUNICATION AND ORGANISATION STRUCTURE (LEWIS 1975: 86, QUOTED IN RASBERRY AND LEMOINE 1986: 108)

Riches C 1999: 172 contends that one should approach the above findings with a degree of caution because there is evidence that other factors influence the communication process, such as the powerful influence of the task structure within the group of performance. Once the structure has been set up the task is more readily achieved irrespective of the basic network set up. He further states that there is undoubtedly enough evidence to say that communication networks influence the communication process in a significant way. Open channels need to be created to allow discussions among members. This provides an opportunity for ideas that are proposed to be accepted or rejected, or modified in response to

group feedback. The leader of the group therefore has to have an understanding of communication networks in eliciting contributions from all members and encouraging open communication.

Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is an integral part of small group communication. According to Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com nonverbal communication is the process of sending and receiving wordless messages by means of facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, and tone of voice. Also included are grooming habits, body positioning in space, and consumer product design (e.g., clothing cues, food products, artificial colours and tastes, engineered aromas, media images and computer-graphic displays). Nonverbal cues are produced and received below the level of conscious awareness. They include all expressive signs and cues (audio, visual, tactile, and chemical) used to send messages apart from manual sign language and speech.

Body-language signals may be:

- Learned
- innate or
- mixed

Eyewink, thumbs-up and military-salute gestures are clearly learned. Eye-blink, throat-clear and facial-flushing cues on the other hand are clearly inborn or innate. Laughing, crying, shoulder-shrugging and most other body-language signals are "mixed", because they originate as innate actions, but cultural rules later shape their timing, energy and use.

Functions of Nonverbal Communication

Steinberg 1999: 53 identifies the following as the main functions of Nonverbal Communication:

- To reinforce the verbal message
- To complement the verbal message
- To contradict the verbal message
- To regulate the verbal flow

Categories and features

Nonverbal communication can be divided into four broad categories:

Physical: This personal type of communication includes facial expressions, tone of voice, sense of touch, sense of smell, and body motions

Aesthetic: This includes the type of communication that takes place through creative expressions like playing instrumental music, dancing, modelling, painting and sculpturing

Signs: Examples of the mechanical type of communication include the use of signal flags, the sounding of horns, and the wailing of sirens.

Symbolic: This type of communication includes the use of religion, status, or ego building symbols as well as regalia and insignia.

Nonverbal communication and the brain

Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com, explains that the nonverbal brain includes those circuits, centres and modules of the central nervous system involved in sending, receiving and processing speechless signs. In right-handed individuals, modules of the right-brain cerebral hemisphere are considered to be

more nonverbal, holistic, visuo-spatial and intuitive than the verbal, analytic, sequential and rational left-brain hemisphere.

Just as the brain's speech centres like the Broca's area control language communication, areas of the nonverbal brain control communication apart from words.

The importance of emotions during communication

In this next section I examine the important role of emotions in the communication process.

The amygdala

Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com describes the amygdala as an almond-shaped neuro-structure involved in producing and responding to nonverbal signs of anger, avoidance, defensiveness and fear. Many gestures reflect the amygdala's turmoil. In a tense, heated meeting, e.g., we may unconsciously flex our arms, lean away or angle away from colleagues who upset us. The lip, neck and shoulder muscles may tense as the amygdala activates brain stem circuits designed to produce protective facial muscles. The amygdala also prompts releases of adrenaline and other hormones into the blood stream, thereby stepping-up an avoider's response and disrupting the control of rational thought.

Bodily cues

Bull 1984: 76 states that bodily cues are related to speech in terms of its syntactic, semantic and phonemic clause structure. Bull identifies three main types of speech-related bodily cues. Their social functions include:

Emblems: These refer to those nonverbal acts, which have a direct verbal translation, – their function is communicative and explicitly recognised as such.

Emblems substitute words. They have specific meaning to subconscious regulative functions. Some commonly used gestures include those that are used to indicate: hello, goodbye, come here, crazy, quiet, peace, I don't know, good luck, think, and shame on you, not to mention the ever popular middle finger gesture used by motorists. These gestures have meanings attached to them, which evoke a reaction between the parties involved in the communication process.

Illustrators: These are movements, which are directly tied to speech, – there is some evidence to show that they facilitate the comprehension of discourse – suggesting that they too function as a form of communication. They have been related to the emotions and attitudes of the speaker and to the process of speech encoding. Illustrator's emphasis or repeat what is being said. Several studies indicate that the use of illustrators increases a speaker's persuasiveness. (Maslow, Yoselson & London 1971)

Regulators: These are movements, which guide and control the flow of conversation. Bodily cues play a role in initiating and terminating interactions, and in taking turns, thus suggesting that they too function as a form of communication.

Bodily cues communicate information about emotion, language, individual differences, affiliation and dominance, and information about interpersonal relationships to observers of the relationships.

To communicate, an experience, which has to be translated into some symbolic code. What goes on in a person's brain does not get transmitted to another person's brain directly without the mediation of a symbolic system.

According to Myers and Myers 1985: 216-217 the study of nonverbal communication is relatively recent. For a long time people felt that unless words were involved, communication did not take place. This attitude was, and still is, reinforced by the fact that our culture places a strong emphasis on the virtues of speech. In groups, silent members are more often than not perceived as the least influential members of the group. This common attitude about silence, or the absence of verbalised noise, is rooted in a misconception about the nature of communication.

Williams 1992: 15, states that one cannot not communicate. Silences and other nonverbal aspects of communication are no more random than words. They too, are systematic expressions of meanings, which you use, often quite unconsciously in your interpersonal interaction with people.

Myers and Myers 1985: 218-219 state that silences are an integral part of interpersonal communication. They occur more often than you think. Silence in many cases is perceived as embarrassing. You somehow feel they should not happen; and when they occur, you try desperately to fill the gaps they create. Silences, however, are not to be equated with the absence of communication. Silences are a natural and fundamental aspect of communication.

As most learners of social interaction are aware, lapses in conversation are so potentially embarrassing that participants will often resort to noisy "masking" behaviours to fill in the silence — coughing, clearing the throat, sighing, whistling, yawning, drumming the fingertips; or they may utter meaningless "socio-centric sequences" such as "but ah," "so," and "anyway" in the hope of nudging a partner into taking a turn.

Most studies of lapses (or "latencies," as they are sometimes called) in speaking exchanges have concluded that the person who cannot handle such gaps easily is considered a less competent communicator. The person who manages better the periodic silences, which normally occur in much of our communication, is thought to be more effective.

Effective communication between people depends heavily on silences because people take turns at talking and at being silent when listening. Unless one is silent, one cannot fully listen. Unless you know that silences are a part of communication, you will continue to be afraid of them and avoid them instead of making full use of them.

Myers and Myers 1985: 220-221 explain that silence can be a challenge, like the silence of the pouting child or the stubborn and angry friend, or the silence in a classroom towards the very last minutes of a period when the educator asks, "Do you have any questions?" and learners almost dare each other to say one word which might trigger the educator to continue talking after the bell.

Facial Expressions

Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com explains that better than any body parts, our faces reveal emotions, opinions and moods. While we learn to manipulate some expressions (e.g., our smile) many unconscious facial expressions (e.g. lip-pout, tense-mouth and tongue-show) reflect our true feelings and hidden attitudes. Many facial expressions are universal, though most may be shaped by cultural usages and rules.

Pease 1999: 9 found that emotion is so closely tied to facial expression that it is hard to imagine one without the other. Studies have shown that facial

expressions of happiness, sadness, anger, fear, surprise, disgust and interest are universal across cultures.

According to Underwood 2000: http://www.cultsock.ndirect.co.uk/MUHome/ cshtml/index.html the exercise below is based on research by Ekman and others (1972) into the importance of facial expressions for displaying emotion. It seems that there are seven principal facial expressions, which we are generally quite good at recognising and which appear to be so universal that even learners who have been blind and deaf from birth display them: anger, disgust/contempt, fear, happiness, interest, sadness and surprise

According to Underwood 2000: http://www.cultsock.ndirect.co.uk/MUHome/cshtml/index. html, these appear to involve configurations of the whole face, though the eyebrows and mouth carry much information. The importance of the area around the eyes and mouth is shown by observations which demonstrate that when we examine a photograph of a person's face, we scan the whole face, but concentrate primarily on the eyes and mouth.

He adds that facial expressions are essential to the establishment of relationships with others as was demonstrated by an infamous experiment in which the facial muscles of a newly born monkey was severed, as a result of which it failed to establish a relationship with its mother.

This simple experiment has been carried out across a wide range of different cultures and strongly suggests that, although of course there are differences in the extent to which different cultures permit the display of various

emotions and the different ways they act on those emotions, the emotions themselves are common to all members of our species.

Haptics

Williams 1992: 59 states that the use of touch to communicate – as in shaking hands, holding hands, patting someone on the back, putting your arm around a person's shoulder, and the like – is known as haptics. Touch may convey emphasis, affection, or greetings, and it varies greatly across cultures. For example, two men walking arm-in-arm in western culture may draw attention, whereas in the Arab world this behaviour is merely a common sign of friendship.

Barker 1982: 103 hi-lights that instrumental or functional touches occur frequently particularly in classes where psychomotor skills are being taught, including shop courses, athletics, dance, art and even when learning such skills as handwriting. While the primary purpose of instrumental touch is purely task related, this form of tactile communication probably conveys immediacy as well. Educators should be aware that touch is not reinforcing or pleasurable to some learners. Educators who are themselves touch avoiders must find other ways of communicating immediacy and may wish to avoid teaching elementary grades, where touch is common if not inevitable.

Paralanguage

Williams 1992: 58 states that paralanguage is a kind of complementary language. Researchers have found that the tone, pitch, quality of voice, and rate of speaking convey emotions that can be accurately judged regardless of the content of the message. The important thing to gain from this is that the voice is important, not just as the conveyor of the message, but also as a complement to the message. As a communicator you should be sensitive to the influence of tone,

pitch, and quality of your voice on the interpretation of your message by the receiver. On a more complex level, these properties are interpreted by listeners, as indicating emotionality, emphasis, nonchalance, certainty, or fear, to name a few.

Posture

Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com states that posture is the degree of orientation between a speaker's torso and that of a listener (e.g., facing or angled away), as measured in the coronal plane (which divides the body into front and back). We show agreement, liking, and loyalty by aligning the upper body with that, e.g., of our boss. It is often possible to identify the most powerful (i.e., highest status) person seated at a conference table by the relative number of torsos aimed in her/his direction. While the less influential may glance freely about, and turn their heads towards colleagues as they speak, their torsos remain loyally oriented to the individual they most respect.

Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com states further that angular distance reveals how we relate to (i.e. feel about) people sitting, standing, or waiting nearby. Our upper body unwittingly squares-up, addresses and 'aims' at those we like, admire and agree with, but angles away from disliked persons and people with whom we disagree. In a friendly conversation, formal interview or staff meeting, e.g., a greater angular distance (i.e. turning away) substitutes for greater linear distance. Angular distance may range from 0 degrees (directly facing) to 180 degrees (turning one's back). Our body's innate ability to show a superior, confident or haughty attitude through posture, assuming a higher or lower stance upon the earthly plain evolved from paleo-circuits of the amphibian brain. Antigravity extensor muscles of the neck, trunk, arms and legs contract when

signals are received from cerebellar and vestibular centres responding to the pontine reticular nuclei. The latter brain-stem circuits may be exited by emotional stimuli from the limbic system.

Kinesics

Williams 1992: 59 states that our facial expressions, eye movements and bodily postures also convey meanings. The study of such expressions and gestures is called kinesics.

Kinesics examines most of the normal gestures that humans are known to exhibit in different emotional states unless their culture has taught them to disguise their feelings. These basic emotions include pleasantness, arousal, fear, surprise, rage and affection. Hand and bodily gestures do not have as much cross-cultural generality, but the meanings that they signify do, as in explicit gestures denoting the shape of a circle or a focus on a certain object.

Most gestures, however, are culturally specific. You know their full meaning only if you are a member of the culture that uses them or have learned them from a member of that culture. Sexes and generations differ in their uses of gestures.

Like kinesics, posture communicates a great deal of information about a person. A relaxed posture expresses confidence in the person who we are talking to. Slouching or sitting with your head in your hands often indicate that you are feeling low, whereas sitting with your feet on the desk may be interpreted by others as a sign of your feeling of superiority. It must be noted that posture may be influence by the mental state of the individual.

Proxemics

Givens 2000: nonverbal2@aol.com explains that like facial expressions, gestures, and postures, space 'speaks'. The prime directive of proxemic space is that we may not come and go everywhere as we please. There are cultural rules and biological boundaries explicit as well as implicit and subtle links to observe everywhere.

According to Barker 1982: 101 proxemics is the use of interpersonal space and distance. Whenever anyone communicates, their distance and angle from the receiver communicate powerful messages, including varying degrees of warmth or immediacy. At least two proxemic cues that are thought to signal immediacy during communication are physical distance and the angle or orientation of the communicators.

Gestures

According to Pease 1999: 11-19 most of the basic communication gestures are the same all over the world. When people are happy they smile; when they are sad or angry they frown or scowl. Nodding the head is almost universally used to indicate 'yes' or affirmation. It appears to be a form of head lowering and is probably an inborn gesture as deaf and blind people also use it.

Shaking the head from side to side to indicate 'no' or negation is also universal and may be a gesture that is learned in infancy. The shoulder shrug is a good example of a universal gesture that is used to show that a person does not know or understand what you are talking about. It is a multiple gesture that has three main parts: exposed palms, hunched shoulders and raised brow.

One of the most frequently observed, but least understood, cues is a hand movement. Most people use hand movements regularly when talking. While

some gestures (e.g., a clenched fist) have universal meanings, most of the others are individually learned and idiosyncratic.

Pease states that one of the most serious mistakes a novice in body language can make is to interpret a solitary gesture in isolation of other gestures or other circumstances. For example, scratching the head can mean a number of things – dandruff, fleas, sweating, uncertainty, forgetfulness or lying, depending on the other gestures that occur at the same time, so we must always look at gesture clusters for a correct reading.

Like any other language, body language consists of words, sentences and punctuation. Each gesture is like a single word and a word may have several different meanings. It is only when you put the word into a sentence with other words that you can fully understand its meaning. Gestures come in 'sentences' and invariably tell the truth about a persons feelings or attitudes. The perceptive person is one who can read the nonverbal sentences and accurately match them against the person's verbal sentences.

Gaze communication

According to Mersham and Skinner 1999: 20 a major feature of social communication is eye contact. It can convey emotion; signal when to talk or finish, or aversion. The frequency of contact may suggest either interest or boredom.

Both static features and dynamic features transmit important information from the sender to the receiver. Eye contact is a direct and powerful form of nonverbal communication. The superior in the organisation generally maintains eye contact longer than the subordinate. The direct stare of the sender of the

message conveys candour and openness. It elicits a feeling of trust. Downward glances are generally associated with modesty. Eyes rolled upward are associated with fatigue.

Tactile Communication

According to Mersham and Skinner 1999: 20 tactile codes have to do with the sense of touch. Communication through touch is obviously non-verbal. Used properly it can create a more direct message than dozens of words; used improperly it can build barriers and cause mistrust. You can easily invade someone's space through this type of communication. If it is used reciprocally, it indicates solidarity; if not used reciprocally, it tends to indicate differences in status. Touch not only facilitates the sending of the message, but the emotional impact of the message as well.

According to King 1997: http://www2.pstcc.cc.tn.us/~dking/nvcom.htm Mehrabian points out that only 7% of our impact comes from the words that we speak (the verbal component), whereas 38% comes from our vocal qualities (vocal component) and 55% comes from how we look to others (the visual component). So on this nonverbal aspect of our communication – voice and body - make up a decisive 93% of our communication impact.

Interpersonal communication

Mersham & Skinner (1999:148) define interpersonal communication as, *"good relationships between managers and subordinates and among peers as essential for success."*

This in actual fact could mean good relationships between the principal, school management team and staff as a whole. Sound interpersonal relations are crucial for the smooth running of the school. It must go as far as pupils and their

parents. Interpersonal communication occurs between two people. In a school situation a large amount of communication takes place on an interpersonal level. Majozi 2003: 41 stresses the fact that interpersonal communication calls for good control of language, good listening, sensitivity to non-verbal communication and tolerance. It involves a range of spoken and written messages; it is the vehicle through which human relationships are developed or destroyed

A common characteristic on interpersonal communication is the noticeable fact that communication flows from the observations of more than one person. It gives the opportunity to communicate directly with another person/others. Feedback is almost immediate. People find out more about one another and are able to accept messages more willingly than in any other arena. Interpersonal communication is effective for establishing meaningful relationships. There must be an exchange of messages. Verbal and non-verbal codes are used. Non-verbal cues such as facial expressions, posture, gestures, tone of voice, touching, spacing and the systematic use of time all impact in the communication process. The verbal communication process may be divided into three disciplines, namely the syntactic, semantic and the pragmatic. Syntactic is the relationship between words; semantics is the relationship between a word and the actual object it represents. Pragmatic is the relationship between words and behaviour of the individual in the communication process. It must be noted that as communicators we manage messages through verbal and non-verbal communication to create meaning to a given context.

Intrapersonal Communication

Module 2. Effective Communication 2000: 88 issued by the Department of education defines intrapersonal communication as:

"This form of communication refers to the way in which we communicate with ourselves. The messages we give ourselves help us to form opinions about ourselves. This is known as a self-image, which we build up as we interact with other people."

All messages are accepted and modified by the individual. This aids one to make proper and wise decisions with regards to things that could take place in your environment. This process also occurs simultaneously while you could be engaging in interpersonal communication. Therefore Mersham & Skinner (1999: 89-90) concludes,

"Intrapersonal communication is the basis of communication in all other contexts and so occurs in all communication acts."

They further state " intrapersonal communication is a prerequisite for all communication and that it has also a far reaching influence upon the individual, shaping our behaviour and attitudes."

The principal can either develop a positive or negative self-image, which can affect her/his role as an effective manager. In the process of intrapersonal communication the principal should take into account the individuality of each person that he comes into contact with. People look at things very differently and this may differ from the perspective of the manager. Therefore as a manager, the principal must bear in mind that differences will occur and he/she needs to be able to amicably and objectively resolve these differences in the best interest of the organisation as a whole. His/her values, attitudes, likings, opinions, beliefs may differ from what the staff believes. The principal must be able to recognise the individuality of each member on staff and respect such individuality.

Small Group Communication

Most researchers define a small group as having at least three and no more than twelve or fifteen members. Borchers 1999: http://www.abacon. com/ commstudies/groups/definition.html states that with three members coalitions can be formed and some kind of organisation is present. A group's members must be able to communicate freely and openly with all of the other members of the group. A group must have a common purpose or goal and they must work together to achieve that goal. The goal brings the group together and holds it together through conflict and tension. Every member of a group plays a certain role within that group. Some roles relate to the task aspect of that group, while others promote social interaction." (http://www. abacon. Com/commstudies/groups/leader.html. 2003/01/11). The roles in a group can also be identified. They are " 'task leader'- the person who has emerged as the best person to lead the group. 'Lieutenant'- the person plays the social emotional leader and handles the interpersonal problems. ' Central negative'- the person who plays the 'devil's advocate.' 'Tension releaser'- the person who can make the group laugh at just the right time. ' Information provider'- the person who provides concise and accurate data to help the group solve problems." (http://people.bu.edu/kaoki/cm380/lecture14.htm.)

In organisational communication the aspects of working together as groups is stressed. These groups could be problem-solving groups that are formed to accomplish the tasks that lie ahead of them in the school. Hersey & Blanchard (1993: 346) mentions that the leader in this case the principal must play the "role of providing proactive influence and receiving feedback from the groups" Hersey states that Peter Drucker summarises this point in his book, *The New Realities*:

"Management is about human beings. Its task is to make people capable of joint performance, to make their strengths effective and their weaknesses irrelevant."

The principal also needs to keep in mind that groups have personalities. One cannot imagine how this would change the perceived view that many educators have of their management. This type of view would greatly enhance management as effective and efficient. Hersey & Blanchard (1993: 351) mentions that, " in the Interpersonal Problem-Solving Mode, a high relationship, low task approach is appropriate. For example, if after a group is given a problem, cliques develop that serve to disrupt the group, relationship behaviour needs to be used to increase interaction of all group members."

Folded arms, a frown, cold tone of voice, pacing up and down the room, leaning backwards will certainly create more tension and the ability to resolve any conflict will not be successful. An atmosphere where trust and openness resides will be more conducive for conversation to take place effectively. Some examples of how individuals would rate your leadership is by means of some of these actions such as a strong handshake, facial expression and tone of voice, which creates the first impression.

Decision making skills refer "to the basic abilities to perform the components of the rational decision making process, including situational analysis and objective setting as well as the generation, evaluation, and selection of alternatives." (Gordon, 1996: 228). This shows that a principal must be adept with the skills that involve interpersonal communication so that by her/his way of utilising the skills in interpersonal communication, the decisions that she or he makes will influence the acceptance of the decision by the other individual.

It is also important to be aware of the intercultural communication whereby individuals are bound by the same beliefs, attitudes and values. One should avoid labelling people of different cultural background as having certain negative characteristics because people from different cultures have to communicate with each other.

Therefore it is quite clear that in small group communication such as conversation, consultation, socialising with the staff, socialising with the school governing body, demonstrating a process to a small group will encompass all the attitudes, values, qualities that are reflected in interpersonal communication.

Intra-organisational communication

Formal and informal channels are used for the exchange of information between organisations. The official forms of communication may include written messages that occur in the form of reports, memoranda, letters, e-mail, and newsletters, instructions. Skinner & Von Essen (1999: 121) mentions, " A distinction can be drawn between occasional publications and regular periodicals." In the school situation this could include newsletters not only to learners but sports, house journals and financial reports to members of staff. Skinner & Von Essen (1999: 121) mentions three characteristics of staff publications. They are "informative," "educational" and "entertaining". The house journal mentioned above is a means of communication between management, its staff and outside organisations. The internal journal may contain information related to activities by the staff. It may be called a "management-staff publication" where "it explains the organisation to its members, seeks to improve internal employee relationships with management and generally to strengthen the company spirit through shared information and achievements." (Skinner & Von

Essen, 1999: 122) The more frequent the journal the better it is for the principal. Annual reports can also be given to staff because it serves as a means " through which senior management can communicate in an educative and reflective way with all the employees about the financial and operating performance and the future outlook of the organisation." (Skinner & Von Essen, 1999: 122) Bulletin boards also serve a useful purpose in schools. This is one of the " most effective mediums of group instruction with employees. Properly read and supervised, bulletin boards command employee attention, are read by more people than would listen to public address broadcasts, and are given several viewing by individual employees." (Skinner & Von Essen, 1999: 122) Mersham & Skinner (1999: 149) also indicate " the informal channels include personal conversations, hearsay and gossip." They also show that this informal channel is known as "the grapevine" which could affect the principal's managing of the school either in a positive or negative way. " The grapevine, however is most often the main source of information about personal and even strategic matters." Mersham & Skinner, 1999: 151). The manual *Effective Communication*, module two, (2000: 12) quotes the definition from Webster's Dictionary as " a secret means of spreading or receiving information." On the same page, it also quotes Deal and Kennedy who claims, "This is a primary means of communication as it unites all parts of the organisation irrespective of status or position." Members of staff would use this form of informal communication to get more clarity on information that could be given by management. Sometimes the informer may misinterpret the information relayed although at times the message given carries a ring of truth in it. Mersham & Skinner (1999: 46) offers some useful suggestions in dealing with the grapevine. They state that even though it may be a source of irritation to the manager, she/he should recognize that a "great deal of social communications"

takes place, which unites the workers in the organisation. Sometimes information may be distorted, therefore the manager should "treat it with caution." Sometimes it is good "to tap into it, listen to what is being spoken about and feed information into it when appropriate." Therefore the principal as manager has the task of coming to grips with this form of communication that may start in the staff room.

The formal communication in the school may occur in a highly structured context. In an organogram (Figure 2 on page of 46) the channels of command may be seen as the principal, the deputy principal/s, and the heads of departments, educators and learners. The flow of communication can take place in various ways and the principal should be fully aware of this. Messages are also carried out by means of channels such as:

Downward channels are too often a one-way channel and do not foster feedback from the staff members. According to Alberts et al (1993: 52) one of the barriers to effective and legitimate business practices was "lack of communication and information. A culture of top-down management and secrecy results in poor or no communication and a lack of information. This is not conducive to employees taking responsibility for the company." Forms of communication such as giving instructions, filling of reports, writing notices, completing a written assessment, writing different types of reports (appraisals), adjudicating can be grouped as downward communication. When giving instructions the principal must remember that "there should be open communication at all times, active two way communication, politeness and clear messages. Remember the better the instruction, the greater the possibility of excellent job performance." (Kritzinger, 2000: 10)

Upward channels provide feedback on how well staff members understood the messages that were received. It also encourages staff to voice their opinions and give valuable suggestions on improvements in certain areas that the principal may never have thought of. Hersey & Blanchard (1993: 7) show a function of management is controlling. Mersham and Skinner (1999: 43) state that this type of communication is " usually concerned with job-related activities - what needs to be done, solving problems, making suggestions, measuring success and improving morale." The staff accepts upward communication in a positive manner than downward communication. This is so because the management also receives reports from those in the staff. " This involves feedback of results and follow-up to compare accomplishments with plans and to make appropriate adjustments where outcomes have deviated from expectations."

Lateral or horizontal channels where communication takes place between staff members and the communication flows are more frequent than any of the other types mentioned here. According to Mersham and Skinner (1999: 42) " this is because individuals communicate more openly and effectively with their equals than with superiors. Lateral communication helps the sharing of insights, methods and problems. It can go a long way to building morale and worker satisfaction."

Inter-organisational Communication

According to Mersham and Skinner (1999: 188) " through the digital convergence revolution, the PC and the Internet are combining with older, traditional mass media and interpersonal media like the telephone to create a new communication environment." This form of communication is fast becoming the

means through which many organisations are communicating with each other. This also holds true for the school as an organisation. Even Davies & Ellison (1997: 231) show the value of computers in schools today. They state, "Developments in communication and information technology are becoming not only to provide new management tools but also to have a profound impact on how schools operate and the nature and the arena of learning." They also caution the school management about the use of computers by stating, "organisations that implement computerised management information systems without making appropriate changes to their organisational structure and management style are likely to have a poor return on their investment." Although many schools may not be equipped with a computer, leave alone the Internet; it will become a necessity in this technologically advancing world. Most organisations mainly correspond by means of e-mail.

" The convergence of computer and communication technologies is transforming that familiar instrument, the telephone. Telephones and computers have begun to merge into one another and the distinction between them is becoming blurred." (Mersham & Skinner, 1999: 198)

In its external communication with the outside world the presentations or consultation that occurs " convey a particular image of the organisation to the outside world." (Kritzinger, 2000: 8). Therefore it is imperative for the principal to make certain that this form of communication requires careful thought before she/he or any representative of the school engages in such a form of communication. The principal must also make a conscious effort to keep the public informed by means of newsletters and create goodwill by means of excellent service to outsiders doing business with the school. According to

Kritzinger (2000: 9) the principal who engages in face to face conversation, speaking on the telephone or interviewing will " listen carefully, plan your message in advance, think before you speak, speak clearly." In the business letter, fax message, press release, the principal will also

"...plan the message in advance, write clearly and concisely, keep it simple, proofread your document carefully (it should create a neat, professional impression)."

Her/his polite telephone calls and professional correspondence will do much to enhance the reputation of the school as an effective organisation.

Intercultural communication

This is a special type of communication in which people from different cultures have to communicate with another. These people from different cultures may have different ways of seeing the world. This type of communication can make people very anxious and tense. They find it very difficult to understand other people's ways of thinking. Inter-cultural communication involves a high risk. This is because we may have to give up strongly held ideas. We may also have to change attitudes, which we regard as very important. Majozi 2003: 31 states that people involved in inter-cultural communication use different verbal and non-verbal codes. Even if codes are common, they may attach different meanings to them. People will therefore have to negotiate meanings much more carefully. The results of any communication are less predictable. People could also find it much more difficult to plan accurately for other people's response. People tend to trust those with whom they share same values.

Tomasellio (1987; 54-55) director of the Co-temporal Cultural Studies Unit at University of Natal as cited in Lowe defined culture as the following, inter alia:

" Culture is the ensemble, or "bundle' of meaningful practises through which self-defined groups within or across social classes express themselves in unique ways, or locate themselves within an identifiable web of significations."

Further on, he points out that cultures are distinguished in terms of differing responses to the same social, economic and environmental conditions.

Groenewald (1986:50-57) as cited in Lowe stresses the importance of communication rules, not only in any interpersonal interaction, but also particularly where such interaction is intercultural. Observance of the rules, which relates to content and procedure of transaction, will contribute greatly to the outcome of the communication.

Knowledge of the rules of a specific culture also implies some knowledge of that particular culture and this is a very necessary component of effective intercultural communication. The area in which knowledge of the other culture is particularly important includes:

- Beliefs, value and attitude systems (Ethnocentrism).
- Social organisation, such as family, school, and communication networks.
- Worldview; religion and myth.
- Patterns of thought.
- Verbal language.
- Nonverbal language.

We constantly interact with and relate to others and the world around us. We therefore live in a world where we are constantly communicating, whether we are aware of it or not. Not only does communication take place all the time, everywhere all around us, but its importance in the workplace has also increased. The present working environment calls for group and teamwork, group participation in decision-making and in running the business, all requiring greater skills in communication. Research has shown that people in business need skills to absorb and apply knowledge from a wide variety of subjects. They need to know how to handle interpersonal relationships and to communicate effectively with colleagues. Oral communication is emphasised more strongly at present, but written communication should not be ignored. Written communication is more bureaucratic in nature.

Cross-cultural communication

As culture and Communication are so closely bound together, and roles and rules differ from culture to culture, it is a field of special interest to people who have to communicate with other nationalities. Not only do we usually have several cultures within one country, but also business has become increasingly global. Cross-cultural communication is a field of study linked to social and cultural anthropology. It compares the object of study with perspectives from other cultures. Norms, values, roles and rules are usually studied. We learn that, what is acceptable in one culture may be unacceptable in another.

Majozi 2003: 34 uses Tsungu, radio personality and roving speaker as an example to illustrate cultural differences between white South Africans and black cultures. He contends that when white South Africans call on a business associate, they knock on the door, wait to be invited in and expect an invitation

to be seated. A black or African man on the contrary, when visiting an important person, quickly enters his presence and sits down as unobtrusively as possible. He waits for the important man to notice him when he feels inclined to. In this way the caller feels he is not disturbing the man, and is only attended to when the man is ready to give him attention.

People who have to communicate cross-culturally need to learn more about this aspect to avoid misunderstandings and distortions of messages. This type of communication can make people very anxious and tense. They find it very difficult to understand other people's way of thinking. Cross-cultural communication involves a high risk. This is because we may have to give up strongly held ideas. We may also have to change attitudes, which we regard as very important.

Barriers to effective intercultural communication

"Barriers' 'refer to the ways in which communication is stopped or made difficult. Majozi: 2003: 36 highlights a few major barriers to effective cross-cultural communication. These include:

- Cultural stereotyping,
- Ethnocentrism,
- Defensiveness (People are not open to new possibilities). In a society that offers the potential for change on a daily basis, people often show resistance to the new because they are so accustomed to the old. They are reluctant to listen to new ideas. They refuse to change from past attitudes and styles.

- Different languages. Different ways of using and interpreting the non-verbal code. Different ways of interacting (some cultures place high value on being direct and getting to the point. Other cultures may value a less direct approach.)

- Different values and beliefs (People do not see the world in the same way)

- Prejudices (People may, for example, have strong negative beliefs about another culture. They will, however, have no proof to support their prejudices.)

- Assumptions (People assume that certain things are true even though they may not be.)

- Different ways of thinking. People from different cultures may think differently. One culture may, for example, value facts as proof. Another may value intuition as a way of arriving at a solution.

- Unequal power (People, from different cultures have different levels of power in an organisation, they may not communicate very well). A manager from one culture may perceive herself/himself as superior to workers from another.

- Failure to allow for individual differences within a culture (People from one cultural group may view all people from another cultural group as the same). They do not accept that people are different. This attitude is the same as stereotyping.

World view

A worldview is central in any culture. The term refers to culture's philosophical view of God, man, nature and the universe. His worldview is taken for granted in any culture. It runs through all aspects of cultural life. The African, Asian and European worldviews are examples, if good cross-cultural communication is to be achieved, and then the worldview of each culture needs to be acknowledged and accepted.

The African worldview may, for example, value the concept Ubuntu. This concept refers to the achievement of personhood through participation in the community. This view stresses that an individual has no value unless s/he has strong connections with other people sharing the same culture. The Western worldview, on the other hand may value individual enterprise. People are expected to take initiative and make their own way in life.

Acculturation

This term refers to a person's ability to adapt to another culture. In a business organisation, acculturation means adapting to the corporate culture. The same principle holds for schools since they are public organisations.

What can organisations do to improve intercultural communication?

In a multi-cultural country like South Africa schools as organisations should have explicit policies and strategies to foster intercultural communication. The enrolment of learners of a mixed culture, with different home languages requires educators and other role players to adjust accordingly so that the teaching and learning is meaningful. Meaningful learning creates a better

understanding and generates confidence so that all are able to fully understand one another in the communication process. Such strategies include:

- Organisations should encourage staff to treat communication as a creation of meaning, or a negotiation.

- Organisations should strive to create an atmosphere of trust. Helping all cultural groups to understand each other's worldview and specific hopes and fears could create trust.

- Organisations should help people to accept differences between cultures in an open and honest way. They should stress that this acceptance will improve relationships and therefore improve the success of the organisation.

- Organisations should encourage staff to work at the individual, one-to-one level. People should be considered as individuals, rather than as members of a group.

- Organisations should help people to learn about other cultures through the personal experience of individual relationships.

- Organisations should help people to understand other people's values. People should become aware of the difficulties, hopes and fears that other people have.

- Organisations need to stress that there is a great deal of variation within different cultural groups. People should be made aware of the dangers of making generalisations about other cultures.

- Organisations should, if possible, ensure that there are enough members of cultural groups present. In this way, people will begin to understand that there are individual differences within the group.

- Organisations should strive to overcome ethnocentrism. People should be helped to face the challenge of communicating with other cultures. People should be encouraged to interact with other groups.

- Organisations should strive to have a fair language policy. If possible, staff should be encouraged to learn other people's languages. In practice this is not always possible because of the wide variety of languages spoken.

The rainbow nation of South Africa requires academics to look carefully at the dynamics involved in communication. It requires carefully thought out policy that is all embracing of the people of Africa and the rest of the world to understand. There is a dire need for miscommunication and differences to be resolved at a local level as well at a national and global level. It is thus up to the relevant authorities to mobilise resources in the field of communication to rectify and annul stereotyped thinking and replace these with visionary thought that inspires and evokes a sense of well being, understanding and tolerance among the nations of the world so that peaceful coexistence is a reality in this diverse cultural village we live in.

Miscommunication

Miscommunication is a very general label that covers a number of facets of unsuccessful communication, including terms such as misrepresentation,

misunderstanding, inaccuracy, distortion, misreporting, problematic talk, and communication breakdown.

In broad terms, miscommunication occurs when other than the intended message is understood, in other words, when there is a mismatch between the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation (Milroy, 1984, 8) as cited in 'Nikolas, Howard and John M. 1991.

Miscommunication is divided into two subcategories:

- Mis-understanding and incomplete understanding.
    - Misunderstanding is the commonest gloss on the concept of miscommunication. It involves "simple disparity between the speaker's and hearer's semantic analysis of a given utterances.
    - Incomplete understanding (akin to the communication breakdown) wherein "one or more participants perceive that something has gone wrong."

Miscommunication has usually been applied, very loosely, to any sort of problem that might arise internationally and typically to local processes of misunderstanding. A key reason why we have traditionally failed to embrace the concept of miscommunication, its implications, can be called the "Pollyanna" perspective that language and communication research has intended to adopt. Researchers have looked for the "good" and ignored the "bad," communication problems treated as aberrant behaviour, which should be eliminated.

A variety of problems in organisations have been attributed to the "quality" of communication or "communication breakdown" among individuals and groups. Miscommunication is in some cases applied as a moral judgement on the uses and abuses of language and communication. In others, it designates primarily communication mishaps, or mismatches of mental states, deviations from communicative norms, or the consequences of low levels of communicative competence in specific domains. Others demonstrate that miscommunication, alternatively, is a status quo of interaction, and even the means by which some desirable ends are communicatively reached.

Cultural beliefs about the functions of talk and silence can be a major source of communication difficulties between groups.

Conclusion

This chapter covered a wide range of concepts, theoretical positions and strategies involved in the communication process. It must be noted that effective management has to start from a full understanding of the details of how the communication process impacts on every management activity and the need to be as concise as possible in accordance with communication theory which can be translated into effective practice.

All schools and institutes of learning would find value in examining the stages, content and processes of communication in relation to their own internal and external patterns of communication. School managers would benefit from an audit of formal and informal procedures, and any barriers they engendered. They should establish a positive communication policy, based on sound theory, making sure that this policy is communicated. Effective communication in schools and

institutes of learning should be viewed as a necessity, not a luxury. In chapter 7, I focus on individual and professional development. Various theories are examined to create a better understanding of the individual in the work environment.

CHAPTER 7

THE INDIVIDUAL AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

The key contributing factors to an enhanced view of human potential has been the emergence of humanistic psychology with greater concern for the fully functioning person. Abraham Maslow was the pioneer in this area and by asking about the psychology of the healthy and happy person sought to go beyond a preoccupation with personality dysfunction and the many limitations imposed by attending to behaviour, to discover a more comprehensive understanding of the human condition. Maslow (1970) set out his theory of the hierarchy of needs, the concept of self-actualisation and the important insights into the nature of happiness, love and learning. The exemplary work done by Maslow laid the foundation for further research and developments, which have found practical expression in counselling, psychotherapy, self-help groups and the assertive alternative in interpersonal relationships.

Carl Rogers led the way in translating Maslow's idea into practicalities. He took Maslow's concept of self-actualisation as the pinnacle of the needs hierarchy and placed it into a broader context. One of the most exciting developments in management theory and practice is the way that the notion of the self-actualisation is now being recognised in organisation and there is a new emphasis on the processes necessary to enhance human potential and capability- in other words to create the right conditions to release the actualising tendency in all individuals, whether it be in families, schools, business organisations or in society as a whole.

Theories X and Y

Douglas McGregor in *The Human Side of Enterprise* (1960) provides a useful contribution towards the understanding of organisations. He highlights the powerful effects that assumptions about personhood can have on work and motivation. McGregor provides two contrasting sets of assumptions about people in organisation, referred to as Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X

This theory propagates the assumption that people dislike work and try to avoid it. Further contentions are that people have to be bribed, coerced and controlled and even threatened with punishment to perform adequately. Most people lack ambition, prefer to be led and wish to avoid responsibility. By nature people are resistant to change.

Theory Y

This theory propagates the assumptions that people like work and do not have to be forced or threatened. Further contentions are that if allowed people will pursue objectives to which they are committed to and work harder towards accepting further responsibilities.

According to Whitaker 1997: 12, managers and leaders proceeding from a Theory X position will tend to build management structures and systems designed to:

- Direct the efforts of staff
- Control their actions
- Modify their behaviour to fit organisational needs

They will also adopt interpersonal behaviour towards staff that is characterized by persuasion, reward or punishment, instruction and command.

Whitaker further contends that managers and leaders proceeding from a Theory Y position will tend to build management structures and systems designed to:

- Make it possible for people to develop,
- Seek responsibility,
- Take risks,
- Set ambitious targets and challenges.

An important element in the development of managers and leaders is a capacity to develop an awareness of the way that theory X experiences have affected us and formed our behavioural tendencies as managers. For many, the greatest challenge is balancing an intellectual commitment to Theory Y with the experiences that has conditioned us in the dynamics of Theory X.

Henry 1975: 73 contends that the employee who falls into category X would prefer to work in the bureaucratic type of institution, while the employee typified by the Y model would fit in more comfortably in the open organisational model. Figure 8, alongside illustrates this perspective.

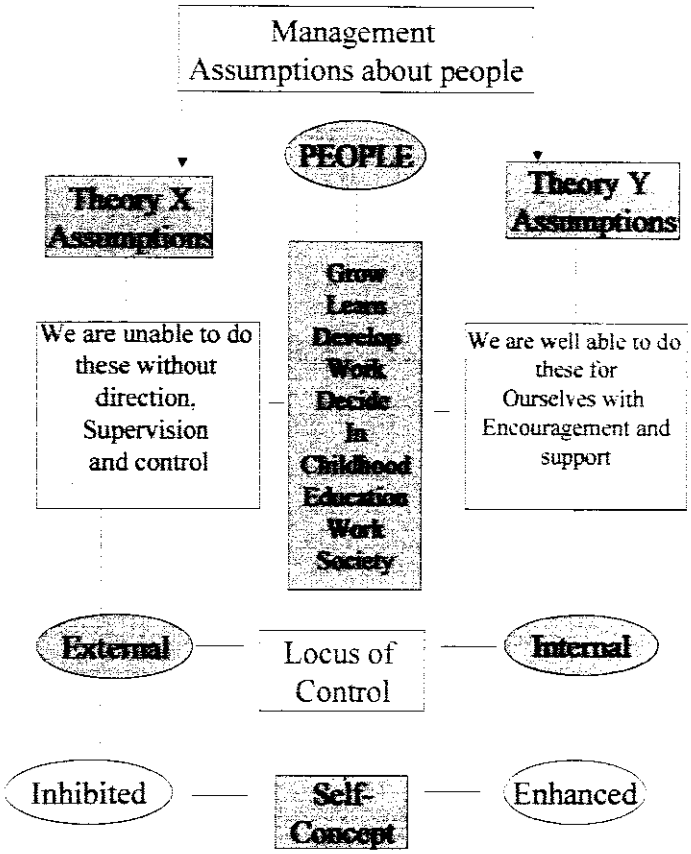

FIGURE 8 X AND Y THEORY –MANAGEMENT ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PEOPLE

Schein 1980: 34 offers a less polarised view of people and work. Schein argues that complexity is the key characteristic of people and that they tend not to behave consistently and predictably. He further contends that no single style of management can be regarded as relevant to all situations. What is needed is behaviour appropriate to the needs and circumstances of varying situations.

Traditional management practices exhibited simplicity, consistency and predictability of human affairs. As we become more attuned to the complexity, uncertainty, unpredictability, and untidiness in human affairs we learn to realise the importance of choice and appropriateness in the face of differing circumstances and situations.

It is important to recognise the power of assumptions when a new job is taken on. New colleagues, particularly those in junior positions we work with are likely to assume that any procedures or behaviours you adopt are motivated by the same assumptions and reasons as your predecessor. If you follow a Theory X manager and wish to inculcate a Theory Y culture you may be disappointed and frustrated to find that new colleagues greet your suggestions with some degree of scepticism and mistrust. They could very easily contend that it is a devise to control and contain them. To gain and maintain support it is necessary to overcome this powerful inheritance factor first by outlining and explaining your beliefs, concerns, assumptions and expectations and then making your interpersonal style as consistent as possible with these.

Multiple intelligence in humans

Charles Handy 1990: 129 states that one of the major obsessions of the past education system was intelligence, and the debate about inheritance and the environment continues. An enhanced perception of human potential requires that we develop a more holistic view of intelligence and its contributions to human achievements and personal effectiveness. Whitaker 1999: 15 states that the traditional view of intelligence emphasises "cleverness", mental agility and intellectual strength. Recent studies have revealed a more balanced view on human intelligence. Denis Postle (*The Mind Gymnasium* 1989) describes four types of intelligence:

- Emotional intelligence

Individuals with a well-balanced sense of emotional intelligence display a keen sense of radiating warmth, awareness of ones own feelings, sensitivity to the

feelings of others, willing to creating harmony and goodwill, deal with emotional issues openly and empathise with the experience of others.

- Intuitive intelligence

Individuals with a well-balanced sense of intuitive intelligence display 'gut' feelings, hunches, speculate about the future, are imaginative, willing to take risks and possess an innate capacity for change.

- Physical Intelligence

Individuals with a well-balanced sense of physical intelligence display a high degree of concern for fitness and health, physical activities, manual skills and dexterity. They often follow a sensible and balanced diet. They love the outdoors and are good at household tasks.

- Intellectual Intelligence

Individuals with a well-balanced sense of intellectual intelligence display sound reasoning, problem solving, analysis, calculation, information handling and abstract skills.

Personnel effectiveness draws on all four of these intelligence types and it is important not to over-value intellectual capacities at the expense of the others. Increasing evidence suggests that people perceive managers as effective when they behave sensitively in interpersonal situations, have the capacity to handle emotional situations well and are seen to be able to relax and enjoy a full and satisfying life outside the workplace.

An alternate view considers intelligence in the context of leadership and change in educational institutions. Management and leadership capability can be considered in relation to three distinct interrelated areas of intelligence: Professional intelligence, personal intelligence and managerial intelligence.

Professional intelligence

This type if intelligence is largely acquired and developed through professional training and experience. It generates qualities, skills and knowledge of a specialist and technical nature, specific to particular occupations and professions. Engineers, nurses and lawyers all have a different sort of occupational intelligence. This type of intelligence is often the key focus in job related training within organisations.

Personal intelligence

This type of intelligence is largely developed through the process of socialisation. It generates personal qualities, skills, and knowledge that enable us to develop and sustain relationships. It determines the capacity to get on well with other people in both professional and social settings. Until fairly recently, personal intelligence rarely featured in the formal educational process although it was constantly referred to by adults in the socialisation of young adults. Although it is essentially important it has rarely been the subject of training and development. It is often our relationships with others that cause our most difficult and emotionally painful moments. Hence, success in the management role requires us not only to be aware of this but also to improve our own qualities, skills and knowledge in order to manage our relationships effectively and sensitively.

Managerial intelligence

Whitaker 1999: 16 contends that managerial intelligence is intelligence needed to work with and through other people. He highlights the following classification of managerial abilities that serve as a useful starting point for consideration:

- Creating
  - Having good ideas
  - Finding original solutions to common problems
  - Anticipating the consequences of decisions and actions
  - Employ lateral thinking
  - Using imagination and intuition
- Planning
  - Relating the present to future needs
  - Recognising what is important and what merely urgent
  - Anticipating future trends
  - Analysing
- Organising
  - Making fair demands
  - Making rapid decisions
  - Being in front when it counts
  - Staying calm when the going is difficult
  - Recognising when the job is done
- Communicating
  - Understanding people

- Listening
- Explaining
- Written communication
- Getting others to talk
- Tact
- Tolerance of others' mistakes
- Giving thanks and encouragement
- Keep everyone informed
- Using information technology

➢ Motivating

- Inspiring others
- Providing realistic challenges
- Helping others to set goals and targets
- Helping others to value their own contributions and achievements

➢ Evaluating

- Comparing outcomes with intentions
- Self-evaluation
- Evaluating the work of others
- Taking corrective action where necessary

Looking at the above characteristics it must be noted that it is essential that the manager possess sound interpersonal and intrapersonal communication skills if he/she is to manage an organisation in a sound coherent, co-ordinated manner. It is suggested that one of the ways of creating an enhanced view of human potential in the management of change is to proceed on the basis of a wider view

of personal aptitude and capability. Research has shown that an integrated, holistic and systematic view of intelligence helps to change the concepts of management from one channelling limited capability to one of realising and empowering unlimited potential. Humans have for a long period underestimated the power of the brain and the capacity to achieve. If the brain is stimulated, it will continue to increase its capacity.

Motivation

Motivational factors are an important starting point for the selection of appropriate management styles. This aspect requires the sensitive understanding of staff needs and aspirations. These are likely to be complex and somewhat difficult to define explicitly. Individuals in a team or group are likely to have different patterns of needs and aspirations. Some common needs likely to be present in almost any team or group are the need to be:

- Supported
- heard
- noticed
- encouraged
- trusted
- appreciated and valued
- informed
- helped to clarify ideas

- helped to develop skills and abilities
- challenged and extended

It has been noted that when the culture of an organisation tends to satisfy these need people tend to work harder, with greater commitment and with a more purposeful sense of direction.

Leadership can be said to be effective when staff consistently experience these motivational factors. Service delivery improves when the organisation creates the culture of satisfying employer needs. Frederick Herzberg 1966 observed the following of highly motivated workers in organisations.

- The work is intrinsically motivating, satisfying and challenging
- Workers are actively involved in decision making and are involved in the co-management of the organisation
- Successful work leads to recognition and the possibility of career advancement

Handy 1976 emphasises the importance of acknowledging individual choice and decision-making in motivation. The 'E' factors shown in the figure 9 below represent the amount of energy, effort, enthusiasm, excitement and expenditure an individual decides to invest in any activity. The motivational calculus is the mechanism by which we decide how much 'E' to invest.

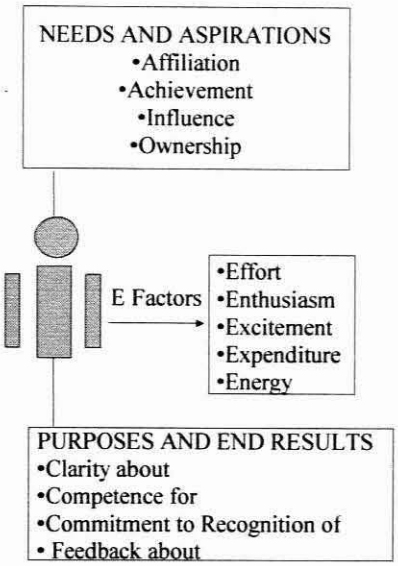

FIGURE 9 THE MOTIVATIONAL CALCULUS

The model to the left (Figure 9) highlights a number of key elements that need to feature in the management of behaviour at the interpersonal level and in the development of a culture supportive of human potential, endeavour and achievement. Coercive and controlling styles of leadership and management do little to create commitment or to release locked up skills and abilities. Humanist psychologists such as Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers have argued that individuals have within themselves vast resources of potential which needs to be rekindled. Hence the need for a leadership style that unleashes human growth and development with the emphasis on releasing and empowering, rather than on controlling and supervising.

Communication and the Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow, a well-known psychologist, (1954 - 1968) stated that all humans have five basic needs and these can be seen in figure 10. The pyramid shows the hierarchy of human needs.

According to Maslow man has an inherent capacity for constructive growth, as well as the capability to exercise qualities such as love,

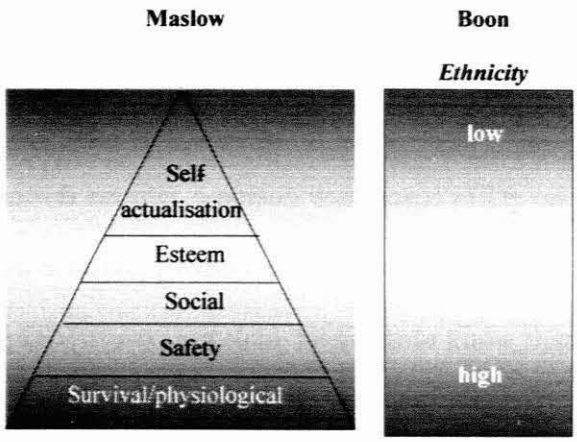

FIGURE 10 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF HUMAN NEEDS
MERSHAM & SKINNER, 1999: 69

kindness, generosity and honesty. As has already been mentioned, the hierarchy of needs consists of physiological, safety, love, belonging, self-esteem and self-actualising needs. Beyond these there are other important needs such as cognitive, aesthetic and transcendental needs. Maslow stated that if a lower order need becomes threatened, then a higher one would be sacrificed to ensure the lower order one remains intact and when a lower need is satisfied, the next level would become the motivator.

Physiological needs

Physiological needs are fundamental to human survival. If the organism lacks food, safety, love and esteem, the need for food will be the most dominant. However, once the physiological needs have been satisfied, new and higher order needs will emerge. Hence the rationale for asserting that needs are hierarchically organized. Some of the physiological needs are food, water, sex, rest and oxygen. A workplace example might be pay.

Psychological needs

Some of the factors, which threaten the safety of individuals, include quarrelling, physical assault; separation and divorce, while a death in a family may be particularly terrifying. Similarly, a parent's or teacher's outburst of rage or threats of punishment directed at a child, calling him names, speaking to him harshly, shaking him, handling him roughly or actual physical punishment are likely to elicit panic and terror in the child.

In the event that his basic needs are met, a person will pursue safety needs, which include an environment that is stable, predictable, and free from chaos and threatening characteristics. In the case of a young child, he needs to know that he is accepted and protected from bullying, sickness or discord between his parents.

An adult seeks safety by securing a stable, well-paid job accompanied by benefits, a healthy bank account, or enough productive land on which to grow sufficient food from one growing season to the next.

The belongingness and love needs

Every normal individual wants to know that someone cares for him or her and that he/she has someone to care for. Most people want friends, a partner or spouse, and, ultimately, children. Love means being tender, affectionate and caring, and receiving similar treatment in return. It must be a two-way affair to prevent it from being unstable or resulting in alienation, rejection and divorce. A workplace example of belongingness might be understanding and sympathetic colleagues.

Self-esteem needs

Most people have a strong desire for a stable and firmly based high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others. Esteem needs include the desire for strength, achievement, knowledge, confidence in the face of the world, independence and freedom, recognition, attention, importance or appreciation, reputation and status. Satisfaction of these needs results in self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and feelings of adequacy and of being useful and necessary in the world. Failure to achieve esteem needs result in feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness, which in turn may lead to basic discouragement or compensatory or neurotic tendencies.

Self-actualisation

When all his other needs are fulfilled a person will not be satisfied if he does not achieve what he is capable of achieving. This tendency is know as *self-*

actualisation, which means becoming more and more what one is and everything that one is capable of becoming.

According to Maslow, this is the culmination or highest level of human growth, and consists of bringing one's potentials and capacities to fruition. For example, some people have the potential and capacity to be excellent leaders, teachers, doctors, nurses, mechanics, carpenters, technicians, politicians, musicians, lawyers, etc. They must discover this for themselves and do all they can to achieve what they are best fitted for, so that ultimately they attain self-fulfilment, satisfaction and happiness.

Cognitive needs

Man has an inherent capacity for exploring and getting to know and understand himself, those he comes into contact with as well as his environment as a whole. This partly explains the tremendous quantity of learning to which man is exposed both formally and informally throughout his lifetime. Failure to acquire such knowledge and understanding leaves man to the domination of ignorance and fear of the unknown and less in control of his destiny.

Aesthetic needs

Man has a special appreciation and enjoyment of beauty as reflected in nature in the form of plants, animals, human beings, works of art, symmetry, order, and magnificent natural scenes of water, mountains, valleys and sky. An exposure to all or some of these goes a long way towards satisfying man's aesthetic needs.

Transcendence

As the term indicates, man needs to move beyond his physiological and psychological needs to a situation where he finds himself one with nature,

cosmos and the universe as whole. He enters a period when he assumes a spiritual state of being, not necessarily in the religious sense, but in so far as he is indistinguishable from serenity, tranquillity and peace of mind in their highest form. He is one with himself, his fellow men, nature, his creator, ancestors and the universe and transcends both space and time.

Characteristics of a self-actualising person

Attaining Maslow's highest level of personality is of vital importance not only for pupils, but also for their leaders as teachers and individuals. Maslow's theory has proposed a number of characteristics of a self-actualising person, which are listed below:

- They are capable of making objective and fairly accurate judgements of people, events, ideas and future trends.
- They know and understand themselves and their feelings, motives, strengths, weaknesses, etc.
- They pursue their goals with determination and zeal and achieve excellence in such goals.
- They are not too concerned with what others think of them as long as they are sure that what they are doing is right-they are motivated intrinsically rather than extrinsically.
- Whatever they achieve, be it a good marriage, promotion at work, a child, a new plot or home, or a plantation of coffee, bananas, etc, is looked upon as a blessing with constant admiration and appreciation, thereby contributing meaning to their existence.

- They experience moments of peak experience involving ecstasy, perfection, wonder and awe resulting from love, sex, art, music, creativity, discovery or splendid performance in a given task.

- They are interested in people and assist them when necessary. They delight in others' achievement and success.

- They can make friends with all types of people, irrespective of their tribe, nationality, sex, race or station in life. Discrimination is not part of their lifestyle. As a corollary, they take a strong stand against injustice, cruelty, inequality and the exploitation of others.

- They have definite concepts of wrong and right and are prepared to accept responsibility for their mistakes. They do not explain away their errors or blame others for them.

It is important that managers motivate their staff accordingly if they are to achieve quality work among the workforce. From a management perspective it is important that managers take time to assess what motivates their subordinates. This can be used to manoeuvre the objectives of the organisation in the correct direction.

Theories related to needs	
Maslow	Hierarchy of needs
Herzberg	Job enrichment
McGregor	Styles
McClelland	Power, affiliation and achievement
Taylor	Scientific management
Alderfer	ERG theory
Theories related to cognitive process	
Vroom	Expectancy, performance goal achievement
Locke	Goal setting
Adams	Equity theory
Theories related to reinforcement	
Skinner	Communication, feedback

FIGURE11 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

The figure 11, alongside outlines the various motivational theories that have been explored by researches over the years. It is important that the modern school leader study these theories carefully to ensure that the relevant theory or combination of theories can be applied to motivate human resources in an organisational setting.

Empowerment

Research (Hopson and Scally 1981) has shown that when people accept responsibility for themselves and their own behaviour and recognise their own power to affect and influence the way that circumstances develop, they will be likely to work more creatively and cooperatively to the benefit of both themselves and the organisation as a whole. Within the school setting there is a clear need to identify and cultivate internal dynamics both within the classrooms and within the management culture itself. The concept of empowerment places emphasis on the individual for creating his/her own conditions for growth, for defining challenges and for setting goals and targets.

Hopson and Scally 1981 identify the following as characteristic of organisations that operate in a self-empowered way:

- An acceptance that change and development are the natural order of things and that change is to be welcomed rather than shunned and avoided.

- Having skills to initiate and embrace change and the capacity to learn new skills and ideas.
- Taking personal responsibility for actions and behaviour.
- Making clear goals for themselves and developing action programmes to meet them.
- Being action biased.
- Frequently reviewing, assessing and evaluating their own progress and seeking feedback from others.

In an effective organisation staff will be operating in self-empowered ways. It is essential that management act as effective agents of change in the process of promoting and supporting professional change. Some understanding of the developmental psychology is useful in making connections between the personal and the professional in the change process. Knowing how best to help someone in the professional domain requires an appreciation that individual and personal factors will also contribute to the stance that individuals assume. It is a fact that change is a common and constant feature of our personal lives. The process of growth, development and aging is common to all humans. Morgan 1989: 4 writes about the importance of 'empowering human resources' in an environment where the information technology revolution has shifted sources of wealth from those of natural resources from the surfaces, sky and depths of this globe to the resources of human intelligence which needs to be released, empowered to perform, and given competence to meet the changes taking place around us.

Finance

It is frequently contended that money is not really a motivator. However, it is virtually impossible to satisfy one's needs without finance, therefore employees could work harder for the express purpose of increasing their earning capacity, thereby satisfying their basic necessities. According to Beach 1985: 309, the value of money is usually determined by what people have learnt to associate with it.

Job Security

Some people would do just about anything to retain their jobs, particularly in an economic recession when jobs are scarce. Where job security could become a threat to employees, they could develop a low morale. There is little doubt that morale and productivity go hand in hand. Another aspect which forms an essential part of an individuals identity and status is his or her career plan or career path. Career planning is cardinal because it helps the individual employee to develop a positive attitude towards the work, the employer and society in general. It involves a lifelong sequencing of a person's ideals, giving purpose and direction in life. (Beach 185: 232)

Stress management

Any speculation about your future as an educational leader would be incomplete without realising that stress is something you are sure to encounter along the way. All managers have to deal with stress. Some handle it well, while others handle it poorly. Work related stress is a condition experienced by a large number of employees across virtually all categories of jobs. It manifests itself in many forms – some so mild that they require no medical attention, but some so serious that they result in hospitalisation.

What is stress?

Stress can be defined as a negative emotional experience or threat (internal or external) to which people will react in a certain manner. Because the stress experience is emotional and negative, it can be expected that the behaviour reaction, which follows this negative emotional stress experience will be irrational and negative. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978: 4 define teacher stress as the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger and depression resulting from aspects of his work. Schermerhorn et al 1994: 647 define stress as follows: "Stress is a state of tension experienced by individuals facing extraordinary demands, constraints or opportunities."

Stressors

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978: 4 further state that stress relates to the teachers perception that:

- Demands were being made upon him/her,
- He/she was unable to or had difficulty in meeting these demands,
- Failure to do so threatened his mental and/or physical well-being.

Stressful situations may be organic, psychological or cultural. At the organic level, injury and other physical stresses result in an increase in the blood level of pituitary and adrenal hormones. Stress situations of a psychological nature also raise the level of these hormones in the blood. Similarly, social pressures which have a psychological impact on a person are reflected in one or another form of disturbance or behaviour.

In addition to the minor stress situations faced each day, most people occasionally are faced with much more serious situations. A severe illness of a

member of the family, a dangerous surgical operation, bereavement, a poor record on an important job, bills that exceed one's income, a physical handicap, marital discord and other such situations are threats which cannot be ignored or shrugged off. Such stress situations are capable of bringing about behaviour and personality disturbance, which may last for prolonged periods of time.

Whether or not a situation is a stressful one depends ultimately on one's behaviour. Some people are able to handle the most threatening situations without too much difficulty. Others break down under relatively little stress. A stress situation for one person may not be a stress situation for another. There are wide individual differences in the ability to handle threatening stimuli. Stress could very well be self imposed, depending on ones' perception.

In stress situations, the psychological and physiological reactions to stress are temporary. The effects disappear when the stress is reduced or eliminated. However, the effects of unresolved stress can be long lasting and severely damaging.

According to Feldman 1992: 542 the critical factor to these stressors is the degree of control people have over unpleasant stimuli in the environment. When people can control the situation, stress reactions are reduced considerably. Interpersonal and inter-team conflicts are also sources of occupational stress. Bratton and Gold 1994: 98 state that when employees with different social experience, personalities, needs and points of view interact with co-workers disagreements may cause stress.

Factors that can mediate stress

It is noted that the following factors can mediate in the occurrences of stress.

- *Predictability* - If you know what to expect, you prepare yourself and therefore don't experience as much stress.
- *Degree of control* - If you know you can escape or change the situation, even with partial control, you will experience less stress.
- *Meaning* - Exposure to the same stress may draw different reactions from different people.
- *Feelings of competence* -These are associated with degree of control. If you know how to deal with a problem, you will experience less stress.
- *Social support* - This is extremely important to everyone. It is easier to deal with life's stressors when parents, family and friends can give their support.

Stress and performance

There are two forms of stress: constructive and destructive stress.

Constructive stress acts in a positive way for employees and the organisation in, which they work. You may know such stress as the tension that causes you to study hard before an examination. The same positive results of stress can be found in the workplace.

Destructive stress is dysfunctional for the individual and the organisation. While low to moderate levels of stress can enhance work performance,

excessively high levels of stress can break down a person's physical and mental system. Performance can suffer as people experience illness brought on by very intense stress. Common reaction to high stress are absenteeism, high staff turnover, errors and accidents in work, dissatisfaction, reduced performance and sometimes even unethical behaviour.

Work Harassment

Sexual and racial harassment at work is another source of stress. Sexual harassment can range from unwanted propositions and sexual innuendos to attempted physical contact or rape. Men who occupy positions of power often aim sexual harassment at women. It is, as one writer put it: 'a new, formal title for an age-old predicament, the boss-man with anything from a lascivious line of chat, to wandering hands, to explicit demands for sex as reward for giving you, the women, work'.

Sexual harassment is both stressful, as well as unlawful. Human resource managers have to take appropriate action to prevent sexual harassment and to inform employees of the consequences. Racial harassment in the workplace can also cause stress. It can range from racist jokes or verbal abuse to racist graffiti in the workplace or physical attacks on employees. No matter how subtle it is, racial harassment is extremely stressful, it can damage an employee's health and present a major challenge for managers.

Work stress

Work stress is the stress, which arises from factors within the work environment, which affects a vulnerable employee. The nature of work stress and its effects are similar to everyday stress. The international concern with teacher stress stems from:

- The mounting evidence that prolonged occupational stress can lead to both mental and physical ill-health,

- A general concern to improve the quality of teachers' working lives and

- A concern that stress may significantly impair the working relationship a teacher has with his/her learners and the quality of teaching and commitment he/she is able to display.

There has also been a recent increase in the number of teachers claiming early retirement pensions on the ground of ill-health precipitated by stress.

Causes of work stress

The high demands placed on individuals together with the many changes that are being effected in education has resulted in high levels of stress among educators. The dynamics of the educational scenario within the multicultural schooling situation, together with changes within the status of state schools have led to high degrees of uncertainty and anxiety among many an educator. The following are some of the main causes of stress within the work environment.

- Stressors in the work environment can arise from various sources.

- Poor interpersonal relationships, such as conflict with one's supervisors or colleagues, also create potential stressors.

- The nature of specific types of careers, more likely to give rise to stressors. Soldiers and policemen are constantly in dangerous situations. Psychologists, doctors and social workers work with people who are ill and sometimes poorly adjusted to society. In

these jobs people need to try not to become very emotionally involved.

- An unpleasant working environment, which can include long working hours, loud noise, pollution and having to strain your body in your daily job.

- Role ambiguities are situations in which people do not know what they are expected to do or how their work performance will be evaluated.

- Interpersonal conflicts are situations in which people experience upsetting relationships with others or must work with others who are experiencing such problems.

- Career development problems occur in situations in which progress comes too fast and people feel they cannot perform to expectation, or it comes too slowly and workers feel that their careers are blocked.

- Other stressors include time pressures, poor quality of supervision, insecure political climate, inadequate authority to match responsibilities, differences between company and employee values, change of the type and general frustration.

- Role-conflict occurs in situations in which people feel they are unable to satisfy many potentially conflicting performance expectations.

- Unrealistic task demands create situations in which people are asked to do too much in the available time. Sometimes these demands are greater than their abilities. At other times, employees are asked to do too little and are left without sufficient challenge.

- Dangerous working conditions, which includes dangers of fire, heights and electricity.

- Intrapersonal conflict occurs when an employee experiences conflict within him or herself.

- The quality and quantity of the workload can be too high or too low. A person who has too much work can become psychologically and physically exhausted. Hard work also affects one's feeling of security. This is the stressor, which contributes most towards work stress. However too little work or work that is too easy causes boredom and frustration since it interferes with the need for job satisfaction.

The effects of work stress

Stress can affect a person's health - Symptoms such as palpitations, dizziness, headaches and stomach cramps are the way in which the body experiences stress. These symptoms act as a warning signal and force the person to escape from the stressor, which has been present for some time. Employees are sometimes absent from work because they need to get medical treatment for stress symptoms or avoid contact with the stressors.

Stress is not necessarily always negative – What one person may perceive as stressful, another may see as a challenge. It all depends on the persons mechanisms and ability to cope and his/her condition of health. Human reaction to stress always takes the form of activity. A work problem can therefore also be considered a stressor. The activity in reaction to this stressor can result in the problem being solved. Stress in the right quantity and of a specific nature can lead to higher productivity. It can in fact be considered to be healthy stress (constructive).

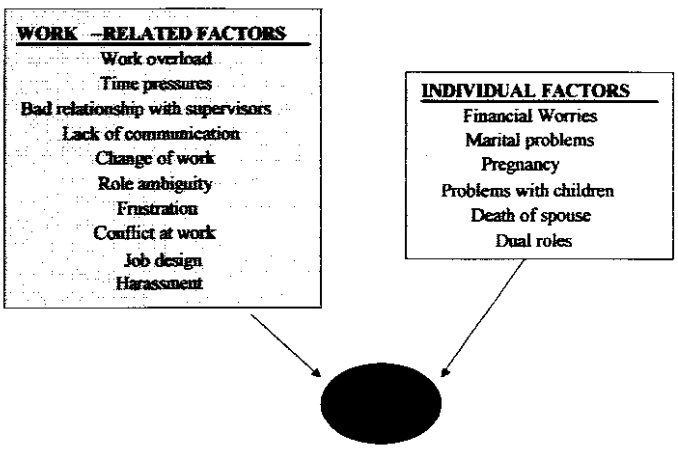

FIGURE 12 SOME MAJOR CAUSES OF STRESS

Unhealthy stress occurs when the load of the stressor and the employee's vulnerability are very high. Then the activity, which follows, does not solve the problem, but enables one to escape from it. Escapism can take the form of absenteeism. Workers productivity decreases with each hour of absenteeism as he or she still receives remuneration, but does not produce any work. This is destructive stress. In extreme cases, work stress can lead to termination of service.

Work stress can affect productivity

Work stress can affect productivity even when employees do not show symptoms of illness or do not leave the job. Employees can neglect or fail to perform those functions, which are sources of stress. In an effort to escape these stressors employees may desert the workstation or even commit sabotage in

order to neutralise the stressor. They may even indulge in fantasies so as to be less vulnerable to the specific stressors. Not only is constructive work time lost, but other workers may also be negatively influenced. To escape, the worker could also indulge in using alcohol and drugs. As a result, performance deteriorates and the employee cannot cope any longer, becoming unable to make decisions. If stress increases to a breaking point, performance drops to zero, the employee has a breakdown, becomes too ill to work and quits, refuses to come to work or is fired.

Coping with stress

Everyone responds differently to stress. Each personality type acts in a particular way when the workplace becomes stressful. Understanding this will help a leader avoid problems.

Knowledge: Management should have a thorough knowledge of stress and be constantly on the alert for signs of stress amongst employees. People who are constantly taking sick leave should be approached so that possible stressors may be pinpointed.

Communication: Vigorous efforts should be made to prevent unhealthy, stressors from developing and to decrease workers' vulnerability. Clear and useful channels of communication are vital. Surveys of workers' satisfaction and the development programmes are methods of establishing two-way communication.

Organisation development programme: During these development programmes workers can learn that stress is a normal part of human existence. They can be taught methods of confronting and resolving stressors and thus decreasing their vulnerability. Organisations can seek to improve managerial

communication skills, empower employees through participation, redesign jobs to be more fulfilling or implement organisation development programmes.

Social Support: Social support is the network of activities, interactions and relationships that help an employee to satisfy important needs. The support can come from supervisors, co-workers, friends and family.

Meditation: Meditation involves quiet, concentrated inner thought and helps to rest the body, physically and emotionally. It helps remove people temporarily from their stress and reduces their symptoms of stress. Meditation is so highly regarded that some organisations have set aside meditation rooms for employees.

Biofeedback: People can learn to reduce symptoms of stress such as increased heart rate or severe headaches. There is evidence that people can exercise some control over these symptoms and reduce the effects of stress.

Personal well-being: Health care specialist can recommend ways in which people can improve their well-being, (such as breathing regulation, muscle relaxation, positive imagery, nutrition management and exercise).

Professional help: In extreme cases, where workers have already developed conditions of illness as a result of stress, they may receive professional medical help.

Employee assistance programme: The employee assistance programme, which includes counselling, can be used to improve employee mental health. Gomez-Mejia 1995: 585 emphasises the following ten ways managers can help overworked employees to reduce stress:

Allow employees to talk freely with one another: This not only reduces stress, but also improves productivity and helps workers to solve problems.

Reduce personal conflicts on the job: To minimise conflict, managers can work together with employees to resolve conflict, by communicating and negotiating. Management should also show respect to employees by treating them fairly and clearly defining their job expectations.

Give employees adequate control over their work: Workers are more productive and better able to deal with stress if they have some control over how they perform their work.

Ensure that the number of staff is sufficient: Heavier workloads can increase illness, labour turnover, cause accidents and decrease productivity. Therefore, a new project may not be worth taking on if staffing and funding are not sufficient.

Talk openly with employees: Keep employees informed about bad news as well as good news. Give them opportunities to express their concerns.

Support employees' efforts: Workers are better able to cope with heavy workloads if managers are sympathetic, understanding and encouraging. Listening to employees and addressing issues they raise is also helpful.

Provide competitive personal leave and vacation leave: Workers who have time to relax and recharge after working hard are less likely to develop stress-related illnesses.

Maintain levels of employee benefits: Workers' stress levels increase when their benefits are reduced. Employers must carefully weigh up the savings of reducing benefits with the high costs of employee burnout.

Mental health

People in good mental health:

- Feel comfortable about themselves
- Are not overwhelmed by their emotions, their fears, anger, love, jealousy, guilt, or worries
- Can cope with life's disappointments
- Have a tolerant, easygoing attitude towards themselves and others and can laugh at themselves
- Do not underestimate or overestimate their abilities
- Can accept their own shortcomings
- Respect themselves
- Feel able to deal with most situations that come their way and get satisfaction from simple, everyday pleasure
- Feel good about other people
- Are able to give love and consider the interests of others
- Have personal relationships that are satisfying and lasting

- Expect to like and trust others and expect that others will like and trust them
- Respect the many difference they find in people
- Do not push people around and do not allow them to be pushed around
- Can feel they are part of a group and feel a sense of responsibility to their neighbours and others.
- Are able to meet the demands of life
- Do something about their problems as they arise
- Accept their responsibilities
- Shape their environment when possible and adjust to it when necessary
- Plan ahead and do not fear the future
- Welcome new experiences and ideas
- Make use of their natural talents
- Set realistic goals for themselves
- Are able to think for themselves and make their own decisions
- Give their best efforts when they do something and get satisfaction out of it.

The strains and stresses of the modern working class are many. It is important that a balance be found between work and relaxation. The above are some of the characteristics, which we should strive to achieve in our daily lives, which should eventually lead one to sound human relations. It must be noted that the pathway of people management is a dynamic one and it is up to us as managers to ensure that individuals are treated in a fair and transparent manner.

Disasters and emergencies

In order to protect lives and property, every school should establish internal mechanisms that will enable it to act swiftly during an emergency. Emergency measures are usually devised by the principal in consultation with interested parties, such as employees and the school governing body, to achieve a general state of preparedness.

A disaster is any unforeseen, uncontrolled incident with the potential to cause loss or damage of a severe nature and considerable extent. It is essential to assess the institution in terms of its vulnerability that is the risk to people, property and productivity, and to determine what procedures could be adopted to deal with specific dangers, if and when they occur. There must always be proper planning to anticipate natural and man-made disasters, this may necessitate seeking advise from experts as the ire brigade civil defence units. Provision should also be made for alternative or contingency plans, should a disaster strike the institution.

Types of disasters and emergencies

There are various types of natural disasters over which man usually has no control and which require quick action and sometimes even emergency procedures. These are for example floods, tornadoes and earthquakes. There are

also man-made or man-initiated disasters for which man is usually directly responsible. These are fires, chemical accidents, civil disturbances and riots, and sabotage.

Coping with emergencies

During an emergency situation all available personnel and other resources are needed to cope with the emergency and to keep essential public services running smoothly.

Handling selected emergency situations

Kofi Annan, UN Secretary General as cited in "United Nations Documents Related to Disaster Reduction" 2002: 413 Volume 2 confirms that,

> *"Communities will always face natural hazards, but today's hazards are often generated by, or at least exacerbated by human activities. At the most dramatic level, human activities are changing the natural balance of the earth, interfering as never before with the atmosphere, the oceans, the polar ice caps, the forest cover and the natural pillars that make our world a liveable home. But we are also putting ourselves in harm's way in less visible ways. At no time in human history have so many people lived in cities clustered around seismically active areas. Destitute and demographic pressures have led more people than ever before to live in flood plains or in areas prone to landslides. Poor land-use planning; environmental mismanagement; and a lack of regulatory mechanisms both increase the risk and exacerbate the effects of natural disasters".*

There is indeed a need to intensify efforts to reduce the number and effects of natural and man-made disasters. Some emergency situations, which could be encountered within or in close proximity to the workplace, are briefly discussed below.

Floods: If the building is in a low-lying area, first assist the elderly to higher ground or onto a roof as quickly as possible. Try to divert the water flow with sandbags or other objects at strategic points.

Tornadoes: Staff should stay indoors during a tornado or hurricane, taking cover under a table or other sturdy covering, if available.

Earthquake: All power and gas supplies must be disconnected at once and the building evacuated as quickly as possible. Persons who are trapped in building should take shelter under a table or other sturdy covering to protect themselves against falling objects such as bricks, glass and debris.

Fire: People can cause fires and people can also control and extinguish fires. Therefore it is essential that all employees are familiar with at least the basic procedures to be followed in the event of a fire. Fire prevention is usually a matter of vigilance and the ability to identify and eliminate potential fire hazards. It should become the task of all employees to spot potential fire hazards.

Some of the main causes of fire are faulty electricity and the overloading of wall sockets, sparks, open flames, unguarded heated surfaces, matches and cigarettes, chemical reactions and careless handling of flammable liquids, static electricity, friction, arson and lightning.

The three elements, which must be present in any fire, are oxygen, heat and fuel. Remove any one of these elements and the fire will be extinguished. Fire extinguishers should be placed close to places of likely fire hazards, but not so close that they can be damaged of suddenly cut off by a fire. Extinguishers should be very conspicuous so that they cannot be missed during an eventuality.

An action plan, providing the necessary steps for classroom evacuation is discussed a little later in this chapter.

Improving institutional safety and preventing accidents

Preventing injuries on duty is a function of every employer as injuries cause financial and other losses to an institution. Workplaces should be designed so as to prevent or minimise accidents. Personnel practitioners should devise and implement specific programmes and/or measures for the prevention of injuries on duty. The goals of a safety programme should be clearly stated and management and employees should guard against work related injuries. If the top echelon is ignorant about measures to prevent injuries on duty, the programmes are bound to fail and money could be wasted. Such measures therefore need to be enforced.

Employee health

Keeping employees fit and healthy is clearly a function and goal of good management. Employers should realise that absenteeism due to sickness and possible subsequent employee turnover raise the costs of operation far in excess of any cost of maintaining the health of the workforce. Some of the health aspects of the employee and various measures to keep the workforce fit, healthy and productive are discussed below:

Health care: Total loss control programme

Since illnesses and injuries could cause the interruption or disruption of educational services and the workflow, these should be prevented wherever possible. Health and safety risks should be eliminated as far as possible and should form part of a total loss-control strategy. The overall performance of any institution will decline if the workforce is not kept safe and fit for duty.

To create and maintain a productive workforce, the health and safety of the employees are paramount. Regular courses/talks by the health services to personnel on matters of hygiene, sanitation, diet and nutrition as well as diseases should form part of the staff developmental programmes. The workplace must promote occupational health. Health programmes should be introduced to reduce health and safety risks to the absolute minimum.

Combating health hazards

Substances in the workplace, which could harm the physical, and possibly the mental health of employees should be combated or reduced by wearing the appropriate protective clothing and or equipment. Employees must be diligent in wearing the appropriate protective clothing and equipment. This is of particular references to trade schools and schools of industry.

AIDS in the workplace

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) is a disease caused by a latent slow-acting virus, the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). This virus destroys part of the body's immune system, leaving it unable to defend itself against infectious viruses and certain cancers. AIDS as a disease has serious socio-economic implications for any country but is particularly worrying in African countries. The condition could lead to a shortage of skilled and unskilled labour, disruptions of work and absenteeism, an unhealthy and de-motivated workforce, abnormally high medical aid, insurance and pension claims, and a decrease in consumer spending because the economically active population is bound to decline. Moreover, increased injuries and fatalities could occur because employees are too weak to perform their jobs properly. A sick nation cannot be a productive nation. In the case of AIDS, prevention is better than no cure. Employee's performance and morale can be plummeted by if AIDS affects a

majority of the workforce. Research has revealed that the problem of AIDS has to be managed and addressed in the workplace. Workplace awareness is an important proactive strategy in educating the nation about the issues surrounding the AIDS pandemic. It must be noted that as attitudes and legal considerations change, AIDS has important implications for the human resource management policy and practices in organisations.

Alcohol and drug abuse

In recent years, having to deal with alcoholism and drug abuse has become a prominent part of the employer's responsibility in coping with the effects of excesses in the workplace. These problems tend to command special attention in operations where large numbers of persons are employed in doing routine tasks. Effective treatment of alcoholic and drug addicts includes seeking support of the family as part of a total treatment programme.

First aid

Provision should be made for first-aid treatment on-site and employers and employees ought to receive training in basics first-aid procedures. Facilities and equipment for first aid must be available at appropriately and conveniently located spots.

Building a health-promoting school

The WHO (1993: 1) outlines a health-promoting school as:

The health-promoting school aims at achieving healthy lifestyles for the total school population by developing supportive environments conducive to the promotion of health. It offers opportunities for, and requires commitments to, the provision of a safe and health-enhancing social and physical environment.

In the above definition, the concept, "health" is conceived of as a physical, psychological, social and spiritual well-being rather than the absence of disease (Ottawa Carter, 1996) The emphasis of health promotion is on the development of the well-being and the quality of life for the people, and not only those who are ill or who have ailments. It is a "solution" or an approach, which focuses on development rather than on only identifying and addressing problems through curative or preventative programmes. This means that the challenge is to focus on what should be and then attempting to develop people and environments that achieve this.

When looking at the development of a health-promoting school, a comprehensive approach needs to be pursued, including all aspects stressed by the Ottawa Charter. By using this Charter as a basis, Donald et al. 1997: 84 outlines the challenges relating to building a health-promoting school.

Developing a healthy school policy

This implies that a policy needs to be in place that incorporates a health-promoting vision coupled with all the underlying principles dealing with health. This could be an all-embracing policy that promotes equity at all levels in terms of race, gender and ability, as well as more specific policies such as no smoking in public areas.

Developing a supporting environment

This aspect according to Donald 1997:84 would include the physical and the psychosocial environment of the school. Buildings and grounds need to be safe, including learners with particular disabilities e.g. Wheelchair access. Basic health regulations need to be met. A style of management, which encourages

empowerment of all sectors in the school, would be developed, including teamwork and constructive conflict management at all levels.

Strengthening community action and participation

School need to develop stronger links with the local community. This would include greater community participation in the life of the school, as well as the school contributing to the life of the community. A healthy interaction between the community and the school, as well as support services is recommended.

Developing personnel skills

This would need to include programmes of staff development, parent development, as well as life-skills education for learners. Mock or simulated sessions in terms of crisis management need to be implemented so that any emergency is handle with the least amount of panic and anxiety.

Re-orientating education support services

The reorientation of these services would require them to be coordinated and accessible to all who need them. They would also need to provide comprehensive programmes, including curative, preventive and health-promotive aspects to support learning structures at school level.

DESIGN

safe and healthy systems of work

EXHIBIT

strong management commitment

INSPECT

workplace for health and safety problems

ESTABLISH

procedures and controls for dealing with health and safety

DEVELOP

training programmes

SET UP

health and safety committees

MONITOR

safety policies

DRAW UP

action plan and checklists

FIGURE 13 STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE HEALTH AND SAFETY

The above needs to be seriously considered and implemented in schools, so that learners are able to visualise and practice safety habits and so improve the culture of survival, and life long learning.

Figure 13 alongside provides a sequential guide that could be followed to draw up sequential guide to address and improve health and safety issues at the work place.

The role of school management teams (SMTs)

Perhaps more than any other Human Resource activity, health and safety offers the HR manager an opportunity to be more proactive than reactive. This, if effective action were followed through, would increase the HRM department's contribution to improving the health and safety of the organisations employees. Figure 13 above, highlights the strategies that could be used by organisations to ensure a healthy and safe workplace and ensure compliance with legal requirements. These include:

Design safer systems of work

The most direct approach to ensuring a safe and healthy workplace is to design systems of work that are safe and without risk to health. This can often be done satisfactorily at the design, planning or purchasing stage. It is far more

difficult to modify existing machinery or systems of work, to eliminate or reduce hazards, than it is at the investment stage. There is thus a need for management to take cognisance of long-term organisational changes to control hazards.

Exhibit commitment

The school manager carries the ultimate responsibility for ensuring a safe and healthy workplace. Health and safety should be an integral part of every manager's responsibility, from the chief executive officer to the lowest level supervisor. Anything less than total support from the top management raises questions about the sincerity of the organisations commitment in the eyes of employees, government agencies and the public at large. Large organisations have appointed specialists in the area, including health and safety officers, safety engineers and medical technicians. If the safety officer is to be effective s/he must be given adequate authority in the management hierarchy to make changes and implement changes.

Inspect the workplace

A proactive approach to the management of health and safety is regular formal inspections of the workplace: regular monitoring of the work environment and regular physical examination of employees. A 'health' survey of employees can help identify hazardous and unhealthy processes. Thorough preparation, including designing a comprehensive set of checklists covering all aspects of the workplace, is essential if mangers are to discover physical hazards.

Establish procedures and controls

A health and safety programme is likely to fail unless there are effective procedures and controls established. The procedures for handling health and safety problems need to meet some basic requirements:

- Allow employees and union representatives to talk directly to the managers who can make decisions;
- Operate without undue delay;
- Be able to handle emergency problems; and permit discussion about long-term decisions affecting health and safety.

Clearly, these recommendations have important implications for HRM policy and action. It is essential that any discussion on health and safety include all stakeholders. Such discussion forums can be a vehicle for strategic planning of health and safer working environments.

Develop training programmes

One way to obtain compliance with health and safety regulations is through enhancing employees' knowledge, understanding and commitment, which can be achieved through health and safety programmes. The purpose of safety training is generally the same as that of any other training programme: to improve job knowledge and skills and to ensure optimum employees compliance and performance. Regular refresher courses are recommended to constantly create awareness to safety compliance.

Set up health and safety committees

All organisation need to put in place a health and safety committee. Such committees need to be empowered to draft safety measures pertinent to the organisation it represents. It is essential that safety measures be adopted in line with that prescribed by the law.

Monitor policy

Safety specialists argue that the safety policy should reflect the employer's commitment to develop a safe system to work, and to pursue a healthy work environment. The safety policy needs to outline the safety responsibilities of all levels of management within the hierarchy. This part of the safety policy is particularly important for identifying which member of the management hierarchy should be involved when a health and safety problem arises in the workplace. A proactive approach involving a regular check to ensure that safety policy, management procedures and arrangements are regularly adapted to suit new developments in the workplace.

Draw up an action plan

HRM can be more proactive by putting in place an action plan in the area of health and safety. The action plan should provide adequate detail to handle any emergency situation that may arise in the work place. The action plan needs to clearly articulate the line function of all personnel and management role functions during an emergency. It should include a list of emergency contact numbers to speed up and enhance the recovery process.

Disaster and crisis management

Disaster and crisis management will now be discussed in the absence of a formal policy by the Department of Education. Disasters and crisis are a reality, which can occur on any day at possibly any time. These disasters may be natural or man-made. Natural disasters include floods, hurricanes, tornadoes, earthquakes and volcanoes.

Man made disasters may range from a small injury of a learner falling and bruising himself/herself or to a horse and trailer overturning onto the school building.

Are we in a position to sit back and say these things never happen to us or do we try to avoid mishaps? But yes, what do we do when it does happen to us. Majozi 2003: 90 discussing disaster and crisis management asks the following questions of schoolteachers and management staff.

- Does your school have a plan for when a child gets seriously hurt in front of the school or on the school grounds?
- Does your school have a plan for when a child gets shot in front of the school or on the school grounds?
- Does your school have a plan for when a child or teacher collapses and dies in front of the school or on the school grounds?
- Does your school have a plan for when a child or teacher has been bitten on the school grounds by a dog that may carry rabies, or a spider/ snake that could be very venomous?
- Does your school have a plan for when a child or teacher is taken hostage on the school grounds?
- Does your school have a plan for when a group of children or teachers complain of nausea and suffer from headaches or diarrhoea on the school grounds?
- Does your school have a plan for when a group of children or teachers lapse into unconsciousness on the school grounds?

- Does your school have a plan for when tanker filled with hazardous (flammable or poisonous) gas or liquid crashes near your school grounds?

- Does your school have a plan for when a helicopter or an aeroplane crashes into your school building, causing serious casualties?

Sound familiar, yes, but how prepared are we when such occurrences confront us. Do we add to the pandemonium by lapsing into a state of shock and hysteria or are we in a situation to decisively take control of the crisis and manage it and bring it to closure with a minimum of injury and casualties. It is with this in mind that I re-enforce the need for educational managers and staff to be prepared for instances of crisis and disaster.

Disaster and crisis management plan

Many researchers contend that a disaster management plan is a proactive plan for crisis and disaster communication that has been designed, implemented and tested before a crisis happens so that one knows that it can be used to help solve or alleviate the crisis. Mersham and Skinner 2003: 23 define crisis management as a process of strategic planning for a crisis or a negative turning point, a process that removes some of the risks and uncertainty from the negative occurrences and thereby allows the organisation to be in greater control of its own destiny.

It is important for the school to set up a crisis and disaster management committee. The key functions of this committee would be to:

- Identify

- Confirm

- Investigate
- Develop strategies for management of a crisis and
- Develop strategies for recovering from crisis incidents.

Possible action plan for a crisis - fire

1. Control Point: Principal's / Secretary's office

2. Alarm:

   2.1. The teacher who is on the spot where the emergency occurs must send a messenger to inform the principal of:

   2.1.1. The area of danger.

   2.1.2. What the danger is. e.g. fire, accident,...

   2.2. The principal gives the alarm depending on the nature of the crisis, if he is not available, then the deputy principal; head of department or school secretary sounds the alarm.

3. Emergency / Crisis signals:

   3.1. Continuous ringing of bell/siren will indicate that learners need to evacuate the building.(fires, chemical spillage, bomb threat...)

   3.2. Intermittent blowing of whistle will indicate that learners need to take cover in the class room. This is for minor crisis situations.

4. Electricity:

   For safety reasons it may be necessary for the electricity mains to be switched off. This will be done by the school clerk/secretary.

5. Pre-emergency preparation:

   5.1. Learners names with home contact details must be drawn up by

the form teachers and pinned in a convenient position in the classroom.

5.2. These lists need to be updated (delete name of learners excluded and add names of learners admitted).

5.3. Make provision for at least eight columns on the sheet to tick each time an emergency evacuation is held.

5.4. Monitors must be assigned to carry the class list on evacuation from the classroom.

6. Evacuation of classrooms:

6.1. Classroom evacuation is the responsibility of the teacher in charge of the classroom at the time of the crisis/emergency.

6.2. When a emergency signal is given, work must be stopped immediately.

6.3. The teacher signals learners to speedily form two lines, and to leave the class and assemble at the point designated for emergency assembly.

6.4. The teacher must stand outside to ensure that learners do not run or push each other and that no learner is left behind. Be vary of learners who may be disabled.

6.5. Learners must follow the agreed upon route to the designated area for emergency assembly as indicated on an evacuation route plan.

6.6. Learners who may be outside or in specialist classes also need to follow the route to the emergency assembly area.

7. Emergency assembly area:

7.1. The emergency assembly area should be a point of safety, relatively away from the school buildings, which must be agreed to and familiar to learners and teachers.

7.2. Once learners have assembled at the point of assembly it is important that the teacher take a physical count of all learners in a class. Learners missing need to be accounted for or reported to the persons in charge.

7.3. Casualties (if any) must be moved to a point of safety and be reported to the controlling officer/principal.

7.4. All learners are to remain at the emergency assembly area until further notice. Discipline needs to be maintained.

7.5. The controlling officer/ deputy principal may address learners giving them a brief outline of the crisis, but at the same time indicating the need for all to be calm and patient while all situations are brought under control. It is important to reassure learners at times of crisis to prevent chaos of learners wanting to find out what is happening for themselves.

8. First aid:

Each school needs to have teachers trained in the administering of first aid. A well stock first aid kit needs to be maintained at schools at all times. Personnel appointed with the task of rendering first aid must ensure that any individual that may have been injured are treated accordingly.

9. Communication:

9.1. The secretary will answer any queries if parents telephone the school.

9.2. The secretary will telephone the relevant emergency services without delay. The following telephone numbers need to be always on hand.: Fire Brigade, Hospital ambulance services, Municipal water/ electricity departments, South African Police, Local doctors, traffic department.

9.3. A member of management should monitor and provide regular updates on the situation to other personnel or to the media if present without creating further anxiety. Say what should be said in a diplomatic and tactful manner.

10. Information:

10.1. Parents may rush to school. The information officer/head of department will:

- Organise traffic.
- Keep entrances clear for doctors, ambulance, police and the fire brigade.
- Monitor movement to control points reassuring concerned parties.
- Provide updated information to the relevant people seeking information.
- Do an assessment of damage and report accordingly.

11. General:

11.1. Teachers must endeavour to maintain strict discipline throughout the emergency session.

11.2. Care must be taken not to create a panic situation. If necessary, stern measures need to be implemented to cope with cases of disobedience or hysteria.

11.3. It is very important that the route map to the point of assembly be clearly explained to learners.

Aims of the above emergency plan

According to Mersham and Skinner 2003: 52 the purpose of establishing a crisis and disaster response programme is to help ensure that a company is prepared to deal effectively with unexpected events - and thus minimise adverse consequences. The goals of emergency response planning are to:

- Prevent fatalities and injuries to employees and members of the public
- Provide guidelines for decision making
- Identify and clarify responsibilities
- Ensure that valuable time is not lost in implementing or coordinating response efforts
- Minimise production downtime and disruption of business

An effective way of testing the plan is with mock disaster drills. A simulated crisis exercise can be conducted to ensure that all learners and personnel are familiar with procedures, rules and regulations that control emergency crisis interventions. It is important that educational managers be well prepared to handle any crisis situation that may arise in the school situation, so as to avoid unnecessary anxiety and pandemonium when a situation arises.

Disaster reduction and sustainable development

UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan writing on disaster reduction in "United Nations Documents Related to Disaster Reduction" Volume 2 2002: 416 confirms that disaster reduction policies and measures need to be implemented to

build disaster resilient societies and communities, with a two fold aim; to reduce the level of risk in societies, while ensuring on the other hand that development efforts do not increase the vulnerability to hazards but instead consciously reduce such venerability. Disaster and risk management is therefore emerging as an important requisite for sustainable development. Nations need to be better prepared for natural and incorporate disaster risk management. The recent tsunamis have left Asian countries devastated with large losses recorded in the human population. Survivors battle to pick up the pieces and to restore normality despite many foreign countries pledging financial and medical assistance. Many families have lost their life belonging. Despite the future looking bleak for such survivors, there are many lessons to be learnt by the experiences of these people. Foremost in many a geoscientist's mind is the need for greater investigation into natural disasters such as earthquakes and tsunamis. There is also a need for disaster reductions strategies with the aim of enabling societies at risk to become engaged in the conscious management of risk and the reduction of vulnerability.

Strategies for risk reduction

Four overriding objectives have been identified as the guiding principles of International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (United Nations Documents Related to Disaster Reduction Volume 2 2002: 424)

These include:

- **Obtaining political commitment from public authorities**: This objective need to be addressed through increased inter-sectoral coordination at all levels, the adoption of risk management strategies and the allocation of appropriate resources, including the development of new funding mechanisms. Disaster reduction

should be dealt with as primary policy issue for which public authorities should assume responsibility and should be pursued as a cross cutting issue aimed at ensuring policy integration among various sectors and across topics such as agriculture, food security, health and education.

- **Increasing public awareness**: Increasing public awareness and participation to reduce vulnerability to hazards. This involves programmes related to formal and non-formal education and should be addressed through public information, education and multidisciplinary professional training. The media, schools and higher education systems, as well as the Red Cross and NGOs around the world have a crucial role to play.

- **Fostering better understanding and knowledge of the cause of disasters**: Better understanding and transfer of experiences by providing greater access to relevant data and information needs to be encouraged. The promotion of relevant scientific research, which takes into account both indigenous or traditional knowledge and the development and transfer of new knowledge and technologies are essential elements in modern day forecasting. Efforts to link natural resource management with disaster reduction should be encouraged.

- **Stimulating interdisciplinary and inter-sectoral partnerships**: The expansion of risk reduction networking amongst governments at national and local level, and greater involvement of the private

sector, academic institutions and NGOs and CBOs (community based organisations) must be encouraged. This will require effective coordination mechanisms, such as appropriate institutional arrangements for disaster management, preparedness, emergency response and early warning, as well as the incorporation of disaster reduction concerns in national planning processes.

Global, regional, national and local early warning systems and preparedness schemes need to be strengthened and made more effective. Improving communication flows is imperative. The objective of early warning is to provide individuals and communities exposed to disaster risk with accurate information about an impending hazard as early as possible, allowing them to act in a timely and appropriate manner to reduces the probability of suffering, personal injury, death and property losses. Increased sophistication in prediction technology, trained professionals and adequate finance are not effective if there remains poor communication amongst authorities and disaster managers. In the face of disaster this can lead to conflict, contradictions and confusion with bad decisions being taken. Early warning must be more than a technological instrument to detect, monitor and submit warning and alerts. It should also include identification of hazards, risk assessments and combined efforts required by all sectors to plan ahead and build people's capacity to respond rapidly and appropriately at the local level, and more specifically to identify increasing vulnerabilities in their communities. Early warning needs to become part of a management information system for decision-making in the context of national institutional frameworks for disaster management and as part of a national and local strategies and programmes for disaster risk reduction.

Conclusion

This chapter has looked at motivation as a driving force to bring about improvements in organisations. Stress, employee health and safety are other important aspects of HRM which are given due attention in this chapter. All organisations need to provide a safe and healthy workplace for their human resources. This chapter has examined the role of health and safety in organisations and the development of legislation. Job stress, alcoholism, and AIDS are health problems discussed in this chapter. Disaster and crisis management are also discussed with a possible plan of action to minimise casualties and injuries. In the next chapter I look at the organisation and professional development.

CHAPTER 8

THE ORGANISATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

This chapter considers teaching as a profession and the ways in which educators consider themselves to be professional educational managers. From the perspective of educational managers, professionalism is important since managing professionals within educational institutions raises complex issues such as those associated with professional autonomy and practices, which are not always easily resolved. This chapter explores the ways in which notions of educator professionalism are changing and the factors, particularly an increasing emphasis on management, which are contributing to these changes. Professionalism is an important concept for teachers since it shapes how we do our jobs; it also raises certain expectations on the part of the community and society in general about how we will behave and what kind of standards we are expected to meet.

Developments in recent years have led to changes in the manner in which educators do their jobs and the relationships that the profession has both within educational institutions and with the wider community. It further needs to be noted that the external conditions and pressures for change are having a considerable and continuing impact on the way an organisation managers its resources.

Human Resource Planning

Human resource planning (HRP) can be seen as an important aspect of human resource management. Guest 1989: 48 refers to HRP as an " approach to

the management of people in organisations". HRP involves the use of manpower modelling, simulations and statistical techniques in ensuring that an organisation is able to function in a harmonious, simulated manner.

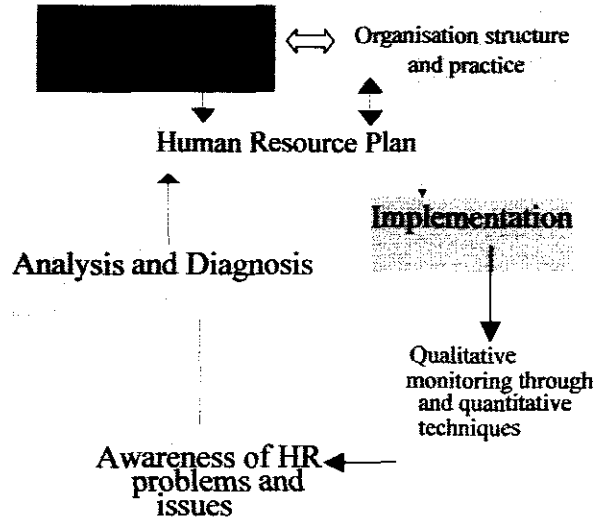

FIGURE 14 A MODEL OF A HUMAN RESOURCE PLAN

Needs and priorities

Researchers contend that needs identification and prioritisation are the foundation stones of an effective staff development programme. Needs identification is a process that should be handled sensitively and efficiently. It should be democratic and not imposed. It has to take into account the needs of individuals, groups, the whole school as well as those arising from national policies. Hargreaves et al 1989 contends that there is a need for schools to draw up a school development plan where priorities will require active support for teachers in the form of in-service training and professional development.

Principles for effective needs identification

It is important not to lose sight of the intimate link between staff development and school improvement. School improvement depends on a staff-development policy and programme that balances the needs of individual teachers and the management of the school. It is essential that the entire staff component be involved in the needs identification process. The more active the

participation and contributions of the staff, the more relevant the development in improving the overall strategy for professional and institutional reform. Needs identification must be followed by needs analysis from which emerge decisions about priorities for action. It is important that staff be made aware of an action plan to address aspects hi-lighted in the list of priorities.

Roles and responsibilities

Identifying needs is a shared task between those responsible for managing staff development in the school and those who will benefit from the staff – development programme that results. Once identified, needs and competencies can be used as a user-friendly starting point for the assessment and development of people in an organisation. The challenge for the person responsible for identifying needs in the school is to help individuals sort out where they currently are in relation to specified knowledge and skills and where they would like to be. The illustration below is a useful tool in identifying the needs of an individual.

	KNOW/CAN DO	DON'T KNOW/CAN 'T DO
KNOW	What I know I know/ Can do	What I know I Don't know/ Can't do
DON'T KNOW	What I don't know I know/ Can do	What I don't know That I don't know/ Can't do

FIGURE 15 USING THE JOHARI WINDOW TO IDENTIFY NEEDS

The responsibilities of the staff development manager is to draw together the information from the needs survey and structure this information into an overall profile for the school. The figure 16 below is useful in showing the different stages that need to be coordinated in order to arrive at a staff development programme that properly recognises the multiplicity of needs at all levels.

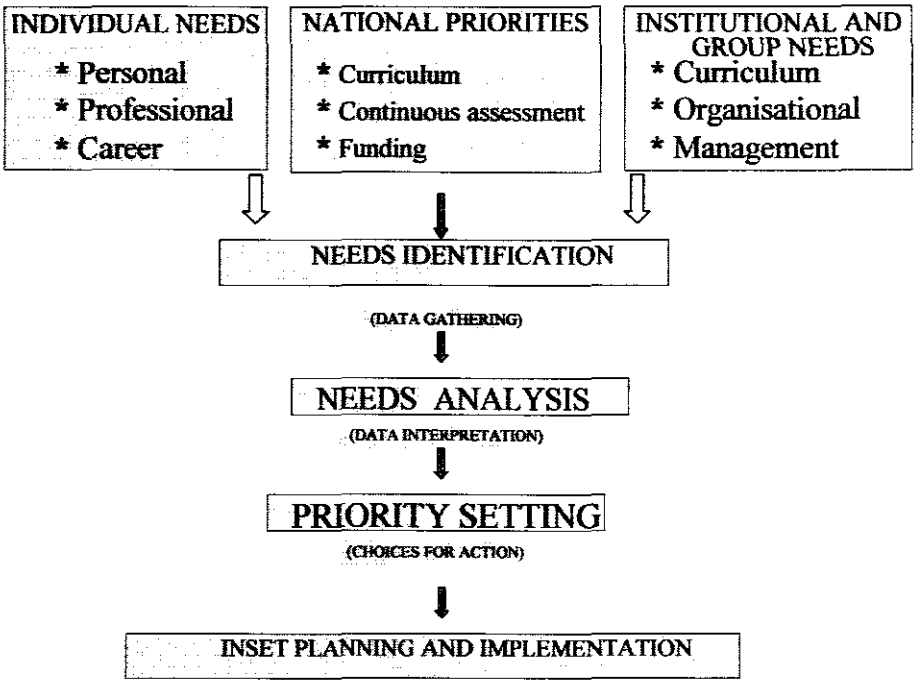

FIGURE 16 IDENTIFYING NEEDS -THE MANAGERS ROLE

To be effective, the process needs to be systematic, without losing its responsiveness to the context and the individuals that it is designed to serve. The coordinator's responsibility is to arrive at a balance between these competing claims.

Identifying individual needs

A starting point for helping educators identity their individual needs is some kind of self-rating form to aid in reflection. This self-rating form could take the format below with a few basic questions, which need to be answered honestly:

The self-rating form could be used in a formal or informal follow-up discussion with colleagues. The follow-up discussion can focus on the ways in which the needs identified might most appropriately be met.

Another valuable tool that could assists in needs identification is the appraisal process. In this instance appraisal needs to follow a development model. Developmental targets will need to be agreed in the context of the school's development plan and organisational goals, as well as in the light of available resources.

A self-rating checklist

1. List in order the key activities you perform in the school.
2. Which aspect of your work gives you the most difficulty?
3. What development and training activities would help you deal with these difficulties?
4. Outline a specific proposal to meet your development needs, indicating your objectives, preferred methods of learning and resources required.

FIGURE 17 SELF RATING FORM

The dissemination of an appropriately prepared questionnaire can also assist in the needs identification process. Individual educators fill in their priority needs, the results will be collated and a development plan put in place.

Identifying group or team needs

Schools contain a variety of committees/groups or teams in which a more detailed review of needs as well as in service training activities can be conducted. These teams could include:

- Senior staff team,
- Management team,
- Faculty/Department team,
- Interdisciplinary team and
- New staff induction team

At its simplest form, a group needs identification process can be a structured group discussion based on the following questions:

- What are our strengths?
- What are current weaknesses?
- What priorities arise from these needs?
- What type of programme can we implement to address these needs?
- How would we implement and evaluate such activities?

Other ways of structuring this kind of group discussion might be the use of "quality circles" or brainstorming sessions. In the "quality circle" approach a group of educators sharing common knowledge meet to work out a groups needs. Williams and England (1986) state that the "quality circle" approach has three essential prerequisites for its success:

- An established group of educators talking openly to one another about their teaching difficulties and problems,
- An experienced and sympathetic facilitator who is sensitive to educational changes and who is in a position to identify those educators who would be most likely to benefit from membership of a "quality circle".
- A link person who can contact potential service providers to assist educators in meeting their needs.

Brainstorming is yet another useful and effective method of identifying the needs of groups. A flipchart can be used for this purpose. Members of the group suggest as many needs as they can and this is recorded on the flipchart. Members

review the list and where possible needs may be grouped. Some of the listed items may be eliminated through discussion or possible overlap. The group could then go through the list to rate the needs as important or unimportant. Each member of the group must be allowed to vote accordingly for the listed needs. The needs with the highest votes then become the basis for planning.

Identifying whole school needs

There is a need for the matching of needs of individual educators with that of the school to ensure professional development. In service training programmes can then be implemented fairly among staff over time and skills and knowledge acquired disseminated throughout the school. This will ensure that all parties are actively involved in the knowledge construction process.

Analysing needs and establishing priorities

Once the needs have been identified the information collected has to be analysed so that development priorities can be planned. A quantitative or qualitative method could be used. There is a range of sources from which criteria for analysing and prioritising needs can be derived. These include the following:

- School staff development policy
- School curriculum development plan
- School organisation development plan
- School budget plan
- School resource plan.

It is important that the criteria for analysing and establishing priorities have been agreed and made public to the school governing body so that staff feel that

the resulting development programme is a fair reflection of their expressed needs. It is at this stage that development managers are faced with a real challenge in achieving a balance between group and institutional priorities. Such decisions need to be transparent with consultation between staff and governing body on how allocated money should be spent.

APPRAISAL

Appraisal is the technique being employed at schools in an effort to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. Recent developments in the education sector now see developmental appraisal linked to pay progression as well as grade progression. Further arguments in this regard are dealt with at a later stage within the chapter.

Staff appraisal

Staff appraisal is the term used for the process by which an employee and his/her subordinates meet to discuss the work performance of an employee. The introduction of the appraisal systems in schools has been subject to controversy between staff and unions as well as the education department. There has been much concern raised as regards the time-consuming nature of appraisal. Critics view appraisal as adding to the bureaucratic structure in schools. Any appraisal system that is considered to be successful should help to motivate the individual because it highlights the importance of that individual. This should be seen as a means by which the employee is encouraged to evaluate his/her own performance, considering strengths and weaknesses, and be able to look at priorities for the future with self-development in mind.

New measures introduced after lengthy consultation and debate has led to a refined appraisal system for South African schools, which are to be viewed as a developmental process aimed at looking forwards and not backwards. The appraisal system is a way of identifying opportunities for professional development and of giving feedback to staff so that they are aware of strengths and weaknesses in facilitating their role function. It is a two-way process, which involves an obligation from both the manager and the managed. School leaders should not be reluctant to introduce appraisal and should be prepared to tackle the reasons why teachers are opposed to it and to persuade them that it is in their interests to introduce and be part of the appraisal process.

Appraisal systems have been found to work well where the primary purpose is to improve future performance through opportunities for staff development. Appraisal can result in increased trust and improved relations between the managers and the managed. It can open up opportunities to staff, which will improve career prospects, and when used positively it can ensure better future performance.

The nature of appraisal

In designing a particular appraisal system it is important to be quite clear about the extent to which it is intended to be evaluative and the extent to which it should lead to individual development. It may be useful

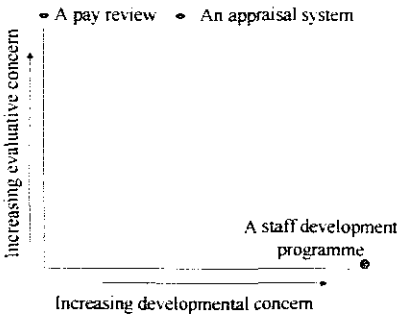

FIGURE 18 DISPLAY OF EVALUATIVE AND DEVELOPMENTAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF APPRAISAL

conceptually to try to mark the position of a particular system on a display, which has evaluation and development as axes as depicted in the figure 18 above.

An appraisal system could be placed anywhere between the axes depending on its particular balance between evaluation and development.

Appraisal is one of a number of techniques designed to promote the integration of the individual into the organisation. Each individual come into the organisation with a unique set of needs and objectives, preferences for ways of performing and expectations of a wide range of personal satisfactions.

Organisational climate and appraisal

Organisational climate is a concept that refers to the different cultures or qualities possessed by organisations regardless of whether the structure is hierarchical and bureaucratic or informal and dynamic, or whether risk-taking and the use of individual initiative is encouraged or look at with distaste. Beare et 1989 states that every school has

"...a particular culture, determined by the individual values and experiences which each person brings to it, the ways in which people act and interact and the footprints they leave behind them".

It must be noted that appraisal needs to benefit the individual as well as the organisation as a whole. Development programmes must be organisation specific in that it needs to cater for the development of the individual as well as the organisation.

The potentialities of appraisal

Of all the activities in the human resource cycle, performance appraisal is arguably the most contentious and least popular among those who are involved. Barlow 1989: 499 contends that despite the poor record of appraisal within organisations, it is an accepted part of management orthodoxy that there should be some means by which performance can be measured, monitored and controlled. Appraisal thus acts as an information-processing system by which progress towards objectives can be monitored and errors spotted, including the identification of underachievers whose weaknesses can be corrected efficiently and rationally. For some time appraisal systems have served to prove that the performance of employees is under the control of the employer, with the task being delegated to the management team.

There are a variety of declared purposes for appraisal and the most usual rationalisation and justification for appraisal is to improve individual performance. Long 1986: 170 highlights the following as reasons for appraisal being conducted:

- To assess training and development needs,
- To help improve current performance,
- To review past performance,
- To assess future promotability/potential,
- To assist in career planning,
- To set performance objectives,

- To assess increases or new levels in salaries and

- To update personnel records.

Riches *et al* 1999: 153 states that a well run appraisal system will benefit individual members of staff by:

- Giving them a greater sense of purpose through the provision of clear objectives,

- Encouraging self-development and personnel initiative,

- Enhancing their self-esteem and self confidence,

- Reducing alienation and resentment, by providing the opportunity for free discussion,

- Providing opportunity for the dissemination of career advice.

Riches *et al* 1999: 153 states that appraisal benefits the organisation in the following ways:

- Appraisal enhances the communication of organisational aims to all staff and facilitates the coordination of effort,

- It allows for the channelling of individual effort into organisational goals,

- It effectively provides an opportunity to initiate problem-solving and counselling interviews,

- Appraisal gives managers greater control through the setting of objectives within a school development plan.

Ouchi 1979: 843 states that the performance of a work task can be presented as a relationship between means and ends. The means takes the form of the attributes, skills, knowledge and attitudes of an individual employee, which are applied to a task in a specific situation. The ends are the outcomes, taking the form of results achieved, which may be measurable quantitatively, and qualitatively against an explicit or implicit standard or target.

Models of staff appraisal

There are four ideal types of appraisal interviews. It is however unlikely that any appraisal process would wholeheartedly and exclusively have the characteristics shown for any single type. The figure 19 below reveals the four ideal types of appraisal interviews. It must be noted that all four have clear strengths and weaknesses.

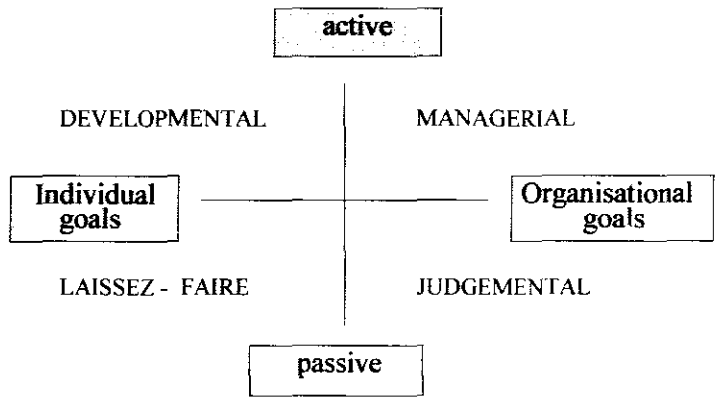

FIGURE 19 TYPES OF APPRAISAL INTERVIEWS

Figure 19, to the left shows the salient features of the four appraisal interview systems. Despite the many critical viewpoints on the appraisal system it must be noted that many educators have accepted appraisal as a staff development tool, recognising that any increase in personal skills and self-understanding leads to the

improvement of the effectiveness of the institution as a place of learning. It must also be noted that appraisal has now been attached to the pay progression process that is currently being employed by the Department of Education and Culture.

Figure 20 below provides the main aims and characteristics of each of the four types of appraisal interviews.

DEVELOPMENTAL	MANAGERIAL
Assumes professional, collegial and collective authority to lie within the profession	Assumes right to manage: hierarchical position confirms authority
Has as its main concern truth, accuracy, the maintenance of moral, ethical and professional values	Is concerned with doing and achieving, with efficiency and effectiveness
Works through peer appraisal of colleagues	Appraises through line management
Has a bipartite approach towards enabling self-improvement	Makes strong use of incentives and praise and reproach from superior
Seeks to produce agreed Programme with shared responsibility for the achievement of objectives	Sets targets to maximize organizational objectives
Is concerned with the longer term, professional development	Is concerned with shorter-term assessment of performance
LAISSEZ-FAIRE	**JUDGEMENTAL**
Recognizes the importance of self development	Uses appraisal to maintain social control
Allows managerial abdication from responsibility	Assumes managerial authority to make judgements
Encourages subordinates to raise issues	Collects data for the assessment of the subordinate
Demonstrates a lack of focus, direction and purpose	Rates individuals against one another
Has a belief in the importance of self-motivation	Assumes the necessity of extrinsic motivation
Allows appraisee to decide on the need for follow up	Uses system for merit rating and performance related pay

FIGURE 20 KEY FEATURES OF THE FOUR BASIC APPRAISAL INTERVIEW TYPES

Staff selection

Education departments have recently played a key role in bringing organisation practices relating to staff selection and recruitment in line with the provisions of the law. If human resource management is concerned with the development of an integrated package of policies towards the management of people the potential of those people, recruitment and selection represent vital stages in the determination of which employees will benefit from such policies. Watson 1989: 125 refers to recruitment and selection as,

"...the process by which organisations solicit, contact and engender interest in potential new appointees to vacant positions in the organisation, and then in some way establish their suitability for appointment".

There is need for a rigorous and properly conducted staff selection and promotion schedule to be created in order to ensure transparency and fairness in the employment process. The major criteria, however, is to recruit and retain the best quality staff possible. To be realistic, it has to be accepted that for social and economic reasons, some schools will find it difficult to attract the best qualified staff but this should not inhibit the school leader from making every effort to recruit the best persons.

Educator selection and promotion needs to be carried out in a sophisticated and painstaking way if staff quality is to be maintained. One factor, which has to be taken into account of in selection, is the way in which jobs are changing in terms of the competence required. Much concern has been expressed at all levels in education as regards the number of grievances and disputes that are constantly recorded during the selection of personnel. Disputes have on occasion gone on for months without having being amicably resolved only to have the posts re-advertised.

Another factor that must be considered in selection/promotion is that staff will be mobile – moving on to other jobs that demand different competence. An obvious example is the class teacher moving into a management post – something that makes some methods of assessing management potential desirable before a change is made. It is for changing job demands such as this that sophisticated selection techniques need to be evolved and instituted. In setting up processes for selection, the school leader will need to take into account

the increased power and new constitution of governing bodies. Most school governing bodies have a sub-committee or interview committee to deal with the selection and recruitment of staff. The school leader has the task of orchestrating the diverse elements and agreeing with them on a clear system for the selection and promotion of staff. Above all the school leader must ensure that the system incorporates a thorough technical assessment, which ensures that those appointed to posts are of the highest possible quality.

Often personnel are placed in 'acting' positions when vacancies do arise. There is a huge outcry by such individuals when such posts are advertised and filled by outside personnel or even by other individuals from the same institution. Such 'acting' positions create false hope within the individual. It must be noted that being placed in an 'acting' position does in no way mean that an individual 'acting' in such a post has a right to the post once advertised. The truth of the matter is that having 'acted' in a post does not entitled the 'acting' person to even be short-listed when the post is advertised. 'Acting' positions often means being at the right place at the right time. Personnel at school level need to understand that 'acting' positions, are very often, filled by personnel within the organisation, which is limited in its scope. Once vacancies are declared and advertised all employees become eligible to apply provided the minimum criteria as laid down by the department are met. Advertising vacancy posts add a degree of transparency to the process, which gives all possible candidates an 'equal' opportunity to compete for the post available. As much as the task of employing personnel at school level lies in the hands of an elected School Governing Body, provision is made for union representation to ensure that transparency and fairness exist and that no individual is prejudiced. It is thus necessary to ensure

that all vacant positions are filled speedily by employing sound criteria that ensures the best person for the job is employed.

Rewarding quality performance

Reward or compensation management is a key element in any discussion of the concept of human resource management. Bratton 1994: 192 refers to rewards as all forms of financial returns and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship. The current economic situation prevalent in South Africa, together with inflation and rising consumer costs have resulted in more and more employees competing for rewards in a fiscal sense.

The arguments for and against rewarding quality performers in schools are intensifying. Would it be helpful to a school leader to be able to step outside the traditional incremental approach to teacher's pay and to reward them on performance? Should school leaders be rewarded on performance? Differential pay is a reality in many countries – the United Kingdom, America... The question of what motivates employees to perform effectively is a difficult one to answer. Among practising principles is a widespread conviction that salaries motivate workers. Psychological theory and research suggest that the link between individual behaviour and performance is a more complex process.

One of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation is Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory. This approach to worker motivation argues that managers must have understanding of their subordinates' goals and the linkage between effort and performance, between performance and rewards and between the rewards and the individual goal satisfaction.

Education in South Africa has a broad banding system with varying salary scales for educators, and other management staff. Salaries are not related to qualifications, hence an indifferent attitude and a general sense of apathy by many educators to pursue further education studies. The only reward received by educators on improvement of their qualifications is a minimal once off payment. Many educators content that they are not prepared to, spend large amounts of money as fees to tertiary institutes, spend long hours studying, which brings no enhancement to their basic salaries. Educators have often contended that 'what is the use of further study when an educator with an M+4 qualification earns the same as an educator with an M+6 qualification'. Many educators that I interviewed have also indicated that the 'once of payments' that are made on completion of a diploma or degree is so minimal that it does not even cover the costs involved in registration for such courses.

Educators further contend that there is no motivation and incentive to study further when you invest money in education and there are no financial rewards after completion of study courses. The poor salary conditions of educators in the South African context is only one of the factors which has contributed to the mass exodus of highly qualified educators leaving the profession and emigrating to overseas countries where the financial benefits are much more enticing. Awareness of pay discrepancies between colleagues on the same level has led to dissatisfaction and bitterness among employees. Provincial and national government need to look at this area objectively in order to reduce the number of public servants leaving the profession. It is often argued by educators that individuals with a single diploma/degree in the private sector earn more than an educator with double and triple diploma/degrees. Such

discrepancies if not addressed soon could result in the crippling of the education work force as more and more educators opt to join private companies were the incentives and potential of earning larger salaries is forthcoming.

The proposed pay progression increases that have been introduced in the South African context have also met with mixed reactions. Pay differential between different employees represents a major potential source of contention in the workplace. The pay progression system is linked to performance (integrated quality management systems) and appraisal. The arguments for paying for performance are that the pay progression system is unfair in that poor performers are frequently in the same pay band as outstanding performers and that an incentive system is essential if quality is to be engendered, rather than mediocrity. Kanter 1989: 232 says that there is a strong belief that performance reward not only is fairer, but also encourages higher levels of productivity, as people learn that they will get back more if they put more in. The proposed reward system based on contributions can result in staff lower down the system earning more than some of the managers. It would be detrimental however if appraisal systems were to be commanded for use in performance-related pay schemes rather than remain with their primary development function. Poorly designed pay structures give rise to underpayment, overpayment and a perceived degree of inequality in the workplace. It is important that the employer ensure that employees are paid for services in a fair and consistent manner.

There is a need for a more objective method of rewarding educators and the most tangible evidence of such, is development of educator knowledge via further study, education and training. Improved educational qualifications need to be related to salary scales. If this were the scenario educators would willingly

invest in education as they would recognise the fact that their efforts would be compensated for on completion of courses and invariably further knowledge would only mean a better quality of educator in the classroom, hence an improved education system. National government needs to recognise the need for a more objective means of rewarding educators, if it is to prevent educators leaving the profession and the country. An evaluation of an educator's qualification sets a degree of objectivity in place and there is growing need for this aspect to be recognised in the South African educational setting. Job ranking (principal, deputy principal...) and grading (level 1, level 2...) are also objective areas that can be explored to ensure that employees are compensated fairly. The salaries of educators need to be drastically improved if it is to attract highly qualified personnel to the profession and discourage the mass exodus of educators to foreign countries.

Pay and performance

Many educationists have questioned whether reward systems can be designed to affect performance. Many of the answers to this question come from theories of motivation and empirical research evaluating strategies to motivate employees. The "needs" theories of motivation emphasise what motivates people, rather than how people are motivated. The two most well known needs theories include Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1966). Maslow argues that higher-order needs become progressively more important as lower-order needs are satisfied. Herberg demonstrated that pay takes on significance as a source of satisfaction when it is perceived as a form of recognition or reward. Monetary variables are a key component in the more recent "process" theories of

motivation. It needs to be noted that Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory grants a prominent role to rewards.

Empirical evidence testifies that job evaluation contains subjective elements. It is with this in mind that government fiscal and monetary policies need to embed the concept of rewards on an objective line so that quality education and increased productivity is the order of the day. The Department of Education has introduced the concept of an Integrated Quality Management System in the form of a Collective Agreement number 8 of 2003. This system integrates the Developmental Appraisal System, the Performance Management System and Whole School Evaluation. This system is envisaged to bring about a degree of transparency in the evaluation process and to avoid duplication and repetition of work. The underlying value of the integrated quality management system is developmental and the system is meant for implementation without bias and subjectivity.

Professional development portfolios

Hall 1999: 171 defines a professional development portfolio as a collection of material; made by a professional, that records, and reflects on, key events and processes in that professional's career. The main characteristic of a professional development portfolio that distinguishes itself from a professional diary or record of achievement is the stress it places on reflection. Reflective writing can make it possible for a portfolio to attract accreditation. The following are some of the main reason reasons for the assembly of a professional development portfolio:

- To assemble a career record,
- To assist in the application for promotion or new job,

- To reflect on the past,
- To be challenged academically,
- To formalise key experiences,
- To celebrate achievements,
- To help in future planning,
- To assist in the acquisition of new skills,
- To gain recognition,
- To be able to judge value and effectiveness and
- To be able to use the experience to help and encourage others.

A well-organised portfolio system can put both educators and their employer in a position where each has a realistic, well-informed view of the relationship between the individual and their institution. Educators will remain when they are supported and a portfolio system can be a very effective way of making educators feel supported. The portfolio could also become a rational way of appraisal. It could also pave the way for a more rational system for selection, promotion and staff development.

Conclusion

This has been a wide-ranging chapter stressing the importance of quality in education. Quality Management techniques need to be implemented to ensure a continuous improvement through an obsession for with quality and a measurement of quality through performance indicators. I also examined aspects

of appraisal, which forms a vital link between performance and the processes of rewards and development. Appraisal can be viewed as a process to bridge the gap between an organisation and individuals, which allows a flow of information between managers and employees. The flow of information has to be two-way. If an organisation fails to use appraisal to identify the aspirations and potential of employees, it may occur that such individuals may seek fulfilment elsewhere. It is incumbent that educational managers create a learning and developing culture if employees are to accept appraisal as a means of tying satisfaction of their needs and their development to the objectives of the organisation. In the next chapter I examine how human resources can be managed with particular reference to management and leadership styles.

CHAPTER 9

MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES

Introduction

Major reforms in all levels of education are now taking place in South Africa, as in most of the Western industrialised countries. Studies of leadership are myriad but it has been stated frequently that leadership remains the most studied and least understood topic in the field of management. It is contended that traditional views of leadership having nothing more to offer in terms of insights and understandings of leadership (Watkins 1989). One of the major criticisms of existing theories is that they are in the functionalist mode and assume automatically the power of the leader and top down control of the leader over subordinates. These approaches 'take for granted' the one directional flow from the leader to the led and do not seriously question the morality of power and the relationships involved between subordinates and leaders (Watkins 1989).

The need for leaders

Society needs leaders in all walks of life who are prepared to take decisions on behalf of others. There has been renewed and vigorous interest in leaders and the centrality of the leader to the success of organisations, which have been the theme of recent studies. Research has shown that ailing companies that needed turning around were rescued by effective leaders who brought about change by transforming the climate, vision and the direction of the company. (Grinyer et al 1988)

Peters and Austin (1985) equivocally agree that the single most important factor in the success of a school lies in the quality of leadership. It is however one

thing to accept the centrality of the influence of the leader but it is quite another to accept the leader as all-powerful and all knowing. The reason for concentrating on the people at the top of schools is to stress the reorientation required in these posts to meet new challenges.

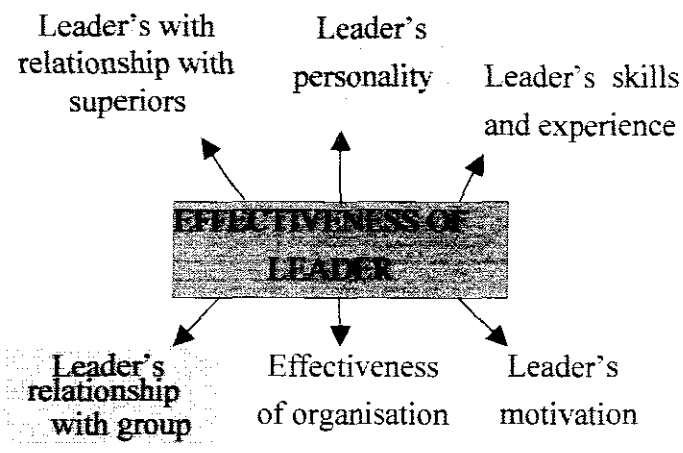

FIGURE 21 EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADER

Figure 21 alongside reveals some of the qualities that effective leaders possess. Another important personality trait that leaders need to possess is charisma. Charisma is defined in the Concise Oxford Dictionary as: '...divinely conferred power or talent, capacity to inspire followers with devotion and enthusiasm'. Research by Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol reveal the following as the most common leadership traits in successful leaders:

- Initiative,
- The ability to be decisive,
- Self-assurance and conviction,
- Intelligence,
- The ability to articulate / oral communication skills,
- Drive and determination,

- Insight and perception,
- The ability to co-operate with others / social skills,
- The ability to get things done.

THEORIES ON LEADERSHIP

Leading human resources is not merely a matter of conscious choice. Leaders in the educational setting are subject to many conditions, which may limit choice and options. These conditions include inter alia:

- The environment and the community,
- Political matters,
- The institutes vision and mission,
- Attitude and values of the parent community,
- Changing policies and demands,
- Normal managerial constraints

Under these circumstances leadership in educational institutions require the capacity to adapt easily to rapidly changing situations, teamwork, temporary deployment structures, personnel mobility and participative decision-making. Systemic national and education policy documents, such as the National Constitution 108 of 1996, the South Africans Schools Act 84 of 1996, the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996, mandate schools to engage in evaluation and restructuring programmes for Whole School Development so as to comply with the national educational goals of enhancing the effectiveness and

efficiency of school. Implicit in these mandates is the transition of schools from the traditional mechanical organisation to organic organisation.

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is an attempt to explain how leaders develop and enhance the commitment of followers. It is a fact that much of a leaders activity are transactional in that they involve necessary activities in getting activities and work done through people and the systems within the organisation. For schools to operate in accordance with the quality themes of democracy, effectiveness and efficiency, the traditional approach to school management, which perpetuates the principles espoused by asymmetrical relations distinctive of mechanical organisations, is to be deconstructed so that renewal in accordance with policy mandates is manifested in schools.

According to Jenkins 1991: 18 transformational leadership builds on people's need for meaning and for the purpose in organisational life, and involves leaders and followers engaging in such a way as to lift one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. This type of leadership elevates, energises and inspires followers in such a way that new views of leaders are created. While transactional leadership is about responsibility and loyalty and the consideration of others, transforming leaders are engaged in a moral enterprise to raise the level of human contact and the ethical aspirations of both the leader and the led. Transformational leadership addresses the basic purpose of the organisation by giving other people in the organisation a vision that transforms the existing situation, and which is concerned with high-level values such as freedom and equity. Bennis and Nanus 1985: 218 write that the leaders has the ability to reach the soul of others in a fashion which raises 'followers to higher degrees of

consciousness such as liberty, freedom, injustice and self actualisation'. In this sense leaders are culture builders, creating the shared values and beliefs, which develop the organisational framework within, which structures are built and people behave. (Duignan 1988)

Anderson 1992: 51 states that the transformational leader has the following characteristics.

- They are committed to long-term efforts and service relationships,
- They are able to use personal and positional power to make positive changes and influence others,
- They initiate innovative ideas in dealing with matters and encourage others to do the same,
- They are committed to positive relationships with others for the sake of their development, and the development of the organisation as a whole,
- They stress the effectiveness philosophy of doing the right things for people and the organisation,
- They feely articulate philosophies, beliefs and values,
- They make contact with people at all levels,
- They are generally very receptive, expressive, supportive and warm,
- They freely give attention and recognition to others' strengths and
- Articulate vision, goals and plans.

From the characteristics above, it is apparent that this type of leadership will serve all parties well during times of turbulence in an organisation. It is clearly a practical and hands on approach to employee motivation and human resource management.

According to Anderson 1992: 71, the process transformational leadership involves:

- Creating and communicating vision and purpose,
- Strategic, versatile thinking and planning,
- Facilitating peer, subordinate and team development,
- Facilitating organisational development,
- Seeking and communicating consensus among groups,
- Specifying philosophy, values and creating culture and
- Creating insight.

It is important that principals lead by example and motivate personnel through vision, inspiration, enthusiasm and celebration of successes. Principals need to be the catalyst that ensure that the process of change are fully understood and implemented in line with laid out regulations and policies, which are in accordance with labour law.

Leaders as reflective practitioners

According to Hodgkinson 1983: 112 leaders are philosophers in action who have to ask, and seek answers to questions about themselves and their activities. It is noted that leaders who are rigid in their thinking often reveal a high degree

of resistance to change. They often base their reasoning on traditions, which is often rigorous, and limiting. New leaders need to be dynamic in their approach, which needs to show a philosophy in action with two aspects. First of all leaders must come to terms with and be able to understand and to articulate their own beliefs and values. When they are clear about where they stand on key issues, leaders can begin to engage in meaningful interaction with others. The second aspect is that leaders must constantly be reflecting on their practice, constantly interpreting and reinterpreting it to test their theories of action. Only by this continuing reflection on practice can 'leaders build their theories in action to guide their new practice' (Duignan 1988). Such leaders must be decisive and be willing to take responsibility for their decisions and actions.

The dialectic view of leadership

This view of leadership focuses on the ongoing and unfolding process between the individuals in the organisation as they attempt to resolve difficulties, conflicts and contradictions through dialogue. The view according to Watkins 1989: 28 incorporates the idea of human agency in which human beings are active and knowledgeable, creating a 'flowing dialect of transformative human action' when 'leaders become followers and followers become leaders in the ebb and flow of organisational interaction'. This perspective assumes that leadership does not rest with one individual but results from continuous negotiations and interaction occurring within the organisation. From this viewpoint the leader cannot be seen as all controlling, and all dominating, but is a facilitator who is concerned with fostering collegial and democratic decision making within which

'...all the members of the organisation have the capacity and an opportunity to be leaders, and where there is a common concern for empowerment and the betterment of the human condition.' (Watkins 1989: 33).

The post-heroic leader

The concept of leader as hero has been a dominant model for some time, but is now considered inadequate to deal with the sophistication and complexity of modern organisations. The heroic leader is the one who knows, sees and controls everything. Single-handed, these leaders have turned around organisations from failure to success and have become heroes in their lifetime. The characteristics of the heroic leaders have been defined as knowing at all times what is going on, having more knowledge and expertise than any subordinate, solving any problem and being primarily responsible for how things work (Bradford and Cohen 1984). The outcomes of this sort of behaviour do not match expectations. This type of heroic leadership leads to communication blockages, slow responsiveness to change, hierarchical decision-making, rigid procedures and poor quality decisions. It undervalues and underestimates the abilities and problem-solving of subordinates and is self defeating as more and more is expected from the leader and less and less from the increasingly disenchanted workers. This type of leader is the manager as developer who has in mind the development and inspiration of subordinates, and who will go beyond participation in sharing problems and power with teams. These leaders are powerful but not over-dominating, centrally involved but not central to everything that goes on. Contemporary organisations have to be run by gaining the commitment and consent of the staff. Handy 989: 132 contends that new

types of organisations emerging to cope with new tasks do not work if everything is left to one person. 'Everyone has to be capable or nothing happens.'

The motivating leader

Motivating teachers at any time is a difficult task. Motivating them at a time of increasing job stress and problems in morale seems a superhuman task. All the prescriptions are in a sense totally about ideas, which can help, improve teacher morale, and which can act as motivating influences. However, motivation to work is a specific and continually developing area of study and school leaders need to pay attention both to ideas and theories about motivation and to what appears to be successful practice in the field, if they are going to be successful motivators. A key part of modifying behaviour is positive reinforcement for positive reinforcement shapes behaviour and enhances self-image. Lasting motivation is brought about by leaders fostering conditions within the organisation that build up intrinsic motivation, for people must feel that the task is worth while if they are to be committed to it (Deci 1975). The key points for school leaders to note in motivating staff can be summarised as follows:

- People do have high order needs, which must be satisfied.
- People need constant reinforcement. They need positive feedback – particularly praise, social recognition and visibility.
- Jobs need to be designed to be intrinsically motivating.
- Working in groups and teams can itself be motivating and an exciting experience.

- Motivation is usually involved with the need for staff to contribute to the direction of the organisation and to relate to its vision.

The modern school manager needs to be highly knowledgeable about learning theories and how pupils learn. He/She needs to enunciate a clear and coherent rationale for the curriculum within his/her school. School leaders need to be both effective managers and highly developed professionals. Motivation to work is enhanced by goal setting. For the achievement of an agreed upon goal by a group of people they have to co-operate. It can be accepted that employees will work productively if their morale and *esprit de corps* is high.

Participative management

Participative management means involving subordinates in decision-making. It is the nature of educational organisations in a democratic setting to motivate the organisation, citizens and employees towards common goals, vision and mission. Higher quality decisions are made by actively involving employees in decision-making. The level of involvement will depend on the nature of the task being explored. Research into participative management concludes that group participation in decision-making improves group performance, employee satisfaction and group morale. Participation also eases the acceptance of change. Participative management enable organisations to make informed and balanced decisions through the input and considerations of a collective forum.

There are various types of participation. These include:

- **Individual participation** – usually takes place informally and could include the manager obtaining information from the subordinate about work related matters. Under conditions of

mutual respect and trust this type of participation is useful. Complex issues may require specialised structured inputs.

- **Committees** – are quite common in the school situation. Committee work also provides valuable training and self-development opportunities for members.

- **Quality circles** – originated in Japan, this comprises groups of volunteers working on a common problem. The group analyses the problem in depth, devise possible solutions and recommend courses of action to management.

- **Suggestion plans** – Such systems allow for educators to submit ideas for improvement. Submissions are usually written and the practicality looked at by management.

It is important to note that other participative mechanisms may evolve out of those outlined above. It is essential that schools be creative in their approach to participative management. They could explore and design their own participatory approach.

IMPROVING PERFORMANCE IN THE WORKPLACE

The human resource manager needs to strive towards viewing the employee in his or her total environment and then to seek feasible ways and means of motivating and inspiring the workforce to work at their peak. This cannot be merely achieved through mechanistic techniques such as stopwatch monitoring of employees. All aspects appertaining to the employee should be weighed up carefully so that the optimal conditions can be created to improve the educator performance in line with integrated quality management principles.

Performance improvement in the education sector

Measuring productivity in the education sector is not an easy task because various qualitative aspects have to be considered, in addition to the output of results achieved by learners, which are often quantified by a rating scale. These qualitative aspects could be rather complex and even intangible, in the light of the general welfare of a community and other relevant factor, which could affect rating negatively.

All services provided by the schools should be aimed at improving the general well being of all the inhabitants of a country. By contrast, the private sector generally caters for individual and/or segmental interests and not for collective needs of society. To monitor development and growth of schools and educators, the Department of Education (DoE) has introduced processes such as Whole School Evaluation and Developmental Appraisal Systems. To date the DoE and educator unions have jointly developed an integrated approach to lesson observation of educators in practice as required by whole school evaluation and developmental appraisal. The introduction of the integrated quality management system in the form of an ELRC Collective Agreement number 8 of 2003 is also a mechanism aimed at development of human resources.

Whole school evaluation

The main aim of Whole School Evaluation (WSE) is to facilitate the improvement of school performance through approaches characterised by partnership, collaboration, mentoring and guidance. It is a transparent system, which provides for the evaluation of a school by internal and external supervisors to ascertain the school's performance in relation to national goals and expectations. The South African Schools Act 1996: 14-16 provides School

Governing Bodies with legitimate powers to work together with education institutions to address the many challenges schools are confronted with. The challenges presented to schools as outlined in the Quality Assurance Directorate: 2001: 8-12 are in the form of nine critical categories for whole school development, which are:

- ***Basic functionality of the school:*** Schools are challenged to enhance the basic conditions necessary to function efficiently and effectively to realise their educational and social goal.

- ***Leadership, management and communication:*** Schools are to evolve effectiveness in leadership and management of the school at various levels in the management structures.

- ***Governance and relationships:*** Governing bodies are to develop efficiency in providing the school with clear strategic direction in line with the South African Schools Act (1996), the National Education Policy Act (25 of 1996) and other related legislation.

- ***Quality of teaching and learning and educator development:*** Schools are required to establish ways of improving the quality of teaching by designing qualitative in-service professional development programmes.

- ***Curriculum provision and resources:*** The development of sound curriculum programmes that match the needs of learners, which are in line with national and local requirements.

- ***Learner achievements:*** The enhancement of learners' knowledge, skills, attitudes and values so to improve the overall performance in communication skills, problem solving skills and the ability to work in groups and to make responsible decisions.

- ***School safety and security and discipline:*** The development and implementation of policies, which protect the rights of learners, the creation of a secure and safe environment for all learners, effective disciplinary procedures.

- ***School infrastructure:*** The repair and improvement of infrastructure and the effective and efficient use thereof.

- ***Parents and the community:*** The development of effective links between the school and the community and the enhancement of programmes for involvement of parents in the education of the learners.

With the above in mind it is clear that schools have a complex task of restructuring to meet the mandated requirements of the Department of National Education.

Developmental appraisal system

The Developmental Appraisal System (DAS) is an important aspect of educator development. DAS outlines processes and structures that need to be in place in order to identify the professional needs of educators to develop relevant programmes that will enhance professional competence and growth, and hence the quality of teaching.

Factors causing a decline in education sector performance

A number of problem areas have been identified in respect of productivity and performance improvement. A brief exposition is subsequently given of factors, which could cause a decline in performance. The integrated quality management system is one mechanism that has been put in place by the Department of Education in an effort to providing quality education at schools. The factors noted below deserve critical review in an effort to improve the organisational setting of educators so that quality education is the order of the day.

Internal organisational factors

These relate to internal government or organisational structures, financial practices, policies and/or constraints, political and managerial leadership style, the effect of unions on the employee and the employer, the increased use of technology, and other sorts of analytical and managerial tools.

External organisation factors

These are for example intergovernmental relations, judicial systems, citizen involvement, private and vested interests, the media and other exogenous elements as well as community viewpoints.

Incorrect utilisation of human resources

It is contended that personnel utilization is a further factor, which influences potential quality output. Humphry and Halse 1986: 19-20 state that utilization entails the human resources element of productivity improvement. It is expanded by the concept of idle and active time, or unproductive and productive time, which could be influenced by for instance allowing or electing the right person for the job. A person who has little knowledge about a task will waste

valuable time by trying to do the task by trail and error or by constantly trying to seek advice from more skilled personnel.

Human Resources

The role of the Human Resource Manager has changed. They now have a huge responsibility of meeting labour legislation, employment equity and dealing with the educator productivity. It must be noted that human resources could be unproductive because of the employers themselves and/or an ineffective managerial style. The time lost by employees could be due to absenteeism, tardiness, exceeding rest periods previously agreed upon, and unnecessary work stoppage. The time lost by managerial inefficiencies could be due to poor work planning and "cramming", inadequate facilities (e.g. Not utilizing equipment fully or not allocating space properly), lack of information or having to search for information, delays in material supply, poor working conditions, and unnecessary down time. Performance and managerial style could have a positive or negative effect on one another.

Holistic approach to performance improvement

Macro-environmental aspects

Macro-environmental constraints are usually found to have an impact on the overall functioning of the institution. In other words, they do not influence only isolated segments of the institution but its entirety. There is thus a need for the school manager to manage the institution effectively and efficiently.

Closed organisational model

The closed organisational model and the bureaucratic theory are more or less synonymous. The chief advocate of this theory was Max Weber, a German sociologist, who stressed that bureaucracy is characterized by:

- A hierarchy
- Professionalism and a large measure of specialization
- A career service
- Reliance on rules and regulations
- Impersonality amongst colleagues and their clientele (Henry 1975: 58)

Considerable criticism has been levelled against the closed or bureaucratic model from scholars working in the open mode stream or organisation theory. Critics contend that the former model displays rigidity, formality and inflexibility, emphasises means rather than ends, and has manipulative and anti-humanist overtones (Henry 1975: 59) It would seem that typical bureaucratic model, which also epitomizes most traditional public services, is usually not conducive to productivity, innovation and creativity.

Open organisational model

The open organisational model, which in fact preceded the closed model organisational theory, was a reactionary movement against the stultified nature of French administration under Napoleon Bonaparte and Louis Napoleon. Henry 1975: 63-64 states that the open model is characterized by the following attributes:

- Non-routine tasks occur in unstable conditions,
- Ends are emphasised,
- Formality is discarded,

- Conflict is resolved by peer interaction,
- A holistic sense of responsibility,
- Knowledge is located anywhere in the organisation,
- Interaction of people is directed towards the accomplishments of task,
- The style of interaction is directed towards the accomplishments of tasks,
- Emphasis is on task achievement and excellence,
- Prestige is externalised - personal status is determined by professional ability and reputation.

As service excellence should be the ultimate aim of performance improvement, the open organisational model would appear to possess the most appropriate organisational culture and climate to achieve maximum productivity. It should however be noted that a compromise between the two extremes would also suffice. The closed organisational model is sometimes referred to as the mechanistic model, while the open organisational model is referred to as the organic model. This would indicate that the open model has the means or potential for adapting to changes which may impinge on it, whilst the closed model is stymied due to it rigidity and incapacity to accommodate new ideologies.

Micro-environmental aspects

Some aspects, which could be monitored to improve, overall institutional performance and service excellence on a micro-scale are adequate employee

motivation, control of institutions assets, safeguarding of the safety, health and welfare of employees.

Motivation

Motivation plays an important part in ensuring employee progress in the work environment. Details pertaining to motivation and relevant theories have been given due attention in earlier chapters.

Rapid technological progress

Rapid technological changes make it almost impossible to keep abreast of the latest developments. Employees could suffer from techno phobia and other sorts of fears generated by newfangled gadgets and unfamiliar machinery. Consequently, continuous training and retraining are required to keep personnel up to date with evolving technology. Further details are discussed at length in chapter 12

Dissatisfied stakeholders in the employment relationship

Hilliard 1994: 34 contends that the employment relationship in the educational sector could be seen as being a two-way relationship between employer and employee. The employee has a number of expectations from the employment relationship. He or she expects to:

- Be treated justly without being victimized or unfairly discriminated against in terms of gender, race, religious affiliation, kinship, or any other extraneous factors
- Be remunerated adequately
- Maintain a reasonable quality of life

- Work in a safe and healthy environment
- Be able to present his or her side of a case, (the audi alteram partem rule, should be practised)
- Join employee associations and form collective bargaining mechanisms if he or she cannot achieve anything singularly
- Have sufficient opportunities for recreation, family life and advancement in his or her career.

In other words the employee is entitled to a fair deal. The employer should either consult or negotiate with the employee on some or all of the conditions of employment to which the latter is subject.

In return for favourable conditions of service, the employer may expect reciprocity from the employee. The employer expects:

- Loyalty from employees whilst they are in his or her employ
- Integrity and honesty from employees
- A fair day's work for a fair day's pay
- Employees to be productive, and not waste time unnecessarily
- Employees not to abuse the state's scarce resources or damage public property
- Employees to be punctual and to attend work regularly.

It may be concluded that the employment contract consists of rights, obligations and expectations. In closing it should be stressed that the public servants are obliged to serve the public interest first, despite a possible divided loyalty between their own individual interests and the general welfare of the population. In order to reconcile the often-opposing rights, interests and expectations of employees, employers and the public, the need exists for sound labour relations practices. Labour relations will usually create difficulties where the employees' rights have to be reconciled with those of employers. The solution to these dilemmas lies firstly with public servants, who should be devoted to public service, subjugating their personal interests to the welfare of the entire nation. Secondly, it is incumbent upon the employer to treat employees humanely and considerately so that they will have little cause for complaints. Although public servants should not be exploited by unfair labour practices, they cannot use any negligent excuse to shirk their responsibility of rendering essential services timeously, efficiently and effectively.

METHODS OF ENHANCING PERFORMANCE

There are numerous methods that could be adopted to improve educator performance. Some of the methods that can be implemented include:

Employee welfare

The human-centred approach to educator management is an indispensable aid to sound labour relations. Furthermore, tolerance and mutual respect are essential prerequisites for ensuring a content workforce. Although individuality should be acknowledged, an individual may not be allowed to disrupt the harmonious working relationship of the group. Therefore, both group dynamics and individuality should be accorded their rightful role.

Creating a positive atmosphere in the work environment is essential. Praise or credit must be given where due. It is essential that the supervisor must be unbiased, consistent in his or her approach, and treat everyone fairly, justly and humanely.

Career planning for employees

Educators tending to be de-motivated should be encouraged to view their work as a career. Long-term objectives may assist them to look ahead and devote themselves more arduously to their work. Beach 1985: 232 contends that every public institution should have a career path mapped out for each of its employees. Employees want to know where they are heading, how fast they can get there, and what other long-term prospects exists for them. This is why it is essential for the educational institutes to compile an organisational chart on which is indicated the present incumbents as well as potential career advancement possibilities. A person with no future, no vision and no direction will generally not be prepared to give off his/her best.

Utilising quality circles

The formation of quality circle is a technique used in Japanese business and industry to increase overall productivity. It is basically a participative form of decision-making and /or problem solving, in that employees who are involved in a specific job/grade are asked by the circle for their inputs. The circle normally consists of a group of not more than ten employees who meet regularly, usually during intervals to voluntarily exchange ideas about and solutions to problems in the work situation.

The quality circle, participative management, brainstorming and the so-called 'think tank' system of decision-making bear close resemblances. Such

techniques may be used gainfully in education if their limitations and benefits are carefully weighed up.

Practicing participative management

Participative management – a technique almost similar to quality circles – invites employees to contribute suggestions to the management echelon about running the institution. A close collaborative relationship, much the same as in management by objectives, is usually developed between supervisor and subordinate. This managerial style creates a sense of transparency in the decision-making and policy making processes. This ensures that decisions are not unilaterally imposed on personnel without their prior knowledge, consultation or even approval.

A technique, which could be used productively in conjunction with participative management, is the so-called sensitivity training. Sensitivity training sessions assist personnel with the improvement of interpersonal relationships, and help to dispel any forms of prejudice or other barriers, which may hamper loyalty amongst colleagues. Beach 1985: 282 contends that the team spirit created by participative techniques is usually indispensable to the success of any institution. Members of a team must trust one another and breathe together so to speak, as a task is most effectively completed when all those involved cooperate fully. Du Toit 1992: 117 states that good teamwork evolves where respect for every participant is regarded as being vital to the success of the project.

Encouraging management by objectives

This managerial technique requires that both supervisors and subordinates become jointly involved in the goal-setting process. Goals set in this way tend to be remarkably realistic and therefore, usually attainable. It is incumbent upon the

employee to reach the predetermined goals for which he/she was co-responsible. After each goal has been achieved, new goals or further challenges may be set. This approach assists employees in contributing to the attainment of overall institutional objectives and also helps to eliminate monotony in the workplace.

Fostering bottom-up management

The managerial style of a number of public institutions may need to be adapted to accommodate increasing pressures from employees at grass roots wanting to have a say in the running of the institution. The old militaristic style of top-down decision-making has largely fallen into disfavour because employees regard it as being paternalistic, dictatorial and bureaucratic. The bottom up system is closely akin to participative management, quality circles and other types of collaborative management.

Keeping channels of communication open

The employer should encourage and foster the free flow of suggestions from employees. DuToit 1992: 12 states that reliable communication is the foundation of good human relations, an art, which nobody is successful at, at all times. It is the core of interpersonal life, an inevitable factor in the conduct of every institution, and the primary ingredient for administering education.

Effective communication may be regarded as a means by which employees can air their feeling, expectations and grievance. Once communication is thwarted, the scene is set for inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the rendering of educational services.

Maintaining good human relations

No institution can be prepared for every contingency that may crop up in the work situation. Relations between employer and employee, as well as between

employee and the public could turn sour. These relations not only encompass the various guidelines of public administration, but also involve and influence the emotional side of every employee.

Some of the emotional elements, which effect sound human relations, are friction with other persons, frustration with the work or with interpersonal relations, conflict and clashes between fellow employees, and anger, which may be accompanied by abusive language. It is essential that a culture of humility and mutual tolerance be created for contentious situations to be defused diplomatically without affecting the organisation as a whole.

Encouraging organisational development

Beach 1980: 404 describes organisation development as a planned process designed to improve organisational effectiveness and health through modifications in individual and group behaviour, culture, and systems of the organisational units, using appropriate knowledge and technology of the applied behavioural sciences. Certain inadequacies can therefore be discerned in the organisational structures and corrected by the process of organisational development.

Beach 1980:404 further contends that organisation development is a developing and evolving field of activity and does not embrace fixed methodology. Organisational development leans towards a supportive and collaborative system of management and therefore supplements other managerial techniques.

Delegation of authority

Delegation is the assignment of authority and responsibility to subordinates. Delegation of authority is an integral part of the hierarchy and levels of responsibility in an institution. Authority can be described as the right to give an instruction to someone about what he or she has to do, and about how, where and when he or she has to carry out the instruction. There is also a distinction between power and authority.

Authority can be delegated, but not accountability that is the person doing the delegating –the delegator – must ultimately accept liability if something should go awry. The recipient of the instruction is usually not accountable. If any public institution is to function effectively and efficiently, authority should be delegated to the greatest possible extent, but without jeopardizing the process of control. The authority, which is delegated to a subordinate, should be clearly defined, preferably in writing, although this formality is not always possible.

If supervisors are reluctant to delegate work, it not only shows a lack of trust in the competence and abilities of their subordinates, but could also result in bottlenecks in the workflow. Furthermore, subordinates will not receive the necessary training and could remain permanently trapped in the humdrum of routine tasks, while the supervisor may be overburdened with too much work. Effective delegation is the key to increasing and improving personnel performance.

Range of span of control

Span of control is defined as the optimum number of subordinates a supervisor can manage effectively (Boone & Kurtz 1987: 234) Span of control or span of leadership refers to the limited mental and physical capacities possessed

by a single individual. These are usually indicated as a numerical factor and should be acknowledged and recognized whenever one is engaged in organizing. Span of control implies that each supervisor should be given only as many subordinates as he or she can reasonably cope with under specific or prescribed circumstance. If this number is exceeded, the control function could become ineffective and inefficient. The supervisor could also become overburdened and unable to perform his or her work efficiently.

The span of control is usually directly coupled to the difficulty or nature of the work, the training needs of subordinates and the intensity of the supervisors required. Where the work is of a routine nature and subordinates require less supervision, the supervisory span of control can be much broader. Work of a highly technical nature that requires intense concentration and strenuous mental effort will result in a narrower span of control and fewer subordinates. The ideal span of control should be sought to enhance educator productivity. This ideal can only be determined if supervisors are honest with themselves and are willing to acknowledge their limitations.

Specialisation versus generalisation

There are both advantages and disadvantages attached to requiring employees to become either specialists or generalists at their jobs. Specialisation usually reduces one's area of work to a small portion of the entire field of work in the education sector. On the one hand it is said that specialisation could lead to job monotony and parochialism. On the other hand generalists seem to enjoy a variety of jobs which keep them more or less occupied and this tends to make their work interesting and stimulating. Unfortunately, large private enterprises and also public institutions do not seem to have much scope for generalists. It is

a much-debated issue whether specialization does in fact enhance productivity because the monotony of routine work often leads to lack of concentration and to careless mistakes, which could impair the health and physical well being of the employees. Bovee et al 1993: 276 states that specialisation creates an interdependence or link amongst various jobs, and one person may have to wait for the other to finish his or her work. This may create coordination difficulties and delay completed work.

It is also said that job monotony could cause psychosomatic illnesses, and that such employees do not perform at their peak because of boredom and frustration. There are therefore limits to the benefits derived from specialization. However, there are obviously exceptions to this rule: certain personality types are indeed satisfied with repetitive, routine tasks.

Line communication – Vertical and Horizontal

All public institutions are arranged in such a manner that employees have to cooperate and communicate with one another to attain specific objectives. Without proper channels of communication, the employees will be unable to achieve their usually predetermined goals. Establishing and maintaining communication channels are important steps in the organising process.

The lines of communication are usually drawn from the most senior to the most junior employees in the hierarchy. Thus everyone must report to someone else in the hierarchy, that is every subordinate has a supervisor to whom he or she must report to regarding his/her work. The vertical channels of communication are usually quite clear, and are mostly formal and rigid.

Bovee et al 1993: 295 states that present day, communication is generally multidirectional, especially informal communication. Therefore, there are both formal and informal lines of communication – the latter is termed grapevine communication or *de facto* channels of communication. These are mostly interpersonal lines of communication and are not as a rule depicted on an organisational chart, but they nevertheless exist side by side with the formal or official channels. The former are sometimes refereed to as unofficial and unwritten systems of communication.

Co-ordination, co-operation and collaboration

Teamwork in both private enterprises and public institutions is essential to accomplish completed work. Where subordinates do not cooperate or are insubordinate, it could lead to large-scale inefficiencies. Within the organisational set-up as a whole there should be harmony between the various vertical and horizontal levels. Should such harmony and coordination not prevail, it will not only lead to chaos, but could also result in duplication, overlapping and fragmentation of functions. This will indeed waste time and money. Furthermore, the bigger the public institution, the more difficult it usually becomes to coordinate its activities. Some of the ways of coordinating and streamlining the activities of large institutions are through, *inter alia*, regular meetings, quality circles, management by objectives, participative management, committees, written manuals and codes, and the training and development of personnel to enhance teamwork.

It is a truism that community goals cannot be reached successfully if there is little coordination, cooperation and collaboration amongst all or the vast majority of institutions rendering essential services to the public. It is thus

essential to practise as many cooperative managerial techniques a possible in order to improve an institution's *asprit de corps* and ultimately to enhance the performance of its employees.

Conclusion

This chapter has analysed the effect of organisational structuring and other processes on personnel performance. It may be concluded that the formality found in public institutions is usually not conducive to increased performance and that a new or adapted approach to education sector management may be needed. It is contended that the education sector may in the future be required to streamline its activities to such an extent that it increasingly begins to resemble the functioning of a private enterprise. It may be necessary to create an organisational culture and climate which is amenable to adaptation and innovation, and which will facilitate a change in approach to human resource management. It is obvious that change is painful and that there are numerous constraints in the education sector, which do not promote a culture of change. Such constraints must be reduced and even eliminated where possible.

In the next chapter staff development and teamwork are look at in an educational setting.

CHAPTER 10

STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND TEAMWORK

Introduction

This chapter will focus on the three key issues related to staff development. I begin by asking what is staff development and what the term means? Secondly I consider how staff development works in practice. Thirdly I introduce the notion of the staff development cycle and discuss the various stages in this operation. It is worth noting that within most formulations of human resource management, training and employee development represents the vital if not the pivotal components in improving quality management systems.

Staff development and professional development

Our modern education system perceives educators as the facilitators of knowledge rather than didactic founts of all knowledge. It follows that educators themselves should adopt this philosophy of lifelong learning in their own professional activities. This type of learning is individualistic and personal. The distinction between personal professional development and staff development is a real one. An educator is employed as a member of staff in a school. The school has an ethos, aims and objectives, and staffs have a corporate responsibility to pupils and the community as a whole. An educator as a loyal member of staff may hold different values to the educator as an individual. That is not to say that the individual's values and requirements are any less important than those prioritised by the staff at the school as a whole.

The term 'staff development' has been defined in a number of ways.

Dillon-Peterson 1981: 28 sees staff development in terms of organisational development and improvement. As such, it provides the basis for school improvement, which leads to maximum personal growth and a better atmosphere for effective school change.

Vaughan 1983: 40 considers staff development to be the vehicle by which recent research into teaching effectiveness can be used to make a difference in schools. Hence it is allied closely to a teacher as researcher concept as outlined by Hopkins(1985).

Southworth, 1984: 78 suggests that staff development is adult education. Therefore, he argues that it should be aimed at enriching the teacher's understanding of his/her talks and activities, which go beyond simply improving performance.

Matheson 1981: 113 defined staff development as: 'the activity of staff training, that is a conscious institutional approach intended to improve the capability for staff to fill specified roles, particularly in relation to teaching'.

Several aspects of staff development follow from this definition of Matheson. First it is concerned with a range of staff training activities, irrespective of whether they are voluntary or mandatory, in school or externally based, knowledge or skill based, of personal or school interest and finally related to curriculum staff development schemes.

Secondly the definition emphasises the need for a conscious school approach to staff development. This implies the need for an agreed policy statement about the aims and obligations of the individual and school towards staff development. In order to succeed in involving staff, the schools' first task is

to create the right climate for school staff development. A credible, creative, positive environment needs to be created for in-service training and staff development. What is offered to staff must be perceived as being an acceptable part of a coherent school plan.

Carroll *et al* 1986 suggests that the first action that every principal should take with regard to his or her school is to check that the institution has:

- A clearly articulated policy on staff development
- A programme for implementation
- A realistic budget
- A senior member of the management team designated as responsible for staff development
- Widely accepted procedure for job review and career development
- Integrated approaches to academic and non-academic support staff, reflected in staff development provision
- A procedure for regular evaluation of staff development programmes in terms of its outcomes for both staff and learners
- Agreed and efficient procedures for disseminating information relating to staff and
- A staff development policy and programme, which positively promotes good equal opportunities.

Thirdly the definition implies the need for:

- Regular reviews in the light of curriculum development plans
- The availability and opportunity for staff to participate in staff development programmes

- Setting up structure and procedures for collating staff needs into a coherent plan for staff development
- Acceptance and support from senior management and unions for staff development.

Fourth, Matheson's definition assumes that staff development leads to staff improvement. People become better at their jobs as a result of their training and staff development programmes. Schools need to have in place mechanisms and procedures that keep track of feedback, support, dissemination and development.

Moreland and Withington suggest that schools establish their own staff development committees to assist and work in organising and coordinating staff developmental programmes. This is particularly relevant in the light of each school being faced with its own strengths and weaknesses.

Maintaining the quality of teaching is obviously essential in ensuring quality performance and outcomes in a school. Maintaining the quality of staff in turn depends largely on effective staff development, which offers staff an opportunity to constantly update knowledge and skills. Hall 1986: 252 contends that managers also need to master the knowledge and skills required to improve work performance in the short term and their adaptability in the long term and as such should be accorded the opportunity to assess themselves through an exploration of attitudes towards career and personal life. Such an assessment will determine suitability for higher positions within the organisation. It is worth noting that progression continues towards "being truly one's own person… to being a self-directed, self-aware organisational leader".

The focus of staff development has moved to the school because of the devolvement of some of the training budgets and also because of the belief that staff development should be a 'bottom-up' process starting from the identifiable needs of staff. These moves bring strong pressure on school leaders to be accountable for staff development. A model can be proposed for the school leader as a training community in which both staff and organisational development needs are identified and met (Newton 1988). This model takes into account the changing development needs of staff in relation to the organisational needs of the changing school and reconciles the needs of the individual members of staff to the needs of the organisation. To make the school-focused staff development work, the following steps are taken:

- **A needs analysis**. This can be done by an organisational audit of the school as a whole and by appraisal interviews for individual staff members. If an appraisal system is not in place, then a counseling interview for staff development purposes can be held. Based on the needs assessment, a policy should be created with full staff participation.

The policy document should contain (Newton 1988):

- Aims and Rationale
- Structure – defining responsibilities for needs analysis, implementation and evaluation
- Programme of activities – including timing and costs for a year ahead
- Evaluation

- The policy will be made available to all staff 'in the form of an easily understood, freely available document'.
- The policy will be implemented along the lines of the policy document.

At the heart of a staff development policy there ought to be concern for each member of staff as a valued person worthy of personal development and career advancement. Unless this is so, staff will inevitably be uncommitted to the substantial changes and upheavals through which schools are going. To indicate that staff are central to their belief in quality, some school leaders are ensuring that each members of staff has a personal profile indicating the staff development undergone to date and any potential development required in the context of individual needs and the individual's career aspirations.

To ensure that staff development contributes as effectively as possible to the quality of staff, the staff development activities themselves must be of high quality. However it is noted that the evaluation of staff development activities is hardly ever carried out with rigour, nor is there adequate feedback to staff not involved in the training. Co-ordination of human resource programmes in organisations will be more effective if the personnel involved are working towards the same objectives and understand the needs of individual employees.

Communication

Essential and critical to effective staff development are good communicating systems. Communication is complex and in many schools ineffective. Thus the task of any School Development Committee is two-fold. First, to get hold of information, coming into the school. Second to disseminate

this information by passing it onto colleagues. An effective communication system can be established in the following ways:

- By designing and negotiating with management in the school a system for communicating information about staff and curriculum development
- By ensuring that the Staff Development Committee's name is listed with external sources. Some principals are reluctant for staff to receive external information and mail directly. Direct access to all information relating to staff development activities is a necessary condition of effective management of staff development by the Staff Development Committee.
- By making sure that the school is part of any electronic mailing system. This task may be delegated to another member of staff who can be relied upon to download relevant information.

Ways of keeping colleagues up to date with staff development and INSET provision include the following:

- A staff development notice board
- Close liaison with the librarian
- Close liaison with the person in charge with the school's resources. This will help facilitate the development of good communication systems. It would also ease the workload on the staff development committee.
- A regular in-house staff development bulletin. The bulletin should provide information on courses, meetings, etc. It could contain

articles on curriculum change. It might also provide feedback from courses and conferences, which staff have attended.

- A record of staff interest so that they can receive the relevant information. Sub-mailing list and networks of staff with particular interests and/or areas of expertise will probably need to be established.
- A staff development feature in the schools newsletter.
- Ensuring that staff who have attended courses and conference are given a feedback opportunity. Feedback forms should be kept simple and easy to interpret. They can be housed in a ring binder a as reference in the library.
- Ensuring that staff development progress reports feature regularly as an item in staff meetings.

There are several approaches to disseminating information to colleagues in school. There are several methods. These include: printed materials in the form of newsletters or pamphlets, advice-giving on the telephone or through correspondence, organised conferences or one-day seminars, courses/events which occur more than once with speakers/experts involved, consultancy-providing problem-solving advice, and workshops including active learning sessions.

Principles for school focused staff development

The following are the key principles that need due consideration:

- Staff development should be managed: it must be coordinated, structured, planned and publicised.

- It may be coordinated by one person or by a staff development team.

It may, depending on philosophy be managerial/training approach to enhancement of skills and changing of attitudes, or counselling approach focusing on individual professional development. It could further be seen as a continuum along which both these aspects are met.

It should address needs: school, individual educator and learner

- It should be based on a clear needs identification process. Needs must be identified and analysed to determine priorities.
- It should be democratic – involving 'ownership' of the programme with all staff participating in the identification and analysis processes.
- Needs should be school focused – related directly to pupils through curriculum development or indirectly through staff or management effectiveness.
- Conflict of individual and school needs should be avoided. Clarification of procedure is important from the outset (purpose of the programme, levels of funding, criteria for prioritisation, etc)
- The staff development programme should be coherent. (Elements should be connected and developmental).
- It should be perceived by staff as having relevance to practice.
- It should involve staff as active learning participants.
- It should recognise and utilise existing staff expertise.
- Programmes should be cost effective.
- Evaluation feedback needs to be conducted on a regular basis.

The figure below serves to clarify the steps involved in the staff development cycle.

Identification of training and professional development

Staff development as continuing professional education is less easy to define. It is personal, individualistic and often unquantifiable. It fits into teaching as an art rather than teaching as labour or as a craft. Staff development often implies solutions to problems rather than a reflective approach to what is, after all, an extremely complex interaction of personal relationships between human beings involving the teacher as facilitator of learning and the child as learner. It is essential that in the development of management skills the leader maximise the contributions of the other members in the team.

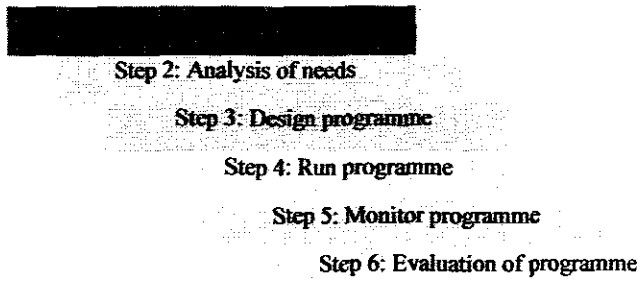

FIGURE 22 STEPS INVOLVED IN THE STAFF DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMME

Moreland and Withington 1987: 56 define a training need as

"Comparative analysis of what is required to perform a job well and the current extent to which an individual possess those necessary characteristics. This training need is then turning into a learning need that the individual ought to satisfy in order to become better able to perform their job."

The following are some of the questions that arise when identifying the training needs of staff in a school.

- Who should be involved in the training programme?
- What do staff need training in?
- How many individuals are affected by each need?
- What kind of training is required to meet each need?
- What are the standards/methods/procedures to be followed for each need?
- When and how should the training be completed?
- What will be the costs of training?
- What will be the benefits of training?

Design of programme

The following two important functions deserve consideration in compiling and designing a programme.

- Improvements in performance in a persons present job,
- Preparing human resources for future opportunities, responsibilities and tasks.

Staff development programmes also need to take into consideration the intrinsic requirements of teachers – the need to stand back and take a broad, reflective look at the process of education in schools rather than the practice of teaching.

There are a variety of ways in which staff development programmes can be organised. Courses or training sessions can be conducted using one or more of the following activities:

- External short course / departmental workshops
- In school short courses
- Contracted training/consultancy programmes
- Attendance on degree/certificate/diploma or award bearing programmes
- Job enrichment schemes (including expanded responsibilities/tasks/ roles)
- Job rotation
- Open learning methods or flexi study
- Correspondence courses/distance learning
- Case studies
- Lectures and video sessions
- Discussions by experts
- Coaching/on the job assistance
- Research reports and evaluation schemes
- Problem solving and decision making exercises
- Self help staff development meetings

The above list offers a very wide range of staff development activities. For different needs and circumstances, a mixture of methods/approaches will be used. Good staff development programmes will utilise a variety of approaches,

concepts and formulae. The methods will vary from individual organisation to organisation. Staff development review procedures are vital, whether related to appraisal exercise or otherwise. It is essential that the nature of evaluation and the criteria on which it is based be discussed fully before the programmes/activities are run.

School development in the South African setting

Many researchers have different perceptions on school development. The most recent thrust in this area has been development within some form of organisational development framework. One such framework that has been developed from practical experience has been that of Davidoff & Lazarus 1997: 35. Their focus is on the development of a school as a learning environment,

"... an organisation which is constantly and systematically reflecting on its own practice, and making appropriate adjustments and changes as a result of new insights gained through that reflection".

The focus is on professional teacher development and organisational development (organisational change) in order to equip the school to become more effective in its purpose and goals.

Davidoff and Lazarus 1997: 18, identify the following elements that should constitute a focus for development:

- Schools need to be understood in the context of local, national and global dynamics. Social dynamics such as racism, sexism and other forms of discrimination experienced in society will be reflected and could be further perpetuated or resisted through a school.

- The culture of a school comprises the values, norms and overall climate of the school. This is the central element of school life, constructing all other aspects and development through the other aspects of school life.

- Every organisation or school has, what is known as its own particular identity. This refers to the school's own expression of "who we are and where we are going", commonly recognised as the mission statement and vision of the school with broad aims and tasks that are to be accomplished. A school's policy, whether written or not, usually reflects these aspects.

- The element of strategy identified in the framework includes stated areas of achievement or goals, as well as criteria for measuring these achievements (outcomes). The setting of goals is followed by an appropriate action plan (through processes such as strategic planning), followed by various forms of evaluation to check whether the outcomes have been achieved. The process of curriculum development and quality assurance is central to this process in a school setting.

- Another important element is that of structure and procedures. Structures consist of lines of responsibility and authority, of units and departments and how they relate to one another, how individuals and teams are combined, and lines of communication and accountability. Procedures refer to the rules and regulations and methods that dictate how these structures relate to one

another. Three very important aspects, which need to be considered in the school development process, are decision-making structures and procedures, accountability processes, and information flow between the different structures. In the process of strategic planning, all of these aspects should be developed in the context of the particular values and aims of the school. For example, if a school is committed to building a democratic culture, this should be reflected in the way the school is structured and procedures are developed.

- Technical support also forms an important area in the development process. This includes administration, financial and other resource allocation and control in a school. It refers primarily to the various forms of administrative and material resource available to support the school in its attempt to reach its goals.

- Human resource utilisation and development within a school is a crucial aspect of the life of a school. Much attention needs to be focused in the areas that include human resource development (staff development, parent development), informal interpersonal relations and dynamics (including conflict management), and conditions of employment.

- Leadership and management ensure that all other aspects are co-operatively and democratically held together and developed. These elements involve particular aspects of leadership (style, functions, qualities, and leadership development) and management (different

approaches, functions, strategies, and management training). The dynamics of power in the school is central to this area.

It must be noted that the separations of the different elements of the school life as outlined above are to aid in the process of analysis and planning. In reality these different elements interact with one another, creating particular circumstances and challenges for development. In the process of organisational development, it is not always possible to focus on all aspects of school life at one time. On occasion, one aspect may become the focus of attention and development. This however does not imply that other areas are not important. Concentration and analysis on one aspect in the context of the whole helps the school members to understand the challenges better and to ensure that a comprehensive movement towards its goals is eventually achieved.

Values and principles need to be identified and entrenched in the mission statement and aims of the school, and be regulated through the school policy. Strategic planning, which includes setting particular goals, planning action, and evaluation that focuses on this aspect should then be pursued. The values and principles embodied in the concept OBE would then be captured in the way in which the school's structures and procedures are developed. Ensuring that the technical support in the school is sufficient to facilitate OBE is a further challenge. This includes ensuring that, where needed, resources relating to additional support required by the school or some learners are available. Human resources need to be then developed and managed to facilitate OBE. The role of leadership and management in ensuring that the school does go in this direction, and is managed or "held together" in such a way that this possible, is crucial. Factors relating to the local, national and global context also need to be taken

into account. These contextual factors both inhibit and provide opportunities for growth in this direction.

Career development

Robbins 1982: 249 defines a career as *'a sequence of positions occupied by a person during the course of a lifetime'*. Career development from an organisational standpoint involves career patterns and role functions.

According to Beach 1985: 234 career development includes career planning and career management. Career planning involves planning ones' work life at a personal level. Career management on the other hand focuses on the plans and activities of the organisation in relation to career development.

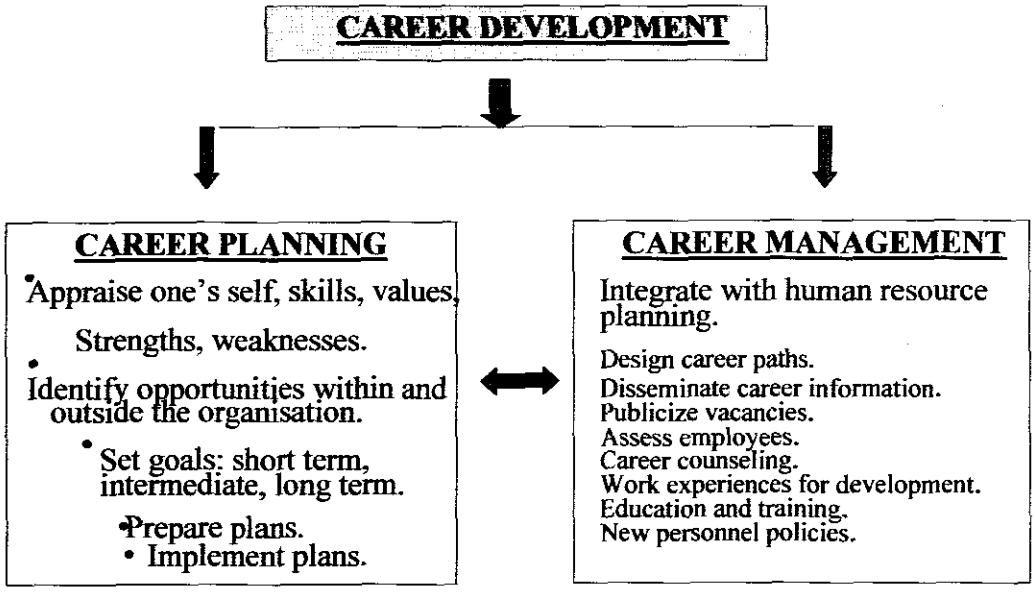

FIGURE 23 CAREER DEVELOPMENT (BEACH: 1985 235)

Robbins 1982: 259-264 provides the following guidelines for more effective organisational career development.

Challenging initial jobs. There is substantial evidence indicating that employees to receive challenging assignments early in their career work better in

later jobs. Researches contend that initial challenges stimulate improved performance in later years. This also emphasises the need for employees to be prepared for tackling new tasks in higher positions.

The systematic dissemination or career option information is needed to dispel the mix of facts and myths that is often spread via the 'grapevine'. The attributes required of candidates should be clearly spelt out, e.g. Experience, qualifications, technical expertise, computer knowledge, knowledge management, ...making this information available enables talented employees to measure their own skills and knowledge and dispels the creation of unfounded hopes and aspirations.

Job posting, whereby vacancies are advertised with a detailed, management plan providing details of posts and attributes required.

Career counselling workshops may be held by the department of education in assessing an individual's capability and an individual's future aspiration.

Career development workshops may be organised to, identify, discuss, and resolve issues and possible misconceptions.

Continuing education and training reduce the possibility of employees finding themselves with obsolete skills. If well managed it should serve the career needs of employees. Education and training opportunities can be extracted from the internal and external education and training programmes.

Sabbatical (extended leave of absence) for senior staff to enhance career development through the attendance of relevant conferences, reading, accepting

teaching assignments at appropriate institutions. Sabbaticals are particularly useful in alleviating middle-management stagnation.

It is important to note that a combination of the above methods would indeed assist in career development. Individuals need to choose the career development methods best serving their needs.

Siegel and Myrtle 1985: 158 as quoted by Schwella 2001: 68 recommends a 'process approach' to career management. They contend that the process should start with becoming aware of personal goals and career objectives. This requires reflection on what is important, why so and the choices relevant to ones' occupation.

They further contend that the next step should include designing a plan of action. As part of the planning, the individual has to decide how they can best make themselves visible to opportunity, e.g. through professional and community activities. Successful career development is, to a degree, dependent on showcasing one's talents and abilities.

The next step would include managing and evaluating career progress in terms of changing goals and objectives. It is important to identify diversions from the planned developmental route and adjustments made accordingly.

Management development

Beach 1985: 262 defines management development as a systematic process of training and growth by which individuals gain and apply knowledge, skills, insights and attitudes to manage work effectively. It thus follows that organisations should assist employees to manage development along specified career paths.

Management in the work situation could include the following:

- **Coaching or mentoring**. This involves supervisors actively developing a new manager. They give guidance through direction, advice, constructive criticism and positive suggestions. Advantages of coaching include opportunities for high interaction and rapid performance feedback.

- **Understudy assignments**. These allow the employee the opportunity to learn the principal's job for short periods. E.g. when the principal is on leave or as a permanent assistant to the principal.

- **Job rotation**. This broadens the experience of the management team in the development process. It expands opportunities in a wider spectrum of activities.

- **Committee assignments**. This allows the employees to share in decision making, to learn by observation of others and to investigate specific organisational issues and procedures. Committees brainstorm problem areas, identify solutions and make recommendations. Employees are bound to find this approach personally developmental, interesting and rewarding.

Other methods of development, which are not part of the work situation, include:

- **Formal training courses for employees**. Training conferences, role-playing, case studies and extensive reading assignments can be designed to cater for individual and organisational needs.

Transactional analysis and sensitivity training also need to be developed in school managers.

- **University based management developmental programmes.** These include short, managerial developmental courses. Many South African universities offer non-degree, executive and management programmes. Besides these short courses, specific areas of study can also be selected. It is important that the management team have the relevant qualifications to lead other employees.

In recent times many education departments have contracted themselves with private consultants to offer management guidance to employees and principals. This is a positive initiative by the department and it needs to be actively supported by all parties concerned so that the maximum benefit may be derived.

Team building

In a community of professional colleagues, involvement, co-operation, participation, delegation and effective two-way communication are the essence of management.

The social process in which people interact face-to-face in small groups is called group dynamics. Group dynamics forms a part of Human Resources Management Studies, because results show that groups influence human behaviour generally, as well as in work situations. With this in mind it is important for the Human Resource practitioner to be well acquainted with group dynamics. Managers are involved with groups of many types. The survival of a

group depends on three essential activities. All activities of a group must be goal-orientated. The activities must be directed towards the maintenance of internal stability and the activities must aim to find methods to improve the effectiveness of the group. To execute these three essential activities successfully, the following requirements must be met:

- **Group goals** – The team must know exactly what it wants to achieve. Group goals must satisfy the needs of all members and must be clearly understood by all members. The goals must promote co-operation between group members and each must be fully committed to pursuing them

- **Communication** – Group members must be able to communicate their ideas and feelings clearly and accurately to all other members of the group. This will create an essential two-way flow of communication. So the people in a group need to have background knowledge of one another in order to communicate effectively and function successfully as in a group. Team members must be able to listen actively and to make constructive inputs.

- **Participation and leadership** – Each member in a group should enjoy freedom of participation. Support and trust are essential in teamwork. Good leadership is a prerequisite for orderly interaction and full utilisation of each member's contributions. All members must accept the group leader and grant him or her management tasks. The leader must ensure that the knowledge and skills of all group members are fully utilised. Through participating, group

members must be given the opportunity to identify with the group. Such opportunities offer the group scope for more successful achievement of goals, greater satisfaction of needs and greater cohesion of the group.

- **Decision-making procedures** – When members are not allowed to participate in decision-making, the group is likely to lose them and the contribution they could make. The most suitable decision-making process must be found in the circumstances. The leader can make decisions about less important issues. When important decisions are to be made the leader can institute decision-making by consensus. This method is the most advantageous approach, as it stimulates the participation of members, increases their commitment and improves the group's cohesion.

- **Power and influence** – power and influence must be fairly distributed amongst group members according to each member's knowledge and skills. The member of the group with the greatest knowledge on a subject should automatically have the most say in related matters.

- **Conflict** – conflict, in itself, is not necessarily evil. Constructive differences of opinion can lead to a more critical approach. When information is critically evaluated, the decision-making process is improved. Destructive conflict, in which group members address each other instead of the problem, can be counterproductive and should be avoided.

- **Group cohesion** – cohesion from acceptance, mutual support and trust between group members and each member's need to stay on as a member. The cohesion of a group depends on how strongly the employees stick together, rely on each other and desire to remain members. Productivity among members of cohesive groups is often fairly uniform and the labour turnover is low. When these requirements are fulfilled, it becomes more likely that the group will cope successfully with problems and challenges.

- **Group conformity** – As a member of a group, you often wish to be accepted by the group. Because of your desire for acceptance, you are likely to conform to the group's norms. There is considerable evidence that groups can place pressure on members to change their attitudes and behaviour to conform to the group's standards.

- **Review and evaluation** – Review and evaluation should become essential elements in a group discussion. This will assist in the development of the team members by developing the skills and attributes of the individual. Weaknesses need to be addressed and strengths capitalised upon.

- **Inter-group relations** – Effective groups have sound relationships with other groups or individuals. Inter–team relations assist the organisation to function smoothly, which has a positive effect on the organisation as a whole.

Group formation

Groups can play a major role in promoting or impeding productivity in the workplace. When the objectives of a group match those of the organisation, high levels of productivity can be maintained. The opposite is also true. It is therefore logical that when groups are formed and management is able to guide these groups to formulate objectives and norms, it can contribute to the achievement of its overall organisational goals. Groups can be influenced in the following ways:

- **Identify the group leader** – The group leader has the greatest power to influence the behaviour of group members. By obtaining the leader's co-operation, the whole group can be involved to co-operate with management.

- **Participation in decision-making** – Contrary to common belief, few people resist change. Many people however resist being changed. Consequently, when people, especially informal group leaders, are involved in decision-making, which affects them and their group, their resistance to change diminishes. People can then participate in the process of decision-making at early stages, so they are not simply implementing decisions. From participation comes a sense of ownership. People who have shared in making a decision or manufacturing a product are less inclined to criticise it. Criticism would imply criticism of themselves, and most people avoid public self-criticism. Ownership obtained by participation helps people to agree to the decision or solution that is to be implemented.

- **Participation and problem-solving** – Often juniors take their problems to seniors and expect them to be solved. The juniors are not involved in, or part of the problem. By distancing themselves from it they often do not know how complex problem solving is and can be quick to criticise solutions. They do not take significant preventative measures and may feel "it is not my problem, but my senior's problem". Conflict often arises from this, which does not enhance productivity. When the formal leader becomes involved in problem solving, he becomes a member of another group. This group's common goal is to find the best solution to the problem.

When a working atmosphere conducive to satisfaction is created, the group member will display loyalty to this group, and when problems arise they are committed to solving them. Their attitude can establish a norm of always striving for positives objectives.

Problems with ineffective teams

Woodcock (Team development manual, 1979) identified a number of problems that characterise ineffective teams. These include:

- Poor selection and recruitment of team members
- Ineffective training of team members
- Poor motivation of teams
- Confusing or complex organisational structure
- Aims that are unclear or confused
- Poor control by team leader

- Low level of team member creativity
- Inadequate planning and development
- Inappropriate management strategies
- Unfair of inappropriate rewards
- Personal stagnation in team members or leaders

An important part of building an effective team is to know what sort of individual would best suit the team objectives. Planning and selection must be done accordingly.

Co-operation and co-ordination within teams

A successful team needs complementary factors working within it. Co-operation and co-ordination between individuals working in teams often means the difference between success or failure of the whole organisation. It is important that decisions and actions of team members be related to the decisions and actions of individual members. The team needs to function in unison to achieve its goals.

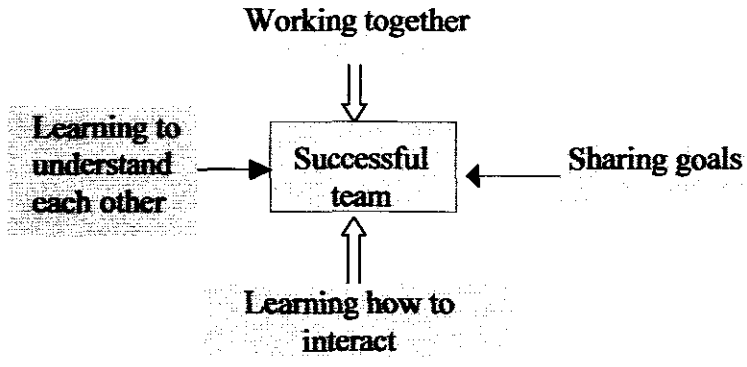

FIGURE 24 SUCCESSFUL TEAM BUILDING (SIBLEY 1995: 105)

In the diagram 24 above, Sibley 1995: 105, re-enforces the main elements necessary for effective team building. Co-operation and co-ordination of team's goals are important in creating togetherness among members. Members need to

be constantly recognised for their efforts so that they remain motivated to the needs and goals of the institute.

Give recognition

If the positive work of a group is rewarded, they will be more likely to repeat it. Rewards may take may forms, such as bonuses, salary increases and a longer lunch break. The form of the reward is not as important as the fact that all positive work behaviour is rewarded.

Deal with the group as a group

The more a group is treated as a group, the more members will perceive themselves as a group. For example, instead of using a person's name, refer to them as "a member of group Z". Members will then be more aware that their actions will be interpreted by outsiders as a result of their group membership. They will be more careful to behave according to group norms, which in turn create greater cohesion of the group. The cohesion is strengthened further in cases when somebody earns recognition as a member of a particular group. Cohesion in turn increases mutual support and co-operation within the group, which results in increased productivity.

Types of groups

Groups in organisations fall into two major categories: Formal and informal groups.

Formal groups are "official" groups, such as work units, task forces and committees. They are created by formal authorities to achieve specific goals.

Informal groups are "unofficial". They emerge spontaneously. They are not formed by an organisation to serve a specific purpose. Those groups can

satisfy important individual needs of their members. However, depending on how they operate, informal groups can work for or against the needs of organisations.

Hodgetts 1990:18 distinguishes the following types of groups:

- *Functional groups* are made up of individuals performing the same tasks, such as an advertising group or a selling group.

- *Project groups* are formed by individuals from many different areas, departments or backgrounds. Their purpose is to reach an objective within certain limits of time, cost and quality. After this time, the group is disbanded and everyone goes back to their regular department.

- *Interest-friendship* groups are formed on the basis of common beliefs, concerns or activities.

Informal organisations

Informal communication is called "the grapevine". Typical causes of the grapevine communication are the following: excitement and insecurity, relations with friends and associates, recent information, procedures that bring people into contact, work that allows conversation, jobs that provide information desired by others and the personality of the communicator.

Newstrom and Davis 1993: 434 report as follows:

"Informal social systems exist in all organisations. They arise naturally from the interaction of people. Informal organisations have major benefits, but they also lead to problems that management cannot easily ignore. They are characterised by a status system that produces informal leaders. Informal norms also emerge, which are powerful influence on member behaviour."

Informal communication, "the grapevine", develops in the form of a cluster chain. In normal situations, it is about 75% accurate, but sometimes-key details are inaccurate, so the full story is rarely communicated along the grapevine. The grapevine is fast an influential. Employees tend to depend on it for information, even though they often view it negatively.

Rumour is grapevine information communicated without secure sources of evidence. It occurs when there is ambiguity and interest in information, and it appears in both positive and negative forms. Managers can have some influence on the grapevine, and the objectives of managers are to integrate interests of formal and informal systems so that they and the groups can work together better. The following can be used as a guide to control rumours:

- Remove the cause to prevent or stop a rumour
- Deal with rumours as soon as possible
- Emphasise documented supply of facts
- Provide facts from reliable sources and
- Listen to all rumours to understand what they mean.

Meredith Belbin in his research in the early 1980s suggested a series of team types that individuals are likely to adopt. This research highlighted the strengths and weaknesses individual team types, allowing the selector to complement skills and qualities of individuals in order to from the team most capable of achieving the set objectives. Belbin also emphasises that a single person can play several types in one meeting.

Belbin suggested nine different team types. These include:

Co-implementor

- Conscientious, steady and disciplined
- Works for the group rather than self
- Realistic and practical
- Stable and balanced, trusting and co-operative with others
- Gets on with the job
- Always aware of external obligations
- Often conservative and inflexible with respect to working practices
- An essential component for any successful team

Team worker

- Promotes team spirit, co-operation and high morale via diplomacy and social skills

- Sensitive and perceptive about people with low desires for dominance. Rarely viewed as a threat by others.
- Can effectively deal with awkward people and defuse potentially explosive situations
- Generates harmony and brings out the best in others
- A very effective team leader in certain situations

Planner

- Quick and clever at picking up suggestions from others, and building upon them
- Produces ideas constantly and more than others
- Good strategic thinker and at dealing with strategic issues
- Sometimes cleverness and innovative spirit may be wayward

Resource investigator

- Clever, innovative and resourceful, while going out to look for information
- Mixes well, finding useful people. Use skilful questioning to get what they want
- Good at exploring, reporting on ideas and resources outside the group
- Has contacts and negotiates well

- Becomes bored when the main challenge have been met

Monitor / evaluator

- Serious, careful, critical and never quick to decide
- Shrewd and at best when suggestions are many or decision making is complex
- 'Inbuilt immunity to enthusiasm'
- Makes no claims to originality and is unlikely to inspire or enthuse others

Completer

- Steady, consistent, efficient user of time
- Close attention to detail – perfectionist
- Seen by others as calm although prone to anxiety inside
- Can absorb pressure/stress
- Uninterested in personal triumph but rather in getting the job done by the group, and properly

Co-ordinator

- Calm, patient, commanding figure who generates trust. Knows what to look for and uses ability of other team members

- Does not dominate proceedings but knows when to draw things together for decision
- Thinks and talks positively, and is quick to praise. An effective motivator
- Works with, not against talented team contributors

Shaper

- Galvanises people into action by challenging, arguing, disagreeing and using aggression
- Opportunistic rather than conscientious – wants to be successful
- Prone to over-react but resilient and fearless
- Not confined by rules. A good over comer of blocks in organisations
- Direct, sometimes dragging people with them although not always in the right direction!

Specialist

- Is single minded about the pursuit of team objectives/goals
- Is dedicated to the achievement of goals above all else
- Illustrates self-starting skills, e.g. self- motivation

An integration of the different team types will serve any organisation to its advantage.

Human relations

General good human relations require learning, technical knowledge of people, development of human skills, development of a philosophy and research into the conditions affecting each separate situation. All these things must be learnt by study and experience. Present day managers seek good human relations but they do not do so often enough. Many managers do not fully use their knowledge of human relations, while others fail to develop their ability to deal with people. Experience has shown that a manager can develop this ability through training and self-development and it is extremely worthwhile.

The benefits of good human relations are:

- Productivity is increased
- Trouble can be prevented instead of remedied
- Personnel turnover is maximised
- Good relations with other employees are developed
- Supervisors can learn to deal with staff in a balanced manner
- There is direct benefit to organisations policy
- Supervisors learn to recognise their own weaknesses and work on them
- Good human relations help supervisors to develop a good record, which can show managers they have strong potential and may bring promotions
- Good leadership and good relationships go hand in hand

- Motivation depends on good relations
- Communication improves and good morale develops.

Guide for good human relations

The figure 25 below illustrates the need for groups to function effectively. There is a need for managers to encourage good human relations among staff members. Listed below are some of crucial areas that managers need to explore:

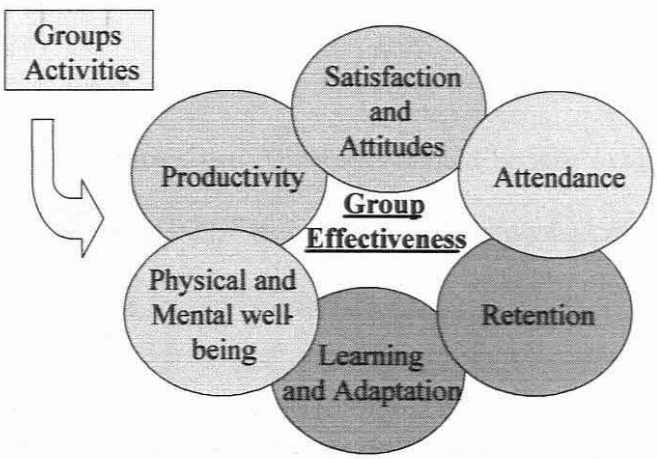

FIGURE 25 GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

Respect for the individual

A good manager tries to recognise the individual characteristics of each person in their organisation. They want to learn about each employee's background, interests, attitudes and problems and keep them in mind when dealing with each employee. Good managers try to place each person in the job best suited to their abilities. A good manager tells employees how he or she is measuring up to the job. Good managers try to help each person with his or her individual problems as they occur. Each person is different, as are his or her problems. The manager should take this into account and act accordingly. According to Hilliard 1994: 43 an understanding attitude and cordial human relations could go a long way in encouraging a more productive workforce whereas being constantly critical and distant, and persistently finding fault with one's employees will have the opposite

effect. Management charisma is important in motivating employees to perform at their peak, and their positive ethos or culture throughout the institution.

Companies rely a great deal on group effort and teamwork, as it takes group effort to do complicated work. Because of this managers tend to overlook individual needs and wants. They forget that a group is made up of individuals. Even when employees work in a team, they do not lose their individuality.

Employees need to provide knowledge and understanding among workers

It is important that the employer recognises a job that is well done. People often take pride in their work if they know that their work will be recognised by their manager. A manager should be able to afford credit openly to an individual or group that have performed or worked diligently. Managers need to create a desire for individuals to excel.

Managers need to set realistic goals for individuals

Research has proved that people work better when working towards set goals. Goals are only useful when they are known, understood and accepted by the employees involved. Goals become more readily accepted when the workers concerned participate in setting them.

Managers need to set fair standards of evaluation

People who want to reach certain goals need to know whether they are progressing towards it or moving away from it. This means that standards must be set that are known, understood and accepted as fair.

Managers also need to encourage suggestions

Because a person who does a job often knows much more about that job than anyone else, he or she can make valuable suggestions about how to improve that job. These suggestions need to be encouraged and rewarded.

No matter how good a supervisor is, problems with human relations occur. This is something like the law of physics: "where there is motion there must be friction." At time supervisors will need to decide whether to take disciplinary action or not. The ways in which a manager takes action is often as important as the action itself. The manager should always keep in mind the concept of "fair play". People then need to act in the spirit of fair play, at the same time following the letter of the law. Before managers reject this advice, they should pause to consider that fair play is sometimes regarded as the greatest of all human relations guidelines. Managers, like kings, have often fallen because they ignored fair play. Fair play is the golden thread, which binds together any organisation. It provides workers with the faith and confidence they need to work together in voluntary co-operation.

Factors in society which create a need for new management patterns

People today are less willing to accept pressure and close supervision than they were in the past. Today there is greater emphasis on the individual, with the trend towards giving people greater freedom, initiative and responsibility.

People are unwilling to accept direct, unexplained orders. Implicit, unquestioning obedience can no longer be demanded. People want to participate in decisions that will affect them. Changes have created expectations. People's attitudes depend upon the extent to which their expectations are realised.

There has been a great improvement in the standard of education of the labour force. This has led to greater demands and to an increasing need for recognition of people as individuals, rather than as a work group. There is a new emphasis on the development of the individual, an awareness of emotional factors.

Management itself has evolved and changed, as old management techniques were not satisfactory. In large organisations the complexity of tasks requires workers with more refined skills. Leaders, who previously could solve most technological problems alone, are now dependent on others for technical help. As a result there is much greater need for co-operation, with the emphasis on techniques of supervising groups. Leadership and other processes of the organisations should ensure that employees experience most interactions and relations within the organisation as supportive and therefore build their sense of self worth and importance.

It is important that managers also recognise that complex data and skills in the work situation can be learnt only in "low anxiety settings". The manager must be a critical leader without becoming a critic. There must be greater emphasis on the communication processes and the creation of a climate in which the workers can express themselves and their true feelings. A manager needs to bear in mind the research - productive and the research - mindedness of his organisation. The enthusiasm and the underlying attitude of the manager can be more important than his or her knowledge.

Conclusion

The process of influence and conformity in groups is one of the most important aspects of group dynamics. It must be noted that wide differences exist between people in their susceptibility to pressures. It is thus important that managers foster and encourage team spirit in organisations so that organisations benefit as a whole. In chapter 11, I explore the area of change management, which is fast being a recognised area of study, which managers need to enforce to ensure that organisations are geared to tackle modern day issues.

CHAPTER 11

CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Introduction

Human beings are familiar with change, and often prove themselves quite adaptive to it. Theron 1996: 135 states that most educationists agree that change and renewal are two of the most important aspects of an organisation. It is a noted fact that when an organisation fails to change and develop, entropy appears. In many cases the organisation stagnates and eventually declines. Consequently change and renewal can be regarded as essential for the development of any organisation. The school has to thus be seen a seen as a dynamic entity which is prone to constant change and renewal.

Various writers (Hanson, 1985; Owens, 1991; Bolman and Deal, 1991; Daresh and Playko, 1995) perceive organisational change as an integral aspect of the functioning of an organisation. These authors content that the organisational development is one of the means by which organisational change is achieved. Organisational development pertains to systematic and planned changes in bringing about organisational change or renewal. Organisational development is a method of altering organisations, the goal of which should be the improvement of the quality of working life of people involved in a school. If staff is to see rapid change as a normal way of life they will need to find 'the stability and security not in specific organisation arrangements but in the culture and direction of the organisation' (Kanter 1983: 133).

Defining change

Change represents the struggle between what is and what is desired. Taylor 1987: 175 states that change is an unavoidable feature of human experience. Change is a phenomenon that affects all aspects of a person's life, bringing about alterations in both personal and employment spheres.

According to Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979: 106 educational change means that school principals are exposed to new controls and regulations, growth, increasing competition, technological developments and changes in the workforce. Beckhard and Harris 1987: 30 further contend that changes in legislation, the availability of resources, market demand and social priorities often force principals to redesign the organisation's structure and procedures, to redefine priorities and to re-deploy resources.

Kimbrough and Burkett 1990: 131 state that change is a deliberate effort to alter the status quo by influencing or modifying the functions, structure, technology and/or the purpose of an organisation. Change needs to be seen as a complicated process that requires thorough strategic planning in order to reach prescribed goals. Hall and Hord 1987: 10 sees change as having a technical and human aspect - it begins and ends with individuals acting in unison to make schools effective. The aim of change is always improvement. According to Glutter 1998: 157 improvement is a systematic, sustained effort aimed at altering the process of learning and other related matters with the sole purpose of attaining educational goals. Change can thus be defined as a planned, systematic process. Change takes time to come to fruition; it is effected by individuals, and is a highly personal experience. Cox and Cooper 1988 note that successful chief executives were innovators and some of them were very strong innovators. They

were the type of people who would not be constrained in making changes by existing organisation systems but would always be challenging existing ideas 'thus producing something new rather than modifications of what currently exists. Peters and Austin 1988: 407 state that successful, innovative schools have staff that are encouraged to contribute to change without the fear of constant performance judgements to prejudice future promotion prospects. Kanter 1983: 82 states that organisations that are change orientated have a 'large number of integrative mechanisms, encourage flexibility of boundaries – the free flow of ideas and the empowerment of people to act on new information'.

Forms of change in education

Kimbrough and Burkett 1990: 131 distinguish between two kinds of organisational change, namely unplanned and planned change. Planned change implies a deliberate alteration in the status quo. In some cases change is unplanned, but according to Harris 1985: 75 planned change is preferable to unplanned change because planned change occurs according to specific goals and objectives.

Researchers (Kimbrough and Burkett 1990: 131; Lipham and Hoeh 1974:107; Taylor 1987:178) contend that change tends to take five forms.

Technocratic change

These changes are brought about in organisations largely due to changes in technology, educational adaptations have to occur to accommodate these changes.

Social change

Change of this nature are generated by a variety of aspects, namely:

- Changes in the relationships between parents and children and between teachers and children
- A change in role such as the reformulation of teachers' tasks
- Change in philosophy, such as a new perception or belief's which informs a programme or policy.

Interactive change

This occurs when:

- A group or a school community decide on change to improve matters.
- There are changes in the classroom, the programmes and structures of a school, and in the educational system.

Competitive change

This kind of change is brought about by competition and the desire to be better than other schools. A common example is the introduction of improved training and coaching techniques in sports teams.

Forces that bring about change

Lewins 1935: 80-85 deals with the interaction between the various forces that bring about change. Lewins contends that changes within an organisation should not be seen as static, but as a dynamic balance of opposing forces active within an organisation. Any existing situation within a school is in equilibrium, that is the results of the driving forces and resisting forces working against each other. Lewin 1935: 86 further contends that any situation of change contains driving forces or other factors that tend to alter existing circumstance, and forces of resistance or factors that tend to oppose or undermine the change. These

forces can exist in the internal or adjacent environments of the school, or in the action of the agent of change.

School principals have an active role in initiating change and in defusing resistance. The principal of a school who desires change has to assess the potential for change within the school; he has to bring about a realignment of the forces of change so that progress is made in the direction of the desired change. (Walkerand Vogt 1987:42)

There are three ways in which the motion of the forces of change can be altered, namely to increase these forces, to reduce the resisting forces, or to create new forces. Lewin (Lunenburg & Ornstein 1991: 219) points out that increasing the forces of change without reducing resistance to them will result in tension and conflict within a school. Reducing the resisting forces will result in a reduction of tension and conflict.

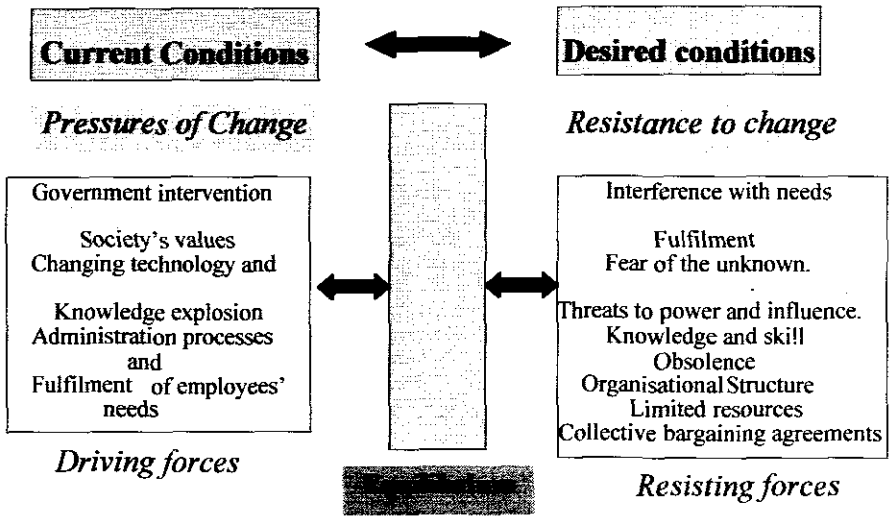

FIGURE 26 FORCES OF CHANGE (LUNENBURG AND ORNSTEIN 1991: 220)

The forces as depicted above (Figure 26) are forces that a school principal has to deal with daily. Change thus occurs a soon as an imbalance exists between these forces. As soon as the desired changes have occurred, the system returns to

equilibrium. When the leader becomes aware of pressures to change, for instance when there is pressure from the external environment for the school on its internal environment, he/she should initiate the process of change. This process occurs in several steps.

Steps in the change process

Lewin 1947: 363 identifies three steps in the change process. They are unfreezing, movement and refreezing.

Unfreezing

Davis and Newstrom 1985: 245 see unfreezing as the replacement of old ideas and practices by new ones within the school. Walker and Vogt 1987: 42 describe unfreezing as recognition that existing practices in a school have to be altered. Thus by implication, unfreezing means that the existing forces that give a school its character have to be changed. In order to establish whether there are deficiencies in the existing practices or system in terms of the value system, attitudes and dispositions, information will have to be gathered to rectify any deficiencies.

The occurrence of crises in a school is an indication that there are problems and that unfreezing is necessary for change to take place. Examples of such crises include a dramatic increase in failure rate, sharply declining enrolment, and demographic changes in the wider school community, personnel dissatisfaction, especially among management and strikes by staff.

It might be as difficult to terminate existing systems and practices within schools as to establish new practices. Once unfreezing has occurred, the school head is able to commence with the next step, which is movement.

Movement

Movement means that within a school, a process is set in motion that changes the established practices in favour of new procedures and behaviour. During this step or phase, the new ideas or practices that are to be implemented are subjected to close scrutiny, developed, and then applied in practice. (Davis and Newstrom 1985: 245)

Movement involves the development of new norms, values, attitudes and behaviours through identification or changes in the structure. Some of these changes may occur on a very minor scale and involve few people; an example of this is a steep rise in tuition costs. More important than the number of people affected by the change is the fact that the action of several forces enables movement and change to occur. (Lunenburg and Ornstein 1991: 220) As soon as the forces of change have had sufficient impact to bring about the desired changes, the next step, refreezing can commence.

Refreezing

Refreezing is the final step in the change process. (Lewin 1947). In this step all that was learned during the previous steps of unfreezing and movement is now realised in practice. (Davis and Newstrom 1985: 245) This means that the changes have stabilised into a new, quasi-equilibrium. It would also mean that new forces are in place. These forces would ensure that new actions and behaviours are fairly immune to further immediate changes.

The three steps identified by Lewin in 1947 have since been expanded upon by other writers. Theses writers, namely Lippitt et al. (1985), Walker and Vogt (1985), and Knoop (1987), choose to use the term "phase" rather than "steps" as they maintain that new steps can begin while the previous one is still in

progress. In agreement are Virgilio and Virgilio (1984: 347) and Hall and Hord (1987: 8), who view change as a process, which must be managed as such.

The management of change

Change is a process that needs to be managed. The school principal as the key figure around which much of the schools activities revolve, determines to a great extent the schools successes and failures when change is implemented (Hall 1988: 49) Herman and Herman 1994:2 expresses the view that "an educational leader must lead the change – not merely be subject to it".

There are five phases that occur in change, and which must thus be managed. Within each of these phases are strategies and techniques, which can be observed in order to heighten the chances of successful implementation of the various kinds of change. In addition there are certain prerequisites for effective management of change.

Change in society

Change is endemic to all sectors of society. Society contains a large amount of challenges, which could cause a great deal of stress and anxiety to individuals. It is important that the educational manager recognises these challenges and provide employees with the necessary advice, guidance and possible enrolment to an employee assistance programme to help reduce levels of anxiety and uncertainty in the work environment. If assistance is not available it is common for high frequencies of absenteeism, employer apathy, employer de-motivation and a possible shut down from their daily routines, requests for sick leave, employees tend to direct energies elsewhere where there is a sense of gain and relief. These are the psychodynamics facing teachers during periods of change and uncertainty. It is

therefore important for educational managers to assist prepare employees for change and how to deal with the personal impact of such change. The new curriculum, redeployment strategies, coping with illness, having to adjust to new rules and regulations, changes in the restructuring and re-grading of schools subject individuals with high levels of stress and anxiety. The high degree of uncertainty that abounds, affects each individual differently. Change and restructuring have also affected upper level management posts, which sometimes leave individuals with not much of a choice, but to seek alternate employment.

Prerequisites for the effective management of change

According to Coetsee 1989: 49 there are a number of factors affecting the school community, which have to be taken into consideration, as they are prerequisites for the effective management of change. These factors include:

- The degree to which the total school community will be affected by the change, and the degree to which it is aware of and supportive of the vision driving the change and its intended consequence.
- The degree to which the changes are in line with current practices and objectives.
- The existence of a climate of change in the school.
- The previous experience that the school community has had of change and the degree of readiness for change in the community.

According to Herman and Herman 1994: 4-5 the following questions have to be answered to determine the readiness of change in the school and the individual:

- Does the school have a clear vision of what should be and what could be in the future?
- Does the school have a clear picture of what is currently in existence, and of what its quality is?
- Are internal or powerful external forces clamouring for change?
- Does the school collect data on the results of its programmes and determine the impact of its efforts?
- Does the school view the future with a clear and positive vision; make immediate and continuous plans to achieve this vision, and use past and present achievement as bases for improvement?
- Do individuals in the school have a share in the vision for the school?
- Do the individuals in the school enjoy new challenges and new ways of doing things, and are they willing to contribute to positive change?
- Do the individuals in the school look forward to taking part in new working and learning opportunities?
- Do the individuals in the school look towards the future, plan for it in present, and use the past and present as bases for improvement?

Authors like Knoop (1987:16), De Villiers (1989: 10), Ornstein and Hunkins (1988: 14-15), Walker and Vogt (1987:44) and Virgilio and Virgilio

(1984: 348) are in agreement that no change in a school will be successful without the positive and active support of the teaching corps.

Even when the teaching corps gives its support for the change process, there still have to be opportunities for staff development measures. In addition to provision for staff development, the professional identity of the teacher will need to be acknowledged.

Baily 1982:103 is of the opinion that all teachers, irrespective of their position on the hierarchical structure, tend to be part of "a fair-minded professional elite". As a result of this shared community, teachers can cooperate in reaching decisions on change. Hughes, Ribbens and Thomas 1985: 460 note in this respect that consensual decision-making remains one of the most effective strategies for defusing resistance to change among teachers.

There are a number of identifiable reasons why change in schools does not succeed. Reasons identified by teachers and school heads are listed below. (Leithwood and Montgomery 1984:74)

Reasons advanced by teachers as to why change does not succeed in schools

Teachers are of the opinion that school principal's efforts to bring about change fail because they:

- Have inadequate knowledge and information concerning the proposed changes.
- Have not all had identical professional training.
- Have not been exposed to in-service training relevant to the proposed changes.

- Do not grant staff the opportunity to participate in and influence the planning of the changes.

- Fail to recognise the autonomy of staff.

It is important that school principals adopt a dynamic, flexible approach in managing change at their institutions. Change is bound to cause undue stress, but if managed well change can and will enhance productivity. Principals need to realise that material inventory at schools are static, but people are the dynamic resources, who can embrace and lead the organisation during times of uncertainty. Leaders need to be perceptive in matching the needs of the individual with that of the organisation. Principals need to embrace the concept of change in a positive light and to apply the concept in accordance to the dynamics of the institution.

Reasons advanced by school principals as to why change does not succeed in schools

Reasons advanced by school principals for their own lack of success in implementing change include the following (Leithwood and Montgomery 1984:75):

- Uncertainty - unclear expectations that have been created, and conflict about areas of responsibility.

- Complexity – which personnel should be assigned to which tasks affecting the change process?

- A limited or faulty notion of how the school system functions and what the heads role is in the system.

- A lack of administrative knowledge and inadequate leadership.

It is important that principal's become the managers of change. A wise leader will be able to reassess and adjust ones thinking in line with the changing policies that are existent in education. He/she must be able to adapt strategies within the overall framework of the organisation. New policies, regulations and knowledge are not viewed as a threat, but rather as a means to enhance the status of the organisation. Such visionary leadership reveals a high degree of adaptive ness, which the modern day manager needs to possess to conform to the many changing protocol structures that are regularly issued by the Department of Education.

The best method solution

The next reason to be dealt with on why implementation of change fails is the insistence on the "one best method solution". Examples of this failing are given below (Sergiovanni 1987:278)

- Some agents of change focus only on the social and political contexts within which the school operates in winning support for their change proposals.

- Some agents of change focus only on a favourable school climate in order to obtain interpersonal support for change.

- A third group of agents emphasise the individual and his/her aptitude, phases of involvement in the proposed change, and factors relating to resistance to the changes.

- A final group of agents focus primarily on the teacher's work, thereby attempting to manipulate the teacher's behaviour and actions in order to accomplish change.

All the above methods of implementing change are important, but none should be seen, as the "one best method" .The milieu within which change occurs is too complex for the adoption of a "one best method" approach.

Kahn 1982:242 regards vision as a critical component of planning change. The school principal needs to be able to visualise the ultimate objective of change, and has to convey that vision to staff. Aims and objectives can only be determined if the mission of the school is clearly defined. The vision of the school principal has to be of such a nature that he/she is able to anticipate the reactions and behaviour of those members of the school community who will be affected by the changes.

The following aspects can be regarded as guidelines for managing change successfully. (Dalin 1978:22, Kotter and Schlesinger 1979: 112, Lunenburg and Ornstein 1991: 221, Aquila and Galovic 1988: 69, Kimbrough and Burkett 1990:147) :

- Change is a process that occurs over time. Change consists of various steps involving and affecting individuals, organisations and many sub-systems. If the process is to be handled correctly, the dynamics of change need to be understood.

- Individuals, organisations, and interest groups are closely linked in the process by formal and informal ties, which are influenced by

external forces. The strengths of these ties decide whether the change will be successful.

- Change is a multi-faceted phenomenon. Change in education is based on theories from the disciplines of economics, anthropology, psychology, administration and education. It is focused on individuals, but within the organisation the dominant political hegemony has an influence.

- A variety of strategies and methods have to be used to bring about the change. During change new situations requiring new strategies appear constantly. A strategy has to anticipate the unanticipated, because new problems may appear in practice and they will necessitate their own unique solutions. Coercion rarely gives rise to sustainable solutions to problems.

- Change must be structured and pursued through well-thought out strategies to prevent oversight or neglect of relevant issues.

- Change must be based on a need to eliminate resistance.

- Change has mainly to do with people. Each school's plan for change will have to accommodate the relevant people and their unique needs.

- Change is a gradual process. It requires the active engagement of the agents of change until the change has been fully internalised into the school.

- Existing structures in a school have to be altered if it appears that the intended changes will fail without such modifications.

- The implementation of change should rather be organic (flexible) than bureaucratic (rigid). Instead of insisting on firm rules and direct supervision, a flexible plan, which allows for spontaneous modifications of the stated programme in the face of unforeseen factors, is desirable.

- It is not desirable to have simultaneous planning and implementation of change taking place. It is essential to consider all implementation options in advance.

According to Herman and Herman 1994: 3 the following are the prerequisites for successful management and implementation of transformational change.

- There should be a commitment to change by the leaders and by a critical mass among the stakeholders.

- There should exist a clear and desirable vision of what the school will be like once the change is complete.

- There should exist clear-cut strategic goals to be reached as the organisation undergoes the change process, and milestones should be established to guide the path of the change.

- Detailed tactical plans should be decided upon and be available in understandable language to all who are to participate in the change process.

- Training should be provided for those individuals who are to initiate and/or manage the change, if they do not possess the requisite knowledge or skills.

- Adequate time, finances and material and human resources must be provided to enhance the probability of successful change.

- High quality, comprehensive and frequent two-way communication should take place throughout the entire change process.

- Adjustments to the tactical or strategic plans should be made during the formative period of the change process, if changes are required during the initiation and implementation stages of change.

- The leader should give recognition to all who do good work, and he/she should attend group celebrations every time an important milestone is reached.

Phases in managing change

Change can be seen as having five phases, which means that there are five phases to be managed.

Diagnosis

A need for change exists when any group of participants in the educational process loses faith in current practices, activities, and outcomes of actions (Knoop 1987: 15) the resulting dissatisfaction has to be unfrozen and diagnosed,

which can happen in three ways. First the principal may become aware of a situation that requires alteration in the school. Second, staff may become aware of the situation that needs to be altered and report this to the principal. Third, parents or members of the public may become aware of something that needs to be changed, and bring their concerns to the attention of the principal. (Walker and Vogt 1987: 42)

Diagnosing the problem reveals the extent and the reality of the situation. It is possible to establish whether the problem that has been raised needs to be taken seriously and whether it actually has an influence on the person or persons who have reported it. If it appears from the diagnosis that these persons no longer have a problem, particularly in the light of the heads reaction, then change should be terminated immediately. If there is no distinction between the existing situation and the desired situation, then the principal has nothing to unfreeze. In addition, the principal may find that others are unwilling to devote time and energy to new procedures, skills, techniques and attitudes. To summarise, it can be stated that unfreezing should only occur when a diagnosis shows that there is a genuine need for change. Diagnosis should be the basis for planning for change.

Planning

Planning refers to finding alternatives to problems that have been diagnosed in a creative fashion, to analyse these alternative and finally to make a choice between possible solutions. (Knoop, 1987:16) Each of the planned alternative solutions should have the potential to limit dissatisfaction, activate further forces, and to operate against forces of resistance to change. In seeking alternate solutions, various research procedures should be instituted. Torrington

and Weightman (1989) maintain that the following are appropriate questions that the agents of change should pose during this phase:

- What is the current state of affairs, and how did it eventuate?
- Why is the situation problematic?
- In what way could it be different?
- What factors will help, and what hinders change?
- Who will be affected by any changes that may be made?
- How will those affected react to the proposed change?
- What will be the point of departure?

Some school principals err in their point of departure by attempting to force change upon teachers, including insisting on adopting new values and attitudes. (Aquila and Galovic 1988: 52) This approach rarely works, as teachers have no vested interest in the change. Lunenburg and Ornstein 1991: 222 emphasise that coercion should be the last resort in bringing about change. It is necessary to establish a climate conducive to change first.

An appropriate climate can be created by continuously communicating with those involved in the change, by establishing work committees to investigate the problem, and by discussing whatever problems are encountered with the schools' governing body. The focus of the investigation process should be to promote cooperation between the principal (agent of change) and the school community. (Walker and Vogt 1987:42) Knoop 1987: 16 advocates consensual

decision-making procedures, with the reservation that the decision-making group is kept small to obtain the best set of alternative solutions.

Implementations should begin as soon as the existing situation has been unfrozen (diagnosed) and the alternate solutions have been planned.

Implementation

Implementation is the most difficult phase of the change process. Planning has to serve as the blue print during this phase of making practice real. Implementation means that new structures are created, rules and regulations changed, objectives set, and training provided. Knoop 1987: 17 states that resistance to change many also occur during this phase. According to Walker and Vogt 1987: 43 resistance to change can originate from the system or from the individual. Some of the causes of resistance to change during this phase are the following as outlined below:

- A failure to involve people who are affected by the changes in the planning phase.
- The changes are not noted in writing and circulated appropriately.
- The goals of the changes are not clearly articulated and cleared with people involved with the changes.
- Working group recommendations are not accepted.
- Teachers are not kept informed of the compass of proposed changes.
- Concerns by educators that the changes might prove disastrous are not addressed.

- There is excessive pressure of work during the implementation phase of the changes.

An effective support pressure to counter the forces of resistance will have to be found during the implementation phase. Other supporting forces during this phase are:

- Effective communication by the principal
- Involvement by the principal during implementation
- A principal with the necessary competence
- Sensible allocation of duties so that tasks are completed conscientiously
- A principal who is prepared to be the central facilitator during the implementation phase
- The situation should be frozen or stabilised as soon as changes have been implemented and are up and running.

Stabilisation

New norms come into existence during the stabilisation phase. According to Walker and Vogt 1987:42 loyalty to these norms are achieved by increasing people involvement. People need to be encouraged and rewarded during the stabilisation phase to ensure that support for the changes is maintained and to prevent regression to old ways.

Evaluation

The final phase require as an evaluation of the change process. This evaluation should indicate the degree of success of the change process and the

change itself. It will enable the principal to ascertain the success of the change, and will also serve as a point of departure for other change process that needs to be tackled.

The role of the principal in managing change

Many researchers refer to the school principal as the change agent who has to accept the entire responsibility for the management of change. (Dull 1981: 71; Kimbrough & Burkett 1990: 130; Sergiovanni 1987: 286) The principal as the agent of change is expected to initiate change, to facilitate it and to implement it. Kimbrough & Burkett 1990:130 states that politicians, parents and the business sectors all expect that schools will accept the responsibility of changing existing practices in the interest of progress. These expectations place pressure on the principal to manage change and to accept the following responsibilities, among others (Dull, 1981:71).

- Determining the objectives of the proposed change
- Determining the procedures and methods for implementing change
- Scrutinising literature relevant to the proposed change
- Contacting other heads that may have already had experience of the proposed change.

Besides having to accept these responsibilities, the school principal also has to have the necessary skills to manage change effectively. Staff commitment to change is gained through building relationships through trust and openness, through sharing perceptions and understanding, through joint responsibility and recognition of effort. Staff are encouraged to speak freely and different

perceptions of educators have to be managed 'creatively and deftly' in a climate of trust and mutual respect.

Skills needed by the school principal as agent of change

Carnall 1986: 106 emphasise that the principal needs certain skills in order to initiate and manage change successfully. He regards vision and creativity as pre-requisites for the systematic planning for solving new problems. He further contends that the principal has to respond intuitively when new decisions have to be made. Guinness 1990: 184 sees intuitive decision-making as being based on wide experience and knowledgeable handling sessions where contributions from outsiders are welcomed. Huddle 1987: 86 is of the opinion that the personal vision, involvement, dedication and visible support of the principal constitute the crucial factors in successful implementation of change.

It is contended that the following skills, personal qualities and characteristics in the principal as necessary to initiate and implement change successfully.

- Good interpersonal relationships and ease of manner
- A grounding in the ethics and philosophy of change
- An understanding of how groups function
- Familiarity with adult education and running workshops
- Wide experience, a sound knowledge of educational management, and good general knowledge of other disciplines
- Initiative and innovative ideas

- Skills in enhancing communication, trust, and self-confidence
- The ability to generate effective positive relationships, to give support to show empathy and sensitivity
- A willingness to confront people where necessary without generating hostility
- A sound understanding of how to handle conflict and stress
- A flexible and adaptable management style
- The ability to identify his own and others' strengths and weaknesses
- Skills in planning for action and implementation

The management task of the principal as change agent

Change is managed according to its phases. Planning is one of the key factors in the success rate of the implementation and acceptance of change. Keeve 1987: 51 states that this means that the principal has to give special attention to how he intends to:

- Manage change as a process
- Evaluate the effect of changes and change strategy
- Persuade the school community to accept the changes
- Communicate the aims of the changes to the school community

Vandenberghe 1988: 71 further states that the principal also has to:

- Record in writing the planning for the proposed changes for circulation among members of the school community.

- Share information about the transformation that the changes will bring with the staff during staff meetings, class visits and in the informal discussion.

- Identify priorities for dealing with tasks.

- Devise time schedules for reporting results and identify sources of aid in reaching the desired outcomes.

Resistance to change

In this chapter I deal with a psychological crisis that have come about through educational transformation. In a society there is a straightforward choice to be made between security and freedom. Members of a society who opt for security in effect agree to relinquish their freedom to autocratic controls. On the other hand members who opt for freedom must be willing to accept the high levels of personal performance that are required of them to be free and must be willing to live with the uncertainty of operating as free agents. The South African nation has in principle opted for freedom over security during the 1994 democratic elections and must therefore be prepared to personally live with the high levels of uncertainty that accompany freedom of choice in the political, professional and personal spheres of life.

The above statement implies that as part of education transformation, educators engaged at all levels of the educational bureaucracy will be subjected to high levels of uncertainty that are a consequence of educational change. It is important that the dynamics of change be managed in accordance with the latest

legislation, which has been amended from an autocracy to a democracy. This movement from an autocracy to a democracy has resulted in major structural changes that are being implemented. It must be noted that such structural changes are not confined to specific sectors but rather effect all organisations and all job profiles. The introduction of Outcomes Based Education in South African schools is a measure of change that has been met with varying degrees of initial resistance by many an educator. The teacher is now a facilitator of complementary learning and not a dictator of instructions. The concepts on paper initially evoked a sense of anxiety in the hearts and minds of people, educators and educator managers.

The changed educational curriculum

Outcomes Based Education (OBE) has been through a process to reached its current implementation status in schools. Below are some views of OBE from its initial stage to its current status.

Traditional Outcomes-Based Education

According to Chisholm et al 2000: 11 Spady, one of the architects of OBE has stated that traditional OBE encompassed negative elements of education, such as rote learning, subject divisions, content-based knowledge and summative assessment. Traditional and transformational OBE would be depicted as opposite ends of the continuum.

Transitional Outcomes-Based Education

Transitional OBE lies between the two extremes of traditional and transformational OBE. According to Brandt 1994: http://showcase.netins.net/web/fwr /spawilhtm, Spady's transitional OBE extends beyond the traditional OBE in that higher order competencies are emphasised – 'it centres curriculum and assessment design around higher order

exit outcomes'. Having graduates who are broadly competent persons best reflects its vision.

Transformational Outcomes-Based Education

Spady and Marshall 1991: http://showcase.netins.net/web/fwr/oubapare.htm state that transformational OBE has its roots in the future-scanning procedures found in well-designed strategic planning and design models. Marsh 1997a: 41, describes transformational OBE as being future oriented and committed to success for all learners. It includes clearly defined and publicly derived "exit outcomes" that reflect changing societal conditions and a curriculum framework that derives from the exit outcomes. It also includes a variety of methods that assures learners successful demonstration of all outcomes and provides more than one chance for learners to be successful. It incorporates a criterion-referenced and consistently applied system of assessment, performance standards, credentialing and reporting.

The concept of change and the Revised National Curriculum Statement

OBE was initially perceived to be problematic. Professor Kader Asmal (2000) appointed a committee known as the Chisholm committee to revise the initial curriculum statement. This committee has since released the Revised National Curriculum Statement online in the form of eight electronic documents in Adobe acrobat format. The Revised National Curriculum Statement strengthens and consolidates Curriculum 2005, which was first introduced in 1998. It does so through simplifying and streamlining its main design elements while at the same time ensuring that learning expectations are clearly spelt out at each grade. This Revised National Curriculum Statement is made up of critical and developmental outcomes, learning outcomes and assessment standards.

What seemed chaotic is in actual fact dynamic. It must be noted that when dynamic forces are in operation, inflexible structures break, particularly in attitudes. It is thus important that educators keep a balanced perspective of the many changes in the educational setting. The Revised National Curriculum Statement is one step in an ongoing process of curriculum transformation and development. It thus requires a firm commitment from all educators and educational managers to cast aside old pedagogical strategies and methodologies and to equip themselves with the latest design mechanisms that the curriculum offers so that educators are able to nurture and facilitate active life-long learning. The curriculum demands that educators as the facilitators of learning continue to equip themselves with the latest methodology and technology so that learner expectations and demands can be fully realised. Educators need to embrace the concept of life-long learning positively.

The Revised National Curriculum signals the consolidation of the major curriculum gains made in South Africa since the achievement of democracy. The Revised National Curriculum upholds the rights of all learners, parents and educators, who together with the state accept responsibility for learning and teaching. It is thus critical that all learners be recognised for the acquisition of skills, knowledge and attitudes and be rewarded accordingly. Stereotyped mindsets, tunnel vision thinking and transfixed ideologies need to be changed so that the Revised National Curriculum can be implemented successfully. The Revised National Curriculum endorses that all individuals can learn and succeed in different ways.

According to Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990:127, change becomes more meaningful when there is resistance to it. Dull 1981: 71 and Sergiovanni 1987:

280 states that there will always be resistance to change. Resistance is a general response to proposed change, but it does not get the attention it deserves. Conflict and resistance are usually associated with change in an organisation. There is a growing worldwide realisation that negotiation is one of the most effective and democratic ways of solving peacefully, problems arising from change. Hence I devote the final section of this chapter to negotiation as an instrument for assisting change, especially for managing conflict during organisational change.

The role of negotiation as a management technique in changing organisations

Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992:2 state that negotiation is not an invention of this century, they contend that it is as old as humanity. School principals and other educational leaders negotiate in relatively casual contexts, whereas professional negotiators operate from a well-established foundation, receive intensive specialist training, and possess knowledge and experience of negotiating in highly specific areas. Principals are key figures in the school from an organisational perspective. They are in direct contact with teachers, parents and other educationally relevant structures. They have a decisive role in maintaining sound labour relations in organisational change. It is thus crucial that educational leaders understand the negotiation process and possess negotiating skills. Mampuru and Spoelstra 1994: 13 state that the former is especially relevant in the South African educational management context, because changes that have taken place in South Africa since 1994 have been primarily the result of negotiations and in a diverse society such as South Africa any good manager will have to be a good negotiator.

Negotiation is an excessively interlaced issue. All the elements are present simultaneously, to a lesser or greater degree. They are continually interacting, playing a role, and influencing the course of the process.

Negotiation is a broad concept, which can be included in a variety of situations. According to Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992: 8 negotiation is in reality a communication process where various parties try to reach consensus or an agreement by following mutually persuasive tactics.

Negotiation becomes necessary when the parties concerned are mutually dependent upon one another to achieve their separate objectives, in other words, when the parties can only reach their goals if they pursue solutions cooperatively. Negotiations can take place in part or in their entirety through the media of direct discussions, written documents, the telephone, or via other persons and parties. An important principle underlying negotiations are that at least two parties have to be involved, and that discussions have to centre around clashing concerns. The two parties should seek also separate objectives independently of one another. The parties have to communicate with one another to find solutions. Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992:9 state that the parties strive to convince one another to see the opposing viewpoint, and thus to obtain the best possible solution. A part to negotiations always has objectives, which it pursues by means of this process. There is also always an outcome or result, usually in the form of a verbal or written agreement. Negotiation is an instrument whereby the best possible outcome can be reached in the light of prevailing circumstances. Where a solution is forced on the other party by exerting power, resulting in its defeat. It is likely that the problem will drag on; a loser will try to strengthen his/her

position in the interim, so that it will stand a better chance of eventually achieving its objectives.

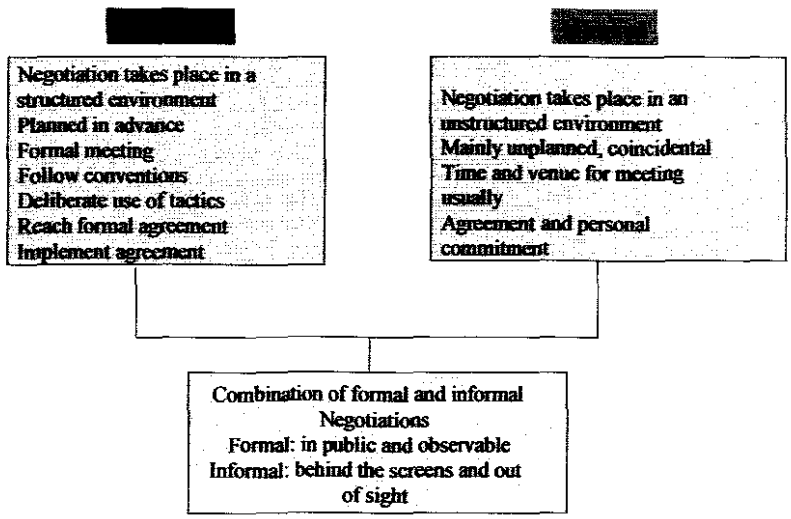

FIGURE 27 FORMAL AND INFORMAL NEGOTIATIONS

Formal and informal negotiation situations

According to Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992:12 negotiation has a mix of formal and informal properties as depicted in figure 27 above.

The negotiation process

According to Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992: 16 negotiation is a process that consists of the following three phases.

- The need to negotiate and the preparation for the negotiation (prelude)
- Face to face persuasive communication (duration)
- The implementation of the agreement (termination)

Figure 28 below depicts the three phase of the negotiation process.

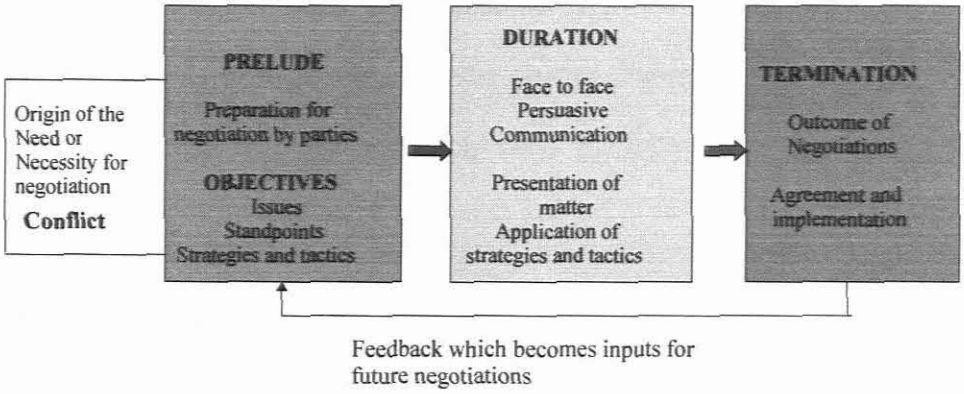

FIGURE 28 THE THREE PHASES OF THE NEGOTIATION PROCESS POTTAS AND NIEUWMEIJER 1992: 17

The prelude to the negotiation process

The need for negotiation usually has its roots in a conflict of interests between parties. Conflict is associated with people's subjective perceptions and only becomes a reality once their people notice their conflicting interests. Once people are conscious of conflicting interests a series of actions are set into motion. The parties often attempt to reach independent solutions to the problem. It does occur that parties with the most power and resources pursue its interests by dominating the weaker party, thereby achieving its objectives. The losers needs remain unsatisfied and the conflict continues.

Negotiation is a valuable instrument to resolve emanating problems so that all parties eventually reach consensus in an amicable manner. Sometimes it becomes necessary to first have preliminary negotiations in order to persuade the other party to enter into negotiations. A third party could be included in the process to act as a mediator to persuade the parties to negotiate.

Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992: 26 state that planning and preparation for negotiation consists of various steps and includes matters like content, extent, form, expectations of the parties, and objectives. The advantage of thorough

preparation is that it requires the negotiator to be disciplined and to think of his/her objectives and how they are to be reached. Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992: 26-30 recommend that the following steps be followed in the negotiation process.

Step 1

Decide on the topic for discussion, and give it a descriptive title. This defines the scope of the negotiation at the outset, so that preparations can commence.

Step 2

This stage entails research and gathering information. Relevant literature, records and other written sources are consulted in the information gathering process. On-site visits could be conducted to reaffirms and establish facts. Interviews could also be conducted to gain insights into the organisation. If the need arises, expert advisors could be used.

Step 3

This stage requires careful analysis and evaluation of the information that has been obtained. Grouping and ordering information to form a systematic whole is required. The reliability and value of the information is evaluated, as well as the meaning that should be attached to it. The accuracy of information also needs to be verified, and steps need to be put in place to obtain essential outstanding information.

Step 4

This stage largely entails the formulation of objectives. This stage propagates largely what the negotiation should achieve. It is important that

distinguishable parameters be laid as regards primary and secondary objectives. It is important that the objectives be specific and is stated in measurable terms.

Step 5

This stage entails preparation for the face-to-face phase. A list of all the questions need to be drawn that could be raised in the discussion. A decision is made on what one is prepared to accept during the discussion process. It is thus important that one identify all the issues that the other party would bring to the negotiating table. The value of thorough research during this stage cannot be overemphasised.

Stage 6

This is the most critical step in the preparation for negotiation and involves the following:

Strategies. The negotiator should decide in advance what strategies are to be followed during the negotiation. It is good to begin with an aspect that all would agree on so that a cooperative environment is firstly created. Another good strategy is to keep in reserve some arguments supporting one's case, only forwarding them in the course of the negotiation in a systematic and purposeful manner.

Critical agreements. In a negotiation, progress occurs via a process of persuasion. In order to convince a person, it is necessary to present notions or points that will be acceptable to the other party. One tactic is to lead the other party into accepting agreement on critical points. A critical agreement occurs when one party accepts and acknowledges a particular position or fact as

presented by the other party. By accepting a particular position, the parties automatically accept other closely related points by implication.

Common ground. Careful attention should be given to possible common ground between the parties while preparing for the presentations. Both parties have a common interest in finding common ground. The value of common ground is that it can be used particularly when a dead end is reached, or when there is lack of progress in the negotiation. For these reasons it is important that the negotiator discovers common ground between parties during the preparation phase.

Agreement. Most negotiations conclude with a written agreement or contract. In many cases this takes the form of an agreement on the underlying principles, it is circulated among the parties so that they can prepare themselves. At a later stage this serves as a basis for the negotiation, and gives it parameters and structure. It is important that the negotiator be familiar of the legal ramification involved in the negotiation process.

In addition to the steps that have been hi-lighted as part of the planning and preparation for the negotiations, there are situational factors that have to be taken into account. Pottas and Nieuwmeijer 1992: 30 identify two major situational factors namely time and place. They contend that these two factors have a significant impact on the progress and the outcome of the negotiations and suggest that they be given due attention during the preparation phase.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Conflict in organisations is a common scenario although it often does not erupt into raging battles. It can take many forms and have varied effects – not all

of which are bad. The key lies in how it is viewed and the steps taken by parties to deal with it. Robbins 1990: 411 states that conflict is inevitable in organisations. This is largely due to structural characteristics and incompatible personalities within organisations. Callahan 1998: 195 describes conflict as a condition of opposition and discord, involving mutual antagonism.

According to the interactionist view, an organisation without conflict is static, apathetic and unresponsive to the need for change. Conflict can improve effectiveness by stimulating change and improving decision-making processes. Robbins 1990: 418 states that the principal needs to create an environment, which is healthy, and to control the level of conflict as a high degree of conflict could be disruptive, chaotic and lead to a breakdown of human relations. Conflict is *constructive when it*:

- Opens up issues of importance, resulting in their clarification,
- Results in solving problems,
- Increases involvement of individuals in issues of importance to them,
- Serves as a release of pent-up emotion, anxiety, and stress,
- Helps build cohesiveness among people by sharing the conflict, celebrating its settlement, and learning more about each other through it,
- Helps individuals to grow and to apply what they're learned to future situations.

Conflict is destructive when it:

- Diverts energy from more important activities and issues,
- Destroys the morale of people or reinforces poor self-concept,
- Polarises groups, increasing internal cohesiveness while reducing group cooperativeness,
- Deepens difference in values,
- Produces irresponsible and regrettable behaviour such as name calling and fighting,
- Increases stress.

One element of diagnosing situations involves learning basic conflict styles used in dealing with interpersonal or inter-group conflict. These styles are represented in the figure 29 below.

The Avoiding Style involves a low concern for both self and others; it avoids conflict by withdrawing or through passive agreement.

The Obliging Style reveals a low concern for ones self and a high concern for others. The obliging style is concerned with people satisfaction, harmony and smoothing over conflicts.

The Dominating Style reveals a high concern for ones self and a low concern for others. The dominating style attempts to attain personal objectives and often ignores the needs of others, forcing a win-lose situation.

The Compromising Style reveals a moderate concern for ones self and a moderate concern for others. This style tends to seek a compromise between conflicting parties or elements.

The Integrating Style shows a high concern for ones self and for others. This style is concerned with problem solving. It uses openness, sharing of information, and the examination of differences to reach consensus.

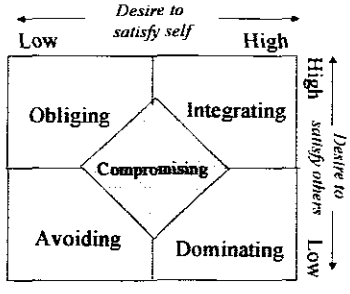

FIGURE 29 CONFLICT STYLES

Resolving conflict

The first step in resolving conflict is to determine the nature of conflict. Classifying the conflict is important to make sure that all parties are dealing with a common denominator. It will also ensure that the problem is unearthed and not just the symptoms of the problem.

Resolution techniques

- **Problem solving**

Problem solving, also referred to as collaboration, is one of the most widely used and effective methods of resolving conflict. It largely involves the concerned parties coming face-to face to work out a solution together. Essential points of difference are sought rather than a determination of who is right, who is wrong, who wins, or who loses. Through communication and sharing of feelings, the problem is mutually defined. Similarities are emphasised, and the participants consider a full range of alternatives to solve the problem.

- **Expanding resources**

Expanding resources is an obvious approach if that is where the conflict exists. The advantage, of course, is that both conflicting parties achieve victory. Unfortunately, the use of this technique is restricted by the inherent limitation that resources cannot always be expanded.

- **Avoidance**

A useful method for handling conflict is avoidance. While it does not provide a permanent resolution, it can be a successful short run alternative. The time gained through avoidance can be used for gathering information about the problem. It also can provide a 'cooling off', period for the parties involved.

- **Smoothing**

Smoothing, also called accommodating, is a process of playing down differences while emphasising common interests. Communication revolves around similarly held views, while issues upon which differences exist are not openly discussed.

- **Compromising**

The compromising style is a give-and-take style based on the belief that people cannot always have their way and find a middle ground they all can live with. It is common for compromisers to look for feasible solutions. They often use techniques such as bargaining, trading and smoothing over of differences. They feel that people should be more willing to set aside some of their wishes and show sensitivity to other people's wishes.

- **Collaborating**

Collaborating is the willingness to accept the other party's needs, while asserting your own. In collaborating, it is assumed that there is some reasonable chance a solution can be found to satisfy both parties in the conflict. Such a

solution might not be possible, but a collaborator believes that it is worth trying to find one.

- **Competing**

The competing style is one in which a person pursues his or her own wishes at the expense of the other party. Conflict is viewed as a game to be won. Competitors are both assertive and uncooperative. Winning means success and accomplishment. Losing means failure, weakness and a loss of status. Competitors will use many different tactics to win such as threats, arguments or persuasion.

- **Confrontation**

Confrontation techniques require that parties decide to face each other on the issues, but do so constructively. The parties must be willing to work together to arrive at a consensus decision, one that both parties can accept. They may compete or compromise somewhat, but the major emphasis of confrontation techniques is to find mutually acceptable and longer lasting solutions.

- **Negotiating and bargaining**

Negotiation is part of the everyday experience of any professional. It is a way of reconciling interests and reducing conflict in situations where people have to interact. All human relationships have an element of co-operation and competition, and negotiation is lubrication between these two tendencies. Negotiations is thus and integral aspect of a network of human interactions within any organisation.

Mastenbrock 1987: 57 identifies power and dependency relationships as the crucial element of interaction within organisations. The power of an individual or group is generally built up over a period of time. It depends on the gradual

establishing of personal reputations, the forging of friendships, establishing of precedents and habits, and the gaining control of resources. Experienced negotiators often try to insulate the bargaining situation from the rest of their relationship or, if comparative strangers, will build up counterbalancing positive relationships or interactions.

Pollard 1989: 121 suggests that a negotiator's effectiveness is based on factors on at least the following three levels:

- The frame of mind that the negotiator adopts
- The procedures adopted
- The process of interpersonal communication

The frame of mind

Two alternative approaches, namely positional and principled bargaining have been highlighted by negotiation researchers. Fisher and Ury 1981 support the latter, citing the dangers of viewing negotiation as a win-lose competition, which fosters betting, point scoring and conflict. It is much more helpful to view negotiation as a joint exploration of a situation in which the potential adversaries find themselves, jointly and mutually finding satisfactory solutions. Negotiators need to be joint 'problem solvers'. Fisher and Ury 1981 identify the following principles, which define a frame of mind conducive to conflict resolution:

Separate the people from the problem. be soft on the people and hard on the problem. The unskilled negotiator is liable to confuse the people with the problem, and to direct his own feelings of frustration or anger at his protagonists. He may indeed label the other people as the problem. He does not focus on the soft spots where there may be some possibility of change. The unskilled

negotiator is hard on the people and soft on the problem. The antidote is to credit your protagonist with humanity, to assume his motivation is honourable, to treat him well, and together to undertake a probing intellectual analysis of the circumstances and problem.

Go for a wise outcome reached efficiently and amicably. This recognises that people usually have to go on living with their protagonist, and a short-term personal victory may merely set the scene for a future conflict.

Proceed independently of trust. Even while assuming that people are trustworthy, it is important to recognise that there may be continuing tensions or conflict, which will lead to misunderstanding. It is important to aim for agreements that can be monitored objectively, and be clearly observed to be succeeding or failing. Insist on objective criteria.

Reason and be open to reason: Yield to principle, not to pressure. Reasoning is the way to solve problems, and it is constantly necessary to appeal to the power of good ideas rather than to the power of personalities of precedent. Sometimes indeed the protagonist will take a stand 'on principle'. However, such a stand conveys a hidden message that:

- The other side has no principles, and
- His or her position has no validity or legitimacy.

The starting point must be that everybody has principles: The problem is to explore the range of application of the principles, or to find super ordinate principles to which you can both subscribe. The mechanism for doing this is reason, and that implies you come to the negotiation with an open mind.

Do not get into a push-pull battle: It may be that the protagonist is a less skilled negotiator than you are, and slips into, or even starts, by viewing the negotiation as a contest. He may engage in personal attacks either explicitly or by innuendo, or play the game of power politics. He may even try to engage in blackmail, whether moral or otherwise. No matter what dirty tricks are used, however, the long-term advantage to all sides will be in adopting principled negotiations.

Stay cool: No matter how much you try you may find that some negotiations push you to the limits of your skill, making you feel inadequate, frustrated and angry. It can be helpful to acknowledge the emotion being generated: 'I think we are both finding this frustrating and difficult – I know I certainly am' or 'You must know that some of my colleagues are pretty upset about the situation'. But naked emotions are rarely advantageous except in the short term, because even if effective it will leave the protagonist uncommitted to the agreement.

The procedures adopted

It is important to establish within the negotiation a feeling of optimism and progress, without which anger and frustration can easily take over. Establishing progress depends on having a procedure – a path of the territory to carry you forward and give you the right things to say at the right time.

Sound preparations should be undertaken, which will provide a path of the relevant territory. It will be necessary to give thought to:

The *problems or issues*: Your problems as well as that of the protagonist. Identifying who faces what problems, will give a good indication of motivation for change.

Facts and technical details: People are well aware of the difference to their personal effectiveness in meeting when they have taken the opportunity to brief themselves beforehand.

Interest of all parties: Negotiators will normally state a position, which they believe best meets their interests. If however, you are able to suggest alternative positions, which serve their interests as well or almost as well, you may stimulate some movement.

Multiple solutions: There is a tendency to stop thinking as soon as a desirable outcome is identified. It pays to generate a variety of possible solutions, which can be considered in the light of the emerging analysis of the problem.

The 'Best alternative to a negotiated agreement' (BATNA): Fisher and Ury 1981 suggest that it is better to have identified what you will do if the negotiations fail, as this can be used as a point of reference against which to compare any proposals. The better your BATNA, the stronger your negotiating position. Having prepared a path of the relevant territory thoroughly, the agenda will furnish you with guidance on the timing of what you say in the meeting. Timing is clearly a crucial factor in the successful resolution of problems. The path of negotiations has a clearly desirable sequence, the violation of which is liable to lead to slower progress.

Common problems: Common problems are identified to create the feeling of a joint approach. It may take a degree of creativity to re-conceptualise problems in

a form where they can be seen as common. A shared understanding of common problems is an essential step if conflict is to be fully resolved.

Common needs / interests: Moving on from problems, it is helpful to describe in general terms the situation that you both would like to see. If such a situation is out of reach, it may be possible to identify some important steps towards it.

Options for mutual gain: As in preparation, a focus on multiple options is more likely to keep the negotiation moving forward than a premature emphasis on a single option.

A way forward: This is the point at which a preferred option is selected, including, if possible agreed action. In most cases there will not be a solution that satisfies all the needs of all the parties, and everyone will need time to adjust to this reality. The most that can be hoped for in a single meeting is to find a way forward. In some circumstances the best way forward will be to agree to specific ways to investigate and observe the problems that are being considered.

Review date: Setting a review conveys the message that you are seriously interested in progress, and are not merely stalling for time. It should be scheduled far enough ahead for evidence to be apparent on whether the agreed way forward is yielding any results.

The process of interpersonal communication

At a specific level, there are ways of talking and behaving that can help the negotiation along, or sabotage it. The main elements are setting the scene, listening to understand, and stating your views:

Setting the scene: Establishing rapport, and ensuring that all participants come to a meeting with the same expectations, are important preliminary steps. This

will involve greeting people appropriately, breaking the ice, ensuring that people are physically looked after, and then checking that everybody agrees on the nature of the meeting, and what can be realistically achieved.

Listening to understand: Listening is the cheapest concession that you can make. Listening as an active attempt to understand what is said, and seeing the situation through the other person's viewpoint, is an important and rare skill.

Bargaining is primarily a compromising style, but effective bargainers use a variety of techniques. They will occasionally act competitively and use force or threats. They will use accommodation, hoping that a concession on their part will stimulate the other party to concede on some issues in return.

- **Mediation**

Mediation is commonly used in labour management negotiations. The parties can use third party assistance to arrive at solutions. Mediators are not empowered to make decisions or impose a solution, but they use this technique to resolve differences. They make suggestions and monitor the interaction of the parties. Mediators can ease tensions and objectivity to the bargaining.

- **Arbitration**

Arbitration is another third-party approach to conflict resolution. Unlike mediators, arbitrators actually make decisions that bind both parties. Arbitrators are used in labour management situations and less often in other situations. Arbitrators have to listen to both sides of an issue. When the arbitrator feels satisfied that he/she has heard enough, the arbitrator takes ample time to study the issues, and then makes a decision that is binding on both parties.

Conclusion

In this chapter I looked at change management and how the modern day educational manager should adopt a flexible leadership role in his day-to-day management of human resources. I also look at conflict and how it can be managed successfully within a work environment.

In chapter 12 I look at information and knowledge management and its impact on human resources in the school environment. I also look at technology and its impact on education.

CHAPTER 12

INFORMATION AND KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Introduction

It is said that information is the lifeblood of an informed society. The development of information technology has had a major impact on communication within the workplace. Every organisation, be it public or private, generates information to document actions, identify rights and responsibilities and communicate information. The advent of information technology has brought rapid and dynamic changes to the way information is stored and managed. Information has to be stored and managed in line with an organisations policy, which must be in accordance with acceptable professional standards and guidelines. It must be noted that the effectiveness with which information is generated and communicated within an organisation determines a society's rate of progress and the fulfilment of its people. (Reference Information Review 1995: 1) Every employer must keep records of all employees. Every employer will have to develop a record system to suit its own particular circumstances and needs. The rapid spread of information technology has led to predictions by experts that the "paperless office" will soon become a commonplace within our society. Information will be provided instantaneously through computers, telecommunications and optical disk systems.

Technology

Computerisation has led to rapid changes in the way governments and organisations operate. New information technologies are rapidly changing the methods of communication available to managers and employees alike – and thus

the communication channels they use. The key component in technology development in the workplace was the silicon chip, which facilitated the execution of tasks by miniaturised equipment rather than by larger and more expensive machinery. Van Dyk 1989: 13 identifies technology as the one macro-trend that has contributed enormously to the dynamics in human resource management. In the industrial sector technology remains the primary source of increased productivity. Technological progress affects the organisation as a whole, including its products, life cycle, material supply, production processes and even managerial approach an more especially the employee who has to use such technology. The ever-growing importance of technology in the modern work environment makes it incumbent that top management be familiar with the mechanisms involved in harnessing the benefits towards the organisation. Van Dyk 1989: 18 states the following as roles that management can play as regards the overarching guideline with regard to technology usage:

"Be alert to the growing need for technological understanding at the senior levels of management. Many companies are adopting training programmes, sending their managers on courses and appointing technology managers or secretariats. If your company has done so, monitor the activities of the technological secretariat carefully. What has it done to increase the capabilities of the board for grasping the unfolding technological frontier, to what extent has the technological secretariat created a skill base, to what extent have the soft managers been exposed to technological issues? Get to know the necessary resources available to increase technological capability of your corporation at the senior level."

With the above in mind it is of paramount importance that education managers motivate and guide personnel on the benefits of the use of modern

technology in enhancing the status of the organisation. Technology can to a large extent speed up various paper drawn activities thus enhancing the timeframes with regard to the attendance of various matters. Digital media has revolutionised the information society. Information and communication technology have changed the teaching and learning process, and have expanded new learning opportunities and access to educational resources beyond those traditionally available. Information on various aspects pertaining to the organisation can be accessed at the touch of a button. Telephone answering machines, fax machines, teleconferencing, closed circuit television systems, computerised report preparation, videotaping and computer-to-computer transmissions are but only some of the examples of communication methods developed during the past twenty- five years. It is worth noting that many schools are embracing the information and communication technology process in a positive manner by increasing and exploiting its benefits.

Digital convergence

According to Mersham & Skinner 1999: 213 digital convergence occurs when different kinds of media, codes and messages are encoded in one common digital form. Digital convergence has gained momentum in the recent past and is expected greater heights in the near future. All forms of communicating devices are being merged for greater utility. A common example is the cellular telephone, which can be used to send or receive voice mail, faxes, e-mail and surf the Internet. It can also be used as a remote control unit to access other devices!

Mersham & Skinner 2001a: 220, Marshal McLuhan (1964: 1975) compared each new medium to a rear-view mirror. It will contain, he said, all or parts of all previous media, and something 'new'. We can think of digital coding

communication as a 'shopping trolley' incorporating all existing media forms — text, speech, graphics, video, film and sounds. What is new is the increased possibility of two-way communication that digitised media present.

The most distinctive feature of the unfolding digital present is a proliferation of new media and new forms of communicative interaction. Media will continue to multiply. Everybody's daily life will become a whole ecology of media; some of these will be voluntarily chosen, and others will be inescapable parts of life in public spaces and the workplace. (Agee 1998: 69—70)

What is significant about convergence is that it may be seen, as a narrowing to a singularity, but what we tend to see is an additive model of change leading to multiplication of applications, devices and the means to communicate, which are linked to each other.

Mersham & Skinner 2001a: 221 add that in addition, the more things converge the more they produce knock-on effects, which cannot he predicted from the contemporary technological horizon of understanding. For example, these include significant privacy copyright and security issues, control issues and breakdowns in systems integrity in the drive to greater personalisation or customisation. We are all familiar with the problem of the number of passwords and 'pins' we have to carry around in our heads — if we are smart — or in our bags and wallets — if we are not.

The World Wide Web represents the first truly converged medium. There will be further major developments of convergence through the availability yet unimagined bandwidth and speed of transmission, and the fact that the digital chip will soon form part of every appliance, machine and technology we

encounter. Already a large percentage of digital chips are going into appliances and machines other than desktop computers.

A highly significant form of convergence has taken place between corporate/commercial interests and the Internet. Initially the Internet portrayed promises of information sharing and free access to information with the view to connecting the world together. The term 'globalisation' became the keynote of politicians and policy makers. Mersham & Skinner 2001a: 222 maintain that the Internet has recently been subject to a third wave of 'ranchers' or 'railroaders' that looks to the Internet simply as a means of increasing profit. Whether this original spirit of freely sharing information ultimately manages to prevail against future attempts in the of commonality of information or not, the emerging new digital communication that drives the Internet is based on four important ideas, namely:

- Digital encoding
- Navigation and recipient control
- Convergence
- Interactivity

The first is that information and communication can be digitally encoded whether, text, voice, pictures, sound or video. This digital formatted information can then be easily accessed by a variety of digital devices, not just computers. This is because the digital chip can now he placed in any appliance or object, turning it into a communicating device. Everything becomes a communicating computer.

The second important idea that has revolutionised communications is the concept of hypermedia, which allows recipients much greater navigational control in finding knowledge. (Negroponte 1995) This refers to the way in which web-based information is structured. In the digitally converged world, the depth/breadth problem disappears and we can move freely between generalities and specifics through what is called 'hyper linking'.

Hyper linking is consistent through out all web-based media. Basically it allows one to look more deeply at a particular finer point and to move effortlessly back to the main body of work. Hyper linking is a term describing the interconnection of different parts of information with each other. In a printed book, sentences, paragraphs, pages and chapters follow one another in an order determined not only by the author but also by the physical and sequential construction of the book itself. Although a book may be randomly accessible and your eyes may browse quite haphazardly it is nonetheless forever fixed by the confines of three physical dimensions.

The third idea concerns the dissolving of traditional media boundaries, or convergence. The medium is not the message in a digital world. It is an embodiment of it. A message might have several embodiments automatically derivable from the same digital data. In the future, the broadcaster will send out one stream of bits, such as the weather, for example, which the receiver can convert in many different ways. The viewer can look at the same data from many different perspectives.

Mersham & Skinner 2001a: 225 state that all of these different media representations are encoded in a common digital form, even though they are separately crafted in the multimedia experience. Digital convergence allows the

fluid movement from one medium to the next, saying the same thing in different ways, calling upon one human sense or another. If you did not understand something when you read it the first time, you can see it as a cartoon or three-dimensional diagram. This kind of media movement can include anything from videos or movies that explain themselves with text to books with a gentle voice to read them to you out loud. The common digital form, parallel with developments in voice recognition, means that we will increasingly talk to devices, rather than input instructions through some form of keypad.

Electronic communication has effectively revolutionized our society. An unexpected by product of this revolution has been the emergence of a generation of children weaned on multidimensional, interactive media sources, a generation whose understanding and expectations of the world differ profoundly from that of the generations preceding them. If we are to give these children the education necessary to succeed in our technologically intense, global future a new form of educational practice, one that builds on children's native learning abilities and technological competence, must replace our existing methods. The theoretical foundation for such changes exists, and the time to implement them is now. We have allowed our schools to remain in the past, while our children have been born in the future. The result is a mismatch of learners and educators. But it is not the children who are mismatched to the schools; the schools are mismatched to the children. Only by revising educational practice in the light of how our culture has changed can we close this gap, and reunite our schools with our children and the rest of our society.

Acquiring and interpreting information

A significant global revolution is taking place in education and training. It is driven by the dynamic nature of work, the realities of the information age, new global partnerships and an awareness of the need for equal distribution of educational opportunities. Numerous research programmes on perception clearly demonstrates that the acquisition and interpretation of information are linked, and pre-existing schemas significantly affect both. People are more likely to notice what they are looking for, and to see what they expect to see. Similarly, interpretations tend to follow rather than challenge accustomed patterns of thinking, unless some prominent problem or issue impinges upon the attention. In educational contexts information is rarely acquired by highly systemised methods of inquiry. Eraut 1999: 41 contends that tests, questionnaires and interview protocols represent the most systematic approaches, but even they are rarely developed to a high degree of reliability. The process of information acquisition also differs according to the mode of interpretation. The following three modes are distinguished by Eraut 1999: 41.

- Instant *interpretation or pattern recognition*, as in recognising a person.
- Rapid *interpretation*, as in monitoring one's progress in the middle of a conversation; and
- Deliberate *interpretation*, when there is time for thought and discussion and even for collecting further information.

Nisbet and Ross 1980 contend that psychological research has shown that information gathering is not free of errors, from which professionals are not exempt. When retrieval from memory is a critical factor, incidents involving a

person are more likely to be recalled if they are more recent and/or more salient. The introduction or information communication in schools will create new possibilities for learners and educators in new ways of information selection, gathering, sorting and analysis. Information communication technology has the potential to enhance the management and administrative capacity of schools.

Knowledge, skills and practical knowledge

Margaret Coles 1999: 60 writing on "Knowledge Succeeding" emphasises that knowledge management is essential in running a successful organisation. She explicitly cites the concept of employee behaviour as being vital to productivity gains within organisations. Davison 1999: 12 further contends that the sharing of knowledge also enhances corporate gains within organisations. He also recommends that organisations invest in employee training programmes as well as the creation of personal goal plans for employees. Epistemological studies have created a greater understanding central to philosophy on the acquisition of knowledge and skills for the past few centuries. Some questions about knowledge are crucial to these considerations. It is often questioned, precisely what is knowledge? What makes it possible for people to be sure that what they know corresponds to the "real" world? How can people be sure that the knowledge is true? These are but some of the major questions that confront any philosopher. They cannot be fully answered in this chapter, but need to be explored if practical knowledge is to be understood.

Scheffler 1965: 56 responds to the questions about knowledge as truth propositions when he distinguishes between the three ways of verifying knowledge: rational-logical, empirical and pragmatic. Rational-logical knowledge

is that form of knowledge that is acquired when a mathematical problem is solved since the logical rules have been followed and a conclusion has been reached. Empirical knowledge is that which people gather through their senses. Pragmatic knowledge is experimental and actors have it when they know that something they know actually works in practice – in this sense it is scientific. If knowledge is not capable of producing the types of results that are expected, then it is rejected and new knowledge sought that works. Kelly 1963: 67 contends that human being are 'scientists', seeking always to understand and experiment upon social reality. The idea of experimentation is also crucial to understanding the relationship between personal knowledge and action – between theory and practice. Heller 1984: 166 suggests that the 'pragmatic relationship denotes the direct unit of theory and practice'. People almost always act upon the probability that the action will achieve the desired results. Pragmatic knowledge is a form of scientific knowledge that should underlie a great deal of professional practitioners' action.

Habermas 1972: 67 propagates three forms of knowledge, which he calls process of enquiry, namely technical-cognitive, the historical-hermeneutic and the emancipatory. Habermas 1972: 309 further contends that the technical-cognitive enquiry process revolves largely on practical knowledge. He regards this as being about 'control over objectified processes", and whilst this control may well refer to human action itself, the possession of knowledge does not necessarily mean that those who possess it must necessarily have control over the process, only that they understand them. Habermas's views are important in understanding and explaining why people act in certain ways and not others.

In 1963, Ryle raised the question of practical knowledge in a seminal study. Ryle 1963: 28 distinguished between 'knowledge how' and 'knowledge that' and suggested that in everyday life 'we are more concerned with people's competences than with their cognitive repertoires'. Ryle further demonstrates that when people perform an action they cannot necessarily always articulate the theory underlying the action. Brian McKenna 1999: 34-35 writing on "Knowledge Management", states that companies need to develop habits including risk-management, communication and negotiation in their daily operations. McKenna 1999: 32 makes a point of affirming that most organisations recognise the strategic value for knowledge, but are not able to manage knowledge strategically. Organisations know that knowledge management is extremely beneficial, yet few see it as a high priority.

Scheffler 1965: 129 also points out that knowing how and being able are not synonymous concepts. He provides the illustration of a person who might know how to drive a car but is prevented from doing so for a variety of reasons, e.g. having a broken leg, poor vision. There are contingencies that cannot always be controlled. Hence the difference between having the knowledge and being able to perform the skill still remains crucial. This illustration does not probe deeply enough and another question emerges-when people say 'I know how to...' are they really using a term that has cognitive orientation at all?

Deliberate processes such a planning, problem solving, analysing, evaluating and decision making lie at the heart of professional work. These processes cannot be accomplished by using procedural knowledge alone or by following a manual. They require unique combinations of prepositional knowledge, situational knowledge and professional judgement. In most situations,

there will not be a single correct answer, nor a guaranteed road to success, and even when there is a unique solution it will have to be recognised as such by discrimination which cannot be programmed in advance. Research has revealed that it is important to remain advanced in this knowledge society and that employees need to constantly develop their knowledge base. Employees should follow a path that adequately moulds them into a knowledge specialist.

Developing expertise in acquiring information

An effective knowledge management programme can help achieve several aims. It can facilitate innovation by providing the global communication links that enable employees in different locations to brainstorm effectively and efficiently. A smoother flow of information can also enhance corporate cohesion by building a greater sense of awareness of an organisation's aims and practices. It must also be noted that knowledge systems can speed decision-making by putting needed information at the fingertips of all employees. They can be seen as an agent that can improve productivity, reduce errors and boost the employee morale within an organisation. On the other hand the high reliance on informal and experiential methods of acquiring information with little deliberation does give considerable scope for misinterpretation. Eraut 1999: 47 highlights the following as regards the acquisition of information:

- Become aware of one's own constructs, assumptions and tendencies towards misinterpretations.
- Learn to use additional source of evidence to counteract any possible bias in one's information base.
- Find out about the perspectives of the other people involved.

- Expand the range of one's interpretative concepts, schemas and theories.

- Make time for deliberation and review.

Recent advances in technology and management information systems have caused rapid changes in many modern organisations. O'Brien1993: 473 based the planning for management information systems around the notions of information systems planning and critical success factors. Nolan 1982: 29 together with other researchers (Remenyi 1990: 11; Wetherbe 1993: 87) argued that the information processing function in an organisation evolves through the following stages. These are:

- **Initiation**: with emphasis on cost-reduction accounting and other financial applications.

- **Contagion**: with wide applications in more functional fields.

- **Integration**: where database applications prevent information redundancy and unsynchronised information use.

- **Administration**: where administration is administered systematically and information technology is widely accepted.

- **Maturity**: where fully employed information systems and data are considered a corporate resource.

Identifying the stage an organisation has reached makes it possible to formulate a course of action for further information systems development and planning. Strategic information planning according to Remenyi 1990: 13 stresses

that information is an integral part of the way the organisation functions. Information system planning is an important part of corporate planning and must be integrated into the organisation's framework of strategic thinking.

According to Wetherbe 1993: 85 aligning the organisation's overall strategies and objectives with an information systems plan, designing information systems structures to integrate various databases, allocating information systems resources to completing applications, providing systems information on time and within budget and selecting appropriate techniques for solving these obstacle are the most common problems encountered in information systems planning.

Burger: 1999: 192 proposed a generic management systems planning model, which illustrates the major activities and outputs in the stages of the planning process. Although management information systems structures, technology and concepts such as 'hardware', 'software' and networks' are used, these reflect the proliferation of computer jargon. The model does not exclude a computer less information system. Filing cabinets, box files, folders, books, letters and memos can be components of an information system and process.

Information organising for informed organising

Williams 1992: 339 contends that we are an information society because of the vast expansion of information technologies in our lives. This expansion includes the application of these technologies — computers, satellites, videotape, compact disks, fibre optics, integrated circuits, artificial intelligence, and robotics — in the home, office, and public environments. It has become imperative that people develop strategies to manage knowledge. According to Mersham and Skinner 2001: 139(a), knowledge management has two main aspects to it:

- The first is the technology aspect that concerns the technicalities of capturing, storing, accessing and disseminating knowledge.

- The second is the human management aspect or how we encourage a knowledge-sharing culture within an organisation.

An organisation from an open systems perspective, is an organic, mission driven goal directed, social technical entity with a deliberately and structured activity system and identifiable boundaries. It has generalised and specific task environments and various internal and external stakeholders – individuals, groups, other organisation - with specific needs and expectations that are met as they contribute to the organisation's survival, growth and development. Kiggundu 1989: 16 contends that organisations grow, decline, decay and die like living organisms. The information systems in an organisation can be compared with the nervous systems of a living organism. Duffy and Assad1989: 9 reaffirm this thought by stating that mechanisms coordinating and controlling the components are crucial to the survival of the organism to adapt to its environment. Information processing is part of the communication system of the organisation and is closely linked to organisational structure. An organisation facing a high level of uncertainty must have an information system, allowing for constant updating on situations, with increased information processing activities. Computer technology increases the capacity to handle the information flow.

The following characteristics of information relate to organising as a managerial function (Duffy and Assad 1989: 11)

- *Internal and external information* – internal information is relevant to the organisation's operations, e.g. budget reports and production

schedules. External information originates in an organisation's environmental dimensions, we the political, social, economic, technological and cultural dimensions. The higher the management level, the more the information is likely to come from external sources and deal with environmental issues.

- *Recurring and nonrecurring information* – monthly financial statements and other reports generated at regular frequencies are 'recurring', while 'nonrecurring' information is ad hoc in nature, e.g. a feasibility report on the construction of a swimming pool. The higher the management level, the more ad hoc the information is likely to be.

- *Documented and undocumented information* - documented information is available in some hard form, e.g. books, paper reports, diskettes, microfilm or magnetic tape. Undocumented information is verbal or a result of observation. Higher management levels rely more than others on undocumented information.

- *The timing of information* – an instant flow of information benefits operating, control-oriented decisions, but strategic management decisions need a flow over time to avoid random fluctuations reflecting an untrue perspective.

- *Formal and informal information* – formal information is communicated through formal channels while informal information can reach the manager by any means. Duffy and Assad 1989: 11

maintain that the higher the level of management, the more informal the information's nature and sources are likely to be.

When the flow of information is hampered by organisational principles entrenching bureaucratic structures and operations, e.g. hierarchy, centralisation and specialisation, structural reorganising is called for. Modern technology has to a large extent contributed to a flexible and easy storage and means of access of information. Computers in the workplace have proven to be an effective storage mechanism of information and data which can be accessed whenever needed. It is important that such information be updated regularly to ensure relevance to the latest policies of an organisation. Van de Donk & Frissen 1990: 28 state that the free flow of information caused by rapidly developing information technologies facilitates rich electronic communication, permeable boundaries, coordination through communication, fewer bureaucratic hierarchical levels, interdependent responsibilities, interdisciplinary teams, organic form and extended integration through strategic alliances. Schools do not exist in a vacuum. Information as a resource and as an element essential to the managerial process should be dealt with structurally, to facilitate management's ability to understand the primary forces affecting their organisation. Graber 1992: 85 contends that to gather needed information, appropriate personnel structures must be established. Network structures must also be created to handle rapidly changing information in a dynamic situation. New information technology creates a more open communication climate because it is easier to contact and inform people. The use of modern technology also allows for the quick dissemination of information and the retrieval of feedback. Graber 1992: 227 also asserts that where machine communication replaces face-to face or telephonic

contact, important nonverbal cues are lost. This could lead to meanings being misunderstood.

Evaluation of information

Information is the resource required to make the function of control and evaluation possible in any organisation. Graber 1992: 47 states that all organisations face decisions regarding the collection and processing of information complicated by the explosive growth of information and knowledge. Control and evaluation are continuous activities, which need to be effected regularly to ensure information is constantly relevant. It must be noted that the various management levels have different information needs. Schools need to create specific information environments by selecting information sources and deciding what to ignore and what to use. Graber 1992: 41, states that, changes in the knowledge industry are continually changing the patterns of information sources. Graber further contends that high quality information has the following characteristics:

- **Clarity:** Information in the form of encoded messages that are readily understood.
- **Timeliness:** Information that is up to date in all respect.
- **Reliability**: Information that is correct, unambiguous and consistent.
- **Validity**: Information that is logically consistent and reflect real conditions.

- **Depth**: Information that is comprehensive and diverse to allow adequate decision making.

It is clear that school managers need to construct clear policies for the regulation and management of information. Security mechanisms also need to be considered in controlling the flow of information.

Supportive technology

Computer software is becoming more and more available to the once deprived communities. It is therefore important that the modern day principal equip himself/herself with the latest technology to ensure a smooth transition in his/her role. Electronic communication and telecommunications enable the user to move data to various locations. Managers can control and evaluate their organisations information from almost anywhere in the world through international networks (internet). It is envisaged that all schools would be linked electronically via a networking system, which will aid in the quick transmission of information. Regional and District offices of the education department will be able to access information without delay if these structures are put in place. Electronic communication will hasten service delivery as matters can be dealt with speedily online. The collection, generation and transformation of information will undoubtedly improve the communication gap that currently exists with the implementation of electronic communication. Service delivery at all levels will improve with such structures in place.

Controlling information

It is common practice for different professions to come up with codes of ethics that seek to establish high standards of conduct for their members. Organisations such as schools need to secure themselves to operate free of

danger or fear. According to Duffy and Assad 1989: 234 as quoted by Schwella 2001: 263 information systems security comprises:

- Risk avoidance, e.g. not linking to a public data communication network (to prevent hacking),
- Deterrence of potential intruders, i.e. making intrusion as difficult as possible and publishing penalties,
- Putting safeguards in place to prevent intrusion,
- Detecting breaches of security timeously to prevent or contain losses, and
- Correcting deficiencies exposed by incidents.

Controlling information involves monitoring and managing security safeguards to protect the organisation's assets, ensure the accuracy of records and the effective and efficient carrying out of policy. O'Brien 1993: 552 warns of the following computer crimes that can cause insecurity and danger:

- Theft of money by altering computer files through fraud,
- Service theft, i.e. using a computer system without permission,
- Software theft (including piracy),
- Data alteration or theft i.e. making illegal changes to data or stealing confidential information,
- Destruction of data and software with computer viruses,

- Malicious access and obsessive use of computers (hacking) normally with the intent to steal or damage information. Electronic 'breaking and entering' without theft is illegal,

- Violation of antitrust or international laws and regulations, e.g. using international telecommunication networks to effect trans-border data flows that may violate the tariff, taxation, privacy or labour regulations.

The control of information in schools is clearly justifiable. Information may be stored in a privileged, confidential context, which is accessible to management staff only. Despite the numerous risks involved in information management computers and modern electronics continue to flourish with updated versions flooding the market daily. It is also worth noting that security measures are also being updated, to prevent computer hacking from escalating.

Information and human development

There are schools within our South African setting that do not have the facilities in keeping with modern technology. Hence such individuals, organisations, communities and societies without the necessary skills and technology are disadvantaged. Information, which is the vital resource of the post-industrial world, is beyond the reach of the deprived, and the gap between them and the advantaged is increasing rapidly.

There is a need for deprived individuals and communities to be empowered to gain access to information technology. Mendel 1971: 168 states that if the disadvantaged are not empowered to use information as a resource, computers

will control their existence, creating 'purposeless masses' forced into 'sullen withdrawal' from meaningful existence.

Research conducted by Kok 1995: 25 reveal that a lack of information often prevents sustainable community development. Spier 1995: 39 states that there needs to be a transformational response and a dispensation of direct democracy where individuals and communities are enabled to manage their own advancements. The prerequisites for a transformational response include effective decentralisation and liberation management where the mindsets of managers are changed from the traditional authoritarianism, secrecy, insensitivity and arrogance to one of openness, accountability and transparency. A single 'digital highway', operating like an electricity or water supply system is proposed as the physical manifestations of such a mindset. Spier 1995: 43 as quoted by Schwella 2001: 268 hi-lights technological innovation as follows:

'Informatics, the merger of telecommunication, computers, multimedia, print and value-added networks in a university accessible utility is the one essential tool which turns empowerment as a concept into the capacity to deliver all development functions tailored to the unique requirements of each community. Information is an abundant resource, not a scarce commodity. There is in principle no barrier to the multiplication and dissemination of knowledge'.

Masters and Joice 1993: 12 are of the opinion that information technology has made distributed work easier and more affordable than ever before. Employees, including those with disabilities or chronic medical problems can perform duties outside normal office settings. A common scenario in most organisations is the evidence of extensive use of information technology – personal computers, fax machines, tele-text and electronic mail systems.

Electronic mail (e-mail)

Electronic mail uses computer text composition and editing to send and receive written information quickly, inexpensively and efficiently. In seconds, messages are transmitted from the sender's computer to the receiver's. These e-mail are read at the receiver's convenience.

Electronic mail has become popular with managers for several reasons. A manager does not have to wait long for a response because information usually can be sent, returned and recalled in moments. E-mails are relatively inexpensive. E-mails have a positive effect on productivity by eliminating the need for paper-handling steps required in traditional interoffice communication systems.

The Internet

The Internet is an international 'network of networks'. It allows millions of computers and other electronic devices of all kinds (cell-phones, portable computers, pages and video cameras) to communicate with each other via telephone lines and satellites around the world in an economical, easy to use way. Today, the Internet is a public, co-operative, and self-sustaining facility accessible to hundreds of millions of people world-wide. Physically, the Internet uses a portion of the total resources of the currently existing public telecommunication networks. The Internet is a single medium communication that can transmit and receive all existing media forms between one organisation and another, or between one individual and another, regardless of their geographical location. The Internet is sometimes referred to as the "Net". The significance of the information age is that it has created "information societies", societies that depend on their economic survival on immediate access to large amounts of information on a global scale.

It must be noted that the Internet is a loosely configured, rapidly growing web of thousands of corporate, educational and research networks around the world. The Internet makes use of thousands of computers linked by thousands of different paths. Anyone with a computer and a modem can get on the Internet. Each message sent bears an address code that speeds it towards its destination. Messages usually arrive in seconds; only on rare occasions do they vanish into cyberspace. The Internet is like any other communications device in that a user can get a busy signal. With thousands of Internet groups and e-mail lists, sometimes the traffic is heavy and the user might have to wait a short time to connect to the system.

There is little privacy of information sent over the Internet, although finding methods to make information secure is a high priority of researchers and users. It must be noted that because information on the Internet is potentially available to almost anyone in the world, it offers many communication opportunities.

Teleconferencing

Teleconferencing technology combines television and telephone technologies to create a high fidelity communication tool that organisations can use to facilitate discussions among people dispersed around the world. Unlike traditional conference calls over the telephone, teleconferencing allows participants to see each other's body language and to jointly view materials such as charts, graphs, or even product prototypes. This is a means of communication that could become a reality in many schools in the near future.

Interactive television — a view of the future

According to Mersham & Skinner 2001: 193(a) television, as we know it, is the most popular medium of mass communication used for entertainment and education. In recent years there has been a move towards enhanced television — where the viewer of television is much more involved in the communication process. These advances are turning television into a new exciting medium of the future.

This technological move sees the television; Internet and personal computer converge into a new 'interactive television'. You can use your television instead of a personal computer for the Internet and simple computing functions. Many people would be more comfortable sitting in front of the television screen than in front of their personal computer monitor. Advertisers like the idea because interactive, web-enabled television allows consumers to make a purchase instantly, without having to move out of their seats.

Interactive elements such as on-screen links, interactive panels and displays during television shows and television commercials, as well as the expected full-screen access to the Internet, are soon to grace your television screen. We will soon see digital video recorder functions and digital video discs (DVDs) replacing the familiar videotape and the video tape recorder (VCR).

DStv (Digital Satellite Television) is Multichoice's package of pay channels that subscribers receive via satellite. DStv offers 45 video channels, six data channels and 51 audio channels (radio and music channels) on its satellite service. DStv reaches across Africa, with subscribers exceeding 500 000. Apart from other interests, Multichoice Africa has direct investments in or franchises for television platforms in South Africa, Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi,

Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe (MThIH 2000)

Digital Satellite Television (DStv) first introduced its range of interactive channels at the end of 1999. The new data or information channels allow the viewer to find out the weather forecast, access financial information, do electronic banking, play games on TV with the remote control, access intellectual puzzles and teasers, get daily horoscopes, obtain 'as it happens' news, sports and business updates, and monitor 16 channels simultaneously on the screen. Further interactive developments, such as allowing viewers to select the camera-view at sporting events and pay-per-view on demand of any programme, will characterise the future.

According to Berners-Lee et al, http://www.sciam.com/2001/0501issue/0501berners-lee.html#author, The semantic web is not a separate web but an extension of the current one, in which information is given well-defined meaning, better enabling computers and people to work in cooperation. The first steps in weaving the semantic web into the structure of the existing web are already under way. In the near future, these developments will usher in significant new functionality, as machines become much better able to process and interpret (understand) the data that they merely display at present.

The essential property of the World Wide Web is its universality. The power of a hypertext link is that *"anything can link to anything."* Web technology, therefore, must not discriminate between the scribbled draft and the polished performance, between commercial and academic information, or among cultures, languages, and media and so on. Information varies along many axes. One of

these is the difference between information produced primarily for human consumption and that produced mainly for machines. At one end of the scale we have everything from the five-second TV commercial to poetry. At the other end we have databases, programs and sensor output. To date, the Web has developed most rapidly as a medium of documents for people rather than for data and information that can be processed automatically. The semantic web aims to make up for this.

Like the Internet, the semantic web will be as decentralized as possible. Such web-like systems generate a lot of excitement at every level, from major corporations to individual users, and provide benefits that are hard or impossible to predict in advance.

Knowledge representation

To enable the semantic web to function computers must have access to structured collections of information and sets of inference rules that they can use to conduct automated reasoning.

Adding logic to the web, essentially the means to use rules to make inferences, choose courses of action and answer questions, is the task before the semantic web community and viewer at the moment.

Rugbeer H 2002: 59 states that two important technologies for developing the semantic web are already in place: eXtensible Markup Language (XML) and the Resource Description Framework (RDF). XML lets everyone create their own tags—hidden labels such as <zip code> or <alma mater> that annotate Web pages or sections of text on a page.

XML allows users to add arbitrary structure to their documents but says nothing about what the structures mean. Meaning is expressed by RDF, which encodes it.

The real power of the semantic web will be realized when people create many programs that collect Web content from diverse sources, process the information and exchange the results with other programs. Rubgeer H 2002: 59 states that the effectiveness of such software agents will increase exponentially as more machine-readable Web content and automated services (including other agents) become available. The semantic web promotes this synergy; even agents that were not expressly designed to work together can transfer data among themselves when the data come with semantics.

A significant lesson of the above is that if it is properly designed, the semantic web can assist the evolution of human knowledge as a whole.

A revolution in the office

Mersham & Skinner 2001a: 204 believe that one of the problems with mobile office products and non-mobile office products is facilitating communication between the two products. For example, getting a notebook computer to 'talk' to a printer in the past meant re-plugging cables and moving things around. Infrared solved some of these problems, but it was slow and devices that used it to communicate had to be virtually on top of one another.

The new "Bluetooth" communication technology is set to revolutionise the modern office. "Bluetooth" is a wireless standard that lets virtually any device communicate with other office machines. Unlike infrared, "Bluetooth" does not require line of sight to work. "Bluetooth" is also ten times faster than infrared.

"Bluetooth" works on the basis of tiny embeddings and inexpensive short-range trans-receivers attached to mobile devices and office machinery such as printers and digital copiers. Once a new "Bluetooth" device, like a cell phone, hand-held or mobile computer comes into range, "Bluetooth" allows it to communicate with similarly equipped machinery.

"Bluetooth" connects devices such as cell phones, printers, cordless headsets, mobile PCs and computer networks, and automates all communication protocols between them. If you write e-mails on your personal notebook computer (PC) while travelling on an aircraft, the message will be sent automatically as soon as you land and switch on your cell phone. One can forget about long cumbersome cabling and connections between machines in the office. Your notebook PC will communicate wirelessly with anything from the printer and fax machine to the modem or mouse you happen to be using.

Mersham & Skinner 2001a: 205 state that all information between devices such as a notebook and a desktop PC is automatically updated as soon as the units are within range of one another. You could even transfer digital images from a digital camera via your cell phone and the Internet to a PC anywhere in the world without touching anything as antiquated as a cable.

"Bluetooth" is in its infancy but devices equipped with the new technology will increasingly become the norm in the information age.

Record keeping

Record managers today encounter a much wider range of records, paper-based and electronic than they dealt with a few years aback. It must be noted that even the strategies adopted for integrating and managing paper and electronic

records will be subject to change over a period of time. Record keeping requirements must be addressed at the planning and design stage of systems development, before the records are created. It is essential that all institutes keep and maintain accurate records in line with management procedures and policies as stipulated by the organisations code of practice. Record keeping must be in strict accordance thereto to avoid discrepancies at later instances, which could lead to possible conflict. A comprehensive records management programme must focus first on analysis of the information in records and then on the medium on which the information is stored. Records managers recognise that paper and electronic records need to be managed as part of a continuum of care. Records and archives staff must be increasingly involved with the process of records creation, use and maintenance; they cannot wait for creators to finish using current records and then pass them along for storage and preservation because the paper records and the electronic records are usually part of a single system. Active involvement at the point of creation is undoubtedly the best scenario in record keeping. Adaptation to an electronic environment needs to be instilled at organisations so that the digitalisation process in education is successfully embraced over a period of time.

It must also be noted that although it is easy to manipulate electronic records, it is critical to recognise that every time a record is updated or manipulated in any way the results becomes a new record. Electronic records and data are not the same thing and must be seen as such. Data comprises raw unformatted information. It is easily manipulated, updated, edited, copied and reused. Data lacks context and structure and is therefore meaningless on its own. Records, on the other hand, derive meaning from their context and structure as

well as their content. Records may be derived from data and data may be derived from records. They complement one another.

Electronic records do not exist in isolation. Individuals and organisations create them for specific purposes. To be readily accessible to others, electronic records need to be captured in record-keeping systems, which must be updated on a regular basis so that information stored, is relevant and current.

Cash management

Cash management involves the collection and expenditure of school funds as required by the organisation. These records need to contain the data to evaluate the success of the programme and to improve its operation. The records need to contain:

- Estimated total financial assets (cash and investments)
- Actual total financial assets held
- Interest received to date
- Daily cash deposits
- Expenditure (weekly and monthly commitments)

It is essential that information systems be able to handle data pertaining to cash management, which must be updated on a daily basis to ensure accuracy and reliability. Many financial computer packages offer these facilities, each at its own price, each offering varying levels of data requirements. It is thus up to individual schools and organisations to purchase packages that most suite their needs.

Inventory management

Guidenhuys 1993: 599 states that inventory management is the function of acquiring (purchasing or receiving as grants), holding and issuing of stock. Stock is defined as an inventory of materials and acquired goods used in delivery of public services, such as education.

It is essential that all stock be recorded in a well-kept inventory stock register / data system for easy referral. Proper records need to be kept of all inventory transactions. It is also important that records are updated and a stocktaking procedure is followed through annually. The inventory officer needs to ensure that items that become obsolete, lost or damaged are removed/ written off from the asset register once the necessary policy measures have been complied with.

Staff and Learner records

It is important that staff and learner details be accurately stored to ensure speedy availability when the need arises. Information needs to be updated on an ongoing basis. Such storage of information serves as a useful link between parents and the school as well as between the school and the department of education. A well-planned information network will adequately capture relevant data about most aspects within the school. This is important so that when, reports are requested for; the relevant departments can access it speedily. Educator and learner profiles should be adequately documented and stored to ensure that such information is on hand when the need arises.

The electronic newsletter

Rugbeer H 2002: 61 contends that an effective way to promote a business, goods or service on-line is through an on-line newsletter.

We can either create our own newsletter or advertise our businesses in a newsletter created by others. In most cases electronic newsletters are used to inform customers periodically about new product offerings, sales, discounts and other promotions that are on offer. Most browsers support html e-mail, which is e-mail that can also display graphics and text in colour. This means that e-mail can be used much like standard print media, but often at a fraction of the cost of design and delivery.

Rugbeer H 2002: 61 further states that electronic newsletters can also be used to generate revenue where they contain some form of advertising for products, whether offered by the same business or by other businesses. In forging relationships with other on-line ventures, links with affiliates can be inserted into the newsletter. The insertion of codes keeps track of customers that have clicked through on the inserted link and purchased something on-line. In this way, referral commissions can be earned.

It is also possible to sell sponsorships of newsletters to companies that are interested in their audiences. Conversely the sponsorship of newsletters from other companies is effective if their target audiences correspond to that of the organisation.

From a marketing perspective, newsletters are an extremely cost-effective way of advertising. Rugbeer H 2002: 61 further states that subscriber e-mail lists generally exhibit a lot of 'churn' (that is, people initially subscribe and then unsubscribe to a variety of newsletters) unless the newsletter provides quality content that keeps audiences and customers coming back for more. For example, although some visitors sign up and agree to receive mailings along the way, they

may be interested only in registering for a once-off competition and will unsubscribe unless your content continues to interest them.

e- Education

In a South African context, the concept of e-Education revolves around the use of information and communication technology to accelerate the achievement of national education goals. e-Education is about connecting learners to other learners, educators to professional support services and providing platforms for learning. It is envisaged that e-Education will connect learners and teachers to better information, ideas and one another via effective combinations of teaching and learning methodology. Employees can tap into a knowledgebase from almost anywhere. Workers or learners are not time bound, they can engage in e-learning at any time—while commuting, travelling, or waiting in line making distance learning a reality. Interactive support in learning is possible when completing e-degrees, which are become common throughout most institutes of higher learning.

Education for human development in a learning society requires collaborative learning and involves focusing on building knowledge. These changes arise from shifts in educational goals, and from new concepts in learning and knowledge creation. Experience worldwide indicates that information and communication technology does play a pivotal role in transforming the process of education and training. It is noted that information and communication technology can enhance educational reform by enabling teachers and learners to move away from traditional approaches to teaching and learning. In a transformed educational environment there is a shift from teacher-centred, task-oriented, memory-based education to an inclusive and integrated practice where

learners work collaboratively, develop shared practices, engage in meaningful contexts and develop creative thinking and problem solving skills. Field learning can become a great success. Employees can learn on the job, wherever and whenever the information is most useful. Government initiatives are on the increase to promote information and communication technology in schools and industries. It is up to teachers and learners alike to take advantage of the situation and to acquire sound technological skills so that knowledge construction is based on sound reasoning.

Benefits of e-Learning

The following are the main benefits of e-Learning:

- Employees can tap into a knowledgebase from almost anywhere.
- This results in increased productivity since information can be accessed from the most remote areas. Workers or learners can engage in e-learning at any time—while commuting, travelling, or waiting in line.
- Field learning can become a great success. Employees can learn on the job, wherever and whenever the information is most useful.
- As soon as they learn something new, learners can add to their knowledge base right from the field.

According to Frankola 2001: 14 people attending a lecture remember only 5% of what they heard. e-Learning can do much better through stimulations, probing discussions and practising skills.

The Mindset network

Education and communication are vital to the improvement of South Africa and every developing country's society and economy. In many instances, the only way to reach the population is by satellite television.

US-based PanAmSat Corporation has provided the mindset network with access to the necessary transponder, with a variety of learning channels, which learners and adults alike can follow and enjoy, at the same time building on their knowledge base. The Mindset Network's pioneering initiative to bring educational programming to people across South Africa is fast reaching and could be a model for other countries to follow.

Through this initiative, the Mindset network will potentially be able to reach virtually every school across South Africa to deliver much needed educational programming. PanAmSat is actively involved largely due to the phenomenal benefits that education will have on the country. Many researchers involved in technology contend that South Africa is one of the fast growing areas in the world in terms of using satellite technology. It is also noted that the continent has poor infrastructure and a spread out population. People live in urban areas and vastly remote areas. For a relatively small monthly subscription, connection is made possible. Ann Lamont, who is the chief executive of Mindset states

"...it is through television and the internet that we can fulfil Nelson Mandela's dream to make every home, every shack, every rickety structure and every under-resourced school a center of learning. Satellite technology is the key to making this happen."

The Mindset network offers mathematics, science and English support lessons for learners and educators at secondary school level via its education channel. The initiative is supported with supplements published in the Sunday Times as well as a website, www.mindset.co.za. and call center with training for schools. Mindset also has a channel, which focuses on HIV/Aids awareness, with clinics the primary audience. Future channels to be launched also include entrepreneurship.

With a global fleet of some thirty satellites PanAmSAt is one of the world's top three satellite operators for the delivery of news, sports and other TV programming. It is capable of reaching more than 98% of the worlds population. With satellite technology, the future of the South African continent looks very bright indeed if all educational institutes embrace the challenge of becoming active participants in the search for knowledge and information, which would impact positively in the dynamics of teaching and learning.

The 21st century classroom

The transition towards a knowledge-based economy accelerates in leaps and bounds on a daily basis. Thus, learners must have access to communication and information technologies in the classroom to meet this challenge. Without these tools, learners will lack the necessary computer skills to compete in a digital world. Deploying computers in classrooms and connecting them to the Internet will enhance the learning process by providing learners and educators with access to information and teaching materials from around the world. In addition, as a result of the fiscal constraints and rising costs facing public schools, information technologies that offer new opportunities, efficiencies, and improvements in the education process are highly desirable.

According to LeLoup & Ponterio 1995: http://www.cortland.edu/www/fteach/articles/nyscea.html it is not suggested that every classroom needs to be outfitted with the entire panoply of state of the art electronics. Learners can have accounts and from computers in their labs they can exchange e-mail with other learners from around the world.

The lack of access in schools widens the gulf between the privileged and the economically disadvantaged in society. In addition to equipment purchases and network access, educators must receive additional training if they are to use these technologies and teach their learners to use them. Rugbeer H 2002: 83 contends that South Africa can be characterised as a country where people in urban environments suffer from cognitive over-stimulation, caused by information overload, while at the same time rural people suffer from cognitive under-stimulation. It is not unusual to find an urbanite engaged in conversations with more than one-person at the same time while watching television, listening to the radio or driving in a busy street. Audiovisual stimuli are presented almost everywhere in cities and constantly tug at our sub-consciousness.

At the same time rural inhabitants complain of the drudgery of daily routine, with nothing to do for recreation after work or during weekends. This has led to a century and a half of steady migration from rural areas to cities. When rural people move to the urban areas they of course are even more prone to suffer from an information overload than their urban counterparts. If a person does not have the ability to grasp this information, information becomes the equivalent of noise. People who are subjected to information overload display stress symptoms. It must be noted that the knowledge that a child from a rural

area has is not inferior to that of an urban child, just different, because knowledge is optimised from the environment in which a person subsists.

Efforts to globalise South Africa

Sebe Zwane is the information officer responsible for information dissemination in the Government Communication and Information System of South Africa (GCIS). According to Zwane GCIS is on the verge of launching a project of connecting rural South Africans to communications networks. The GCIS is working in conjunction with the Department of Communication and Telecommunication of South Africa. Multipurpose centres (MPPC) will be set up in municipal districts where people can visit these centres to gain access to communication systems. These MPPCs will operate on the similar principles as libraries. These centres will be equipped with telephone facilities; fax facilities, computer and Internet facilities. The aim is to make information and electronic communication easily accessible to people who are far removed from the urban environment, thereby eliminating the digital divide between urban and rural communities.

According to Quadir 2000: 84 successful business realise that the broader the base of talented workers and prosperous customers, the greater their own rewards. New computing and communication technologies offer an unprecedented chance to create vast new markets while lifting billions out of poverty. According to Quadir, India has taken great strides in reducing the cost of electronic communication so that even the poor could communicate using cell phones. Such initiatives have fed through to new investment and more business start-ups. The crucial poverty in the world today is one of imagination.

Booth 2000: 8 contends that there is a concerted effort in South Africa to provide telecommunications to people in previously under serviced areas. Vodacom's subsidised public-access community phones are generating in excess of 30 million calls per month in South Africa's disadvantaged areas at affordable rates to users

Conclusion

The manager must recognise that the management of information in education is subject to several critical issues. It is envisaged that the department will develop standardised templates for management of statistical analysis, record keeping and reporting. Standardised formatting will create a degree of security in information management in schools.

The impact of information and information technology are also explored. It is important that teachers, managers and administrators have the knowledge, skills and support needed to integrate information communication technology in teaching and learning.

In chapter 13 I explore the field of labour relations and its impact on the employee-employer relationship.

CHAPTER 13

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Introduction

The subject of industrial relations has received much prominence in recent times. One of the possible reasons for this is that it has a popular appeal, which very often makes headlines. Strikes, redundancies and union actions are regular features of the news broadcasts and newspaper articles. With current developments in labour legislation and its practical implications it is necessary for human resource managers to understand the organisational rights of personnel within the framework of the organisation and the profession as a whole. In this chapter I outline the important, integrated role that industrial relations play on employees in an organisation.

Definition of Industrial Relations

The web of industrial relations has grown phenomenally and has become highly complex with the development of an industrialised society. Justin 1994: 12 defines industrial relations as follows:

> *"Industrial relations is an interdisciplinary field of study which concerns itself with the continuous processes of control over the dynamic individual and collective relationship between workers and management in organisations, functioning within the wider environment, with a view to determining the conditions under which work is done so that the needs of both parties are addressed."*

From the above definition it become apparent that the field of industrial relations embraces some of the following factors:

- Rules and laws
- Ideology
- Collective bargaining
- Power, conflict and trust
- Psychology
- Economics

It is important for managers at school level to recognise the importance of labour relations when interacting with employees at all level. It must be noted that applicable laws, which are firmly rooted in government policy, govern industrial relations.

Industrial relations in the workplace

The field of industrial relations in South Africa is one of the most dynamic subsystems influencing organisations. It is dynamic because of the constant changes occurring in the macro-environment within which employees and employers function. (Kochan, 1991) One of the key factors for the growth of industrial relations as a topic is the increasing amount of laws relating to the employer/employee relationship. Almost all areas of the employer/employee relation are governed by some legal rule. Industrial relations in the workplace are important for many reasons. If relations between the workforce and management are good then the enterprise has a good chance of being successful. Green 1988: 3 states that good industrial relations are based on correct attitudes like trust, confidence and honesty, good personal relationships between employees, sensible workable agreements and above all a willingness to work together. Industrial

relations to a large extent dictate the terms and conditions of employees, which are negotiated at negotiation bargaining forums.

Trade unions

During the last few years unionism in South Africa has changed considerably. Trade unions have their overall aim that of protecting and advancing the interests of their members. Employees join trade unions, which are committed to collectively addressing their aims and aspirations as workers within a larger work force. Trade unions also strive to protect and improve the working conditions of employees. Trade unions have long since identified with labour and have sought to act politically by using their representational powers. Trade unions try to influence government policy regardless of which party is in power. Some contentious issues, which have been debated by unions, include law reform, health and safety, social welfare, economic policy and even foreign policy. The aim of this is to provide a better working life for their members.

The specific function carried out by unions change over time. Annual negotiations have widened as regards pay issues, conditions of employment, employment equity, leave measures, post provisioning norms, pension matters, promotions, and leave measures for educators.

The management of industrial relations

The industrial relations function in any organisation needs to be managed. Union policy to a large extent prescribes the working dimensions of the union structures within a particular site group. In the South African educational setting educator unions play a pivotal role in negotiations pertaining to the educator in his/her work environment. Recognised labour unions include SADTU, APEK, NATU, POPCRU, NAPTOSA, and COSATU... Union matters are debated at

the ELRC where all concerned parties brainstorm issues in an effort to reach amicable resolutions. In recent years there have been various matters that have dragged on for months where parties have deadlocked on issues to the detriment of the workforce. One such matter is the post-provisioning norm, which has not been resolved as per union demands. It must be noted that this area is only pertinent to the KZN province. Labour has indicated that the post-provisioning norm in KZN is not in keeping with that of other provinces as well as with agreed principles. Learner-Educators ratios in KZN are not consistent with that of other provinces.

Union matters are usually enshrined in a policy, which is often agreed to by parties concerned. The need for and the usefulness of a clear-cut written policy is summarised below (Green 1998:52):

- It gives certainty to what is to be achieved. All are able to see the objectives of the organisation.
- It achieves a consistency, which is very difficult to achieve with verbal statements transmitted amongst management.
- Accuracy can be achieved by carefully choosing the form of words, which reflects the intentions of management.
- If is a useful reference document for managers who may need to know what they should do in certain circumstances.
- It can be changed as a result of negotiations or a change in circumstances.

It is important that matters that have been agreed to between parties are applied consistently to avoid instances of conflict and possible grievances.

Collective bargaining

Collective bargaining is the mechanism that is to try and reach consensus on matters of a contentious nature. It involves the various stakeholders as well as the procedures, to grievance and dispute. The objective of collective bargaining is to work towards a new equilibrium to the effect that pressures are reconciled and conflict resolved.

Bargaining councils

Industrial councils in accordance to section 23(1) of the Labour Relations Act of 1956 have the following main function:

"... within the undertaking, industry, trade or occupation and in the area in respect of which it has been registered, endeavour, by the negotiation of agreements or otherwise, to prevent disputes from arising, and settle disputes that have arisen or may arise between employers and employers' organisations and employees or trade unions and take such steps as it may think expedient to bring about the regulation or settlement of matters of mutual interest to employers or employers' organisation and employees or trade unions."

The above statement also hold true for bargaining councils. The Labour Relations Act of 1995 spells out the following functions and powers for bargaining councils:

- To conclude and enforce collective agreements
- To prevent and settle disputes

- To conduct conciliation and arbitration in terms of the Act, or to provide for such conciliation and arbitration
- To establish a fund for the settlement of disputes
- To establish and promote education and training schemes
- To establish and administer pension, provident, medical aid, sick, holiday and unemployment funds
- To make representation to NEDLAC regarding policy or laws affecting their industry
- To determine, by collective agreement, issues which for the purposes of a strike or lockout will be regarded as 'issues in dispute'
- To delegate to workplace forums additional matters for consultation.

From the above it may be noted that bargaining councils have two basic functions: a *collective function* and a *dispute settlement function.*

Through negotiations on the bargaining council the parties will regulate the relationship between them and reach agreement on substantive issues.

Two important procedures in any organisation include that of discipline and dismissal procedures. The disciplinary procedure is the employer's framework for disciplining an employee who is not effectively carrying out his/her job agreed upon in terms of the job description. The grievance procedure allows the employee to take up specific grievances with the employer.

Disciplinary procedures

A disciplinary procedure outlines the formal process whenever an employee breaks the rules of the undertaking or commits any other act, which might be in breach of his contract of employment, excluding the type of action to which he is entitled by law. The disciplinary procedure informs on the steps to be taken in the case of transgressions of various kinds, some of which might warrant the dismissal of the employee.

Forms of disciplinary action

The following are some of the forms of disciplinary action that may be instituted, depending on the seriousness of the issue on hand.

- Verbal warning to employee
- First written warning
- Second written warning
- Suspension of employee with pay
- Suspension of employee without pay
- Dismissal

In South Africa, the South African Council of Educators commonly referred to as SACE serves as the bureaucratic structure, which monitors the conduct of educators in the workplace.

Ground rules for the establishment of a procedure

The type of disciplinary procedure established will depend on the nature and structure of the undertaking, but the following ground rules should be observed:

- A disciplinary procedure should be comprehensive and complete. It should list all types of transgressions, which may occur and specify the disciplinary measures to be applied in each case.

- The procedure must be clear and accessible to employees. Explanations ought to be worded in simple language, which all employees can understand, and the procedure must be made known to all employees.

- The procedures should conform to the principles of natural justice. This means that the incident should be investigated, the punishment should match the offence, an employee must be fully informed of the reason for disciplinary action against him, he must be provided with an opportunity to present his side of the story, he should be allowed a representative, the circumstance should be taken into account and there should be conformity in disciplinary measures.

The above rules apply to all disciplinary actions, but particularly to those, which may lead to dismissal of the employee.

Stages in a disciplinary hearing

Employees must be made aware of the various stages involved in a disciplinary hearing, as well as the right of appeal that the employee is entitled to. The stages of a typical disciplinary procedure are as follows:

Stage 1

- Preliminary investigation (normally as result of an offence warranting more than an informal verbal warning).

- If offence is established the employee will be advised of the right to seek representation. Investigating officer may interview employee and others in the workplace.

- At the end of the investigation the employee will be informed in an interview whether a formal disciplinary hearing is warranted or not. If no further action is deemed necessary, the investigating officer may issue a verbal or written warning if necessary. If a disciplinary hearing is to be held, employee may be suspended on either full pay or without pay (in some circumstances, employee may be suspended on reduced pay).

Stage 2

- Formal hearing stage. For this the employee will be informed in writing of the nature of the offence; the date, time and venue of the hearing, the right of the employee to postpone the hearing in exceptional circumstance; the employee's right to be accompanied by a trade union representative or a colleague; the employee's right to make written statements prior to the hearing.

- If the employee is found to be blameless of the charges, no further action is taken and all references to the alleged offence are normally struck from the employee's personal record.

- If the employee is found to be blameworthy, appropriate disciplinary action will then be decided upon. The employee will then be advised in writing of the action within a specified time (e.g. fourteen days).

Stage 3

- Right of appeal. This has to be lodged within a specified time period and the appeal will normally take place within a given period (e.g. four weeks). The appeal may require the employee to submit a written statement to the appeal committee while the organisation will be required to do the same. The appeal may uphold the original decision or overturn it.

Dismissal

The ultimate sanction available to organisations in disciplinary cases is dismissal from employment. Employees have often found it difficult to draw a clear distinction between what constitutes fair and unfair dismissal.

Fair Dismissal is usually on the grounds of

- Some proven problem in the relation to the capability of the employee or their qualification
- Unsatisfactory conduct of the employee
- Some contravention by the employee of a statutory or obligatory duty
- Some other substantial reason.

Unfair dismissal is usually on the grounds of

- An employee being dismissed for reasons of trade union membership or activity
- An employer acting unreasonably towards the employee

- An employee being selected for redundancy for inadmissible reasons
- An employee being dismissed solely or mainly on the grounds of being pregnant
- An employee being dismissed during an official dispute when others in the same dispute were not dismissed
- An employee being dismissed for not joining a trade union.

In cases of unfair dismissal, the employer may seek a right of appeal or opt to bring the organisation before an industrial tribunal in order to contest the decision. Government legislation needs to be given due consideration before any dismissal action is imposed on an employee.

Grievance procedures

According to Berndix 2000: 349 employee grievances are wide-ranging and vary from general dissatisfaction with wages and conditions of service, dissatisfaction regarding promotion or training and complaints about lack of facilities or inadequate equipment to unhappiness on the part of an employee regarding unfair treatment, unreasonable orders, unrealistic expectations and blatant discrimination. However not all of the listed scenarios would resort under a formal grievance procedure. Common grievances regarding wages and conditions of service are usually channelled through a representative union. Worker committees often raise concerns over equipment and facility shortages.

Bendix 2000: 349 acknowledges that it is difficult to concretise the type of grievance, which would resort under a formal grievance procedure. Most often a

formal grievance is initiated when an incident arises were an employee is left with a general feeling of dissatisfaction or a sense of injustice. A supervisor may have consistently discriminated against an employee or group of employees, or may have been unjustifiably disciplined or insulted, or he may not have been allowed time off which otherwise would have been common practice. This is the type of issue, which will be channelled through the grievance procedure, the rationale being that it requires the formal consideration of management. Moreover a grievance of this nature is the type of issue, which, if unresolved, may lead to a situation of dispute between the management and the employee. It is the latter part that differentiates a formal grievance from those of a more trivial nature, that is, those not warranting the declaration of a dispute.

In looking at the above scenario a formal grievance may be defined as a compliant, other than demands formulated by a collective body, which is related to the employee's treatment or position within his daily working routine and which, because it may result in a dispute, warrants the formal attention of management.

Objectives of a grievance procedure

A grievance procedure fulfils the following functions:

- It creates the opportunity for the upward communication from employees
- It ensures that management effectively deals with complaints
- It creates awareness of employee problems or of problem areas, which could be subjected to further investigation
- It prevents disputes from arising

- It renders the disciplinary procedure more acceptable, since employees also have a means of objecting to management performance

- It emphasises management's concern for the well being of employees

It must be noted that the above objective will only be achieved if the grievance procedure functions effectively and is properly utilised.

The grievance procedure in practice

The following general rules apply to grievance procedure:

- The employee should be granted the opportunity to bring his grievance, albeit in stages to the attention of management

- He/she should be permitted representation if so desired

- Management at the various levels should give careful consideration to the grievance and make genuine attempts to resolve it

- Time frames/limits should be attached to each stage of the procedure

- The grievance will not be resolved before the employee declares himself satisfied

- The employee has the right, if the grievance remains unresolved to declare a dispute

- Grievances should, wherever possible be handled, by line management but other staff may act in an advisory capacity

In the light of these guidelines, a grievance procedure might, depending on the organisational structure and management style, consist of the following steps:

Step 1:

- The employee verbally raises a compliant with his immediate supervisor. The supervisor undertakes to investigate the compliant and to furnish the employee with his opinions and suggestions. If the employee has difficulty in verbalising his grievance he may at this stage speak through a representative, but this is usually not necessary.

Step 2:

- Should the employee find the supervisor's suggestions unacceptable he then lodges, (with or without the assistance of a representative), a formal written grievance for the attention of the principal. The principal investigates the matter with the employee and records his findings and recommendations.

Step 3:

- If at this stage, the employee remains dissatisfied, the written grievance, together with the report of the head of department/ principal, is forwarded to the next level of management, the superintendent (district level) under whose care the school is entrusted. The superintendent then studies the reports submitted and then interviews the employee as well as the head of department /principal. On the basis of this he presents his recommendations or

proposed solution to the employee and his representative. The supervisor is also obliged to report in writing on his investigation, his recommendation and the outcome.

Step 4:

- A grievance, which remains, unresolved is then channelled to the next level of management, the chief superintendent (district level) and the same procedure of investigation is repeated. Proper records of the investigation are necessary and must be maintained.

Step 5:

- In the final stage the grievance is brought to the attention of the top management. (Regional level) Discussions held will involve various management representatives, as well as the employee and his representatives. The meetings may now begin to take the form of negotiations. A lack of solution at this, the final stage will result either in the employee's backing down or in his declaration of a dispute, in which case the issue will be processed either through the dispute procedure or through the statutory dispute settlement mechanism. Either procedure may provide for mediation or arbitration or judicial adjudication.

It must be noted that the grievance may be resolved at any stage during the procedure. If this occurs, the method of settlement should be noted in writing and the employee must sign this agreement in satisfaction of the solution. In a smaller organisation, which does not have a steep hierarchical structure, the number of steps in the procedure decreases significantly. The procedure need not

necessarily extend to the highest level of management. It could be terminated at step 3 or 4 if a suitable solution is attained. Employees in the work situation may be encouraged to air their dissatisfaction using the outlined procedures, but also be warned not to abuse it with trivial grievances. Employee representatives are bound to become involved in the operation of the grievance procedure. They too, need to be instructed in its use. Representatives should be advised to listen carefully to the employee's complaints, to sift facts, to investigate in order to ascertain whether the employee has a case, to counsel the employee and to represent the employee effectively. It is important that management and staff be trained to listen carefully to the grievance, to clarify any uncertainties, to distinguish fact from opinion, to confirm that understanding is correct and to elicit a suggested solution from the employee. It is necessary for management to know how to investigate the grievance, verify the facts, and how to find and promote a solution. It must be noted that a grievance procedure will work only is there is a sincere desire on all sides to solve problems. In this respect the management have a duty to monitor the use of grievance procedures and to advise on possible solutions.

Change and labour relations

We live in an era of continual change and increasing complexity. Consequently, the relationship and the organisation should never be static but should be continually evolving. The changing face of industrial relations requires substantial adaptation by all parties concerned. In South Africa particularly, where changes are occurring in politics and society, there are more opportunities for organisations themselves to adapt simultaneously to these new circumstances. The South African labour force is a dynamic entity influenced by a large variety

of political, social, economic and psychological factors, which needs to be integrated and coordinated in a careful diplomatic manner to ensure that all labour laws are conformed too.

Change is often received with varies degrees of uncertainty by most people. Schlemmer *et al* 1984, proposes three basic ways of establishing evidence for future scenarios, to make the change process more acceptable to workers, namely:

- Extrapolating current trends in labour disputes and related activity
- Examining the intentions and policies of management and trade unions
- Examining the consciousness and orientation of the workers.

It must be noted that training forms an important part in the acceptance of change. It is becoming more common for employers to include in their employee's contract, the provision that any employment related dispute would be resolved by arbitration. Arbitration is normally conducted in terms of the Arbitration Act. South African case law has upheld the binding nature of collective agreements that provide for statutory dispute resolution.

The role of communication in the labour relation

According to Bendix 2000: 324 to say that an organisation cannot function without communication has become platitudinal. The truth of the statement is obvious. No relationship can be conducted without communication of one kind or another. It is however the effectiveness of such communication which is of importance in any relationship. It is estimated that the average manager spends

four fifths of his working life communicating. Bendix 2000: 324 contends that a manager may spend most of his working day either receiving communication or communicating information to others, but no fraction of that effort may have contributed to the establishment of a healthier labour relationship.

Bendix 2000: 325 states that a common fallacy among those who have become aware of the importance of communication is to attribute all problems and conflict arising at the workplace to ineffective communication. The corollary to this is the belief that more effective communication is a panacea for all problems experienced in the labour relationship. These persons give the assurance that, if effective communication channels are established, most problems will disappear. It must however be noted that problems experienced in the workplace are more deeply rooted. They arise from differing attitudes and perceptions, from organisational structure and the basic conflict of interests and goals between management and employees. Better communication will not solve these problems, but it might alleviate them to some extent. However, in the absence of communication problems will intensify. Bendix states that communication is the oil, which lubricates the organisational machinery, but, if parts of the machine are defective, no amount of lubrication will ensure that it functions properly.

National trends

Society and industry have come a long way since the early years of industrialisation and the then dominant practice of capitalism. In every modern developed society attempts are being made to charter a new course for the future, a course that will eliminate the disadvantages of unfettered capitalist accumulation, but which will also avoid the undoubted ills of a centrally planned

economy and of total communitarianism. Each society is in its own manner attempting to balance the interests and freedom of the individual with the interests of society at large. Greater cooperation among the parties to the labour relationship has become a necessity, but this does not render trade unionism and collective bargaining irrelevant. Hopefully there will come a stage in society and organisations were the vast divide between employer and employee will "disappear" and all concerned will be able to get on with the job of developing the organisation.

Conclusion

In this chapter I dealt with aspects pertaining to labour relations and the role of unions in the education sector. The importance of union representation is highlighted as well as the stages involved in a disciplinary hearing and grievance procedures.

In chapter 14 I propose a possible model for applying organisational communication to resource management.

CHAPTER 14

A MODEL FOR APPLYING ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION TO RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Introduction

As teaching and management become more demanding in a less ordered, more rapidly changing society, the importance of good teachers and good managers become increasingly acknowledged, but without much agreement on precisely what constitutes a good teacher or a good manager. One of the hallmarks of successful leaders is the ability to create, articulate and sustain a vision of the future.

Planning

Until recently school leaders have not perceived it a priority to plan ahead and to take a long-term view of the future of the school. This created a vacuum in the school in so far as creating an overall strategy or giving a sense of direction was concerned. This lack of attention to planning is rapidly disappearing because the importance of strategic thinking and forward planning for school leaders becomes inevitable as they assume greater responsibility for their own budgets and their own resources. School development plans are now a must in modern education systems to enable growth within organisations. The need for a strategic view which examines the existing situation of a school, analyses its strengths and weaknesses, takes on environmental demands and anticipates future resources is a useful and necessary exercise. Planning can be seen as one of the key techniques available to managers to bring about the desire expressed in the vision.

Vision

A vision can be seen as an interpretation of the direction in which the organisation is going. It is an interpretation, which inspires and illuminates and permeates the organisation. Visions are necessary to give people a belief in the future of the organisation. It is not an imaginary picture of the future but 'a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation' Bennis and Nanus 1985: 89 state that a vision captures the distinctiveness of an organisation by reflecting its qualities, culture, its past achievement and its future aspirations. It reflects the core purposes of the organisation. Wilson and Corcoran 1988: 76 contend that a vision enables schools 'to make choices and guide actions...establish a clear identity, a significant characteristic of these unusually successful schools, and build staff commitment to a common mission'.

A vision can serve the following purpose:

- *It inspires.* It is evangelical and illuminating. It motivates staff to perform above a routine contribution.

- *It binds the school.* A vision creates a bond between the different faculties within a school for the harmonious execution of role functions by various stakeholders.

- *It gives staff a view of excellence.* It forecasts what the school is capable of achieving, hence it lights the way forward for the attainment of goals.

A vision is a human resource-embracing tool that clearly defines the potential of people within the organisation.

Implementing a successful vision

There are a number of factors that can be identified in creating a successful vision.

- *Ensure ownership of the vision.* Vision cannot be imposed. A vision must constitute a sense of belonging to of the people of the organisation. A vision should be created through the channels of negotiation and collaboration. It may be that the leader will be up front in articulating and legitimising the vision but the vision can only be successfully created if it grows out of the 'needs of the entire organisation'.

- *Constantly articulate, share and clarify the vision.* It is important that the leader constantly articulates and checks out the vision with all he comes into contact with. The vision needs to be focused on regularly to ensure that the organisation together with its stakeholders are in check and synchronised in their thinking and goals of the organisation.

- *Spend time on it.* Even when a vision has been created and agreed upon it is necessary to reiterate the message and to clarify issues.

- *Enact the vision.* Do not depart from the vision but ensure that your actions are in accord with and live up to the vision. Ensure that the vision becomes institutionalised, that it becomes embedded in the culture of the school and implanted in the structures, processes and symbols of the organisation so that people experience the vision in the various pattern of activities of the organisation. If leaders do

not enact the vision, and their actions betray the vision, then considerable disillusionment amongst school staff and other stakeholders will occur.

Bennis 1984: 6 points out that transformative power of leadership is

"...an elevating activity that lifts people beyond their routine and pragmatic concerns to a higher common purpose".

Bennis 1984: 6 further points to this transformative power of leadership when he suggests that:

"...it is the ability of the leader to reach the souls of others in a fashion which raises human consciousness, builds meanings and inspires human intent that is its source of power. Within transformative leadership, therefore, it is vision, purposes, beliefs and other aspects of organisational culture that are of prime importance."

A number of writers have alluded to the importance of leaders having a sense of vision and being able, through interactive processes, to share this vision with others (e.g. Pettigrew 1979, Sergiovani 1984, Starratt 1986, Rutherford 1985, Foster 1986). The figure 30 below further clarifies the need to share the vision.

Educational managers must encourage staff to participate fully in enacting the vision of the organisation. Constant attention needs to be drawn to the vision to ensure that all members of staff are fully aligned to the goals of the institution. Allowing staff an opportunity to share in the vision creates a greater sense of commitment among individuals, which will have an undoubted positive impact on the quality of teaching and learning.

Empowering staff

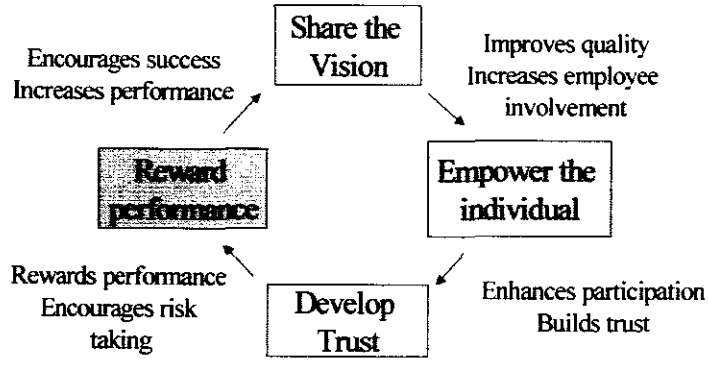

FIGURE 30 SHARING THE VISION

Schools are often seen as professionally driven organisations, are over bureaucratic, with over developed hierarchies. They have been bedevilled by a belief in hierarchical control and in the unassailable power of the school leader. Although many school leaders will claim that these assertions apply to a time that is now past and claim that they have moved into a power sharing relationship that is less bureaucratic and less autocratic (Jones 1987: 49) this appears only partly true. Although efforts have undoubtedly been made to break down barriers between school leaders and staff, these efforts have been nowhere near powerful enough. Beare 1989 contends that schools procedures and rules dominate and that there is concern for boundaries between functions. Jacques 1990, one of the most eloquent supporters of a hierarchy, argues that a properly structured hierarchy can release energy and creativity, rationalise productivity and actually improve morale. He also admits that hierarchies have been the source of much trouble and inefficiency but maintains that this is because it has been misused and mismanaged.

Supporters of bureaucracy find useful the following:

- *Bureaucratic* and hierarchical systems ensure control. School leaders feel the need to look to structure to exert control and unless there are people with monitoring powers in charge of other people they fear the school will descend into anarchy.

- *Hierarchy delineates role* – clearly setting out territories, responsibilities and relationships. In other words hierarchies are a good thing for defining relationships between managers and the workers –grading levels of work and differentiating specialist roles.

- *Bureaucracy* offers clear managerial structures and certain organisation is an 'increasingly turbulent environment and provides the stability for continuing to educate while accommodating challenge' (Packwood 1989)

- *Bureaucracy* allows the introduction of rules as the best way of defining procedures and of controlling staff. It is particularly useful for dealing with standardised routine task.

Particular mention needs to be made of the different degrees of bureaucracy that exists in each organisation, with some parts of the organisation being made much more highly bureaucratised than others. Advocates of bureaucracy contend that it offers a set of internal rules, which can create a framework or give a set of internal rules, which can create a framework or give cohesion to an organisation within which technical innovation can flourish.

Although it is fair to list these arguments for the strength of bureaucracy, there is sufficient evidence now to indicate the dangers of a bureaucratic approach. In fact recent research both inside and outside education suggests that

bureaucracy is totally inimical to excellent organisations (Pater 1988, Kanter 1989). Peters 1988: 459 advises the leader to become an emotional, vociferous, repetitive public hater of bureaucracy and he goes so far as to see bureaucracy as humiliating for the workers: "bureaucracy involves policies and practices... which demean and belittle human dignity." Bureaucracy is seen as smothering innovation, substituting rule for common sense, stultifying decision-making and straight jacketing enterprise. It envisages its staff working to rules, afraid of trying new ideas, putting themselves before the organisation and reluctant to work in teams. It slows down action.

To empower staff it is proposed that the inappropriate and enduring bureaucratic structures much loved by school leaders must go. The structures and processes disempower and disenchant staff. The importance of the human element in an organisation is increasing with the pace of change. Change demands innovation, and innovation demands that we unleash the creative potential of our people. Unleashing the power and creativity of our people and our organisation, even if it means only realizing and tapping the considerable potential already there, is a task that faces the modern school leader. The development of proactive mindsets, and appropriate leadership and vision all have a role to play in empowering staff.

If the school leaders are to bring about changes to the school, which will empower staff, they will have to break through the psychological barriers that prevent them believing that bureaucracy in not an inevitable structural form in schools (Clark and Meloy 1990). Empowerment clearly involves an erosion of status and an intolerance of bureaucratic behaviour with leadership exercised throughout the organisation and the skills and ability to do a job considered as

more important than status. It means flattening the structure and replacing the hierarchy by less stratified systems.

Clark and Meloy 1990: 15 suggest that school leaders re-orientate themselves and think as follows:

"...rather than a hierarchy , imagine a heterarchy; rather than appointed leaders, elected leaders; rather than centralised power defused responsibility; generality rather than specialisation; variative job definition rather than specification; permeable boundaries of responsibility rather than circumscription of responsibility; ex-post facto rather than priori expectation of satisfactory performance."

Based on these criteria Clark and Meloy argue that organisation must be created for people if school leaders are to achieve the twin goals of excellence in performance and autonomy for human beings. Clark and Meloy 1990: 21 further contend that bureaucratic structures are impractical and do not fit the psychological and personal needs of the work force. Starratt 1986: 11 urges organisational members to have a sense of belonging, a feeling for being part of a community, and a feeling that they have control, at least to some degree, over important aspects of organisational life. Leadership should help to reduce feelings of anonymity and impotence, and facilitate the development of the sense of the possible. It should allow educators to 'dream the impossible dream', to see opportunities and potential in the routine and mundane, to cultivate the art of the possible.

Review of hierarchical structures

Re-thinking the school structure as already stated in not easy. There is a deeply ingrained belief in roles, hierarchy and status. We have to get out of our

minds the belief that schools can only be structured in one way. One of the major problems in creating structural change is the mental image we have in our minds of the organisation as a pyramid. The new mental image that we must have of organisations is of the increasing power of teams at the periphery, which carry out the work with zeal.

Breaking down the hierarchies' means letting go of power. This invariably means empowering staff. A major shift in behaviour will be required by many school leaders if they are to empower staff. Research indicates that the organisation of tomorrow is a flatter, more responsive organisation that is built around people. Eric Charoux writing in the Sunday Tribune (11 April 2004) states that the traditional boss-subordinate relationship will be replaced by employees working in clusters who complement each other and who are focused on the organisations vision and mission and the satisfaction of learner needs. The employee of tomorrow requires interpersonal skills radically different from the traditional model in order to survive in this new working world. This means that people need to become interpersonally effective by becoming behaviourally flexible, particularly when it comes to communicating.

Collegiality – The power of self-managing teams

Collegiality is the latest word used to express the way in which school leaders and their colleagues might agree on the sharing of power. Under its banner the school leader is recommended to implement in the school a participative problem-solving model in which staff work together in a fraternal open and self-critical spirit, to collaboratively take decisions. Collegiality is similar to participation in its power sharing sense and is much further down the power-

sharing road than delegation and consultation, concepts that reflect a limited functionalist top-down mode of leadership.

According to Peters 1988: 296 self-managing teams are the way forward for they go beyond collegiality and involve a real devolution of power to staff. Research has shown that the uses of self-managing teams are on the increase in overseas countries. Caldwell and Spinks 1988 contend that the introduction of self-managing schools because of devolved power to schools gives school leaders an unprecedented opportunity to involve staff in a full and meaningful way in the management of the school. Caldwell and Spinks further contend that for self-management to work, there must be high levels of cohesiveness and team spirit. The use of programme teams gives educators a substantial say in policymaking, planning and resource allocation for their particular areas of work. In this way staff are recognised and valued as the major resource. Ownership of work and its attendant problems is a key concept in the development of self-managing teams.

Jenkins 1991: 60 outline the following as merits of the self-managing team:

- A large number of staff can be given creative responsibility irrespective of status.
- The jobs are based on a belief in action in task fulfilment- getting the job done- rather than on preservation of status or bureaucratic administration.
- The move carries the irrefutable premise that, irrespective of status, the members of staff responsible for a particular function is the ultimate authority.

- Central to the idea is team building and the head insists that the functional manager will pay the highest regard to the gaining of cooperation from other members of the staff rather than to the construction and working of systems.

- The change involves a major staff development activity, inviting staff to develop managerial competence as part of their career progression.

- The new structures are flexible – the functions can be expanded, contracted, taken away, closed down when the task is completed or rotated to other staff.

- Senior staff is offered the opportunity to play new roles. They are expected to play a supporting, counselling, but not a directing and control role.

Many schools have cross-curricular roles and teams but they are usually seen within the framework of the conventional hierarchy and indeed contained and restricted by it. In such schools teams are empowered to make policy and to act upon it. The empowerment of staff does not mean the complete removal of management posts but a radical review of existing structures and job descriptions for management members.

One obvious way of empowering teams and individuals is to make information freely available to them. Much of the inability to make decisions by staff down the hierarchy is caused by a lack of information on which to act. Getting the right information to the right people at the right time at a minimum cost of staff time is the basis for setting up efficient computerised Management

Information Systems (MIS). MIS will serve as a tool for administrative purposes and cover all management functions such as personnel and curriculum design, not simply budgeting and financial control.

Many schools are now buying into commercial packages. These packages can access information to different people within the school and the information can range from standard data such as pupil details to communication of new information as a basis for policy making or decision making. School leaders have to ensure that networking facilities are available to all members of staff and not simply the School Management Team (SMT) and that all staff members are trained to use the system.

The concept of self-managing teams will entail shared power over curriculum, modes of learning, evaluation and classroom organisation and also team teaching. School leaders will ensure that teams work effectively and not turn into mini-bureaucracies by giving them the necessary back up and support in terms of time and technical resources.

Morgan 1989: 36 suggests that the manager of the future should possess technical competence and develop people skills as an essential ingredient of the managerial role.

Some of the skills and abilities that the manager / orchestrator / facilitator should possess include:

- Ability to assist people on a day to day basis without supervising their work, you have to have some method of being helpful at the generic level, without keeping track of the details

- Ability to act as 'a resource person rather than a controller, cultivating relations so that staff will call you in when you are required'

- Ability to create and communicate a sense of vision and make decisions only when necessary, for example, 'as a trouble shooter, arbitrator, or hatchet man'

- Ability to orchestrate, facilitate, and network, 'to create conditions that allow things to happen, by finding opportunities, dislodging roadblocks, or acting on focal points that lead to desired action'

- Ability to exercise 'influencing skill' including those of conflict management and negotiation

- Ability to engage in 'team building' and develop other participative and collaborative skills

- Ability to work 'laterally and to launch and sustain joint ventures'

- Ability to be 'sensitive to the soft as opposed to the hard, finite, technical sides of an issue'

- Ability to be intuitive and sensitive to non deductive problem-solving methodologies

- Ability to remain open and flexible, yet act decisively when required

- Ability to 'motivate and inspire' people

- Ability to lead and participate and 'to shape direction while remaining open to influence from others'.

Creating fair, objective and caring systems

"You get no reward or recognition, not even a thank you'. 'I find he's two faced. He says one thing to one person and then tells a different story to another. He's done this to me and Bill...trying to split us up..." (Ball 1987: 154)

The above quotations indicate patterns of behaviour, which do not suggest a caring attitude to staff or the integrity and trust you would expect from school leaders. There is ample evidence to indicate that teacher morale is at a very low point. Jenkins 1991: 68 reveals that a recent research project carried out by Professor Gary Cooper at the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology found, teachers throughout the UK are suffering from stress-related illnesses, which seem to be attributable to poor morale and increasing job satisfaction. Discontentment was not only linked to pay but also linked to the 'lack of opportunity for promotion', the way in which their school is managed' and 'lack of recognition for good work'.

Many of the major worries of teachers stem from the enormous changes in progress in the National Curriculum, while others are to do with poor pay, lack of government support and the lack of respect for the profession in society. Teachers see themselves as expected to embrace massive changes in their working practices and routines without adequate preparation. At the same time they see little scope for their own career development.

Jenkins 1991: 69 cites supporting evidence from Torrington and Weightman 1989: 229 for the assertion that leaders have failed to manage staff in

a caring and constructive way. A study conducted by Torrington and Weightman 1989: 229 reveal to some degree 'the extent to which adults are taken for granted in schools to be unusual when looking at other organisation where core employees are increasingly being nurtured and developed with heavy investment in programmes of training in communication and consultation'. The researchers conclude that all members of staff need valuing and rarely have this experience.

The reasons why school leaders fail to care for staff can be summarized as follows:

- The organisational dominance, the traditionally strong power base of the school leaders described in the previous chapter has led to the abuse of power and the resultant arbitrary and inconsistent decision-making.

- This power has been used to strengthen the school leaders' hold on the organisation through favouritism and other techniques exemplified by acts such as the arbitrary selection and promotion of staff within the school.

- Instead of relying on trust and openness, school leaders have resorted to manipulation and Machiavellian techniques, with a reliance on micro-political processes to sustain and enhance their power.

- School leaders have been slow to accept or even debate that there is an ethical and value basis to management and that integrity is a key component of leadership.

- School leaders have been loathe to undertake responsibility for the systematic development of their staff and to work out clear systems for staff development. As contrasted with their attitude to pupils, they have failed to establish a learning environment for staff within the organisation.

- School leaders have understood, in a micro-political sense that it pays to leave things vague. The less you delineate about staff needs the more room you have for manoeuvre.

- Care is directed towards pupils, while there is a tendency to demean, blame and criticize rather than support teachers. This critical and negative fault-finding orientation has been noted by researchers. (Blasé 1989)

The perception of schools as organisations run by powerful and autocratic leaders leaves teachers with an unflattering picture of themselves. They are depicted as 'persons of low status, limited talent and uncertain commitment – unwilling to pursue academic achievement without determined leadership. It overlooks the reality that self-directing, self-acting and self-respecting persons at all levels are the foundation of democratic organisations and social systems'. (Riffel 1986: 168)

School leaders have an inadequate understanding of what motivates staff.

The modern day educational manager needs to be understanding and caring towards staff. I now examine ways of changing the uncaring behaviour of educational managers.

Creation of an ethical framework for leadership

Leadership is an ethical business and is about the way we believe people should be treated, enacted in our behaviour towards other people. Jenkins 1991:71 contends that there seems to be a dual failure by leaders to create an ethical framework. There is reluctance by school leaders to assert what schools stand for in the context of rapidly evolving political policies and there also is a reluctance to see the leadership role as one, which must clearly enunciate the basis on which they should behave as leaders.

The power of integrity

Trust is essential if members of staff are to work across departmental boundaries. The power of integrity can be displayed in diverse ways. All dealings with staff should be based on absolute honesty and mutual respect. Cox and Cooper 1988: 68 state that the concept of honesty 'embodies consistent and predictable behaviour'. They contend that honesty and integrity has to do with following through things on people's behalf and building up trust – being consistent, being dependable, doing what you say you are going to do.

The caring philosophy

Surprisingly, for organisations devoted to the development of human beings, schools, as noted earlier are decidedly backward in the way in which they care for and value teaching staff. With this in mind community care is a concept that has become close to the heart of many school leaders. Wilson and Corcoran 1988: 57-58 make a point of noting that with evolved power delegated to communities via School Governing Bodies, leaders have to ensure that good relations are maintained in a congenial manner so that education is a pleasant and rewarding experience for all stakeholders. Employees at all levels need to be made aware of customer care both in theory and practice. There is no point in

having a philosophy of 'customer care' if the people directly in contact with 'customers' do not implement the policy, or even sabotage it, because they are disillusioned with the school. Peter 1989 argues that the spirit of customer care must pervade the organisation. Staff must promote the image of the school in all situations and be aware of the way their actions and words help or hinder the image of the school. School leaders need to develop a strong partnership link between the school and the community. Bringing other stakeholders, the learners, parents and community into the partnership will enable the school leader to create a powerful alliance for the good of the school. (Jenkins1991: 134)

It is essential that the school leaders treat staff and the general community as valued resources. They need to be:

- **Considerate** – set an atmosphere in which staff are constantly grateful for assistance received. Always praise staff whenever possible for tasks accomplished. Always notice good efforts by staff. Be encouraging at all times.

- **Respect each individual**, 'treat people as adults – treat them as partners, treat them with respect' (Peters and Waterman 1982: 238) If you want good quality products or service then you must treat staff as the most important resource. Jenkins 1991: 74 cites research carried out by Peters and Waterman, which clearly points to the fact that excellent companies are distinguished from mediocre companies by their care for people and their respect for the individual worker. There is informality between managers and staff,

and petty and bureaucratic rules controlling workers have been abolished. School leaders need to:

- **Be obvious** – take interest in what is going on – don't be remote – speak to staff constantly.

- **Give feedback** and reassurance as rapidly a possible. Teachers lack confidence a surveys on teacher stress show. School leaders have to give priority to maintaining teachers' self-confidence.

- **Be systematic** about the way in which you value staff. Create a file on each member of staff – note any problems they have. Make note of success. Get to know each member of staff as well as you can. This is a personnel function, which can also act as a basis of staff development.

- **Listen** – instead of tell. School leaders need to concentrate on listening to and encouraging and guiding staff. Take every opportunity to listen to individuals, to give opportunities for groups to meet together and share ideas and information. Listening to others is a key point in demonstrating that you care. Although this listening can be formally structured in terms of surveys, focus groups and so on, it is more likely to be more successful in ongoing discussions with staff at all levels and throughout the school. Leadership and effective listening to employees cannot be separated.

Cut out favouritism

The use of favouritism by school leaders engendered states of anger, depression and anxiety. The ways in which school leaders select and promote staff are important indicators of the nature of the culture prevailing in a particular school and are an important insight into the values held by the school leader. The degree of openness and trust exhibited by the school leader is exemplified in the approaches to selection and promotion. Research (Morgan 1989) has revealed that selection and promotion processes were still being carried out in a haphazard and totally inadequate way. Even in schools were there was a general recognition of the skills and effectiveness of the school leaders, school leaders themselves confessed to their own view and perceptions being the single most important factor as to whether staff were promoted in the school, or appointed to the school. There was very little evidence of a rigorous job analysis, statements of selection criteria, a multi-assessment approach to selection, or any attempt to evaluate the validity of the selection process. To avoid allegations of favouritism it is absolutely necessary to demonstrate to staff clear criteria for promotion and selection. School leaders owe it to staff to set up procedures based on as objective and unbiased methods of selection and promotion as possible. The caring culture created in schools for children should be extended to include staff. School leaders should develop an ethical framework, which eschews the values and techniques of micro-politics.

Be a leading professional

The school leader will be unable to create a coherent learning philosophy unless he/she is aware of the latest thinking on the curriculum, not so much in terms of detailed knowledge of subjects but in terms of curriculum frameworks, testing criteria, learning and teaching theories and practice. To gain this

knowledge this type of school leader, referred to a cosmopolitan by Hughes (1985), will be heavily involved in the work of professional bodies, be linked to information networks, and will ensure that all the latest developments come to the attention of the school. Involvement in research is also not untypical of this kind of leader. Strong instructional leaders are well read and knowledgeable, continually updating themselves on curriculum development and able to be consultant and facilitator for staff on issues of curriculum and learning.

Working in teams

The organisation of staff into teams obviously increases the interaction, colleague support and interdependence of staff. Teams can be given relative autonomy in respect of timetabling, assignments, staff functions and curriculum development (Lipsitz 1983). Research has shown that teachers are prepared to invest time and energy into teamwork because they have greater control over decisions 'in crucial areas of curriculum, materials selection, student assignments, instructional grouping, classroom activities and the assessment of student progress.' (Little 1990:185)

Teamwork can offer staff the opportunity to do something proactive about the issues that are causing problems, rather than just passing problems up the hierarchy. Quality circles are said to engender team spirit, a supportive atmosphere, improve communications and teamwork and add to staff skills in problem solving. It is a form of self and mutual improvement system in which staff controls the performance levels and quality of their work.

Stressing quality

Schools that provide quality service flourish. Mortimer 1988 and Rutter 1979 have indicated that the essential factor in the educational progress of

children does not appear to be social class but the quality of their schooling. School leaders need to view the concept of Total Quality Management seriously to ensure that their schools offer the 'best educational services' to learners and the general public at large. Quality assurance is related to creating 'a culture and environment supportive to the continuous improvement of quality' but within the supportive culture 'quality is an achievable and profitable entity'. (Collard 1989:3) The concept of 'total quality' is 'to do with changing attitudes, values, beliefs and way of doing things and with the prevailing employer/employee relationship within an organisation'. (Collard 1989: 7)

Integrated quality assurance programmes contain a number of components.

In the first place, there is a climate for quality, a school wide approach to improve quality in all parts of its operation, and involving the application of the principles of quality management in all departments.

Secondly, there are organisational audits or operational analyses which seek to assess the quality within the school and to determine the school's strengths and weaknesses.

Thirdly and integral to the process, is the use of quality rules or improvement groups which seek out and solve problems a means of continuously developing the organisation.

Fourthly, there is the application of measurement techniques, both quantitative and qualitative, to measure quality.

Fifthly, the quality of staff, which includes selection and appraisal of procedures as well as staff development.

Improving the performance levels at schools

Van der Walt and Dekker 1993: 243 sees the school as a unique societal relationship, with its own terrain, competence, nature and task. Taljaard 1976: 244 states that the school's specific task is determined by the ontic law applicable to it. This task is a unique one and should not be reduced to the level of any other societal relationship. The school therefore has its own unique structurality.

Schools are often seen as bureaucratic organisations. According to this view, schools are characterised by the following mechanisms affecting the activities of teachers:

- The hierarchical structure of authority and strict supervision of employees (teachers)
- The school principal, as the supervisor and evaluator, plays an important role in this regard.
- Sufficient vertical communication
- It helps to ensure that decision-makers in the school receive adequate information, and orders are clearly and quickly sent to teachers for implementation.
- Clear written rules and procedures to set standards and direct activities. These include guidelines for curricula, subject policy, instructions, standard forms, time-tables, rules and regulations, and standard work procedures.
- Clear plans and schedules for teachers. These include lesson plans, schedules for meetings, budgets, and bus schedules.

- The inclusion of supervisory and administrative positions in the hierarchy to accommodate changes. When the number of pupils increases, posts for departmental heads and deputy principal appear. When circumstances become complex, post for subject advisors for special education, school psychologist, and school social worker come into existence.

It is important to have a balanced perspective of the school as a bureaucratic professional organisation. The word bureaucracy is often associated with red tape and routine, and conjures up images of inefficiency and rigidity. The fact, however, is that in order to function properly there have to be policies, regulations, standard procedures, and a hierarchical structure present in an organisation, or as Bolman and Deal 1991: 50 put it,

"...one has only to deal once with a poorly structured organisation to appreciate the bureaucratic perspective's virtues".

To classify the school as a bureaucratic organisation therefore means that attempts are made to find some arrangement- a pattern of formal roles and relationships – that will accommodate organisational needs as well as individual differences. It is thus evident that classifying that school, as bureaucratic organisation does not mean that there is no sensitivity to or respect for people.

In order to pursue and ultimately achieve increased performance and service excellence, the following suggestions are made.

Encourage innovation and creativity

Improving overall performance in the educational sector requires innovative managerial practices and more creative approaches to work. An

adversarial relationship between management and subordinates must be replaced by a consensual relationship. (Khoza 1994: 6) Where the management cadre preordains or dictates how things ought to be done, this could lock personnel into a routine where they have no discretionary choice or alternative way of executing a job. Such a prescriptive management style could stifle innovation and creativity, and should therefore be avoided.

Foster sound interpersonal and inter group relations

The existence of sound interpersonal and inter group relations between employee and employer is essential. Where there is a breakdown in communication, subordinates merely carry out orders, sometimes in bad faith. What are possibly needed are supportiveness, cooperation and solidarity, that is communalism. (Khoza 1994: 6) This is what in many instances may still be lacking in particularly multicultural societies.

Advocate vocational guidance

It has, and always will be essential for learners to receive proper vocational guidance at schools. Pupils must be exposed to the variety of careers that exists so that they can make informed choices about their futures. There tends to be too many square pegs in round holes in both the formal and informal sectors of the economy. Too many learners or students may be studying 'theoretical' and 'art' courses instead of concentrating on fields of study where the demand for personnel is the highest. Thus tertiary institutions will from time to time have to review their curricula to possibly make them more practical or career orientated. From an early age learners should be steered into career options, which could be of benefit to the whole nation. Special bursaries and scholarships could be granted to selected learners to encourage study in a specific direction of need.

Also, where career guidance does not exist at schools, or where its importance is still underrated, the matter should receive prompt attention.

Propagate dedication to educational services

It is proposed that a 'new' loyalty towards the educational sector should be fostered in order to streamline the quest for service excellence and to promote the cause of total quality management. (TQM) (Weeks& DeBeer 1994: 17-20) In an effort to bring about changes in the organisational culture and climate that will be highly conducive to educational sector excellence and the proposed reshaped loyalty, the traditional bureaucratic rules and regulations should be modified, or if necessary be abolished. This will enable educational institutions to move forward unbridled in a dynamic and innovative way, functioning somewhat like private enterprises. Hillard 1999: 70 reaffirms that the convergence or overlapping of educational sector practices enterprises with those of the public sector is no longer a foreign idea.

However, if public institutions display prolonged inertia and rigidity, they will have difficulty in coping with the pressures imposed on them by the process of efficiency, effectiveness and economy. Therefore it seems necessary that the envisaged 'new' loyalty should shake off the shackles of bureaucracy, if this is at all feasible, in order to focus on more important issues such as increased performance and public sector excellence.

Review punitive taxation levies

It is a truism that high taxation stifle the spirit of enterprises and discourages hard work. High taxation usually affects public servants even more than those working in the private sector, because their salaries can be monitored

more closely than those of persons who work for themselves or for private enterprises.

Ironically, high tax levels may lead to higher wage and salary demands, which will probably result in a vicious circle where no one is ever satisfied with his or her earnings. This situation could contribute to spiralling inflation. Where a progressive taxation system is in operation it normally leads to 'bracket creep'. In other words, person's pay increasing amounts of tax as they earn more, in some cases their net salary is even less than it was prior to a salary increase. Other sources of revenue besides the traditional sources should be tapped to generate income for the government, otherwise more and more people could begin to do less and less in reaction to increased tax burdens. Reducing the tax levies imposed on public workers is perhaps an answer to improve productivity.

Encourage attitudinal and positional changes

The steeped pyramidal structures typical of the educational services will need to be modified or flattened to minimize the distance between supervisors and subordinates. The leaders of the future ought to become developmental experts with specialized skills, which could be fruitfully used to empower others. In other words, leadership styles need to be reshaped. 'No leader is an island', he or she will normally be required to work within a team situation and would, therefore have to develop self-motivated, self-directed and self-controlled team members. This basically implies that leaders and supervisors should become facilitators and enablers instead of commanders. For this purpose they should move closer to each other.

A rejuvenated approach to leadership thus involves a large measure of team and inter-team building, together with a revamped, open organisational culture. It

also calls for a new paradigm of proactive leadership, which will be characterised by change and development, and will be firmly rooted in mutual trust and cooperation between employees and employers. Such an approach implies that management and employees seek a greater measure of congruence or unanimity between their respective expectations, ideals and goals.

Therefore a bottom-up approach to management ought to be practiced, this is sometimes also called the 'percolator' approach to managing employees. (Christies & Liknaitzky 1994: 46)

Reward extraordinary performance

It is quite difficult to implement incentive and productivity bonuses in the educational sector as the issues of fairness, impartiality and objectivity usually crop up. However, where profit-sharing or productivity bonuses can indeed be introduced, for example in commercialised public enterprises, it will encourage a sense of partnership and stimulate the employee's interest in the enterprise. (French 1978: 481) Nonetheless, there seems to be an international trend to pay for performance, therefore the educational sector of the future may have to reconsider its approach to rewarding public servants. (Weekend Argus 1995)

A further difficulty is created by the granting of financial rewards or incentives to public servants, in that taxes are used for purposes of paying salaries and the public would resent the ostensible squandering of their money on additional perquisites. Besides receiving one-off payments and merit awards or increases, employees should be rewarded in other ways as well. Creative and innovative ways of recognizing the contributions of public servants will thus have to be sought. Money is certainly not the only motivator, although it could be used

as an instrument for managing motivation. Aspects such as congenial working conditions should also receive attention.

Provide usable education, training and skills

Education, training and the acquisition of more productive skills by employees are fundamentally important to adding greater value to them as individuals as well as enhancing their worth to the public institution. However these skills must not be seen as ends in themselves demanding their own reward. Skills training should be seen as ends in themselves demanding their own reward. Skills training should be seen as an investment in people. It is by adding value to personnel and private enterprises or public institutions that wealth is created, thus ensuring a surplus of money, part of which can be distributed in the form of higher wages and salaries to employees. (Thompson 1994: 13) This principle is just as true for the educational sector as for the private sector. Although the bottom line of profit cannot be regarded as a criterion for educational sector success, the public nevertheless demands value for its money. Public servants are therefore obligated to improve their skills and abilities, thereby increasing their own value as well as that of the institution.

More emphasis should be placed on technical training and the development of a national reservoir of skills. This is usually a top priority in developing nations.

A lack of education and training may keep people in subjugation and abject poverty because they do not have the necessary skills to fend for themselves. It is also contended that increased literacy and educational levels will help increase productivity. Assessing training needs for particular occupational groups are therefore cardinal. If such assessment in not done, too many graduates could be

produced with unspecialised degrees. These persons may not possess those specific skills required to do a particular job. This statement certainly does not negate the need for education in the humanities, but it has been found that in developing nations where nation building and institution building have been prioritised, skills shortages have to be addressed rapidly. Employers want employees who can functions in the real world, showpieces are expensive luxuries.

Skills training could be underpinned by indentures (internships) to government departments, private sector enterprises and non-governmental organisation. It is also necessary to obtain the cooperation of the relevant communities when determining what types of training courses are needed. Placements should be reviewed from time to time and personnel could be rotated where necessary if it is found that there are incorrect placements or if additional experience is required by these employees.

Judicious application of affirmative action

Much has been said and written about affirmative action. Most countries grapple with racial issues and some sort of inequality in society. However, it is claimed that the indiscriminate use of affirmative action could become a counterproductive exercise if preferential treatment of selected racial groups are perceived by the disfavoured groups as reverse discrimination. (Hilliard 1993: 19) Discrimination against minorities, or majorities in some countries could lead to a vehement backlash.

Affirmative action ought therefore to be applied with circumspection in the educational sector because, if it rides roughshod over others' rights, it could cause irreparable damage in human relations. In some countries it has been found that

affirmative action has led to so much conflict in the work situation that it has substantially reduced productivity. (Sunday Times 1994) Therefore it is preferable, whenever possible, to appoint personnel on the basis of merit only. The pros and cons of affirmative action should always be weighed up carefully because, in the end, competence to do the job should be the most important criterion. If affirmative action can achieve this end, then it should be applied, but if it implies tokenism and window-dressing appointments, then caution should be the watchword.

Afford praise and credit for service excellence

Recognition could be one of the most important determinants of employee motivation and productivity levels. Various motivational theories, which have been touched on, could be used beneficially to enhance productivity. However, public managers do not have to be good theorists to motivate their personnel. Cordial human relations and a caring attitude could go a long way in encouraging a more productive workforce. Because of the major role, which trade unions have been playing in the recent past, employers in the public and private sectors are now sitting up and taking note of employee needs and expectations. Instead of being aloof and unapproachable, the managerial cadre will therefore have to develop the necessary sensitivity to listen attentively to employees and will have more importance to giving praise and recognition to them.

Discourage a lackadaisical attitude

If a country wishes to go downhill fast, it must espouse the 'cradle to the grave' philosophy. Such an attitude could encourage apathy and lethargy amongst the inhabitants and is unlikely to produce a productive, winning nation, or workforce for that matter. Naturally, there will always be specific areas in which the government will be required to support its citizens, particularly in assisting

the poor. However, the culture of dependency should be discouraged as far as possible, in other words the government must try to inculcate an ethos of independence amongst its citizenry. The culture of dependency is undesirable because it does not help people stand on their own feet. If inhabitants wish to be regarded as valued citizens who are capable of making a meaningful contribution to the economy and society in general, it is essential that they learn afresh how to become the servants of the nation – hence the term public servant. However if they display a grasping attitude and continue demanding higher salaries and wages for less work, the long-term effects could cause untold harm to the country. Therefore, a culture of hard work is needed in any society to improve public sector productivity.

One could, for instance, learn from one of the hardest working nations in the world, namely South Korea. It is claimed that the South Koreans only get eight days leave per year and do not work less than 2302 hours per year (Die Burger 1994).

There are no secrets to success except hard work and many public employees have a lackadaisical approach to their work. They arrive late and leave early, they are absent from meetings without valid excuses, some talk too much and some too little, and others take the maximum sick leave permissible because they regard it as an entitlement. (Die Burger 1994)

Educational and other capacity building opportunities

It is imperative for all citizens to acquaint themselves with, and avail themselves of, all the educational opportunities available in their country. In addition to conventional schooling and the traditional tertiary institutions, programmes could also be initiated for adult education and literacy classes; this is

crucial to increasing productivity. More emphasis could be placed on problem solving skills in order to teach employees about the nuts and bolts of work related problems. In house or on the job training in public institutions should also play a more prominent role. Furthermore, vocational training could be introduced at the tertiary intuitions where specific productive skills are taught instead of pretentious theory.

Conclusion

There are no short cuts to increasing and improving performance in schools. Basically it boils down to working smarter and of course harder. To achieve this end the observance of the Protestant work ethic is essential. A nation cannot expect to become internationally competitive if its productivity is low. Ways and means must be sought to increase quality educator performance so that learners can acquire the necessary skills, values and attitudes that will allow them to make a smooth transition into society. Naturally this will always be a noble ideal to strive for, and it may not necessarily be attained. However, every employee must do his or her part to contribute towards this desired state of affairs.

In the next chapter I examine the fieldwork undertaken together with an analysis of data processing techniques used.

CHAPTER 15

FIELDWORK AND DATA PROCESSING

Introduction

In this chapter I will present an account of my questionnaire and then discuss the fieldwork that was carried out for the purposes of this study. I will also explain the procedure used to process data from questionnaires to data tables.

The quantitative nature of the research

This project was of a quantitative analytic nature, entailing research methodology based on sampling techniques, fieldwork, questionnaires, the appropriate form of statistical quantification in the analytical program, SPSS 11.5, and the interpretation of the results in terms of parameters of significance projected by SPSS 11.5.

Questionnaire design

In this section I will briefly outline my questionnaire, which can be found in Addendum C. It was an anonymous questionnaire to intermediate phase educators. At the outset respondents were informed that this was an anonymous survey and that their responses would remain confidential. Having empowered respondents with this information, they were further informed that their participation in the survey was voluntary but that their assistance, through their participation, was much needed to ensure that management was in line with current policies when dealing with personnel.

The following is a detailed break down of the types of questions that were posed to respondents in this survey:

In Questions 1 – 5 focussed on general demographic information regarding the age, gender, ethnic grouping and qualifications of the respondents.

Questions 6 - 8 focussed on the respondents' teaching experience.

Question 9-12 relates to the respondents' particulars pertaining to teaching in the classroom.

Questions 13-20 focussed on particulars of the respondents' school.

In Questions 21-46 respondents were required to rate given organisational communication tasks as being either "important" or "unimportant".

In Questions 47 - 72 respondents were required to indicate whether the given forms of communication were being used at their schools.

In Questions 73 - 80 respondents' were required to rate the quality of communication between management at their school and that of other interested parties.

While the questionnaire is a lengthy one, it takes into account all the key aspects that are required to adequately survey the views of educators as regards communication and the management of human resources in the educational environment. This questionnaire therefore provides a more holistic picture of each respondent in his / her work situation.

Fieldwork

Participating Schools

This survey was conducted with educators at 50 schools (primary and secondary) in the Lower Tugela District of the eThekwini Region in KwaZulu-Natal. After obtaining permission from the department through the intervention of my promoter, I made an appointment with the local district office in an attempt to gather information as regards the educator population of each of the schools in the Lower Tugela District. Office personnel willingly supplied me with the names of the schools together with contact telephone numbers. Armed with this information I telephoned each of these schools to establish the educator population. In the same instance I gave the principals a basic rundown of my intentions of submitting questionnaires to their schools to which many were very supportive off. Principals were made aware that permission was granted by the Department of Education and Culture to conduct this survey with schools in the Lower Tugela District.

The survey

Questionnaires were hand delivered to most of the local schools, while the departments local internal mailing system was used to submit and retrieve questionnaires for schools in the remote rural areas. The principals of schools, together with their respective heads of departments were made aware of the confidential nature of the questionnaires and they willingly indicated to see to the actually completion of questionnaires. Arrangements were made for a specific date on which I could pick up completed questionnaires. In certain instances completed questionnaires were dropped off at my place of employment to which I was greatly appreciative off.

A total of 429 questionnaires were submitted and 307 (71.56%) responses received.

Data processing from questionnaires to data tables

During the survey session each respondent was required to read questions in the questionnaire and mark their responses by placing a cross in the appropriate spaces, or by writing down the appropriate information where required.

Entering the data

On receipt of questionnaires the responses were encoded into the SPSS 11.5 statistical programme. SPSS 11.5 is a typical spreadsheet-format database that consists of rows and columns for capturing the information with regards to the responses of the respondents in connection with the questions or statements that they assessed. Each question in the questionnaire was assigned a particular column in the database. The appropriate code variant for the individual respondents was entered in the column that deals with that question. In the light of me using SPSS 11.5 there was no need for a separate codebook to be drawn as this programme has an inbuilt coding system.

The last section of the data editor has a column requiring measurement. It shows the forms of scale utilised in the coding parameters. There are four categories of scientific measurement that is namely, nominal scale, ordinal scale, interval scale and ratio scale. Leedy 1997: 30 summarises the different measurement scales, their characteristics and statistical implications as follows:

Nominal scale

A nominal scale is a scale that "measures" in terms of names or designations of discreet units or categories. This enables one to determine the mode, the percentage values, or the chi-square. Examples of nominal scale measurements that has been applied in this thesis is the measuring of the age groups/ gender / ethnic grouping of respondents.

Ordinal scale

An ordinal scale is a scale that "measures" in terms of such values as "more" or "less," "larger" or "smaller," but without specifying the size of the intervals. This enables one to determine the median, percentile rank, and rank correlation. This form of measurement assists us when we classify schools in terms of their effectiveness. Rating the importance of the various forms of communication as applied in this thesis is an example of ordinal scale measurement.

Interval scale

An interval scale is a scale that measures in terms of equal intervals or degrees of difference but who's zero point, or point of beginning, is arbitrarily established. This enables one to determine the mean, standard deviation, and product moment correlation: allows one to conduct most inferential statistical analyses.

Ratio scale

A ratio scale is a scale that measures in terms of equal intervals and an absolute point of zero origin. This enables one to determine the geometric mean

and the percentage variation; allows one to conduct virtually any inferential statistical analysis.

Verifying the accuracy of the coding process

I verified the accuracy of the encoding process by double-checking each code that I had entered after the questionnaire had been encoded onto the database. I carefully looked at each respondent's responses to establish whether they were constructively involved in filling in the questionnaire. I looked for respondents with a high degree of "no response" or "spoilt response'. I was pleased that all respondents were constructively involved in filling in the questionnaire hence there was no need to me to remove any such respondent from the data base. The idea behind checking such information is to ensure that the results are credible and not skewed by respondents who are not fully and constructively involved in answering questions. A total of 307 active respondents are being used in this survey.

Determining the statistical significance of the results

Significance relates to similarities within groups and differences between groups with regard to particular responses. Statistics can be used to determine whether there are significant similarities or differences in responses to questions within demographic groups. High levels of similar responses within groups, correlated with high levels of dissimilar responses between groups are shown as levels of significance on data tables. The nearer the decimal fraction is to 0 (zero) the higher the level of significance. Stringent measurements of significance consider 0.05 to be significant, and 0.01 as highly significant. These levels of significance indicate the probability that a hypothesis being tested could be wrong, or that a correlation between two factors is due to chance. A level of

significance of 0.05 therefore means that there practically is no chance that the variable being tested is irrelevant.

With the fully encoded database, I used the general linear model feature of SPSS to determine the levels of significance for questions, which had a direct bearing on human resource management. I obtained this result by selecting the multi-variate option in SPSS. Age and gender were used as dependent variables while all other variables were used as fixed factor variables. In the sample table below (Figure 31) the last column gives the levels of significance.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	13.232(a)	4	3.308	1.308	.267
	Your gender.	.969(b)	4	.242	1.074	.370
Intercept	Your age.	804.841	1	804.841	318.177	.000
	Your gender.	71.264	1	71.264	315.942	.000
CSCHSGB	Your age.	13.232	4	3.308	1.308	.267
	Your gender.	.969	4	.242	1.074	.370
Error	Your age.	763.921	302	2.530		
	Your gender.	68.119	302	.226		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a R Squared = .017 (Adjusted R Squared = .004)
b R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = .001)

FIGURE 31 LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Here I will use the example of Question 73, which requires respondents to rate the quality of communication between the school and the School's Governing Body. The above table shows that the variables of gender and age are correlated. A highly significant level of 0.267 is indicated for the variable age. This means that there are significant similarities within the age and significant differences between them with regard to the quality of communication between the school and the School's Governing Body.

A significance level 0.370 has been recorded for the variable gender. This demonstrates a significant difference in responses to this question concerning the quality of communication between the school and the School's Governing Body. It needs to be noted that levels of significance close to 1 (one) do not mean that results are irrelevant. It simply means that the school and its Governing Body are using a possible common source of communication effectively. In summary, levels of significance close to 0 (zero) indicate clear similarities within groups, co-varying with significant differences between groups. Levels of significance close to 1 (one) indicate similarities within as well as between groups.

Conclusion

In this chapter I explained the procedure that I followed when conducting my survey. I then discussed the questions that were part of the questionnaire. I also gave an overview of how I carried out the fieldwork for this study. I then went on to explain how the survey was conducted. I also gave an account of the steps that were followed when encoding data into the SPSS 11.5 statistical programme. Following this, I focused on the meaning of "significance" in this study and explained how statistical significance of the results is determined. In the next chapter I will present the results of my study.

CHAPTER 16

RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter I will present the results of my survey. I will give an account of my findings and demonstrate my findings through the use of tables and graphs. Tables and Graphs demonstrating some of my findings can be found in Addendum D.

Demographic characterisation of the respondents

In the following sections I will give a general demographic characterisation of the respondents that participated in this study.

Gender

		Count	Col %
Your gender.	female	202	65.8%
	male	105	34.2%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 32 GENDER

Almost 66% (202) of the respondents, in my study were female and just over 34% (105) were male.

All respondents indicated their gender in this survey. From the table above (Figure 32) it can be deduced that there are more females than males in the schools were this survey was undertaken. This may also be graphically deduced from the figure 33 below.

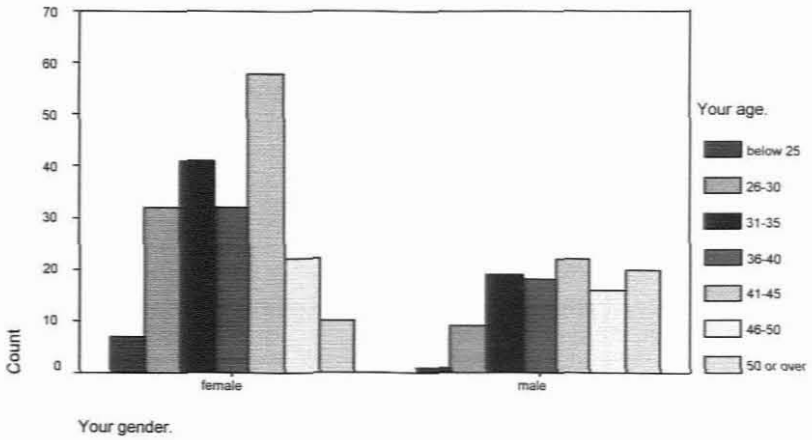

FIGURE 33 GENDER AND AGE GROUPING

Age

		Count	Col %
Your age.	below 25	8	2.6%
	26-30	41	13.4%
	31-35	60	19.5%
	36-40	50	16.3%
	41-45	80	26.1%
	46-50	38	12.4%
	50 or over	30	9.8%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 34 RESPONDENTS AGE

The table (Figure 34) to the left provides the details as regards the age of the respondents. The 41-45 year age group recorded the highest number of respondents, which amounted to just over 26% (80). Almost 3% (8) of respondents were below the age of 25 years.

The 26-30-age grouping made up just over 13% while the 31-35-age grouping made almost 20% (60) of the respondents. The 36-40 age category constituted just over 16% while the 46-50-age category constituted just over 12% over respondents. Almost 10% of respondents were 50 years and above of age. This implies that the teaching corps in the schools survey can be classified as being generally middle aged.

Ethnic Grouping

The racial composition of the respondents in this study was as follows:

		Count	Col %
Your ethnic group.	african	96	31.3%
	coloured	5	1.6%
	indian	195	63.5%
	white	11	3.6%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 35 ETHNIC GROUPING

Just over 31% (96) were African, almost 2% (5) were Coloured, almost 64% (195) were Indian and almost 4% (11) respondents were White.

It must be noted that there is a large disparity in the number of respondents polled per race group. Had I decided to poll an equal number of respondents per race group I would have been faced with the choice of having to leaving out certain population groups. I decided to instead include these groups so as to give a fair reflection of the views presented by respondents from each of the race groups in this survey. The table above (Figure 36) graphically gives an overview of the age grouping as per ethnic grouping.

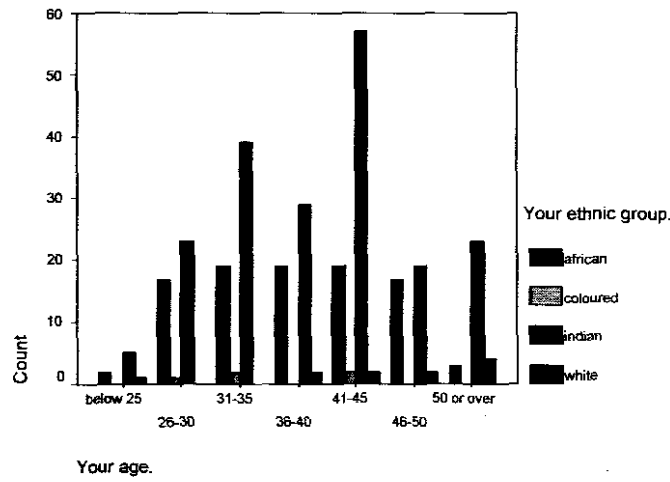

FIGURE 36 AGE AS PER ETHNIC GROUPING

Qualification

Of the respondents received almost 19% (58) indicated that they have a REQV of 13 and below, just over 40% (123) indicated that they have a REQV of 14-15 and just over 11% indicated that they have a REQV of 16 or above.

		Count	Col %
Your REQV.	13 or below	58	18.9%
	14-15	123	40.1%
	16 or above	35	11.4%
	spoilt response	21	6.8%
	no response	70	22.8%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 37 RELATIVE EDUCATION QUALIFICATION VALUE

It must be noted that the largest percentage (just over 40%) of respondents indicated their REQV to be between 14 and 15. Looking at the results of the survey it can be deduced that REQV levels can be further improved through distance education and in-service training. It must further be noted that almost 7% (21) of "spoilt responses" and almost 23% of "no responses" were received.

This may be represented graphically as per the figure 38 on the right. It must also be noted that there are a large number of course on offer by the various recognised tertiary institutions, which teachers need to consult with when choosing an appropriate learning qualification, which they wish to pursue. It is important that teachers embrace the concept of life-long learning positively.

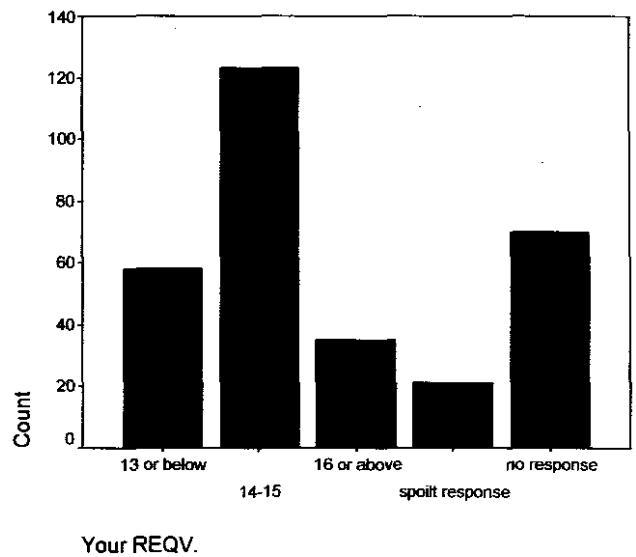

FIGURE 38 GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF REQV

Teaching experience

Questions 6 to 8 were aimed at establishing the teaching experience of respondents.

Statement 6 read, "How many years have you been teaching at your current school?"

		Count	Col %
How many years are you teaching at your current school?	10 years and below	187	60.9%
	11-15 years	60	19.5%
	16-20 years	33	10.7%
	21-25 years	18	5.9%
	26-30 years	2	.7%
	31 years and over	3	1.0%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 39 TEACHING EXPERIENCE AT CURRENT SCHOOL

Almost 61% (187) of respondents indicated that they had been teaching at their current school for 10 years and below. Almost 20% (60) indicated that they had been teaching for between 11 and 15 years at their current school. Almost 11% (33) had indicated that they had been teaching for between 16 and 20 years at their current school. Almost 1% (2) respondents indicated that they had been teaching at their current school for between 26 and 30 years. 1% (3) of respondents indicated that they had been teaching for 31 years and over at their current schools. Almost 1% (2) of "spoilt responses" and "no responses" were received. Looking at the statistics it is evident that educators are serving education for long periods at their schools. Mobility of educator may need to be re-enforced through redeployment processes so that knowledge and experiences are shared between learning environments.

Statement 7 read, "State your total number of years of teaching experience."

		Count	Col %
State your total number of years of teaching experience.	10 years and below	91	29.6%
	11-15 years	46	15.0%
	16-20 years	62	20.2%
	21-25 years	68	22.1%
	26-30 years	25	8.1%
	over 30 years	11	3.6%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 40 TOTAL YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Almost 30% (91) of respondents indicated that they had been teaching for a total of 10 years and below. 15% (46) indicated that they had been teaching for a total of between 11 and 15 years. Just over 20% (62) of respondents had indicated that they had been teaching for a total of between 16 and 20 years. Just over 22% (68) of respondents indicated that they had been teaching for a total of between 21 and 25 years. Just over 8% (25) of respondents indicated that they had been teaching for a total of between 26 to 30 years. Almost 4% (11) of respondents indicated that they had been teaching for over 30 years in total. Less than 1% (1) of "spoilt responses" were received. 1% (3) of "no responses" were received. Looking at the statistics it is evident that educators are highly experienced in the categories 16 to 25 years of total service.

Statement 8 read, "Are you part of your school's management team?"

		Count	Col %
Are you part of the school's management team?	yes	74	24.1%
	no	230	74.9%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 41 SCHOOLS MANAGEMENT TEAM

Just over 24% (74) of respondent answered "yes" and almost 75% (230) answered "no" to the above question. There was an insignificant 1% (3) of "no responses". Possible reasons for the differences in management structures in schools dependent largely of learner enrolment as well as the schools post provisioning norm that the Department of Education issues to each school on an annual basis.

Class particulars

Statement 9 read, "What grade are you teaching?"

The results of the above were recorded as per the figure 42 below.

		Count	Col %
What grade are you teaching?	grade r to 3	103	33.6%
	grade 4 to 7	128	41.7%
	grade 8 to 9	20	6.5%
	grade 10 to 12	48	15.6%
	spoilt response	4	1.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 42 GRADE TAUGHT

Almost 34% (103) of respondents indicated that they are teaching between grade R and grade 3. Almost 42% (128) indicated that they are teaching between grade 4 and 7. Almost 7% (20) indicated that they are teaching between grade 8 and 9. Almost 16% (48) indicated that they are teaching between grade 10 and 12. Just over 1% of "spoilt" and "no" responses were recorded.

Statement 10 read, "How many learners are there in your class?"

		Count	Col %
How many learners are there in your class?	40 and below	102	33.2%
	41 - 45	110	35.8%
	46-50	55	17.9%
	above 51	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	5	1.6%
	no response	9	2.9%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 43 NUMBER OF LEARNERS IN A CLASS

Just over 33% (102) of respondent indicated that they have 40 and below learners in their class. A significant number of almost 36% (110) of respondents indicated that they have between 41 and 45 learners in their class. Almost 18% (55) of respondents indicated that they have between 46 and 50 learners in their class. Almost 9% (26) respondents indicated that they have above 51 learners in their class. Almost 2% (5) of "spoilt responses" and almost 3% (9) of "no responses" were received.

The above many be graphically represented as follows (Figure 44):

Large class sizes could poise a problem in the teaching-learning situation as individualised education and group work may be difficult to manage. Large classes could also poise a problem as far as discipline is concerned. This could in term have a negative impact on the knowledge facilitation and knowledge construction process as well as the educator's recording of learner progress. Large class sizes mean that educators have to compile larger portfolios of records. Measures need to be implemented to reduce class sizes if education and knowledge construction and the process of life-long learning are to be meaningful.

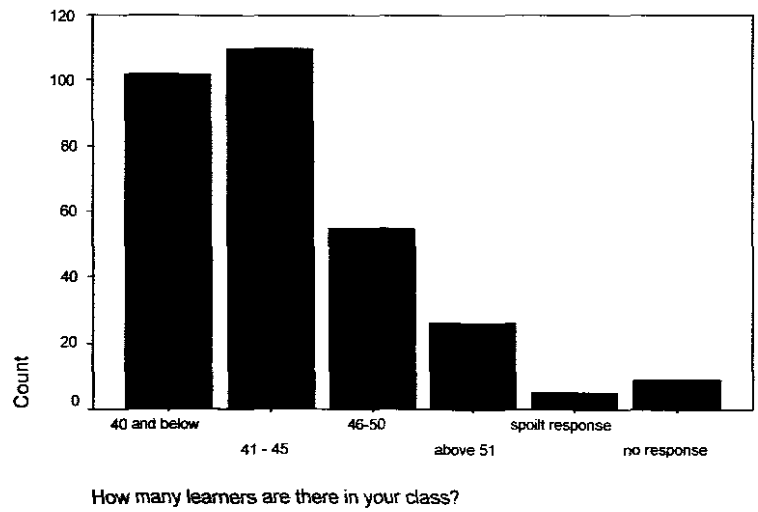

FIGURE 44 GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION - NUMBER OF LEARNERS IN A CLASS

Statement 11 read, "How many of the learners are girls?"

Just over 12% (37) of respondents indicated that there were between 15 and below girls in their class. Almost 22% (66) of respondents indicated that there were between 16 and 20 girls in their class. Just over 42% (130) of respondents indicated that they have between 21 and 25 girls in their class. Almost 17% (51) of respondents indicated that they had above 26

		Count	Col %
How many of the learners are girls?	15 and below	37	12.1%
	16-20	66	21.5%
	21-25	130	42.3%
	above 26	51	16.6%
	spoilt response	9	2.9%
	no response	14	4.6%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 45 NUMBER OF GIRLS

girls in their class. Almost 3% (9) of "spoilt" responses and almost 5%(14) of "no" responses were recorded.

Statement 12 read, "How many of the learners are boys?'

		Count	Col %
How many of the learners are boys?	15 and below	44	14.3%
	16-20	105	34.2%
	21-25	105	34.2%
	26 and above	29	9.4%
	spoilt response	9	2.9%
	no response	15	4.9%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 46 NUMBER OF BOYS

Just over 14% (44) of respondents indicated that there were between 15 and below boys in their class. Just over 34% (105) of respondents indicated that there were between 16 and 20 boys in their class. Just over 34% (105) of respondents indicated that they have between 21 and 25 boys in their class. Just over 9% (29) of respondents indicated that they had above 26 boys in their class. Almost 3% (9) of "spoilt" responses and almost 5%(15) of "no" responses were recorded.

Particulars about your school

Statements 13 to 20 try to establish more details of the school and its environment.

Statement 13 read, "Does your school have a vision and mission statement?"

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a vision and mission statement?	yes	298	97.1%
	no	2	.7%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	6	2.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 47 VISION AND MISSION STATEMENT

Just over 97% (298) of respondents indicated that their school have a vision and mission statement. Almost 1% (2) of the respondents indicated that their school does not have a vision and mission statement. There was less than 1% (1) of

"spoilt" responses and 2% (6) "no" responses recorded. The above results are significant in that it shows that education managers are familiar with lead personnel via a vision and mission statement.

Statement 14 read, "Does your school have a fully constituted Governing Body?"

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a fully constituted governing body?	yes	302	98.4%
	no	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 48 SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY

Just over 98% (302) of respondents indicated that their school does have a fully constituted Governing Body. Less that 1% (1) indicated that their school does not have a fully constituted Governing Body. There were just over 1% (4) of "no" responses recorded. The large "yes" response is indicative that communities have embraced the concept of school governance well and that they enjoy being empowered to have a say in the "management" of schools in their area.

Statement 15 read, "Does your school have a learner's code of conduct?"

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a learner's code of conduct?	yes	293	95.4%
	no	8	2.6%
	no response	6	2.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 49 LEARNER'S CODE OF CONDUCT

Just over 95% (293) of respondents indicated that their school does have a learner's code of conduct. Almost 3% (8) of respondents indicated that their school does not have a learner's code of conduct. There were 2% (6) of "no" responses recorded. The significant "yes" responses indicate that schools are in keeping with the Department of Education's request to have a learner' code of conduct which has to be agreed to

and mandated by the parents of the school. Such learner code of conduct can be used to discipline unruly learners. It is incumbent that the learner code of conduct be reviewed regularly to ensure that it is in keeping with the latest legislation.

Statement 16 read, "Does your school have a school policy?"

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a school policy?	yes	290	94.5%
	no	8	2.6%
	no response	9	2.9%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 50 SCHOOL POLICY

Almost 95% (290) of respondents indicated that their school does have a school policy in place. Almost 3% (8) of respondents indicated that their school does not have a school policy. There were almost 3% (9) of "no" responses recorded. A well drawn up school policy is a hierarchical tool that could be used to enforce the rules and regulations of the school. It is highly bureaucratic in nature and details the plan of action of the various components in education and personnel management. It is thus necessary that school managers draw up a carefully thought out policy that is environmentally friendly and well as personnel friendly which is in keeping with protocol structures of the National Department of Education.

Statement 17 read, "Does your school have a year-end brochure?"

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a year-end brochure?	yes	203	66.1%
	no	74	24.1%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	28	9.1%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 51 YEAR-END BROCHURE

Just over 66% (203) of respondents indicated that their school does have a year-end brochure. Just over 24% (74) of respondents indicated that their school does not have a year-end brochure. Less than 1% (2) of "spoilt" responses and

just over 9% (28) of "no" responses were recorded. A well drawn up year-end brochure is a useful way to hi-light the accolades of a school. It is a value tool in communicating with parents and the community at large. However the enormous financial implications of a school may hinder the publication of such year-end brochures. Schools should try to budget for such a publication as it serves as a valuable communication tool.

Statement 18 required the respondent to indicate the type of school they were teaching in.

		Count	Table %
List the type of school you teach in.	primary school	227	73.9%
	secondary school	68	22.1%
	comprehensive school	7	2.3%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 52TYPE OF SCHOOL

Almost 74% (227) of respondents are teaching at a primary school. Just over 22% (68) of respondents are teaching at a secondary school. Just over 2%(7) of respondents are teaching at a comprehensive school. There were less than 1%(1) of "spoilt" responses and just over 1%(4) of "no" responses were recorded.

Statement 19 required the respondent to indicate the number of learners that are enrolled at the school.

		Count	Table %
Indicate the number of learners at your school.	fewer than 500	80	26.1%
	between 500 and 1000	182	59.3%
	between 1001 and 1500	41	13.4%
	over 1501	2	.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 53 LEARNER ENROLMENT AT SCHOOL

Just over 26% (80) of respondents indicated that there are fewer than 500 learners at their school. Just over 59%(182) of respondents indicated that there were between 500

and 1000 learners at their schools. Just over 13%(41) of respondents indicated that there were between 1001 and 1500 learners at their schools. Almost 1% (2) of respondents indicated that they were over 1501 learners at their schools. Almost 1% (2) of "no" responses were recorded.

The multiple line graph below (Figure 54) further graphically represents the responses of the respective respondents in terms of school type and learner enrolment.

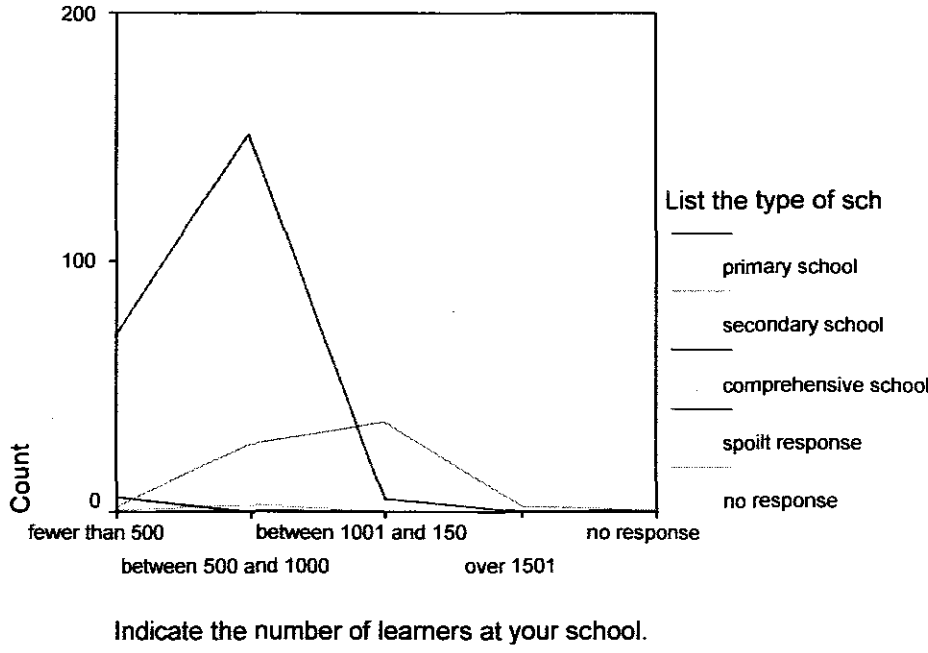

FIGURE 54 TYPE OF SCHOOL AND LEARNER ENROLMENT

Statement 20 read, "Where is the school located?"

59% (181) of respondents are teaching at a school in an urban area. Almost 37% (112) of respondents are teaching at a school in a rural area. Almost 5% of "no" responses were recorded. The fact most of the respondents

		Count	Table %
Where is your school located?	urban area	181	59.0%
	rural area	112	36.5%
	no response	14	4.6%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 55 LOCATION OF SCHOOL

are based at schools in the urban area has far reaching implications for much of the responses in this survey. There is a higher degree of organisational communication prevalent in the urban schools than in the rural schools. The financial implications and resources are but only two of the main reasons for such deductions.

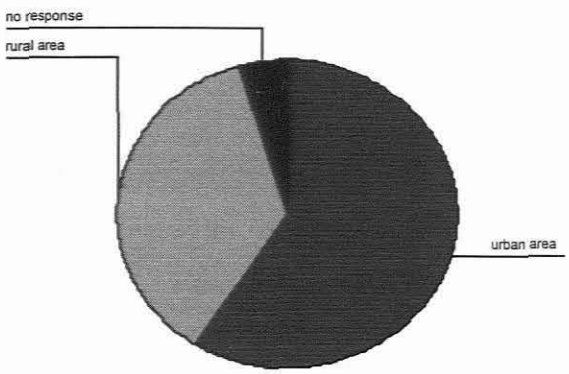

FIGURE 56 RURAL-URBAN SCENARIO

The pie graph to the left (Figure 56) displays the rural-urban scenario of schools surveyed. The infrastructure of schools in the rural areas often has a negative influence on communication mechanism. This is further hampered by lack of piped water and electricity. Schools in rural clusters often find themselves in microcosm of their own.

Forms of organisational communication in use by educators

Question21 to 46 polled the respondent's ability to rate given organisational tasks.

The figure 57 below shows the results for statements 21, 22 and 23 respectively.

	Count	Col %	
Rate brainstorming as an organisational communication task.	important	288	93.8%
	unimportant	18	5.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total	307	100.0%	
Rate conversation as an organisational communication task.	important	303	98.7%
	unimportant	3	1.0%
	no response	1	.3%
Total	307	100.0%	
Rate consultation and decision making as an organisational communication task.	important	301	98.0%
	unimportant	4	1.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 57 ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION TASKS

Almost 94% (288) of respondents rated brainstorming as an "important" organisational communication task. Almost 6% (18) of respondents rated brainstorming as "unimportant". There were less than 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. The 94% rating of brainstorming as "important" is highly significant. It reveals that teachers and managers do give careful thought to their actions in the work environment.

Almost 99% (303) of respondents rated conversation as an "important" organisational communication task. 1% (3) of respondents rated conversation as "unimportant". There were less than 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. The 99% rating of conversation as "important" is highly significant. It reveals that teachers and managers do speak and liase with one another in performing their duties.

98% (301) of respondents rated consultation and decision making as an "important" organisational communication task. Just over 1% (4) of respondents rated consultation and decision making as "unimportant". There were almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The 94% rating of consultation and decision making as "important" is highly significant. It reveals that teachers and managers

do give careful thought to their actions in the work environment. The significant result of 98% for consultation and decision-making is highly relevant as it reveals that teachers and managers are in a constant process of communication and knowledge construction whereby matters are discussed and decisions taken that impact holistically on the school environment.

The figure 58 below reveals the results of interviews as an organisation communication task.

		Count	Col %
Rate interviews as an organisational communication task.	important	266	86.6%
	unimportant	39	12.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 58 INTERVIEWS AS AN ORGANISATION COMMUNICATION TASK

Almost 87% (266) of respondent's rated interviews as an "important" organisational communication task. Almost 13% (39) of respondents rated interviews as "unimportant". There were less than 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. Current day education requires an interactional approach when dealing with learners and parents. There has got to be sound communication if all parties are to understand one another. It is also essential that learner and parental interviews be part of the home school link so that the process of learner progress and knowledge construction is well understood.

Statement 25 and 26 required respondents to rate the importance of giving instructions and the writing of notices as forms of organisational communication.

Just over 96% (296) of respondents indicated that the giving of instructions is "important" as a form of organisational communication. Just over 3% (10) of respondents rated the giving of instructions as "unimportant". Less than 1% of "no" responses were recorded. It is necessary for teachers to provide learners

with concise, clear instructions so that ambiguity and mis-interpretations are eliminated in the communication process.

		Count	Col %
Rate the giving of instruction as an organisational communication task.	important	296	96.4%
	unimportant	10	3.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the writing of notices as an organisational communication task.	important	278	90.6%
	unimportant	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 59 ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION TASKS: INSTRUCTIONS AND NOTICES

Almost 91% (278) of respondents indicated that the writing of notices is "important" as a form of organisational communication. Almost 9% (26) respondents rated the giving of instructions as "unimportant". Less than 1%(1) of "spoilt" responses and almost 1%(2) of "no" responses were recorded. The writing of lucid, concise instructions serves as a useful guide to ensure that organisation communication tasks are in keeping with the norms and standards as lay down by the Department of Education (DoE).

Statement 27 required respondents to rate the importance of evaluation as a form of organisational communication.

		Count	Col %
Rate evaluation as an organisational communication task.	important	291	94.8%
	unimportant	15	4.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 60 EVALUATION

A significant number of almost 95% (291) of respondents rated evaluation as "important". Almost 5% (15) of respondents rated evaluation as "unimportant". Less than 1% (1) of "no" responses were recorded.

The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) that has been introduced in schools require that evaluation be conducted in accordance to procedures that have been agreed upon by the Department of Education and the various Labour unions. It is incumbent for all teachers and managers to adhere to the principles underlying the IQMS process, as it is a means to professional staff development and quality management. Working against the system could mean that developmental aspects could be lost if teachers resist the evaluation process. It is thus important that all teachers and managers understand the above ramifications, which are in line with the organisational communication perspectives of the Department of Education.

Figure 61, below shows the results for questions 28, 29 and 30 respectively.

		Count	Col %
Rate the writing of a report as an organisational communication task.	important	284	92.5%
	unimportant	20	6.5%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the assigning of a project as an organisational communication task.	important	297	96.7%
	unimportant	9	2.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the demonstrating of a process in a small group as an organisational communication task.	important	294	95.8%
	unimportant	12	3.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 61 WRITING A REPORT, ASSIGNING A PROJECT, DEMONSTRATING IN A SMALL GROUP

Almost 93% (284) of respondents indicated that the writing of a report is "important" as a form of organisational communication. Almost 7% (20) respondents rated the giving of instructions as "unimportant". 1%(3) of "no" responses were recorded. The writing of lucid, concise reports serves as a useful guide to teachers and learners alike, were strengths and weakness may be recorded so that a follow up programme can be implemented to improve on weaknesses and capitalise on strengths.

Assigning a project polled almost 96% (294) of respondents indicating that it is an "important" form of organisational communication while 3% (9) of respondents rated the assigning a project as "unimportant". Less than 1%(3) of "no" responses were recorded. The assigning of projects forms an important part in the manager's delegation of duties task. It must be noted that the manager in delegating or assigning a project to respective personnel is still responsible and accountable for the project as a whole. It thus requires that the manager monitor the progress of projects to ensure that they are in line with policies as laid down by the Department of Education.

Demonstrating a process in a small group polled 97% (297) of respondents indicating that it is an "important" form of organisational communication while almost 4% (12) of respondents rated the demonstrating a process in a small group as "unimportant". Less than 1%(1) of "no" responses were recorded. The demonstrating a process in a small group provides hands on experience to individuals. Any uncertainty or doubt may be cleared up at this point while a demonstration is in process. A small group affords individuals an opportunity to interact at a level where the matters can be brainstormed at a level, which may not be possible in a mass group for instance. Thus small group demonstration needs to be implemented so that employees are comfortable with the various processes that may be involved and in so doing dispel any anxiety that may exist.

Figure 62, below shows the results for questions 31, 32 and 33 respectively.

		Count	Col %
Rate empathising and commiserating as an organisational communication task.	important	287	93.5%
	unimportant	15	4.9%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the display of values and beliefs as an organisational communication task.	important	304	99.0%
	unimportant	2	.7%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate cross-questioning as an organisational communication task.	important	274	89.3%
	unimportant	28	9.1%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 62 EMPATHISING AND COMMISERATING, VALUES AND BELIEFS, CROSS QUESTIONING

Almost 94% (287) of respondents indicated that empathising and commiserating are "important" forms of organisational communication. Almost 5% (15) respondents rated empathising and commiserating as "unimportant". Less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and just over 1% (4) of "no" responses was recorded. Empathising and commiserating are important elements of being human. As humans we are all prone to mishaps and situations that could cause one sorrow and grief. It is this process of empathising and commiserating that creates a better bond among individuals when you know that colleagues care about them and are able to offer support at their times of need.

Almost 99% (304) of respondents indicated that the display of values and beliefs are "important" forms of organisational communication. Almost 1% (2) respondents rated the display of value and beliefs as "unimportant". Less than 1% (1) of "no" responses were recorded. Values and beliefs provide valuable background information as regards an employee. Employees that hail from backgrounds that are sound are often co-operative and amenable to the suggestions and viewpoints of others. They are willing to embrace change and adapt to these changes in a positive way. On the other hand employees that are

often exposed to violent backgrounds, may succumb to such tendencies if and when presented with suggestions and views of others. The employees behaviour within the work environment provides valuable insights about his/her and it is essential that the principal as a manager be able to establish an employees strengths and weaknesses in the communicative process.

Just over 89% (274) of respondents indicated that cross-questioning are "important" forms of organisational communication. Just over 9% (28) respondents rated cross-questioning as "unimportant". Less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and just over 1% (4) of "no" responses was recorded. In any brainstorming session or discussion there will be a need to cross-question the viewpoints of others. Personnel should not view "cross-questioning" as a threat to their integrity, but merely as a process adding up to the making of sound transparent decisions for the organisation as a whole. It is however important that principals as managers approach this area with the sensitivity it deserves.

Statement 34 required respondents to rate conflict management as a form of organisation communication

Rate conflict management as an organisational communication task.	important	Count	276
		Table %	89.9%
	unimportant	Count	28
		Table %	9.1%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 63CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Conflict management as an organisational communication task polled almost 90% (296) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while just over 9% (28) of respondents rated conflict management as "unimportant". 1%(3) of "no" responses were recorded. Conflict management is an important area of educational management, which has been given due attention in chapter 11. It is

however necessary for principals as managers to tread carefully when dealing with individualised conflict situations. The legality of the various policies as well as the labour laws prevalent at the time need to be complied to in addressing such situations.

Figure 64, below shows the results for questions 35 and 36 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Rate the use of rules and regulations as an organisational communication task.	important	300	97.7%
	unimportant	4	1.3%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the completing of written assessment as an organisational communication task.	important	290	94.5%
	unimportant	13	4.2%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 64 RULES AND REGULATIONS, WRITTEN ASSESSMENTS

The use of rules and regulations as an organisational communication task polled almost 98% (300) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while just over 1% (4) rated rules and regulations as "unimportant". 1%(3) of "no" responses were recorded. In any bureaucratic organisation there is a need for agreed upon rules and regulations. Without rules and regulations it would be virtually impossible to run a school in an orderly coordinated manner.

The completing of written assessments as an organisational communication task polled almost 95% (290) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while just over 4% (13) rated the completing of written assessments as "unimportant". Just over 1%(4) of "no" responses were recorded. Written assessment form an important part of any testing situation. It affords learners and individuals an opportunity to pen their ideas and thoughts in a coherent manner which they may sometimes not be able to verbalise due to various reasons. A

written assessment can be used as a valuable tool to delve into the thought processes and insights of an individual.

Figure 65, below shows the results for questions 35 and 36 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Rate socialising with staff as an organisational communication task.	important	295	96.1%
	unimportant	9	2.9%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate socialising with the school governing body as an organisational communication task.	important	216	70.4%
	unimportant	85	27.7%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	5	1.6%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 65 SOCIALISING WITH STAFF, SOCIALISING WITH SGB

Socialising with staff as an organisational communication task polled just over 96% (295) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while almost 3% (9) rated the socialising with staff as "unimportant". 1% (3) of "no" responses were recorded. Socialising with staff creates greater cohesiveness between individuals, which impact positively on any organisation. Socialisation also contributes significantly to teambuilding, which leads to better communication and understanding among employees. Greater insights and understanding can be gained on employees when seen in a social context. Individuals may converse freely when in a social context, rather than when in a formal situation. Socialisation can thus open up this communication barrier that may exist.

Socialising with the school governing body as an organisational communication task polled just over 70% (216) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while almost 28% (85) rated the socialising with the school governing body as "unimportant". Almost 2% (5) of "no" responses were recorded. Socialisation as outlined above has many advantages. The possible reasons for reluctance for members of staff to socialise with School Governing

Body members is open to speculation. It must be noted that some schools do have problematic Governing Bodies that are non functional while on the other hand some are over enthusiastic in their line of duty where they often impinge onto the professional terrain of teachers.

Figure 66, below shows the results for questions 35 and 36 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Rate giving a report-back as an organisational communication task.	important	290	94.5%
	unimportant	14	4.6%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the keeping of records as an organisational communication task.	important	302	98.4%
	unimportant	3	1.0%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 66 REPORT BACK, KEEPING RECORDS

Giving a report back as an organisational communication task polled almost 95% (290) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while almost 5% (14) of respondents rated giving a report back as "unimportant". 1% (3) of "no" responses were recorded. It is important to note that the report-back process allows for the dissemination of information, which is highly important because not all members of staff are invited to workshops and meetings. It is this report back mechanisms that can keep staff abreast of latest development in the sphere of education. It must be encouraged and co-ordinated by principals to ensure that the very essence of a report backs is not lost.

Keeping records as an organisational communication task polled just over 98% (302) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while 1% (3) rated keeping records as "unimportant". Less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and "no" responses were recorded. Record keeping and its importance have been dealt

with in sufficient detail in chapter 12. Principals need to emphasise the need for proper, accurate record keeping within organisations under their control.

Figure 67, below shows the results for questions 35 and 36 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Rate the participating in discussion forums as an organisational communication task.	important	298	97.1%
	unimportant	7	2.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate motivation as an organisational communication task.	important	303	98.7%
	unimportant	2	.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the publishing of a newsletter and a yearbook as an organisational communication task.	important	269	87.6%
	unimportant	33	10.7%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 67 DISCUSSION FORUMS, MOTIVATION, PUBLISHING OF NEWSLETTERS

Participating in discussions forums as an organisational communication task polled just over 97% (298) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while 1% (3) rated participating in discussions forums as "unimportant". Almost 1% (2) of "no" responses were recorded. Participation in a discussion forum is a healthy mechanism for knowledge construction. It needs to be encouraged so that fairer, more transparent understanding takes place among employees.

Motivation as an organisational communication task polled just over 99% (303) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while almost 1% (2) rated motivation as "unimportant". Almost 1% (2) of "no" responses were recorded. The scope of motivation has been dealt with in detail in chapter 7. It is necessary that educational managers be able to adequately motivate personnel to ensure that quality education is the order of the day in organisations.

Publishing a yearbook as an organisational communication task polled just over 88% (269) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while almost 11% (33) rated publishing a yearbook as "unimportant". Almost 1% (2) of spoilt and

1% (3) of "no" responses were recorded. A yearbook serves as a useful tool in communicating with the community and outside organisations. However due to the high cost incurred in printing, many schools publish an in-house newsletter, which also serves a useful communicative function.

Figure 68, below shows the results for questions 44 and 45 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Rate the use of computers for correspondence as an organisational communication task.	important	241	78.5%
	unimportant	62	20.2%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the use of computers for the storage of information as an organisational communication task.	important	246	80.1%
	unimportant	55	17.9%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	5	1.6%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 68 CORRESPONDENCE, STORAGE OF INFORMATION

The use of computers for correspondence as an organisational communication task polled almost 79% (241) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while just over 20% (62) rated the use of computers for correspondence as "unimportant". Just over 1% (4) of "no" responses were recorded. It must be noted that our present society is a highly sophisticated one with rapid strides in the field of technology, which makes it incumbent for all schools to look at computer correspondence as a time saving device. Finer details on the use of technology and computers are given sufficient detail in chapter 12.

The use of computers for storage of information as an organisational communication task polled just over 80% (246) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while almost 18% (55) rated the use of computers for storage of information as "unimportant". Less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and almost 2% (5) of "no" responses were recorded. It is important that educational managers be computer compliant in order to store and retrieve information. In this computer

age it is important that staff be afforded sufficient opportunities to store and retrieve information with the minimum of red tape. Chapter 12 provided further insights on the use of technology for information management.

Figure 69, below shows the results for questions 35 and 36 respectively

		Count	Table %
Rate the use of the computer for accessing information from the internet as an organisational communication task.	important	209	68.1%
	unimportant	90	29.3%
	no response	8	2.6%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 69 ACCESSING OF INFORMATION

The use of computers for accessing information as an organisational communication task polled just over 68% (209) of respondents indicating that it is "important" while just over 29% (90) rated the use of computers for accessing information as "unimportant". Almost 3% (8) of "no" responses were recorded. Computer technology forms an integral part in the knowledge society that we exist in. Computers have the potential of supplying information on a multitude of topics throughout the world via the worldwide website (www) within a matter of seconds, which would normally take days, weeks on even months to obtain. Thus accessing information via the worldwide website through the touch of a button makes knowledge and information accessing convenient, affordable and time efficient.

The use of different forms of organisational communication by the school management team (SMT)

In this section statements 47 to 72 are analysed by looking at the results, which are depicted mainly in tables, which are attached.

Figure 70, below shows the results for questions 47 and 48 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team use brainstorming as a form of communication?	yes	257	83.7%
	no	43	14.0%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	6	2.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team use conversation as a form of communication?	yes	296	96.4%
	no	9	2.9%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 70 BRAINSTORMING, CONVERSATION

The use of brainstorming by members of the SMT elicited almost 84% (257) of respondents indicating "yes" and 14% (43) indicating "no". There was almost 1% (1) of "spoilt" and 2% (6) of "no" responses recorded. It is encouraging to note that educational managers do give adequate attention to matters by adopting brainstorming techniques, which elicits healthy debate and communication from all levels.

The use of conversation by members of the SMT elicited just over 96% (29) of respondents indicating "yes" and almost 3% (9) indicating "no". There was almost 1% (1) of "spoilt" and 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. Conversation forms an integral part of communication. It is encouraging to note that educational managers are willing to engage in conversation for the successful operation of organisations under their care.

Figure 71, below shows the results for questions 35 and 36 respectively.

The use of consultation and decision making by members of the SMT elicited just over 90% (277) of respondents indicating "yes" and almost 9% (27) indicating "no". There were less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The process of consultation and decision-making is highly relevant and significant in the management of human resources. Research has revealed a greater sense of satisfaction and productivity when personnel have been directly consulted and involved in decision-making processes within an organisation. Employees feel accountable and responsible when they are actively involved in the decision-making process.

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team use consultation and decision making as a form of communication?	yes	277	90.2%
	no	27	8.8%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 71 CONSULTATION AND DECISION MAKING

Figure 72, below shows the results for questions 50 and 51 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team use interviews as a form of communication?	yes	265	86.3%
	no	38	12.4%
	spoilt response	3	1.0%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team use instructions as a form of communication?	yes	295	96.1%
	no	9	2.9%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 72 INTERVIEWS, INSTRUCTIONS

The use of interviews by members of the SMT elicited just over 86% (265) of "yes" responses and just above 12% (38) of "no" responses. There were 1% (3) of "spoilt" and almost 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. Interviews afford educational managers an opportunity to interact on a one to one basis with employers. Interviews can be conducted at various levels within the work environment. Conducted regularly interviews can

be used as a powerful tool to enhance work performance as well as resolve any problem within the working parameters of the school.

The use of instructions by members of the SMT elicited just over 96% (295) of "yes" responses and almost 3% (9) of "no" responses. There were almost 1% (2) of "spoilt" and less than 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. In a bureaucratic setting such as a school it is necessary for management teams to issue instructions to teachers from time to time to ensure the sound completion of tasks within the working environment.

Figure 73, below shows the results for questions 52, 53 and 54 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team write notices as a form of communication?	yes	293	95.4%
	no	11	3.6%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team use evaluation as a form of communication?	yes	280	91.2%
	no	24	7.8%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in report writing as a form of communication?	yes	292	95.1%
	no	14	4.6%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 73 NOTICES, EVALUATION, REPORT WRITING

The writing of notices by members of the SMT elicited just over 95% (293) of "yes" responses and almost 4% (11) of "no" responses. There were almost 1% (2) of "spoilt" and less than 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. The writing of notices forms an important part of organisational communication, which is practiced on a daily basis. Meetings cannot be held on daily basis; hence the writing of notices serves to communicate urgent messages to staff and learners in an efficient and meaningful way.

The use of evaluation by members of the SMT elicited just over 91% (280) of "yes" responses and almost 8% (24) of "no" responses. There were less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The use of evaluation as a technique to enhance work performance has been given sufficient expansion in chapter 9.

Report writing by members of the SMT elicited just over 95% (292) of "yes" responses and almost 5% (14) of "no" responses. There were less than 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. Report writing is an important form of written communication, which needs to be encouraged as it serves to document results, progress and happenings, which may be required in the future.

Figure 74, below shows the results for statements 55 and 56 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team assign projects as a means of communication?	yes	278	90.6%
	no	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team demonstrate a process to a small group as a means of communication?	yes	265	86.3%
	no	39	12.7%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 74 PROJECTS, DEMONSTRATION

The assigning of projects by members of the SMT elicited almost 91% (272) of "yes" responses and almost 9% (26) of "no" responses. There were less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The educational manager is empowered to delegate task to personnel from time to time. It must also be noted that this delegation of duties does in no way absolve the education manager of his responsibility and accountability towards the task. He has to constantly monitor, guide and offer support so that the task is efficiently executed in line with prescribed requirements of the Department of Education.

The demonstration of a process to a small group by members of the SMT elicited just over 86% (265) of "yes" responses and almost 13% (39) of "no" responses. There were 1% (1) of "no" responses recorded. Demonstration of a process in a small group is valuable so as to give personnel an opportunity to establish what is expected of them as well as to avoid misinterpretation to matters of attention.

Figure 75, below shows the results for statements 57 and 58 respectively.

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team empathise and commiserate as a means of communication?	yes	281	91.5%
	no	21	6.8%
	no response	5	1.6%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team display values and beliefs as a means of communication?	yes	284	92.5%
	no	21	6.8%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 75 EMPATHISING AND COMMISERATING, VALUES AND BELIEFS

Empathising and commiserating by members of the SMT elicited almost 92% (281) of "yes" responses and almost 7% (21) of "no" responses. There were almost 2% (5) of "no" responses recorded. Offering support to personnel at times of need is a sincere way to indicate to staff that they are valuable to the organisation. It also builds on the element of trust within the individual.

The display of values and beliefs by members of the SMT elicited almost 93% (284) of "yes" responses and almost 7% (21) of "no" responses. There were almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The display of values and beliefs creates and ethos of tolerance and understanding between personnel within an organisation. It creates a bond and a high degree of cohesiveness within the working relationship where all parties are to identify with one another on a professional level without impinging on one's system of values and beliefs.

Figure 76, below shows the results for statements 59 and 60 respectively.

Do members of your school management team engage in cross-questioning as a means of communication?	yes	Count	273
		Table %	88.9%
	no	Count	30
		Table %	9.8%
	no response	Count	4
		Table %	1.3%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in conflict management as a means of communication?	yes	Count	281
		Table %	91.5%
	no	Count	23
		Table %	7.5%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 76 CROSS QUESTIONING, CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Cross-questioning by members of the SMT elicited almost 90% (273) of "yes" responses and almost 10% (30) of "no" responses. There were just over 1% (4) of "no" responses recorded. Cross-questioning techniques have the ability to create greater understanding between personnel who would be aware that they are answerable towards their actions. It creates a greater degree of responsibility among personnel.

Conflict management by members of the SMT elicited almost 92% (281) of "yes" responses and almost 8% (23) of "no" responses. There were almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. Conflict management techniques need to be employed in organisations to ensure that any problem situation is resolved at its earliest. Conflict management has been given sufficient attention in chapter 11.

Figure 77, below shows the results for statements 61 and 62 respectively.

The use of rules and regulations by members of the SMT elicited almost 99% (303) of "yes" responses and almost 1% (2) of "no" responses. There were almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. Rules and regulations form an important part of the school environment. Compliance to the prescribed rules and regulations at school allow for the maintenance of discipline and protocol adherence.

Do members of your school management team use rules and regulations as a means of communication?	yes	Count	303
		Table %	98.7%
	no	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
	no response	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in the completion of written assessments as a means of communication?	yes	Count	274
		Table %	89.3%
	no	Count	30
		Table %	9.8%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 77 RULES AND REGULATIONS, WRITTEN ASSESSMENTS

The completion of written assessments by members of the SMT elicited almost 90% (274) of "yes" responses and almost 9% (30) of "no" responses. There were 1% (3) of "no" responses recorded. Written assessments serve as an important communication tool to motivate personnel and learners to achieve at a higher level. If adequately motivated, personnel on receipt of written assessments, will want to better such assessment, hence the motivational factor.

Figure 78, below shows the results for statements 63 and 64 respectively.

Do members of your school management team socialise with staff as a means of communication?	yes	Count	290
		Table %	94.5%
	no	Count	15
		Table %	4.9%
	no response	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team socialise with the school governing body as a means of communication?	yes	Count	233
		Table %	75.9%
	no	Count	68
		Table %	22.1%
	spoilt response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team provide a report back as a means to communication?	yes	Count	291
		Table %	94.8%
	no	Count	13
		Table %	4.2%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 78 SOCIALISING WITH STAFF, SGB, REPORT BACK

Socialising with staff by members of the SMT elicited almost 95% (290) of "yes" responses and almost 5% (15) of "no" responses. There were almost 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The socialisation process between management and staff leads to better understanding and co-operation, which is beneficial to the organisation as a whole.

Socialising by members of the SMT and the governing body elicited almost 76% (233) of "yes" responses and just over 22% (68) of "no" responses. There were 1% (2) of "no" responses recorded. The 22% of "no" responses may be due to various reasons, one of which is that in certain schools governing bodies are not properly constituted. They may be non-functional as a component, which does not auger well for the coherence and functioning of the school as a whole. SMT and governing bodies need to work together for the betterment and up-liftment of the school. The school governing body needs to provide management with the necessary support required to fulfil its function.

Providing a report back elicited almost 95% (291) of "yes" responses and just over 4% (13) of "no" responses. There were 1% (3) of "no" responses

recorded. Report back meetings serve as an important means of cascading information dealt with at departmental meetings and workshop. Report back from an organisational communication perspective needs to be embedded in policy, that on returning from a meeting/workshop a report back must be given to staff so that staff are always aware of new develops in education.

Figure 79, below shows the results for statements 66.

The keeping of records by the SMT elicited almost 98% (300) of "yes" responses and just over 1% (4) of "no" responses. There were 1% (3) of "no" responses recorded. Record keeping and its importance have been given sufficient attention in chapter 12. It is pleasing to note, that 98% of school management teams do recognise the importance of keeping and maintaining records.

Do members of your school management team keep records as a means of communication?	yes	Count	300
		Table %	97.7%
	no	Count	4
		Table %	1.3%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 79 RECORD KEEPING

Figure 80, below shows the results for statements 67, 68 and 69 respectively.

Do members of your school management team participate in discussion forums as a means of communication?	yes	Count	281
		Table %	91.5%
	no	Count	23
		Table %	7.5%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in motivation as a means of communication?	yes	Count	291
		Table %	94.8%
	no	Count	15
		Table %	4.9%
	no response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team publish a newsletter and a yearbook as a means of communication?	yes	Count	263
		Table %	85.7%
	no	Count	38
		Table %	12.4%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	5
		Table %	1.6%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 80 DISCUSSION FORUMS, MOTIVATION, NEWSLETTER

Participation in discussion forums by the SMT elicited almost 92% (281) of "yes" responses and almost 8% (23) of "no" responses. There were 1% (3) of "no" responses recorded. The participation in forum discussions is a healthy way of brainstorming matters of educational concern. Discussion forums form an important part of team building, which has been dealt with in chapter 10.

Motivation by the SMT's, elicited almost 95% (291) of "yes" responses and almost 5% (15) of "no" responses. Less than 1% (3) of "no" responses were recorded. Motivation forms an important part of the education manager's role function. This has been extensively discussed in chapter 7.

Publication of a yearbook by the SMT elicited almost 86% (263) of "yes" responses and just over 12% (38) of "no" responses. There were almost 2% (5) of "no" responses recorded. The yearbook is a valuable means of communication with parents and the community at large. It should be encouraged in schools as long as finance is available. Copies should be archived for future reference.

Figure 81, below shows the results for statements 70 and 71 respectively.

Do members of your school management team use computers for correspondence as a means of communication?	yes	Count	231
		Table %	75.2%
	no	Count	71
		Table %	23.1%
	no response	Count	5
		Table %	1.6%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team use computers for the storage of information as a means of communication?	yes	Count	231
		Table %	75.2%
	no	Count	71
		Table %	23.1%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	4
		Table %	1.3%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 81 CORRESPONDENCE, STORAGE ON COMPUTER

The use of computers by the SMT elicited just over 75% (231) of "yes" responses and just over 23% (71) of "no" responses. There were almost 2% (5) of "no" responses recorded. Technology as a time saving devise needs to be used for correspondence at schools. Chapter 12 provides one with more insights on the use of technology in schools.

The use of computers for the storage of information by the SMT elicited just over 75% (231) of "yes" responses and just over 23% (71) of "no" responses. There was less than 1% (5) of "spoilt" and just over 1% of "no" responses recorded. The use of the computer and its implications for information management has been adequately documented in chapter 12.

Figure 82, below shows the results for statements 72.

Do members of your school management team use the internet to access information as a means of communication?	yes	Count	156
		Table %	50.8%
	no	Count	144
		Table %	46.9%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	6
		Table %	2.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

FIGURE 82 USE OF INTERNET

The use of the Internet to access information by the SMT elicited almost 51% (156) of "yes" responses and almost 47% (144) of "no" responses. There was less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and 2% of "no" responses recorded. Possible

reasons for the 51% poll could be linked to the financial implications involved in install Internet facilities at schools. It must also be noted that some schools are remotely located where they do not have telephone lines and proper infrastructure that make internet usage viable. However it is important that the Department of Education make available Internet and other technological facilities for such schools if they are to improve service delivery and the quality of education.

Communication between management and other interested parties

In this section statements 73 to 80 are dealt with.

The results to statement 73 are depicted as follows:

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between management and staff at your school.	poor	7	2.3%
	satisfactory	64	20.8%
	good	157	51.1%
	excellent	77	25.1%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 83 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND STAFF

Just over 50% (157) of respondents rated the quality of communication between management and staff as being "good". Just over 25% (77) rated the quality of communication between management and staff as being "excellent". Almost 21% (64) rated the quality of communication between management and staff as "satisfactory". Just over 2% (7) rated the quality of communication between management and staff as "poor". Almost 1% (2) of "spoilt " responses were recorded. The results above reveal that education managers and staff need to further improve communication links between one another. Various strategies, which have been dealt with throughout my research, may be applied to further improve communication between staff and management.

Figure 84 reveals the results to statement 74.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the schools' governing body.	poor	27	8.8%
	satisfactory	104	33.9%
	good	123	40.1%
	excellent	51	16.6%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 84 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND SGB

Just over 40% (123) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the School's Governing Body as being "good". Almost 34% (104) rated the quality of communication between the school and the School's Governing Body staff as being "satisfactory". Almost 17% (51) rated the quality of communication between management and the School's Governing Body as "excellent". Almost 9% (27) rated the quality of communication between management and staff as "poor". Almost 1% (2) of "spoilt " responses were recorded. Looking at the above results it is clear that greater efforts need to be enforced to ensure that School Governing Bodies and the school communicate along more efficient transparent lines. It is highly possible, that due to work commitments parents from the School Governing Body may not be in the flexible position to interact with the school on a daily basis. However with greater powers being devolved to the school governing bodies it is imperative that the key elements of communication be urgently addressed if we are to avoid the focus of accountability being constantly pushed from one to the one. Clearly the question of accountability requires that all role-players accept the responsibility as outlined by the Department of Education.

The results of statement 75 are as depicted in figure 85 below.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and other schools.	poor	16	5.2%
	satisfactory	90	29.3%
	good	162	52.8%
	excellent	36	11.7%
	spoilt response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 85 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND OTHER SCHOOLS

Almost 53% (162) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the schools as being "good". Just over 29% (90) of respondents rated the quality of communication between schools as being "satisfactory". Almost 12% (36) of respondents rated the communication between schools as "excellent". Just over 5% (16) rated the quality of communication between schools as "poor". 1% (3) of "spoilt " responses were recorded. It is important for schools to maintain sound, healthy relationship to other schools, so that knowledge and information dissemination is fostered smoothly and efficiently. Communities of learning can be built upon as school form cluster groups to work on educational renewal processes. This kind of support will assist teachers to cast aside anxiety and stress when they interact and share ideas with one another. Problem areas can also be dealt with speedily in these cluster groups.

The results of statement 76 are as depicted in figure 86 below.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the parents of learners at your school.	poor	21	6.8%
	satisfactory	84	27.4%
	good	148	48.2%
	excellent	52	16.9%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 86 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND PARENTS

Just over 48% (148) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the parents of learners at the school as being "good". Just over 27% (84) of respondents rated the quality of communication between school and parents of learners at the school as being "satisfactory". Almost 17% (52) of respondents rated the

communication between school and parents of learners at school as "excellent". Almost 7% (21) rated the quality of communication between the school and the parents of learners at the school as "poor". Almost1% (2) of "spoilt " responses was recorded. It is important that the school maintain sound relations with parents. Good parent teacher relations must be encouraged as it impacts positively on learner achievements. The new curriculum requires that parents be actively involved in the education of their children.

The results of statement 77 are as depicted in figure 87.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the general community at large.	poor	26	8.5%
	satisfactory	120	39.1%
	good	141	45.9%
	excellent	20	6.5%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 87 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND GENERAL COMMUNITY

Almost 46% (141) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the general community as being "good". Just over 39% (120) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the general community as being "satisfactory". Almost 7% (20) of respondents rated the communication between the school and the general community as "excellent". Almost 9% (26) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the general community as "poor". It is important that education managers foster sound community-school links as it impacts positively on the ethos of the school when parents and teachers interact harmoniously with one another. The community serves as "custodians" to many of our public schools. The community can be actively involved in various fundraising activities as well as maintenance of the school if they are adequately empowered by educational managers. It is thus in the schools interest that managers encourage and maintain sound community relations.

The results of statement 78 are as depicted in figure 88.

43% (132) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the KZN DoE as being "good". 41% (126) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the KZN DoE as being "satisfactory". Almost 9% (26) of respondents rated the communication between the school and the KZN DoE as "excellent". Almost 7% (20) rated the quality of communication between the school and the KZN DoE as "poor". 1% (3) of "spoilt" responses were recorded. The above statistics as portrayed reveal that communication between schools and the KZN DoE can be improved. Various possible reasons may be cited for the inadvertent lack of quality communication, among others lack of training, poor infrastructure, lack of communication facilities and shortage of personnel. It is important that strategies be applied to address the quality of communication, as it would have a direct bearing on the quality of assistance that is received from the KZN DoE.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the KZN Department of Education.	poor	20	6.5%
	satisfactory	126	41.0%
	good	132	43.0%
	excellent	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 88 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The results of statement 79 are as depicted in figure 89.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the business sector.	poor	32	10.4%
	satisfactory	137	44.6%
	good	113	36.8%
	excellent	23	7.5%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 89 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND BUSINESS SECTOR

Almost 45% (137) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the business sector as being "satisfactory". Almost 45% (137) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and the business sector as being "good". Just over 10% (32) of respondents rated the communication between the school and the business sector as "poor". Almost 8% (23) rated the quality of communication between the school and the business sector as "excellent". Almost 1% (1) of "spoilt" and "no" responses were recorded. The statistics above reveal that communication between the school and the business can be improved. It is important that educational managers promote good, sound business relations with those in the business sector. With autonomy being granted to schools for the purchase of stationery, furniture and equipment and essential services, it is important that educational managers maintain a sound, harmonious relation with the greater business sector.

The results of statement 80 are as depicted in figure 90.

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and institutes of higher learning.	poor	55	17.9%
	satisfactory	149	48.5%
	good	87	28.3%
	excellent	13	4.2%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

FIGURE 90 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND INSTITUTES OF HIGHER LEARNING

Almost 49% (149) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and institutes of learning as being "satisfactory". Just over 28% (87) of respondents rated the quality of communication between the school and

institutes of higher learning as being "good". Almost 18% (55) of respondents rated the communication between the school and institutes of higher learning as "poor". Just over 4% (13) rated the quality of communication between the school and institutes of higher learning as "excellent". Less than 1% (1) of "spoilt" and almost 1% (2) of "no" responses were recorded. The statistics above reveal that there is communication between the schools and institutes of higher learning, which vary in quality. This varying quality could be ascribed to a number of factors. The use of technology, infrastructure, personnel training and communication strategies are but only some of the reasons that can be cited for the varying quality of communication between schools and institutes of learning. What is important however is the fact that there is some form of contact and communication, which speaks well for staff development in schools. It is important that educational managers nurture and construct sound bridges between schools and institutes of higher learning so that staff development programmes can be successfully managed by institutes of higher learning, which will impact positively towards the process of life-long learning.

Conclusion

In this chapter I presented the results of my research by means of series of tables and graphs. An analysis of the data obtained by means of the survey reveal that many educational managers are aware of communication strategies, but it application warrants attention. It is noted that the communication strategy varies from school to school. Educational managers need to realise the important role of organisational communication if they are to be successful leaders of organisations. The functionality of organisations can be greatly enhanced if

educational managers are willing to show commitment and understanding in dealing with human resources in their work environment.

In chapter 17 I will present the conclusion and recommendation of my study.

Chapter 17

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this final chapter it is hoped that the contents can be summarized succinctly and the recommendations for the way forward will prove helpful. The recommendations can only be implemented successfully is there is a willingness on the part of all educationists and school managers to have the desire to change and to possess enough vigour to pursue innovation and creativity in their daily duties.

My thesis in retrospect

In this section I will look back on my thesis and give a brief overview of the research that was carried out for the purposes of this study. In Chapter 1, I gave an overview of this thesis.

Chapter 2 focused on the statement of problems and the research methodology that I used to resolve the problems that I identified. In Chapter 3 I explained the key concepts that informed this study and followed this with a literature survey in Chapter 4.

In chapter 4, I discussed communication in organisations in accordance to the various theoretical approaches. I also gave a detailed account of the importance of communication along a hierarchical structure in organisations.

In chapter 5, I traced the historical development of human resource management. I also looked at the theoretical approaches to human resource

management in organisations. The various principles underpinning the Ubuntu management approach are also discussed.

In chapter 6, I looked at current research on communication as well as the various forms of communication. Nonverbal as well as intercultural communication are also given attention in this chapter.

In chapter 7, I looked at the individual and professional development. The theories X and Y and the multidimensional intelligence within an individual are also discussed. This chapter also brings to the fore the need for motivation within organisations. Factors that tend to decrease the morale of employees in the form of stress are also addressed. Stress management and the role of management are also discussed in detail. Various communication strategies are suggested to make the school less stressful to employees. Disaster/ crisis management is also looked at and a possible plan of action that could be implemented in the event of a fire is also discussed.

In chapter 8, I looked at the individual and professional development. Four important aspects of human resource management are discussed namely, human resource planning, appraisal, staff selection and professional development portfolios. Aspects of particular reference to school development are also discussed in an attempt to impress on school managers the need for compliance to the process of whole school evaluation.

In chapter 9, I examined the theories on leadership. I discussed in quite detail the concept of performance improvement. Various methods of enhancing employee performance are also discussed.

In chapter 10, I discussed staff development and teamwork. Team building and group formation are also given sufficient documentary in this chapter. I also impress on the need for good human relations in organisations.

In chapter 11, I discussed the concept of change management together with the forms and steps involved in the change process. I also looked at organisational change from a schools perspective. The changing school climate was highlighted together with the need for educational managers to embrace the change process positively in order to ensure a smooth transition in the implementation and adoption of the various changes that are being promulgated in the educational setting.

In chapter 12, I discussed the concepts of information and knowledge management. I also highlight the digital convergence that currently surrounds education and the impact of such a convergence in terms of modern technology. Record keeping and maintenance is also given due attention as we move away from a paperless work environment to a more technologically inclined work environment.

In chapter 13, I discussed industrial relations and the important role that labour unions play in our current work environments. Disciplinary procedures are given due attention in this chapter.

In chapter 14, I discussed a possible model for the application of organisational communication to resource management. I make a concerted attempt in impressing upon educational managers to be fair and consistent in dealing with employees.

In chapter 15, I discussed the fieldwork that was undertaken and how it was encoded onto the SPSS 11.5 statistical programme.

In chapter 16, I provided the results of the survey conducted with an analysis comprising of graphs and tables.

In chapter 17, I presented the conclusions of my research and make a number of recommendations.

Confirmation of hypotheses

In looking at the reported results it becomes clear that the hypotheses being tested are relevant. The following two hypotheses that were tested in this study are:

- Facilitators at public schools in the Stanger circuit have a clear understanding of organisational communication and their role functions.

- Public schools in the Stanger circuit follow sound educational management techniques in the management of human resources.

From the pattern of the results reported it is clear that the hypotheses stated above are confirmed. Educators do have a clear understanding of organisational communication and their role function. This has become apparent after surveying the results of the different respondents.

As much as the results of the survey confirm the hypothesis it must be noted that there are variations in the methods of communication being adopted by different schools. Infrastructure, locality, organisational setting and leadership are factors that predominantly affect the methods of communication being

adopted. Sound educational management techniques are also being implemented, which also vary among organisations in the management of human resources.

Delimitation

After surveying the results it must be noted that the results depicted are valid for Black and Indian respondents in terms of ethnic grouping. The majority of the respondents fell in the Indian and Black ethnic group. This is largely due to the minimal number of White and Coloured educators in the schools surveyed.

The results are valid for female educators, largely because there are more female educators employed at schools than male educators. It would seem that fewer males opt for teaching as a career.

Conclusions

The results that I reported were obtained by means of an attitude survey that was conducted with the assistance of educators at fifty schools (primary and secondary) in the Lower Tugela Circuit, and quantified by means of the statistical program SPSS 11.5.

The contents of the questionnaire focused on the various aspects of organisational communication. I also provided an extensive literature survey on various aspects of the communication process and showed its relevance to the management of human resources in educational management.

From an analysis of the results obtained, it is apparent that educators and educational managers do have an understanding of organisational communication in the school setting.

The survey further revealed that educators are indeed aware of the various forms of communication that are at their disposal. Schools are also practising, if not all, some of the many forms of organisational communication.

Recommendations

The results of this study pertain to the use of organisational communication in the management of human resources in the school environment. The implications of this study of schools and their management teams are important and significant.

After surveying questionnaires and inputs made by educators and educational managers, I recommend that:

- Management development planning needs to be introduced for all educational managers. It needs to be continuous and on going, acknowledging the complexity of management knowledge and the idiosyncratic nature of the individual educational manager's development. Management tasks are now so complex in schools, and the processes required of senior teachers to achieve them so sophisticated that management development cannot be left to chance or to ambitious and enthusiastic individuals taking the initiative on their own behalf.

- Early management training is needed. It is clear that educators begin to take responsibilities for management tasks at an early stage in their careers. All educators should have the benefit of educational management training.

- Prospective educational managers need to be made familiar with the skills of decision-making and the processes of schematic classification, which underpins a well-considered decision.

- Delegation and educator empowerment needs to be used by educational managers to motivate educators in learning management tasks. It must be noted that both educator empowerment and delegation have emerged as significant issues in this study and as an important element in the educational managers role function.

- More research into the processes of educational management learning and the influences upon it is undertaken. There is a need for a greater understanding of the learning that takes educational managers from novice to expert. This will enable schools with new management teams to be managed more appropriately and effectively.

Finally, this study has focused on the management of human resources. Of equal importance are studies, yet to be done, in the field of technology and its influence on human resources within an organisational environment.

ADDENDA

Addendum A: Research Proposal

Proposal for a D Litt thesis in
Communication Science

NAME OF CANDIDATE: Mr A.Ramcharan
STUDENT NUMBER: 012215
PRESENT HIGHEST QUALIFICATION:
MA in Communication Science (DUC)
PROPOSED DEGREE: D Litt
FACULTY: Arts
DEPARTMENT: Communication Science
SUPERVISOR: Prof. R.M. Klopper (Durban-Umlazi Campus)

TITLE OF PROJECT

Managing Human Resources in Education
Applying organisational communication in Educational Management

PREAMBLE

In this thesis I will apply the principles of organisational communication to identify educational management tasks. There are three phases in this study:

- In the first phase I will analyse the principles of organisational communication as set out in Mersham and Skinner's *New Insights into Business & Organisational Communication* (2001).
- In the second phase I will evaluate the views of educators towards management members, via a survey of selected schools in the Ethekwini Region.
- In the third phase I will develop an effective method of improving staff/management relations.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM TO BE ANALYSED

The greatest resource to any organisation is its human resource. The assumption is made that organisations will function more efficiently if the people who work in them are encouraged to develop professionally and to use that approach to undertake organisational tasks. One of the crucial tasks for educational managers is to apply the principle of professional development not only to themselves but also to the people and tasks that they manage.

One of the major changes brought about by Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) is the fact that it requires a co-operative environment where all stakeholders are synchronised in effectively being able to respect the individualism of learners and fellow colleagues.

The most general complain from educators relate to the Bureaucratic structures in education which have left them disillusioned and demotivated. In this thesis I will apply the principles of organisational communication to hi-light the many tasks of the modern school manager and develop an efficient method in which managers are able to create constant awareness of management activities.

The requirements of such a procedure are that:

- School Managers have set role functions
- Educators must use the proper channels of communication to liase effectively with management
- A consultative approach allows democracy in the decision-making processes which impacts positively on educators.

Increasingly human resource management is being recognised as crucial, not only to the individual but also to the promotion of effective and efficient organisations. In this thesis I will focus on educational management in two ways – from the perspective of the individual and from the perspective of the organisation. Education management is a diverse and complex range of activities calling on the exercise of considerable knowledge, skill and judgement by individuals, but its practice is dependent on the culture of particular organisational settings. It is a recognised fact however that it is this constant interplay between individual capability and organisational requirements, which make human resource management for educational managers both challenging and exciting. In this thesis I will examine how the concepts, skills and insights gained through professional development can be applied by educational managers to specific organisational tasks and systems.

In order to evaluate current human resource management skills adopted, a survey of methods being used will be carried out at 50 randomly selected schools in the Stanger circuit, which falls within the Ethekwini region. The Stanger circuit will be targeted because it constitutes rural and semi-rural educational settings where problems of implementation are more acute than at schools in urban settings. By focusing on delivery in rural and semi-rural settings, a robust procedure of educational resource management can be developed.

In the final phase of my research I will create a model of how the concepts, skills and insights gained through professional development can be applied by educational mangers to specific organisational tasks and systems in the effective use of human resources.

HYPOTHESIS TO BE TESTED

The following two hypotheses will be tested in this study:

1. Facilitators at public schools in the Stanger circuit have a clear understanding of organisational communication and their role functions.
2. Public schools in the Stanger circuit follow sound educational management techniques in the management of human resources.

AIMS

1. To determine by means of a literature survey what sound principles of human resource management are;

2. To determine by means of an analysis of documentation from the Department of Education, what role functions of educational mangers are being prescribed;
3. To determine by means of an attitude survey whether educators are aware of organisational communication principles that can be applied to human resource management.
4. To determine by the same survey what forms of human resource management, educational managers at systematically selected schools in the Stanger circuit are currently practising.
5. To determine whether the resource management skills currently being used are effective in sustaining educator motivation.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research will consist of a literature survey, followed by survey research among randomly selected public primary schools in the Stanger circuit of the Ethekwini region.

Quantitative research methodology will be used to analyse the responses from the various public schools. The quantitative research will be conducted in the following phases:

1. An appropriate questionnaire will be constructed.
2. Permission will be sought from the relevant educational authorities in the Ethekwini region of the Kwa-Zulu Natal Department of Education & Culture for a voluntary, anonymous survey to be conducted among intermediate phase educators in its Stanger circuit.
3. Permission of Principals in the Stanger circuit will be sought for the survey to be conducted among educators in their schools.
4. Questionnaires will be disseminated and retrieved with the assistance of school principals and their management teams at each school selected for the survey.
5. The responses on the questionnaires will be encoded and analysed in the statistical program SPSS 11.

VALUE OF RESEARCH

The value of this research will be in the documentation of the various forms of communication being used in schools at present, as well as the coordinated application of organisational communication principles to human resource management in educational management.

PROVISIONAL CHAPTER HEADINGS

1. Orientation
2. Statement of problems
3. Research methodology
4. Overview of key concepts
5. The nature of organisational communication
6. Current research on communication in education

7. The individual and professional development
8. The organisation and professional development
9. Managing human resources
10. Staff development and teamwork
11. Change Management
12. Knowledge and wisdom management
13. A model for applying organisational communication to resource management in education
14. Conclusion and recommendations
15. Bibliography
16. Index

TIME FRAMES

- Literature survey: July 2003-December 2003
- Construction of questionnaire: November 2003
- Fieldwork: February 2004 – May 2004
- Analysis: June 2004
- Writing of thesis: September 2004-February 2004
- Dissemination of results: 2005 onwards

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Addendum B: Preliminary correspondence with officials

University Of Zululand

Department Of Communication Science (Durban Campus)

Unit For Postgraduate Studies in Cognition, Language Learning & Communic

Private E

IS

Tel 082-9133-150

Fax (031) 907-3011

E-Mail rklopper@iafrica.com

Saturday, March 20, 2004

Director

Ilembe District

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education

Private Bag X54330

Durban

4000

Dear Mr. Mzoneli,

PERMISSION SOUGHT TO CONDUCT A SURVEY AMONG EDUCATORS IN THE LOWER TUGELA DISTRICT

One of my doctoral students, Mr. Aneel Ramcharan is doing empirical research to determine how education managers employ the principles of organisational communication during school management.

I am hereby applying for permission in principle for the above-mentioned research to be done in the region under your jurisdiction.

- Participation will be on a voluntary and anonymous basis.
- The survey will be of a constructive nature.
- After obtaining permission in principle from you the permission of the principals of about fifty schools will be sought, emphasizing the anonymous and voluntary nature of participation.
- The questionnaires will be disseminated and retrieved by the researchers.
- The KZN Department of Education will be acknowledged in the theses, of which copies will be provided upon completion.

Kind regards

Prof. R M Klopper

HOD: Communication Science (Durban)

PROVINCE OF KWAZULU NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATAL
PROVINSIE KWAZULU NATAL

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO NAMASIKO
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

ETHEKWINI REGION
Ilembe District
LOWER TUGELA CIRCUIT OFFICE

Address: Ikheli:	Private Bag: ISIKHWAMA:	X10689 STANGER 4450	Telephone: 032- 5511695 Ucingo: Telefoon: Fax: 032-5527885 Region's Tollfree No: 0800360691
Enquiries: Navrae: Imibuzo:	Reference: Verwysing: Inkomba:		Date: Datum: 5 April 2004 Usuku

The Regional Senior Manager
Mrs N.L. Ntuli
Private Bag X54323
Durban
4000

Dear Mrs Ntuli

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY - A. RAMCHARAN - GLENHILLS PRIMARY.

1) The attached correspondence in respect of the above refers.
2) I support this request.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

MRS L.E. KHOZA (Acting C.E.S.M.)

SUPPORTED / ~~NOT SUPPORTED~~

16/04/04
MR N.W. MZONELI
DIRECTOR : ILEMBE DISTRICT

APPROVED/ ~~NOT APPROVED~~

MRS N.L. NTULI
REGIONAL SENIOR MANAGER

PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATAL
PROVINSIE KWAZULU-NATAL

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTU
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO NAMASIKO
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULT

eTHEKWINI REGION ISIFUNDA SASETHEKWINI eTHEKWINI STREE

Address: Malgate Building
Ikheli: 72 Stanger Street
Adres: Durban

Private Bag: Private Bag X54330
Isikhwama Sepost: Durban
Privaatsak: 4000

Telephone 031-327091
Ucinco:
Telefoon:
Fax: 031-327057

Enquiries: NW Mzoneli
Imibuzo:
Navrae:

Reference:
Inkomba:
Verwysing:

Date: 2004-04-28
Usuku:
Datum:

ILEMBE DISTRICT

Mr A Ramcharan
Glenhills Primary School
P.O. Box 287
STANGER
4450

RE- PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY

Your letter dated 25 March 2004 has reference.

Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct a survey among educators at schools in Lower Tugela District. However, in conducting this exercise, you are advised to limit functioning of the schools to a minimum.

Kindly forward a copy of your final research to the Director, Ilembe District.

I wish to take this opportunity of wishing you well in your research.

Yours faithfully

NW MZONELI
DIRECTOR : ILEMBE DISTRICT

Cc 1. The Circuit Manager - Lower Tugela Circuit
2. The Principals of schools

University Of Zululand

Department Of Communication Science (Durban Campus)

Unit For Postgraduate Studies in Cognition, Language Learning & Communic

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Tel 082-9133-150

Fax (031) 907-3011

E-Mail rklopper@iafrica.com

Saturday, March 20, 2004

To all Principals

Ilembe District

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education

PERMISSION HAS BEEN OBTAINED FROM THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO CONDUCT A SURVEY AMONG EDUCATORS IN THE LOWER TUGELA DISTRICT

The top management of the department has given permission for one of my doctoral students, Mr. Aneel Ramcharan to do empirical research to determine how education managers employ the principles of organisational communication during school management. Between 20 and 35 educators per school have been selected to serve as respondents. Please facilitate the dissemination and completion of the questionnaires at your school and thereafter inform Mr. Ramcharan telephonically (0834072764) when it is convenient for him to visit your school to collect the completed questionnaires.

- Participation will be on a voluntary and anonymous basis.
- The survey will be of a constructive nature.

Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Prof. R M Klopper

HOD: Communication Science (Durban)

Addendum C: Anonymous questionnaire for educators

For office use only: Respondent number: _____

Anonymous Questionnaire for Educators

Managing Human Resources in Education

Applying Organizational Communication in Educational Management

Researcher: A. Ramcharan

Study leader: Prof. Rembrandt Klopper

Department of Communication Science

University of Zululand (Durban Campus)

APPLYING THE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

i) This is a **voluntary, anonymous** and **confidential** survey.

ii) Your personal particulars will not be recorded as part of this survey and your school will not be identified. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

iii) I need your help to determine what forms of communication are currently being used at schools. Your participation will assist me in creating a streamlined and improved communication network between management and staff.

iv) Please feel free to give your **candid opinions**.

v) Please read each question carefully and reflect on your answer before responding because your response will be invalidated if you mark more than one option, or if you in any way alter a response.

vi) Please use a pen to mark your responses by placing a clear **X** directly over the appropriate empty space.

vii) Please **write** the appropriate response were required.

GENERAL PARTICULARS ABOUT YOURSELF

1. Your **age**: _____
2. Your **gender**: Female _____Male _____
3. Your **Ethnic group**:(Given in alphabetic order)

   African _____ Coloured _____ Indian_____

   White _____ Other (Please specify): _____
4. Your **qualifications**: State your REQV Value _____
5. Please indicate your **highest level of education**

   a. Three year diploma / degree (M+3) ☐
   b. Four year diploma / degree (M+4) ☐
   c. Honours level degree / diploma (M+5) ☐
   d. Masters level degree / diploma (M+6) ☐
   e. Doctoral level degree / diploma (M+7) ☐
   f. Honorary doctorate ☐

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

6. How many years have you been teaching at your current school? _____years.
7. State your total number of years of teaching experience. _____years.
8. Are you part of your school's management team? Yes ____ No ____

PARTICULARS ABOUT YOUR CLASS

9. What grade are you teaching? _____
10. How many learners are there in your class? _____
11. How many of the learners are girls? _____
12. How many of the learners are boys? _____

PARTICULARS ABOUT YOUR SCHOOL

Does your school have a: -

13. Vision and Mission statement? Yes ____ No ____
14. Fully constituted Governing Body? Yes ____ No ____
15. Learner's Code of conduct? Yes ____ No ____
16. School Policy? Yes ____ No ____
17. Year-end brochure? Yes ____ No ____
18. I teach at a Primary School ____ Secondary School ____ Comprehensive School ____
19. Please **indicate** the number of learners at your school.

a. Fewer than 500	
b. Between 500 and 1000	
c. Between 1001 and 1500	
d. Over 1501	

20. Where is the school located? Urban Area ____ Rural Area _____

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

An organization has two basis components i.e. people and their role function (purpose). The school is thus an organization of individuals who work together to achieve specific goals.

Organizational communication includes varied activities such as giving direction, counseling learners and parents, evaluating, motivating, analyzing problems, brainstorming, resolving conflicts, monitoring progress, interviewing learners and parents.

RATE THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FOLLOWING FORMS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION IN THE DUTIES THAT YOU HAVE TO PERFORM DAILY AS AN EDUCATOR?

21. Brainstorming Important _____Unimportant ____
22. Conversation Important _____Unimportant ____
23. Consultation and Decision making Important _____Unimportant ____
24. Interviews Important _____Unimportant ____
25. Giving instructions Important _____Unimportant ____
26. Writing of notices Important _____Unimportant ____

27. Evaluation Important _____Unimportant ____
28. Writing a report Important _____Unimportant ____
29. Assigning a project Important _____Unimportant ____
30. Demonstrating a process to a small group Important _____Unimportant ____
31. Empathising and commiserating Important _____Unimportant ____
32. Display of values/beliefs Important _____Unimportant ____
33. Cross-questioning Important _____Unimportant ____
34. Conflict management Important _____Unimportant ____
35. Rules and Regulations Important _____Unimportant ____
36. Completing a written assessment Important _____Unimportant ____
37. Socializing with staff Important _____Unimportant ____
38. Socializing with school governing body Important _____Unimportant ____
39. Giving a report-back Important _____Unimportant ____
40. Keeping records Important _____Unimportant ____
41. Participating in discussion forums Important _____Unimportant ____
42. Motivation Important _____Unimportant ____
43. Publishing newsletters and a year book Important _____Unimportant ____
44. Using computers for correspondence Important _____Unimportant ____
45. Storage of information on computer Important _____Unimportant ____
46. Using the Internet to access information Important _____Unimportant ____

Good communication practice is essential for effective school management.

DO MEMBERS OF YOUR SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM USE THE FOLLOWING FORMS OF COMMUNICATION?

47. Brainstorming Yes _____ No _____
48. Conversation Yes _____ No _____
49. Consultation and Decision Making Yes _____ No _____
50. Interviews Yes _____ No _____
51. Giving instructions Yes _____ No _____
52. Writing of notices Yes _____ No _____
53. Evaluation Yes _____ No _____
54. Writing a report Yes _____ No _____
55. Assigning a project Yes _____ No _____
56. Demonstrating a process to a small group Yes _____ No _____
57. Empathizing and commiserating Yes _____ No _____

58. Display of values/beliefs Yes _____ No _____
59. Cross-questioning Yes _____ No _____
60. Conflict management Yes _____ No _____
61. Rules and Regulations Yes _____ No _____
62. Completing a written assessment Yes _____ No _____
63. Socializing with staff Yes _____ No _____
64. Socializing with school governing body Yes _____ No _____
65. Giving a report-back Yes _____ No _____
66. Keeping records Yes _____ No _____
67. Participating in discussion forums Yes _____ No _____
68. Motivation Yes _____ No _____
69. Publishing newsletters and a year book Yes _____ No _____
70. Using computers for correspondence Yes _____ No _____
71. Storage of information on computer Yes _____ No _____
72. Using the Internet to access information Yes _____ No _____

COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND OTHER INTERESTED PARTIES

73. Rate the quality of communication between management and staff at your school

    Poor ____ Satisfactory _____Good _____Excellent _____

74. Rate the quality of communication between your school and the School's Governing Body.

    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent _____

75. Rate the quality of communication between your school and other schools.

    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent _____

76. Rate the quality of communication between your school and parents of learners at your school.

    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent _____

77. Rate the quality of communication between your school and the general community at large.

    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent _____

78. Rate the quality of communication between your school and the KZN Department of Education.

    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent _____

79. Rate the quality of communication between your school and the business sector.

    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent _____

80. Rate the quality of communication between your school and institutes of higher learning.

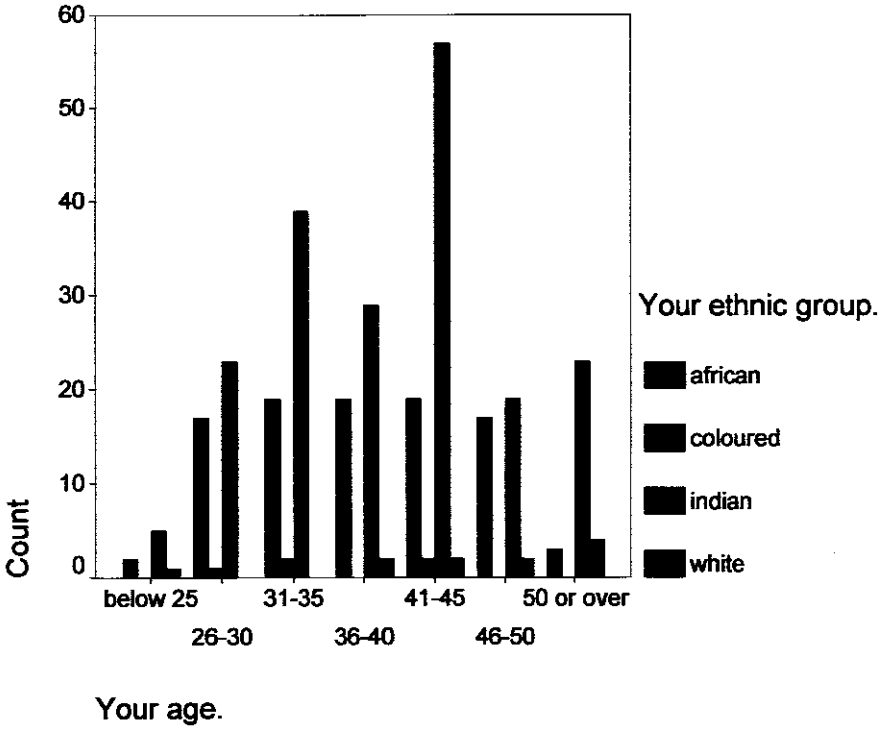
    Poor _____ Satisfactory _____ Good _____ Excellent ____

Thank you for your time and assistance.

Addendum D: Tables and graphs

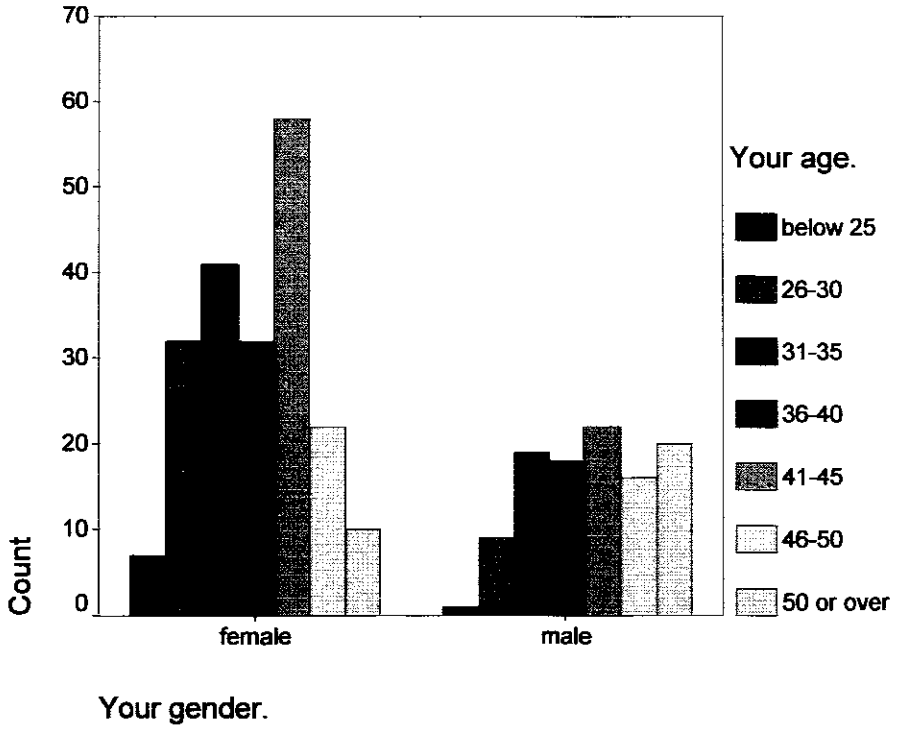
Tables

		Count	Col %
Your age.	below 25	8	2.6%
	26-30	41	13.4%
	31-35	60	19.5%
	36-40	50	16.3%
	41-45	80	26.1%
	46-50	38	12.4%
	50 or over	30	9.8%
Total		307	100.0%



Tables

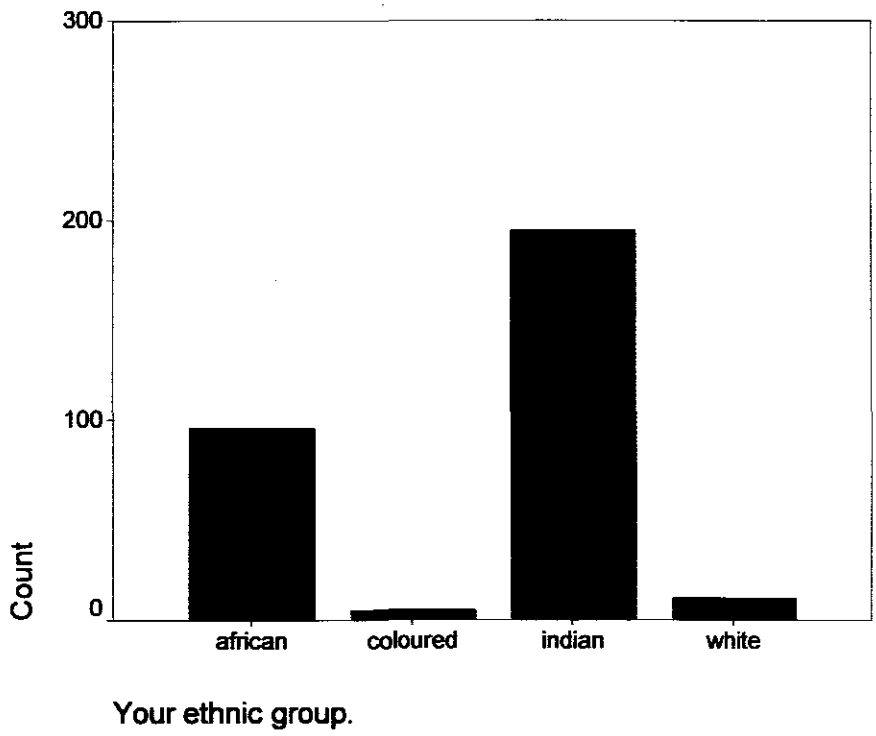
		Count	Col %
Your gender.	female	202	65.8%
	male	105	34.2%
Total		307	100.0%

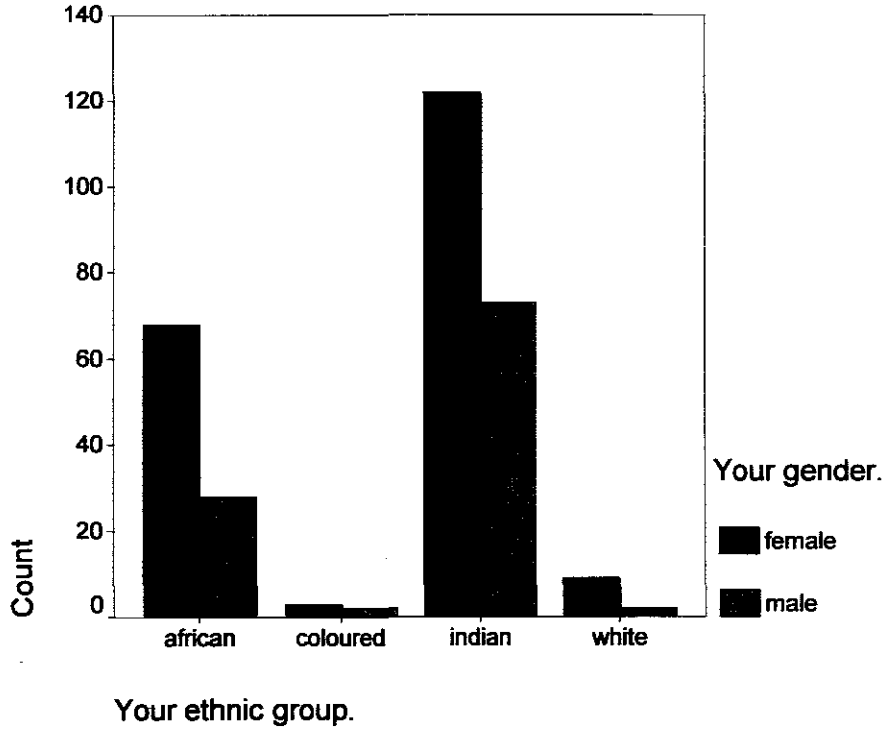


Tables

		Count	Col %
Your ethnic group.	african	96	31.3%
	coloured	5	1.6%
	indian	195	63.5%
	white	11	3.6%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph

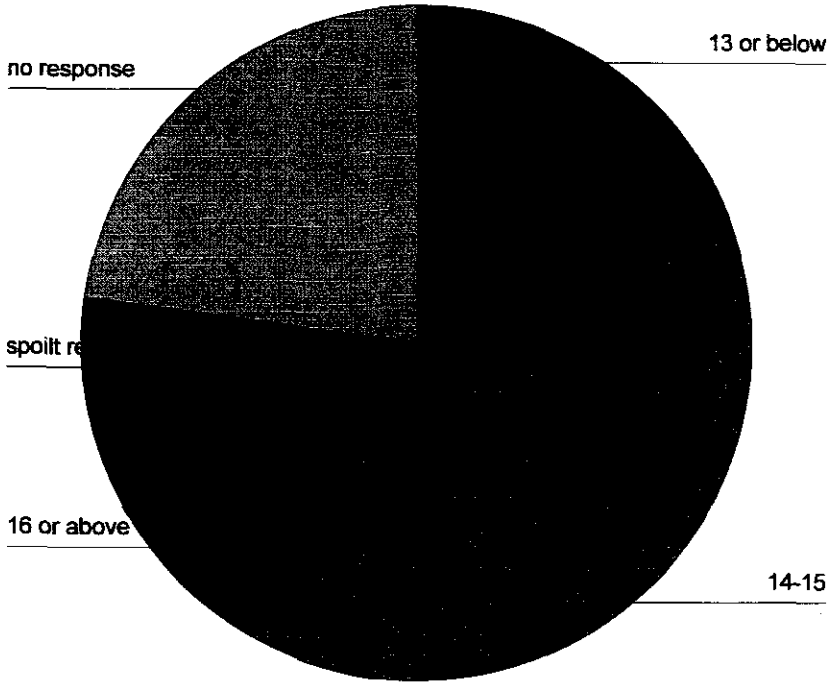

300
200
100
0
Count
african
coloured
indian
white
Your ethnic group.


140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Count
african
coloured
indian
white
Your ethnic group.
Your gender.
female
male

Tables

		Count	Col %
Your REQV.	13 or below	58	18.9%
	14-15	123	40.1%
	16 or above	35	11.4%
	spoilt response	21	6.8%
	no response	70	22.8%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph



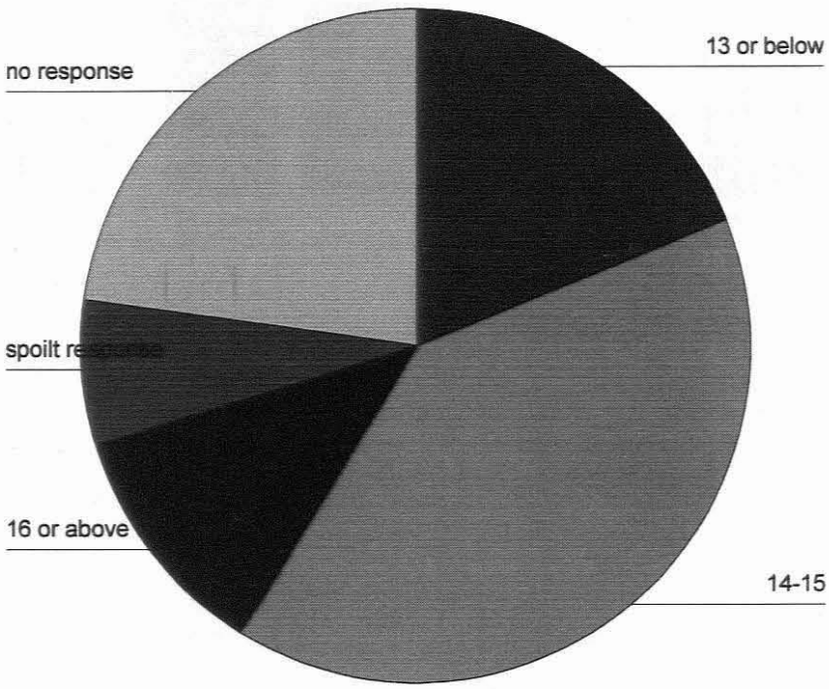
Tables

		Count	Col %
Your highest level of education.	M+3	68	22.1%
	M+4	141	45.9%
	M+5	38	12.4%
	M+6	36	11.7%
	M+7	2	.7%
	spoilt response	15	4.9%
	no response	7	2.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph

		Count	Col %
Your REQV.	13 or below	58	18.9%
	14-15	123	40.1%
	16 or above	35	11.4%
	spoilt response	21	6.8%
	no response	70	22.8%
Total		307	100.0%

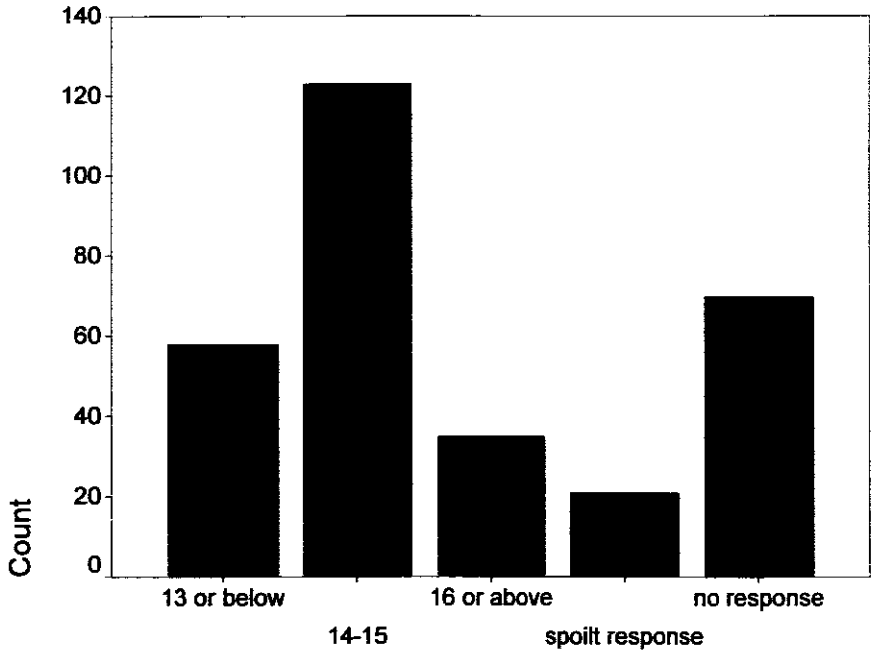
Graph



Tables

		Count	Col %
Your highest level of education.	M+3	68	22.1%
	M+4	141	45.9%
	M+5	38	12.4%
	M+6	36	11.7%
	M+7	2	.7%
	spoilt response	15	4.9%
	no response	7	2.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph


140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Count
13 or below
14-15
16 or above
spoilt response
no response

Your REQV.

Tables

		Count	Col %
What grade are you teaching?	grade r to 3	103	33.6%
	grade 4 to 7	128	41.7%
	grade 8 to 9	20	6.5%
	grade 10 to 12	48	15.6%
	spoilt response	4	1.3%
	no reponse	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

		Your gender.				Total	
		female		male			
		Count	Col %	Count	Col %	Count	Col %
What grade are you teaching?	grade r to 3	90	44.6%	13	12.4%	103	33.6%
	grade 4 to 7	76	37.6%	52	49.5%	128	41.7%
	grade 8 to 9	9	4.5%	11	10.5%	20	6.5%
	grade 10 to 12	24	11.9%	24	22.9%	48	15.6%
	spoilt response	2	1.0%	2	1.9%	4	1.3%
	no reponse	1	.5%	3	2.9%	4	1.3%
Total		202	100.0%	105	100.0%	307	100.0%

Tables

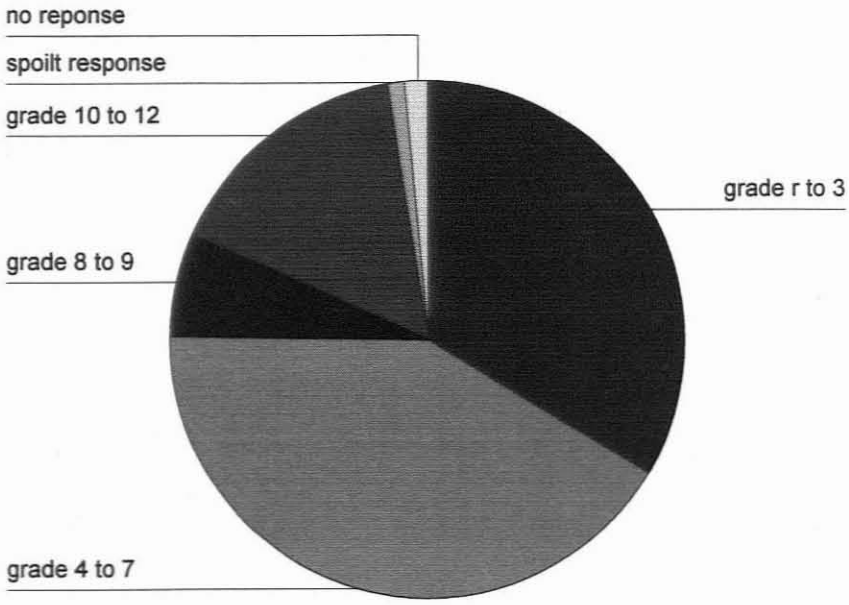
		Count	Col %
How many learners are there in your class?	40 and below	102	33.2%
	41 - 45	110	35.8%
	46-50	55	17.9%
	above 51	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	5	1.6%
	no response	9	2.9%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

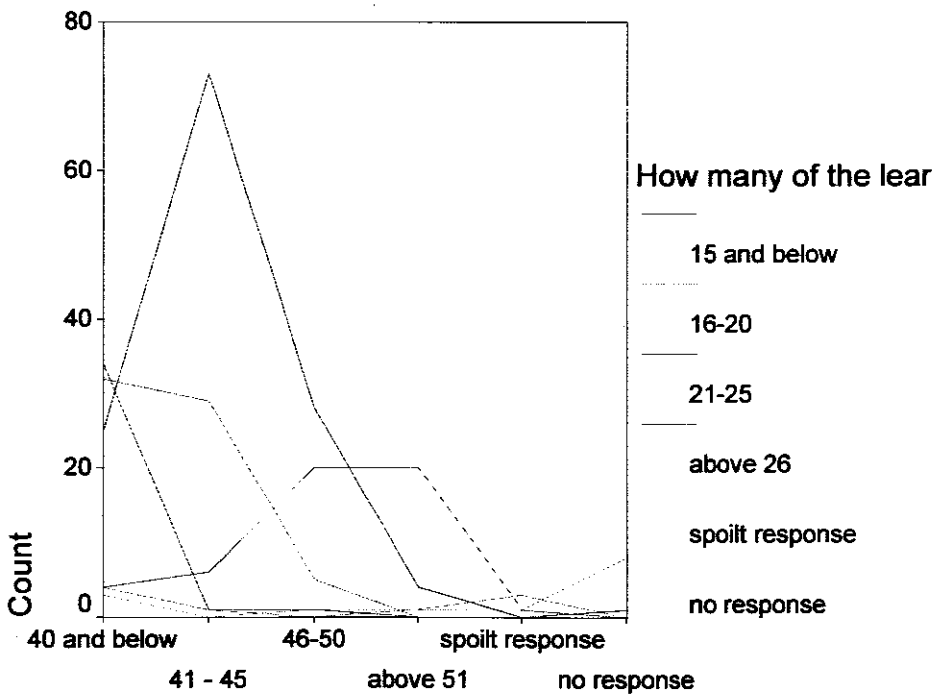
			How many of the learners are girls?				
			15 and below	16-20	21-25	above 26	spoilt response
What grade are you teaching?	grade r to 3	Count	19	21	50	12	
		Row %	18.4%	20.4%	48.5%	11.7%	
	grade 4 to 7	Count	10	33	62	17	1
		Row %	7.8%	25.8%	48.4%	13.3%	.8%
	grade 8 to 9	Count	2	1	6	8	1
		Row %	10.0%	5.0%	30.0%	40.0%	5.0%
	grade 10 to 12	Count	6	11	10	13	6
		Row %	12.5%	22.9%	20.8%	27.1%	12.5%
	spoilt response	Count			2	1	1
		Row %			50.0%	25.0%	25.0%
	no reponse	Count					
		Row %					

			How many of	
			no response	Total
What grade are you teaching?	grade r to 3	Count	1	103
		Row %	1.0%	100.0%
	grade 4 to 7	Count	5	128
		Row %	3.9%	100.0%
	grade 8 to 9	Count	2	20
		Row %	10.0%	100.0%
	grade 10 to 12	Count	2	48
		Row %	4.2%	100.0%
	spoilt response	Count		4
		Row %		100.0%
	no reponse	Count	4	4
		Row %	100.0%	100.0%

Graph

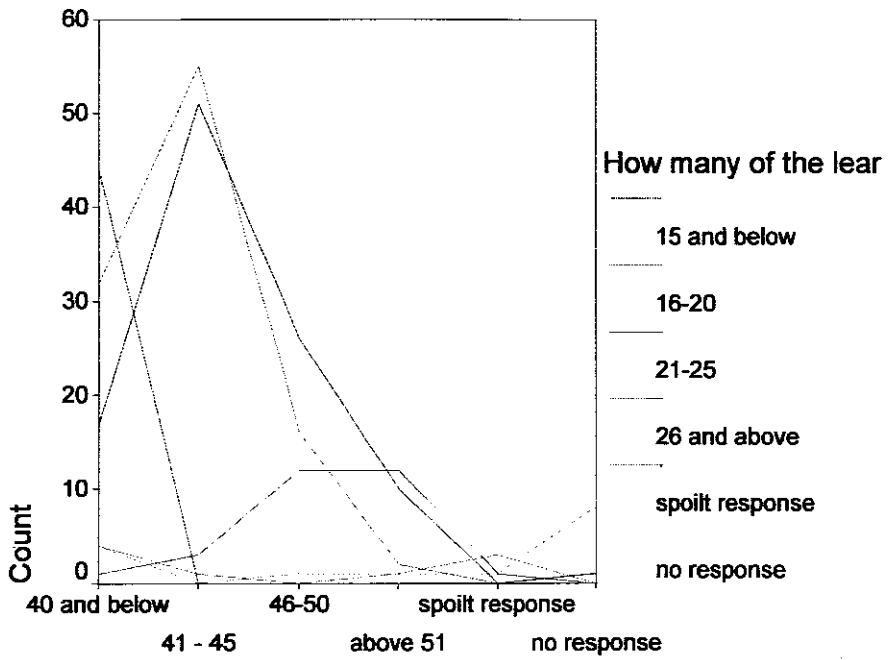


Graph



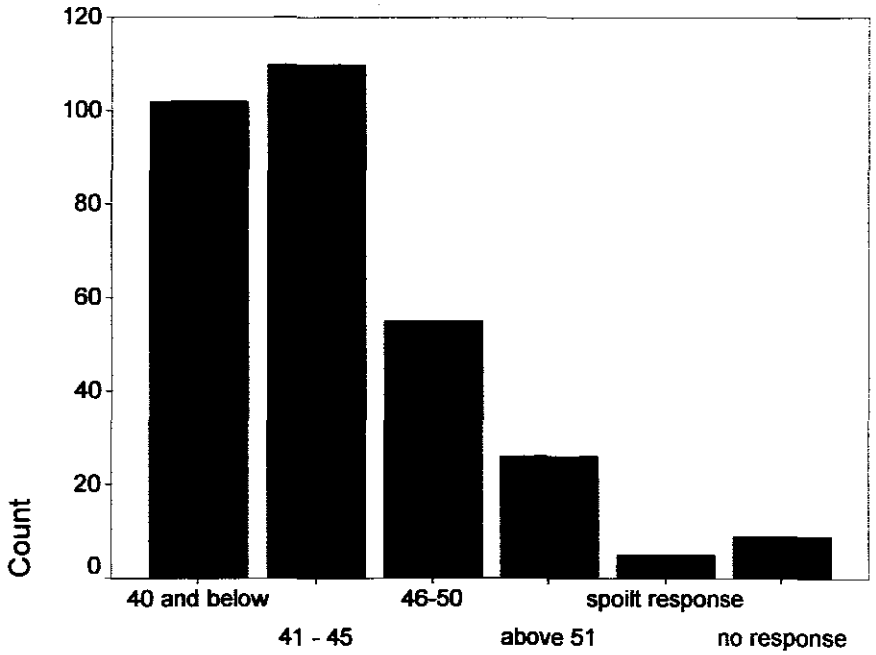
How many learners are there in your class?

Graph



How many learners are there in your class?

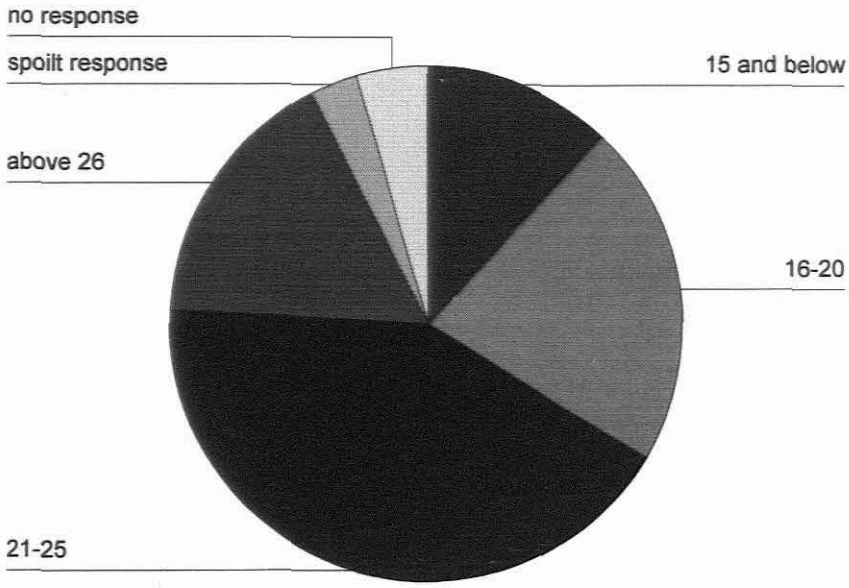
Graph



How many learners are there in your class?

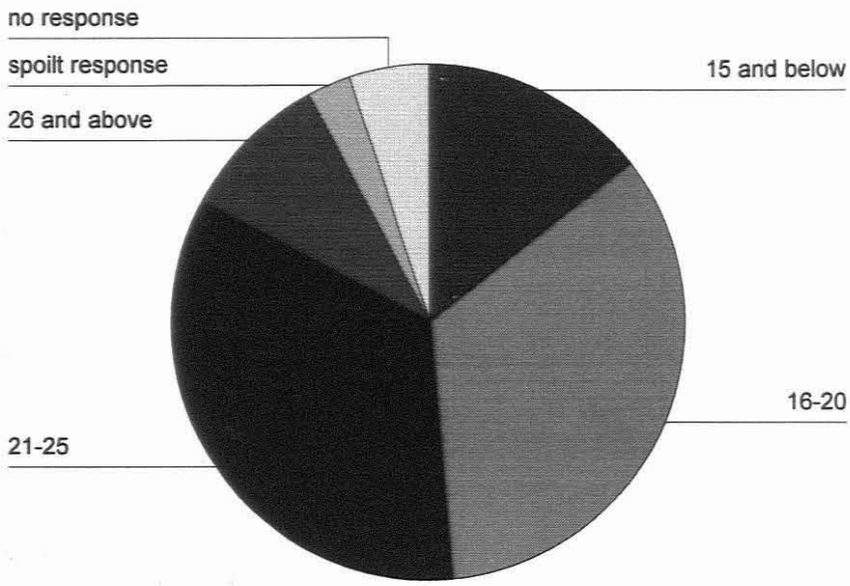
Tables

		Count	Col %
How many of the learners are girls?	15 and below	37	12.1%
	16-20	66	21.5%
	21-25	130	42.3%
	above 26	51	16.6%
	spoilt response	9	2.9%
	no response	14	4.6%
Total		307	100.0%

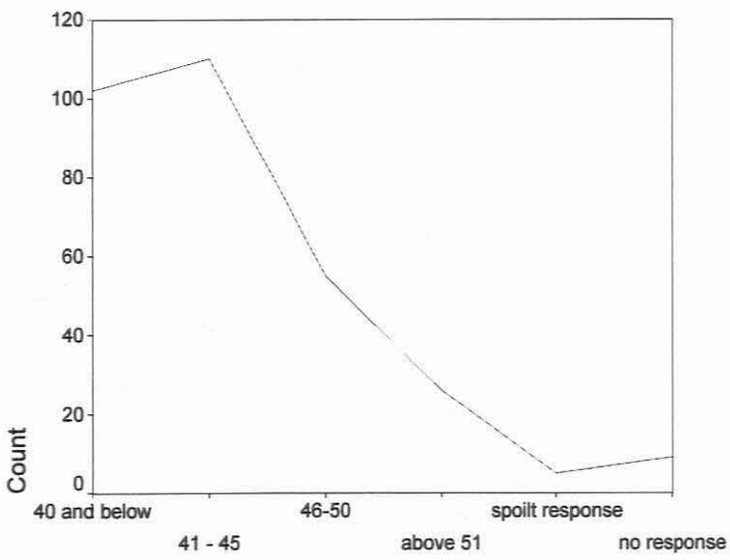


Tables

		Count	Col %
How many of the learners are boys?	15 and below	44	14.3%
	16-20	105	34.2%
	21-25	105	34.2%
	26 and above	29	9.4%
	spoilt response	9	2.9%
	no response	15	4.9%
Total		307	100.0%

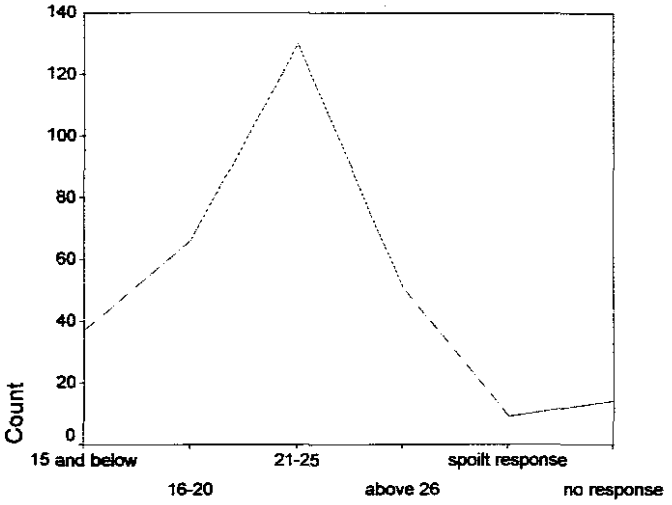


Graph



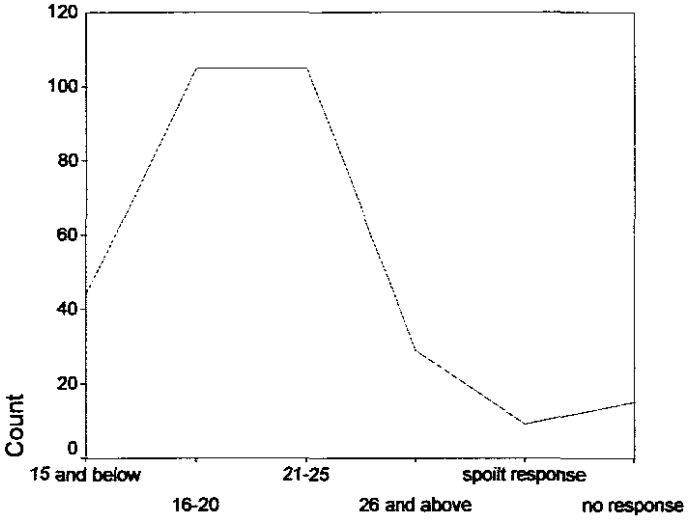
How many learners are there in your class?

Graph



How many of the learners are girls?

Graph



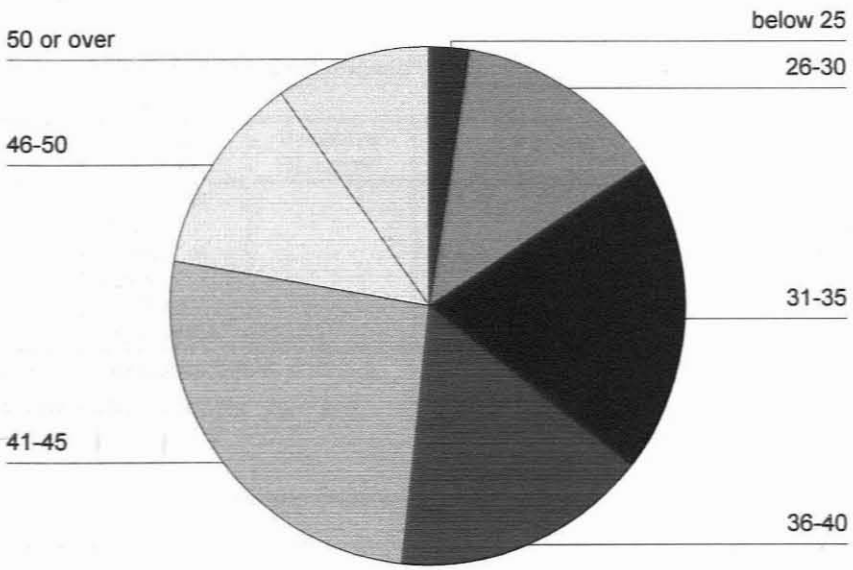
How many of the learners are boys?

Tables

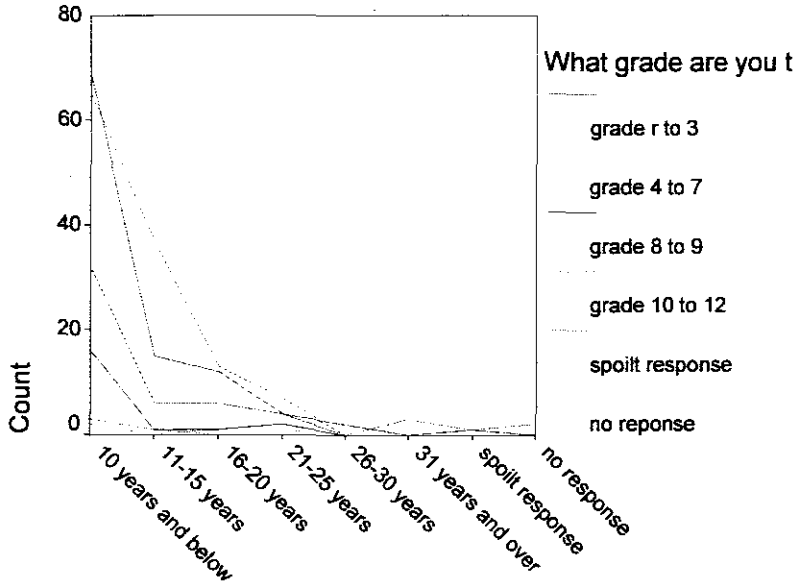
		Count	Col %
How many years are you teaching at your current school?	10 years and below	187	60.9%
	11-15 years	60	19.5%
	16-20 years	33	10.7%
	21-25 years	18	5.9%
	26-30 years	2	.7%
	31 years and over	3	1.0%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph

		Count	Col %
State your total number of years of teaching experience.	10 years and below	91	29.6%
	11-15 years	46	15.0%
	16-20 years	62	20.2%
	21-25 years	68	22.1%
	26-30 years	25	8.1%
	over 30 years	11	3.6%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%



Graph



How many years are you teaching at your current school?

Tables

		Count	Col %
Are you part of the school's management team?	yes	74	24.1%
	no	230	74.9%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	State your total number of years of teaching experience.[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Your age.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.715[a]	.511	.509	1.117

a. Predictors: (Constant), State your total number of years of teaching experience.

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	396.846	1	396.846	318.263	.000[a]
	Residual	380.307	305	1.247		
	Total	777.153	306			

a. Predictors: (Constant), State your total number of years of teaching experience.

b. Dependent Variable: Your age.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.225	.131		17.029	.000
	State your total number of years of teaching experience.	.724	.041	.715	17.840	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Your age.

Nominal Regression

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Your REQV.	13 or below	58	18.9%
	14-15	123	40.1%
	16 or above	35	11.4%
	spoilt response	21	6.8%
	no response	70	22.8%
Are you part of the school's management team?	yes	74	24.1%
	no	230	74.9%
	no response	3	1.0%
Valid		307	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		307	
Subpopulation		3	

Model Fitting Information

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	73.207			
Final	35.606	37.600	8	.000

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.115
Nagelkerke	.122
McFadden	.042

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	35.606[a]	.000	0	.
MANAGEME	73.207	37.600	8	.000

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

a. This reduced model is equivalent to the final model because omitting the effect does not increase the degrees of freedom.

Parameter Estimates

Your REQV.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
13 or below	Intercept	-14.880	.189	6182.073	1	.000	
	[MANAGEME=1]	14.187	.579	599.361	1	.000	1450136.6
	[MANAGEME=2]	14.773	.000	.	1	.	2605330.2
	[MANAGEME=4]	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.
14-15	Intercept	.693	1.225	.320	1	.571	
	[MANAGEME=1]	.718	1.275	.317	1	.573	2.050
	[MANAGEME=2]	-.389	1.237	.099	1	.753	.678
	[MANAGEME=4]	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.
16 or above	Intercept	-16.385	.269	3702.955	1	.000	
	[MANAGEME=1]	16.916	.481	1236.997	1	.000	22209673
	[MANAGEME=2]	15.198	.000	.	1	.	3985783.8
	[MANAGEME=4]	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.
spoilt response	Intercept	-15.896	.259	3774.362	1	.000	
	[MANAGEME=1]	13.594	1.080	158.351	1	.000	801027.84
	[MANAGEME=2]	14.814	.000	.	1	.	2715348.6
	[MANAGEME=4]	0[b]	.	.	0	.	.

Parameter Estimates

Your REQV.[a]		95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
13 or below	Intercept		
	[MANAGEME=1]	465736.162	4515209.308
	[MANAGEME=2]	2605330.183	2605330.183
	[MANAGEME=4]	.	.
14-15	Intercept		
	[MANAGEME=1]	.169	24.924
	[MANAGEME=2]	.060	7.654
	[MANAGEME=4]	.	.
16 or above	Intercept		
	[MANAGEME=1]	8652532.036	57008697.592
	[MANAGEME=2]	3985783.776	3985783.776
	[MANAGEME=4]	.	.
spoilt response	Intercept		
	[MANAGEME=1]	96412.548	6655208.374
	[MANAGEME=2]	2715348.565	2715348.565
	[MANAGEME=4]	.	.

a. The reference category is: no response.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Tables

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a vision and mission statement?	yes	298	97.1%
	no	2	.7%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	6	2.0%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a fully constituted governing body?	yes	302	98.4%
	no	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Does your school have a learner's code of conduct?	yes	293	95.4%
	no	8	2.6%
	no response	6	2.0%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

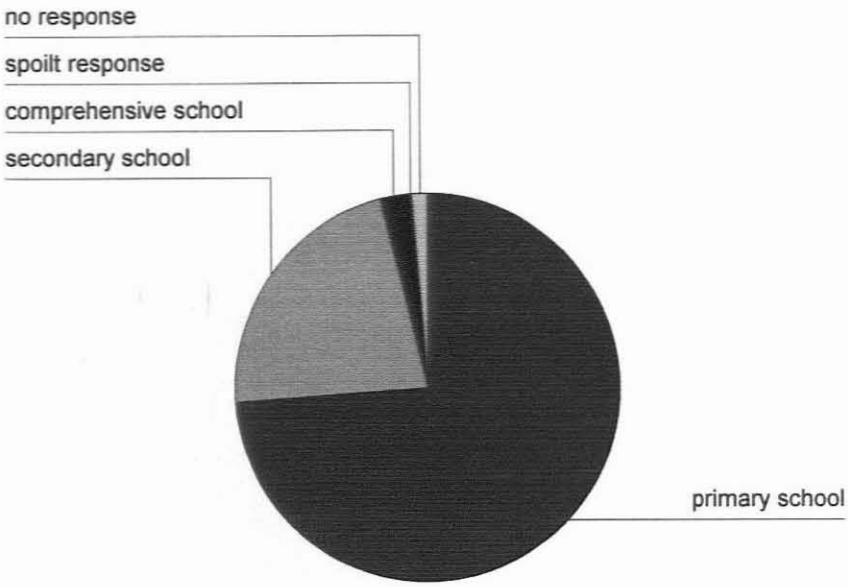
		Count	Table %
Does your school have a school policy?	yes	290	94.5%
	no	8	2.6%
	no response	9	2.9%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

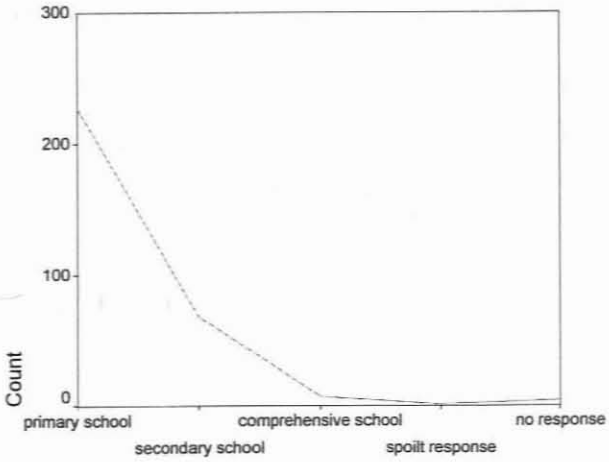
		Count	Table %
Does your school have a year-end brochure?	yes	203	66.1%
	no	74	24.1%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	28	9.1%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
List the type of school you teach in.	primary school	227	73.9%
	secondary school	68	22.1%
	comprehensive school	7	2.3%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%



Graph

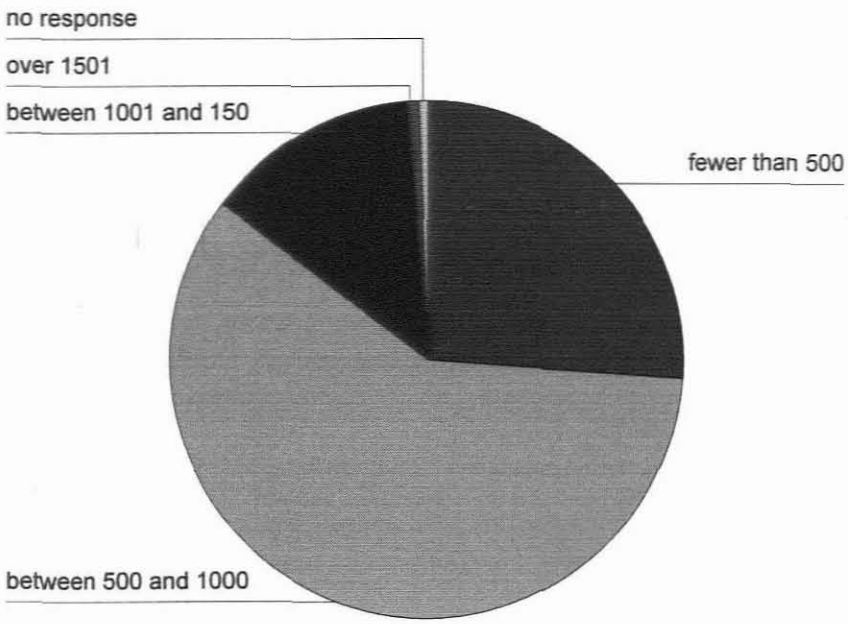


List the type of school you teach in.

Tables

		Count	Table %
Indicate the number of learners at your school.	fewer than 500	80	26.1%
	between 500 and 1000	182	59.3%
	between 1001 and 1500	41	13.4%
	over 1501	2	.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

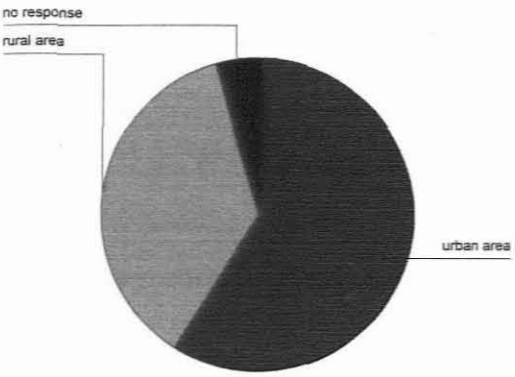
Graph



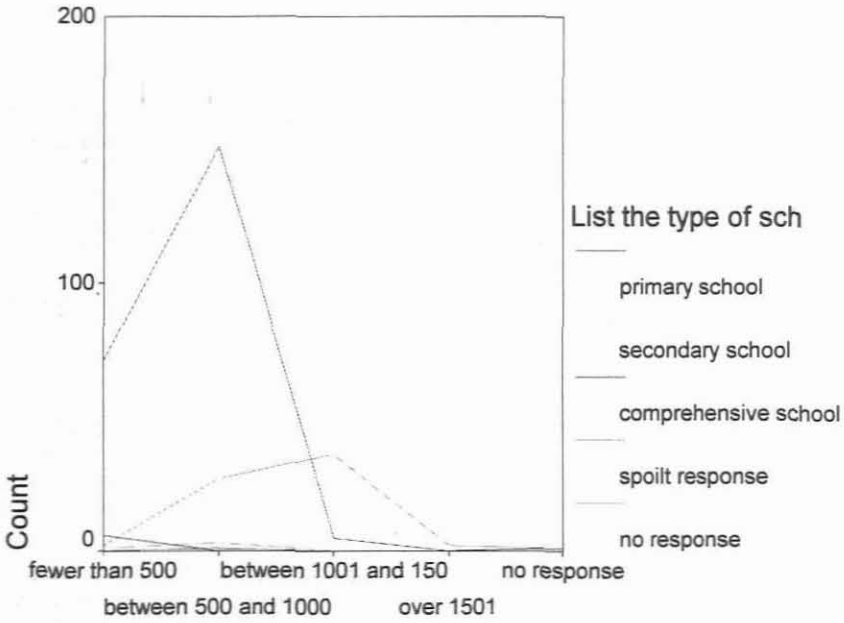
Tables

		Count	Table %
Where is your school located?	urban area	181	59.0%
	rural area	112	36.5%
	no response	14	4.6%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph



Graph



Indicate the number of learners at your school.

Tables

		Count	Col %
Rate brainstorming as an organisational communication task.	important	288	93.8%
	unimportant	18	5.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate conversation as an organisational communication task.	important	303	98.7%
	unimportant	3	1.0%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate consultation and decision making as an organisational communication task.	important	301	98.0%
	unimportant	4	1.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Col %
Rate interviews as an organisational communication task.	important	266	86.6%
	unimportant	39	12.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Col %
Rate the giving of instruction as an organisational communication task.	important	296	96.4%
	unimportant	10	3.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the writing of notices as an organisational communication task.	important	278	90.6%
	unimportant	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Col %
Rate evaluation as a organisational communication task.	important	291	94.8%
	unimportant	15	4.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Col %
Rate the writing of a report as an organisational communication task.	important	284	92.5%
	unimportant	20	6.5%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the assigning of a project as an organisational communication task	important	297	96.7%
	unimportant	9	2.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the demonstrating of a process in a small group as an organisational	important	294	95.8%
	unimportant	12	3.9%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Col %
Rate empathising and commiserating as an organisational communication task.	important	287	93.5%
	unimportant	15	4.9%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the display of values and beliefs as an organisational communication task	important	304	99.0%
	unimportant	2	.7%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate cross-questioning as an organisational communication task.	important	274	89.3%
	unimportant	28	9.1%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

Rate conflict management as an organisational communication task.	important	Count	276
		Table %	89.9%
	unimportant	Count	28
		Table %	9.1%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the use of rules and regulations as an organisational communication task.	important	300	97.7%
	unimportant	4	1.3%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the completing of written assessment as an organisational communication task.	important	290	94.5%
	unimportant	13	4.2%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate socialising with staff as an organisational communication task.	important	295	96.1%
	unimportant	9	2.9%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate socialising with the school governing body as an organisational communication task.	important	216	70.4%
	unimportant	85	27.7%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	5	1.6%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate giving a report-back as an organisational communication task.	important	290	94.5%
	unimportant	14	4.6%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the keeping of records as an organisational communication task.	important	302	98.4%
	unimportant	3	1.0%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the participating in discussion forums as an organisational communication task.	important	298	97.1%
	unimportant	7	2.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate motivation as an organisational communication task.	important	303	98.7%
	unimportant	2	.7%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the publishing of a newsletter and a year book as an organisational communication task.	important	269	87.6%
	unimportant	33	10.7%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

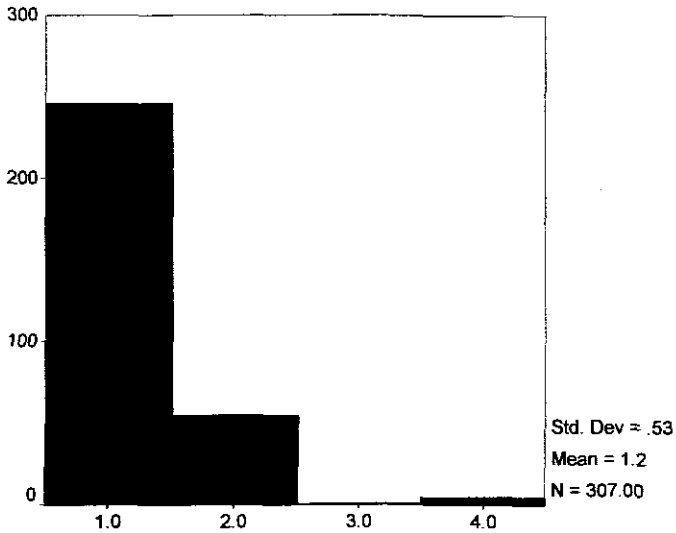
Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the use of computers for correspondence as an organisational communication task.	important	241	78.5%
	unimportant	62	20.2%
	no response	4	1.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Rate the use of computers for the storage of information as an organisational communication task.	important	246	80.1%
	unimportant	55	17.9%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	5	1.6%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the use of the computer for accessing information from the internet as an organisational communication task.	important	209	68.1%
	unimportant	90	29.3%
	no response	8	2.6%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph

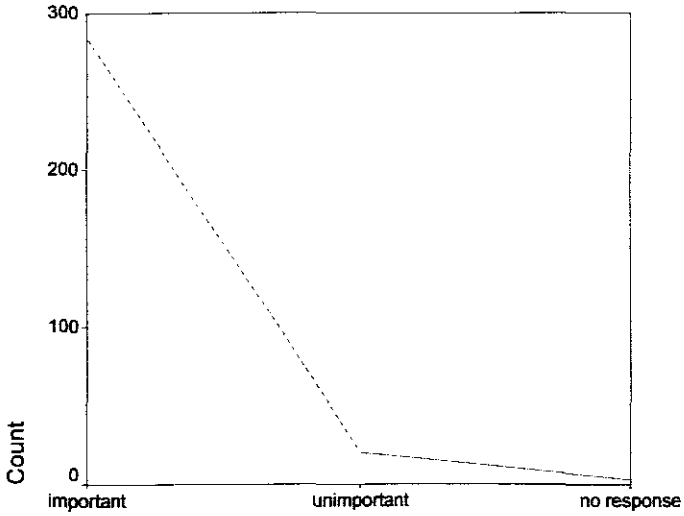


Rate the use of computers for the storage of information as an orç

Tables

Rate brainstorming as an organisational communication task.	important	Count	288
		Col %	93.8%
	unimportant	Count	18
		Col %	5.9%
	no response	Count	1
		Col %	.3%
Total	Count		307
	Col %		100.0%
Rate conversation as an organisational communication task.	important	Count	303
		Col %	98.7%
	unimportant	Count	3
		Col %	1.0%
	no response	Count	1
		Col %	.3%
Total	Count		307
	Col %		100.0%
Rate consultation and decision making as an organisational communication task.	important	Count	301
		Col %	98.0%
	unimportant	Count	4
		Col %	1.3%
	no response	Count	2
		Col %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Col %		100.0%

Graph



Rate the writing of a report as an organisational communicat

Tables

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team use brainstorming as a form of communication?	yes	257	83.7%
	no	43	14.0%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	6	2.0%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your *school mangement team* use conversation as a form of communication?	yes	296	96.4%
	no	9	2.9%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team use consultation and decision making as a form of communication?	yes	277	90.2%
	no	27	8.8%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team use interviews as a form of communication?	yes	265	86.3%
	no	38	12.4%
	spoilt response	3	1.0%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school mangement team use instructions as a form of communication?	yes	295	96.1%
	no	9	2.9%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team write notices as a form of communication?	yes	293	95.4%
	no	11	3.6%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team use evaluation as a form of communication?	yes	280	91.2%
	no	24	7.8%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in report writing as a form of	yes	292	95.1%
	no	14	4.6%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team assign projects as a means of communication?	yes	278	90.6%
	no	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team demonstrate a process to a small group as a means of	yes	265	86.3%
	no	39	12.7%
	no response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Do members of your school management team empathise and commiserate as a means of communication?	yes	281	91.5%
	no	21	6.8%
	no response	5	1.6%
Total		307	100.0%
Do members of your school management team display values and beliefs as a means of	yes	284	92.5%
	no	21	6.8%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Tables

Do members of your school management team engage in cross questioning as a means of communication?	yes	Count	273
		Table %	88.9%
	no	Count	30
		Table %	9.8%
	no response	Count	4
		Table %	1.3%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in conflict management as a means of communication?	yes	Count	281
		Table %	91.5%
	no	Count	23
		Table %	7.5%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

Do members of your school management team use rules and regulations as a means of communication?	yes	Count	303
		Table %	98.7%
	no	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
	no response	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team engage in the completion of written assessments as a means of communication?	yes	Count	274
		Table %	89.3%
	no	Count	30
		Table %	9.8%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

Do members of your school management team socialise with staff as a means of communication?	yes	Count	290
		Table %	94.5%
	no	*Count*	*15*
		Table %	4.9%
	no response	Count	2
		Table %	.7%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management *team socialise with* the school governing body as a means of communication?	yes	Count	233
		Table %	75.9%
	no	Count	68
		Table %	22.1%
	spoilt response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team provide a report back as a means to communication?	yes	Count	291
		Table %	94.8%
	no	Count	13
		Table %	4.2%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

Do members of your school management team keep records as a means of communication?	yes	Count	300
		Table %	97.7%
	no	*Count*	*4*
		Table %	1.3%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

Do members of your school management team participate in discussion forums as a means of communication?	yes	Count	281
		Table %	91.5%
	no	Count	23
		Table %	7.5%
	no response	Count	3
		Table %	1.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team enagage in motivation as a means of communication?	yes	Count	291
		Table %	94.8%
	no	Count	15
		Table %	4.9%
	no response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team publish a newsletter and a year book as a means of communication?	yes	Count	263
		Table %	85.7%
	no	Count	38
		Table %	12.4%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	5
		Table %	1.6%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

Do members of your school management team use computers for correspondence as a means of communication?	yes	Count	231
		Table %	75.2%
	no	Count	71
		Table %	23.1%
	no response	Count	5
		Table %	1.6%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%
Do members of your school management team use computers for the storage of information as a means of communication?	yes	Count	231
		Table %	75.2%
	no	Count	71
		Table %	23.1%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	4
		Table %	1.3%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

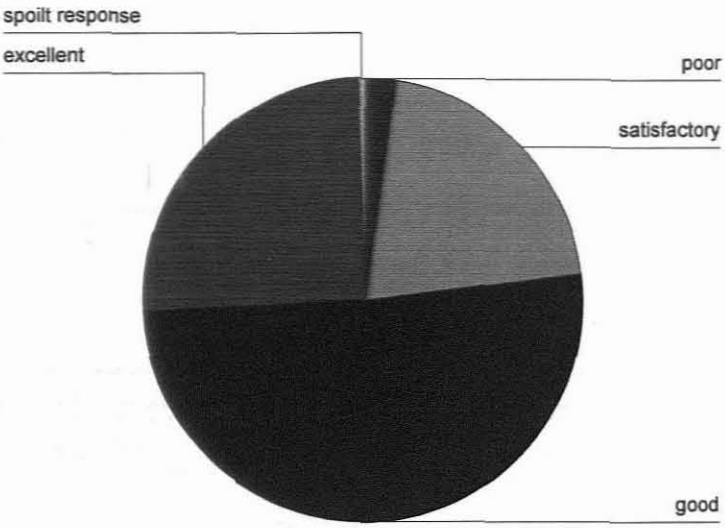
Tables

Do members of your school management team use the internet to access information as a means of communication?	yes	Count	156
		Table %	50.8%
	no	Count	144
		Table %	46.9%
	spoilt response	Count	1
		Table %	.3%
	no response	Count	6
		Table %	2.0%
Total	Count		307
	Table %		100.0%

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communcation between management and staff at your school.	poor	7	2.3%
	satisfactory	64	20.8%
	good	157	51.1%
	excellent	77	25.1%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

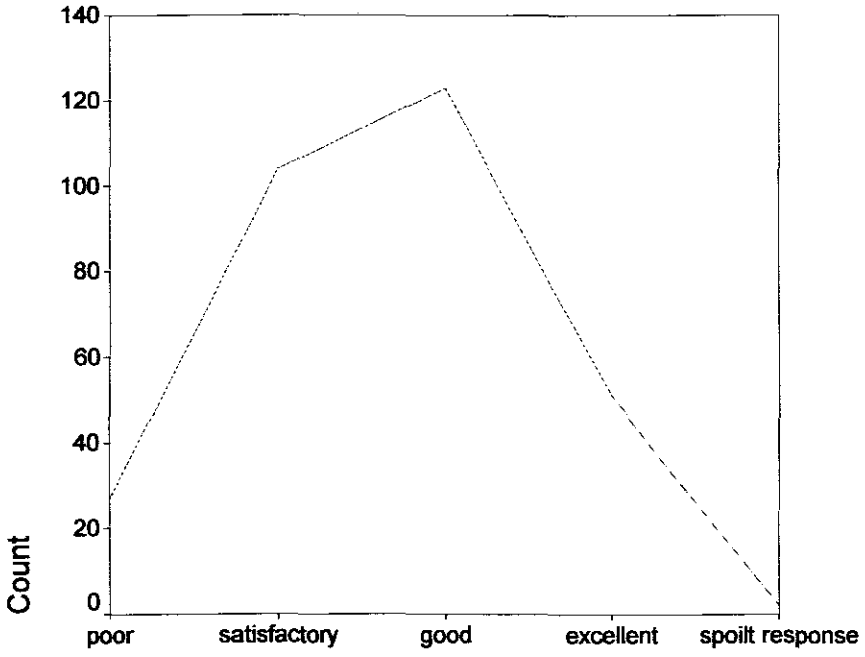
Graph



Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the schools' governing body.	poor	27	8.8%
	satisfactory	104	33.9%
	good	123	40.1%
	excellent	51	16.6%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph



Rate the quality of communication between your school and t

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and other schools.	poor	16	5.2%
	satisfactory	90	29.3%
	good	162	52.8%
	excellent	36	11.7%
	spoilt response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph

Rate the quality of communication between your school and

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the parents of learners at your school.	poor	21	6.8%
	satisfactory	84	27.4%
	good	148	48.2%
	excellent	52	16.9%
	spoilt response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

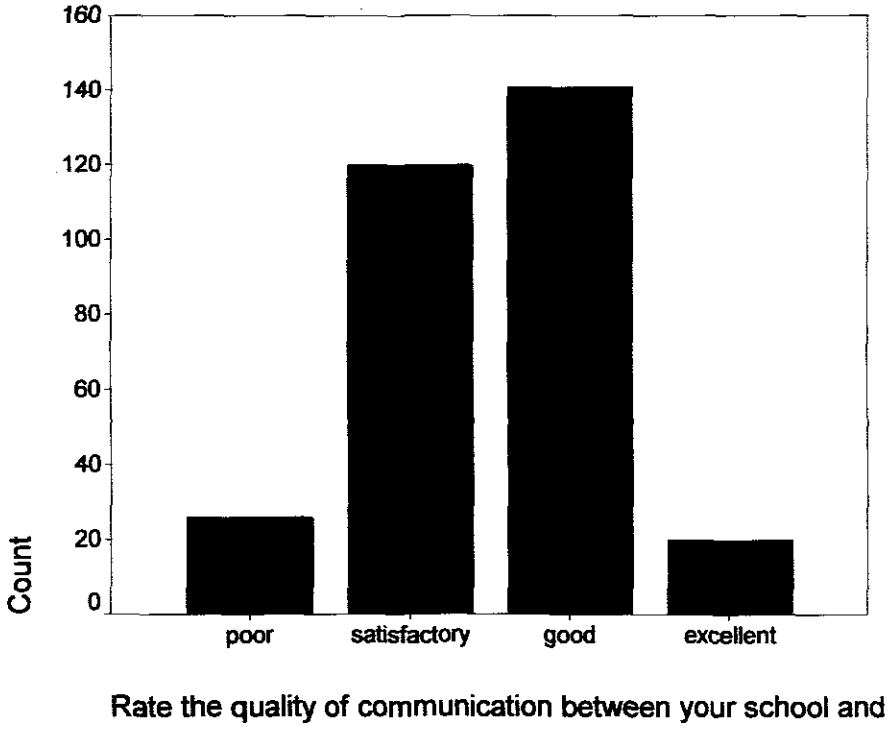
Graph

Rate the quality of communication between your school and t

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the general community at large.	poor	26	8.5%
	satisfactory	120	39.1%
	good	141	45.9%
	excellent	20	6.5%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph



Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the KZN Department of Education.	poor	20	6.5%
	satisfactory	126	41.0%
	good	132	43.0%
	excellent	26	8.5%
	spoilt response	3	1.0%
Total		307	100.0%

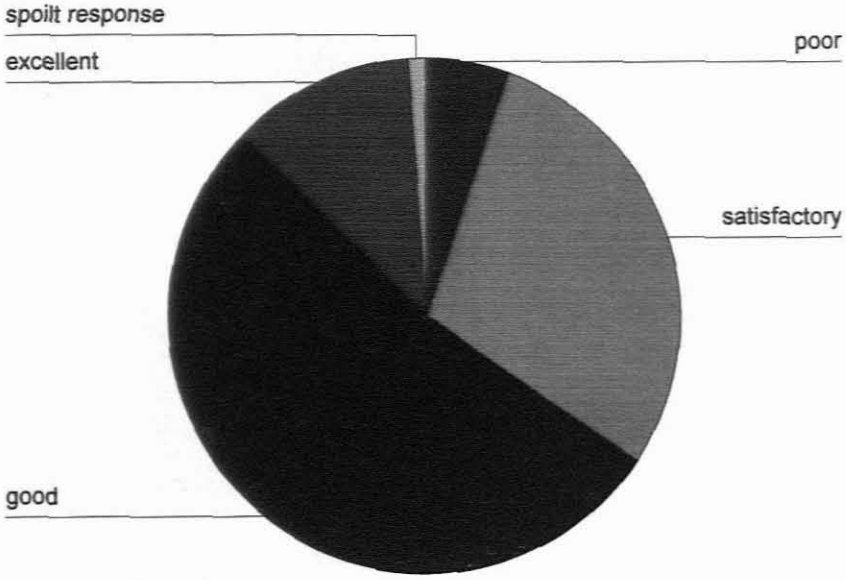
Graph

Rate the quality of communication between your school and t

Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the business sector.	poor	32	10.4%
	satisfactory	137	44.6%
	good	113	36.8%
	excellent	23	7.5%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	1	.3%
Total		307	100.0%

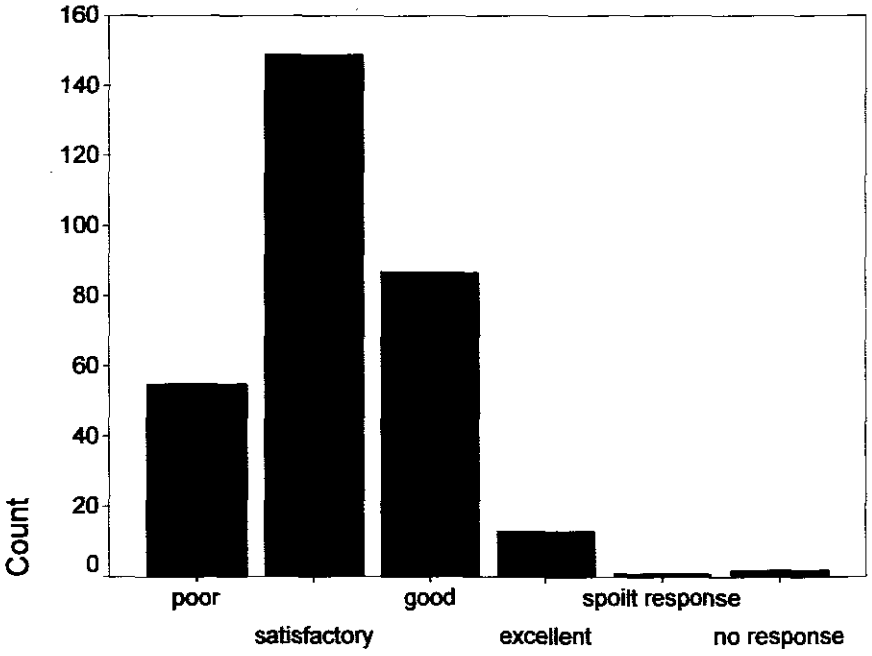
Graph



Tables

		Count	Table %
Rate the quality of communication between your school and institutes of higher learning.	poor	55	17.9%
	satisfactory	149	48.5%
	good	87	28.3%
	excellent	13	4.2%
	spoilt response	1	.3%
	no response	2	.7%
Total		307	100.0%

Graph



Rate the quality of communication between your school and i

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Your REQV.	1	13 or below	58
	2	14-15	123
	3	16 or above	35
	4	spoilt response	21
	5	no response	70

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.902	1381.673[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.098	1381.673[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	9.181	1381.673[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	9.181	1381.673[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
REQV	Pillai's Trace	.073	2.873	8.000	604.000	.004
	Wilks' Lambda	.927	2.901[a]	8.000	602.000	.004
	Hotelling's Trace	.078	2.928	8.000	600.000	.003
	Roy's Largest Root	.071	5.361[b]	4.000	302.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+REQV

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	45.073[a]	4	11.268	4.648	.001
	Your gender.	1.738[b]	4	.435	1.949	.102
Intercept	Your age.	3868.709	1	3868.709	1595.933	.000
	Your gender.	371.694	1	371.694	1666.696	.000
REQV	Your age.	45.073	4	11.268	4.648	.001
	Your gender.	1.738	4	.435	1.949	.102
Error	Your age.	732.080	302	2.424		
	Your gender.	67.350	302	.223		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .058 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)

b. R Squared = .025 (Adjusted R Squared = .012)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Your highest level of education.	1	M+3	68
	2	M+4	141
	3	M+5	38
	4	M+6	36
	5	M+7	2
	7	spoilt response	15
	8	no response	7

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.754	457.185[a]	2.000	299.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.246	457.185[a]	2.000	299.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	3.058	457.185[a]	2.000	299.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	3.058	457.185[a]	2.000	299.000	.000
EDUCATIO	Pillai's Trace	.121	3.230	12.000	600.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.882	3.235[a]	12.000	598.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.130	3.240	12.000	596.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.091	4.565[b]	6.000	300.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+EDUCATIO

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	41.707[a]	6	6.951	2.836	.011
	Your gender.	5.234[b]	6	.872	4.099	.001
Intercept	Your age.	1180.293	1	1180.293	481.460	.000
	Your gender.	127.782	1	127.782	600.350	.000
EDUCATIO	Your age.	41.707	6	6.951	2.836	.011
	Your gender.	5.234	6	.872	4.099	.001
Error	Your age.	735.446	300	2.451		
	Your gender.	63.854	300	.213		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .054 (Adjusted R Squared = .035)

b. R Squared = .076 (Adjusted R Squared = .057)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
State your total number of years of teaching experience.	1	10 years and below	91
	2	11-15 years	46
	3	16-20 years	62
	4	21-25 years	68
	5	26-30 years	25
	6	over 30 years	11
	7	spoilt response	1
	8	no response	3

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.823	694.388[a]	2.000	298.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.177	694.388[a]	2.000	298.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	4.660	694.388[a]	2.000	298.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	4.660	694.388[a]	2.000	298.000	.000
TOTAL	Pillai's Trace	.666	21.314	14.000	598.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.364	27.944[a]	14.000	596.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.661	35.230	14.000	594.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.609	68.731[b]	7.000	299.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+TOTAL

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	475.654[a]	7	67.951	67.387	.000
	Your gender.	6.673[b]	7	.953	4.566	.000
Intercept	Your age.	1037.309	1	1037.309	1028.709	.000
	Your gender.	88.441	1	88.441	423.677	.000
TOTAL	Your age.	475.654	7	67.951	67.387	.000
	Your gender.	6.673	7	.953	4.566	.000
Error	Your age.	301.500	299	1.008		
	Your gender.	62.415	299	.209		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .612 (Adjusted R Squared = .603)

b. R Squared = .097 (Adjusted R Squared = .075)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Are you part of the school's management team?	1	yes	74
	2	no	230
	4	no response	3

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.527	168.766[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.473	168.766[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.114	168.766[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.114	168.766[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
MANAGEME	Pillai's Trace	.161	13.283	4.000	608.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.839	13.865[a]	4.000	606.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.191	14.446	4.000	604.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.191	29.019[b]	2.000	304.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+MANAGEME

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	77.585[a]	2	38.793	16.858	.000
	Your gender.	6.428[b]	2	3.214	15.594	.000
Intercept	Your age.	395.981	1	395.981	172.075	.000
	Your gender.	42.421	1	42.421	205.812	.000
MANAGEME	Your age.	77.585	2	38.793	16.858	.000
	Your gender.	6.428	2	3.214	15.594	.000
Error	Your age.	699.568	304	2.301		
	Your gender.	62.660	304	.206		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .100 (Adjusted R Squared = .094)

b. R Squared = .093 (Adjusted R Squared = .087)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Does your school have a vision and mission statement?	1	yes	298
	2	no	2
	3	spoilt response	1
	4	no response	6

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.249	50.185[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.751	50.185[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.332	50.185[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.332	50.185[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
VISION	Pillai's Trace	.019	.982	6.000	606.000	.437
	Wilks' Lambda	.981	.983[a]	6.000	604.000	.436
	Hotelling's Trace	.020	.984	6.000	602.000	.435
	Roy's Largest Root	.019	1.959[b]	3.000	303.000	.120

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+VISION

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	7.937[a]	3	2.646	1.042	.374
	Your gender.	.883[b]	3	.294	1.308	.272
Intercept	Your age.	145.944	1	145.944	57.489	.000
	Your gender.	14.079	1	14.079	62.547	.000
VISION	Your age.	7.937	3	2.646	1.042	.374
	Your gender.	.883	3	.294	1.308	.272
Error	Your age.	769.216	303	2.539		
	Your gender.	68.205	303	.225		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .010 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

b. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = .003)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
List the type of school you teach in.	1	primary school	227
	2	secondary school	68
	3	comprehensive school	7
	4	spoilt response	1
	5	no response	4

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.453	124.568[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.547	124.568[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.828	124.568[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.828	124.568[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
SCHTYPE	Pillai's Trace	.066	2.563	8.000	604.000	.009
	Wilks' Lambda	.935	2.563[a]	8.000	602.000	.009
	Hotelling's Trace	.068	2.564	8.000	600.000	.009
	Roy's Largest Root	.050	3.777[b]	4.000	302.000	.005

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+SCHTYPE

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	14.086[a]	4	3.521	1.394	.236
	Your gender.	3.251[b]	4	.813	3.728	.006
Intercept	Your age.	399.207	1	399.207	157.995	.000
	Your gender.	31.061	1	31.061	142.479	.000
SCHTYPE	Your age.	14.086	4	3.521	1.394	.236
	Your gender.	3.251	4	.813	3.728	.006
Error	Your age.	763.067	302	2.527		
	Your gender.	65.837	302	.218		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = .005)

b. R Squared = .047 (Adjusted R Squared = .034)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Where is your school located?	1	urban area	181
	2	rural area	112
	4	no response	14

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.812	655.203[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.188	655.203[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	4.325	655.203[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	4.325	655.203[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
LOCATION	Pillai's Trace	.031	2.431	4.000	608.000	.046
	Wilks' Lambda	.969	2.442[a]	4.000	606.000	.046
	Hotelling's Trace	.032	2.454	4.000	604.000	.045
	Roy's Largest Root	.032	4.920[b]	2.000	304.000	.008

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+LOCATION

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	24.282[a]	2	12.141	4.902	.008
	Your gender.	.154[b]	2	.077	.339	.713
Intercept	Your age.	1829.955	1	1829.955	738.913	.000
	Your gender.	188.991	1	188.991	833.449	.000
LOCATION	Your age.	24.282	2	12.141	4.902	.008
	Your gender.	.154	2	.077	.339	.713
Error	Your age.	752.871	304	2.477		
	Your gender.	68.934	304	.227		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .031 (Adjusted R Squared = .025)

b. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Rate brainstorming as an organisational communication task.	1	important	288
	2	unimportant	18
	4	no response	1

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.258	52.598[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.742	52.598[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.347	52.598[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.347	52.598[a]	2.000	303.000	.000
BRSTORMI	Pillai's Trace	.005	.409	4.000	608.000	.802
	Wilks' Lambda	.995	.408[a]	4.000	606.000	.803
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	.407	4.000	604.000	.804
	Roy's Largest Root	.005	.710[b]	2.000	304.000	.493

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+BRSTORMI

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	2.240[a]	2	1.120	.439	.645
	Your gender.	.119[b]	2	.060	.263	.769
Intercept	Your age.	179.699	1	179.699	70.496	.000
	Your gender.	12.767	1	12.767	56.276	.000
BRSTORMI	Your age.	2.240	2	1.120	.439	.645
	Your gender.	.119	2	.060	.263	.769
Error	Your age.	774.913	304	2.549		
	Your gender.	68.969	304	.227		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .003 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004)

b. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.005)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Do members of your school management team use consultation and decision making as a form of communication?	1	yes	277
	2	no	27
	3	spoilt response	1
	4	no response	2

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.280	58.636[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.720	58.636[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.388	58.636[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.388	58.636[a]	2.000	302.000	.000
CONDEC	Pillai's Trace	.007	.335	6.000	606.000	.918
	Wilks' Lambda	.993	.334[a]	6.000	604.000	.919
	Hotelling's Trace	.007	.333	6.000	602.000	.919
	Roy's Largest Root	.004	.437[b]	3.000	303.000	.727

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+CONDEC

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	3.221[a]	3	1.074	.420	.739
	Your gender.	.191[b]	3	.064	.279	.840
Intercept	Your age.	162.492	1	162.492	63.617	.000
	Your gender.	17.617	1	17.617	77.476	.000
CONDEC	Your age.	3.221	3	1.074	.420	.739
	Your gender.	.191	3	.064	.279	.840
Error	Your age.	773.932	303	2.554		
	Your gender.	68.897	303	.227		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .004 (Adjusted R Squared = -.006)

b. R Squared = .003 (Adjusted R Squared = -.007)

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Rate the quality of communication between your school and the schools' governing body.	1	poor	27
	2	satisfactory	104
	3	good	123
	4	excellent	51
	5	spoilt response	2

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.637	264.538[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.363	264.538[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.758	264.538[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.758	264.538[a]	2.000	301.000	.000
CSCHSGB	Pillai's Trace	.028	1.083	8.000	604.000	.373
	Wilks' Lambda	.972	1.081[a]	8.000	602.000	.374
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	1.080	8.000	600.000	.376
	Roy's Largest Root	.022	1.634[b]	4.000	302.000	.166

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+CSCHSGB

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Your age.	13.232[a]	4	3.308	1.308	.267
	Your gender.	.969[b]	4	.242	1.074	.370
Intercept	Your age.	804.841	1	804.841	318.177	.000
	Your gender.	71.264	1	71.264	315.942	.000
CSCHSGB	Your age.	13.232	4	3.308	1.308	.267
	Your gender.	.969	4	.242	1.074	.370
Error	Your age.	763.921	302	2.530		
	Your gender.	68.119	302	.226		
Total	Your age.	6350.000	307			
	Your gender.	622.000	307			
Corrected Total	Your age.	777.153	306			
	Your gender.	69.088	306			

a. R Squared = .017 (Adjusted R Squared = .004)

b. R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = .001)

	responde	age	gender	ethnic	reqv	educatio	teaching
1	1	41-45	male	indian	16 or abov	M+6	10 years a
2	2	46-50	male	indian	16 or abov	M+7	16-20 year
3	3	31-35	male	african	13 or below	M+3	10 years a
4	4	31-35	female	african	13 or below	M+3	10 years a
5	5	31-35	female	african	14-15	M+4	10 years a
6	6	41-45	female	indian	14-15	M+5	21-25 year
7	7	31-35	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
8	8	31-35	female	indian	14-15	M+4	11-15 year
9	9	41-45	female	indian	spoilt respo	M+3	10 years a
10	10	41-45	female	indian	no respons	M+3	10 years a
11	11	31-35	female	indian	14-15	M+5	10 years a
12	12	41-45	female	indian	14-15	M+5	21-25 year
13	13	36-40	female	indian	14-15	M+5	10 years a
14	14	31-35	female	indian	spoilt respo	M+3	10 years a
15	15	41-45	female	indian	14-15	M+5	21-25 year
16	16	41-45	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
17	17	26-30	female	indian	13 or below	M+4	10 years a
18	18	36-40	male	indian	13 or below	M+4	11-15 year
19	19	31-35	male	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
20	20	26-30	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
21	21	31-35	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
22	22	31-35	female	indian	13 or below	M+3	10 years a
23	23	26-30	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
24	24	26-30	female	african	no respons	no respons	10 years a
25	25	26-30	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
26	26	41-45	male	indian	16 or abov	M+6	10 years a
27	27	41-45	female	indian	16 or abov	M+4	10 years a
28	28	41-45	female	indian	14-15	M+4	11-15 year
29	29	26-30	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
30	30	31-35	male	african	14-15	M+4	10 years a
31	31	50 or over	female	indian	13 or below	M+3	10 years a
32	32	31-35	female	indian	13 or below	M+4	10 years a
33	33	50 or over	male	indian	14-15	M+5	21-25 year
34	34	36-40	female	indian	14-15	M+4	10 years a
35	35	36-40	male	indian	14-15	spoilt respo	11-15 year
36	36	46-50	male	indian	14-15	M+4	21-25 year
37	37	50 or over	male	indian	no respons	M+4	10 years a
38	38	41-45	female	indian	14-15	M+4	16-20 year
39	39	41-45	male	indian	14-15	M+4	11-15 year

	total	manageme	grade	no.learn	girls	boys	vision
1	21-25 year	yes	spoilt respo	spoilt respo	spoilt respo	spoilt respo	yes
2	21-25 year	yes	grade 4 to	46-50	above 26	16-20	yes
3	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	16-20	16-20	yes
4	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	41 - 45	15 and bel	26 and abo	yes
5	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	40 and bel	21-25	16-20	yes
6	21-25 year	yes	grade r to 3	41 - 45	21-25	16-20	yes
7	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	41 - 45	21-25	16-20	yes
8	11-15 year	no	grade r to 3	41 - 45	16-20	21-25	yes
9	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	41 - 45	21-25	21-25	yes
10	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	41 - 45	21-25	16-20	yes
11	16-20 year	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	21-25	16-20	yes
12	21-25 year	yes	grade r to 3	41 - 45	21-25	21-25	yes
13	16-20 year	yes	grade 4 to	40 and bel	16-20	16-20	yes
14	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	41 - 45	21-25	16-20	yes
15	21-25 year	yes	grade 4 to	41 - 45	21-25	21-25	yes
16	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	46-50	21-25	26 and abo	yes
17	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	21-25	16-20	yes
18	16-20 year	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	21-25	16-20	yes
19	11-15 year	no	grade 4 to	41 - 45	21-25	16-20	yes
20	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	46-50	21-25	21-25	yes
21	11-15 year	no	grade r to 3	40 and bel	21-25	16-20	spoilt respo
22	11-15 year	no	grade r to 3	41 - 45	16-20	26 and abo	yes
23	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	46-50	21-25	21-25	yes
24	no respons	no respons	grade 4 to	no respons	no respons	no respons	yes
25	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	46-50	above 26	16-20	yes
26	21-25 year	yes	grade r to 3	46-50	above 26	16-20	yes
27	11-15 year	yes	grade r to 3	above 51	above 26	21-25	yes
28	16-20 year	yes	grade 4 to	40 and bel	16-20	16-20	yes
29	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	21-25	15 and bel	yes
30	11-15 year	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	15 and bel	15 and bel	yes
31	11-15 year	no	grade r to 3	40 and bel	no respons	no respons	yes
32	10 years a	no	grade 4 to	46-50	21-25	21-25	yes
33	over 30 ye	yes	grade 4 to	no respons	no respons	no respons	yes
34	10 years a	no	grade r to 3	46-50	above 26	21-25	yes
35	16-20 year	no	grade 4 to	40 and bel	16-20	16-20	yes
36	21-25 year	yes	grade 4 to	46-50	16-20	26 and abo	yes
37	26-30 year	no	grade 4 to	41 - 45	16-20	21-25	yes
38	16-20 year	no	grade r to 3	46-50	21-25	21-25	yes
39	21-25 year	no	grade 4 to	41 - 45	16-20	21-25	yes

	governin	conduct	schpolic	brochure	schtype	nlearner	location
1	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
2	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
3	yes	yes	yes	no respons	primary sch	between 50	rural area
4	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 10	rural area
5	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
6	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
7	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
8	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
9	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	no respons
10	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	rural area
11	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
12	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
13	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
14	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
15	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
16	yes	yes	yes	no	no respons	between 50	no respons
17	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
18	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
19	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
20	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
21	yes	yes	yes	no	primary sch	between 50	rural area
22	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
23	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
24	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
25	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
26	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
27	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
28	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
29	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
30	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
31	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
32	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	fewer than	rural area
33	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	urban area
34	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	urban area
35	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	urban area
36	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	urban area
37	yes	no respons	yes	no respons	primary sch	between 50	urban area
38	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	urban area
39	yes	yes	yes	yes	primary sch	between 50	urban area

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values
1	responde	Numeric	8	0	Respondent n	None
2	age	Numeric	8	0	Your age.	{1, below 25}...
3	gender	Numeric	8	0	Your gender.	{1, female}...
4	ethnic	Numeric	8	0	Your ethnic gr	{1, african}...
5	reqv	Numeric	8	0	Your REQV.	{1, 13 or below
6	educatio	Numeric	8	0	Your highest le	{1, M+3}...
7	teaching	Numeric	8	0	How many yea	{1, 10 years an
8	total	Numeric	8	0	State your total	{1, 10 years an
9	manageme	Numeric	8	0	Are you part of	{1, yes}...
10	grade	Numeric	8	0	What grade ar	{1, grade r to 3
11	no.learn	Numeric	8	0	How many lear	{1, 40 and belo
12	girls	Numeric	8	0	How many of t	{1, 15 and belo
13	boys	Numeric	8	0	How many of t	{1, 15 and belo
14	vision	Numeric	8	0	Does your sch	{1, yes}...
15	governin	Numeric	8	0	Does your sch	{1, yes}...
16	conduct	Numeric	8	0	Does your sch	{1, yes}...
17	schpolic	Numeric	8	0	Does your sch	{1, yes}...
18	brochure	Numeric	8	0	Does your sch	{1, yes}...
19	schtype	Numeric	8	0	List the type of	{1, primary sch
20	nlearner	Numeric	8	0	Indicate the nu	{1, fewer than
21	location	Numeric	8	0	Where is your	{1, urban area}
22	brstormi	Numeric	8	0	Rate brainstor	{1, important}..
23	conversa	Numeric	8	0	Rate conversa	{1, important}..
24	consulta	Numeric	8	0	Rate consultati	{1, important}..
25	intervie	Numeric	8	0	Rate interview	{1, important}..
26	givinstr	Numeric	8	0	Rate the giving	{1, important}..
27	wrnotice	Numeric	8	0	Rate the writin	{1, important}..
28	evaluati	Numeric	8	0	Rate evaluatio	{1, important}..
29	wrreport	Numeric	8	0	Rate the writin	{1, important}..
30	assproje	Numeric	8	0	Rate the assig	{1, important}..
31	demsmgro	Numeric	8	0	Rate the demo	{1, important}..
32	empcommi	Numeric	8	0	Rate empathisi	{1, important}..
33	valuebel	Numeric	8	0	Rate the displa	{1, important}..
34	crossque	Numeric	8	0	Rate cross-qu	{1, important}..
35	conmang	Numeric	8	0	Rate conflict m	{1, important}..
36	rulesreg	Numeric	8	0	Rate the use o	{1, important}..
37	compwrta	Numeric	8	0	Rate the compl	{1, important}..
38	socstaff	Numeric	8	0	Rate socialisin	{1, important}..
39	socsgb	Numeric	8	0	Rate socialisin	{1, important}..

	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure
1	None	8	Right	Nominal
2	None	8	Right	Nominal
3	None	8	Right	Nominal
4	None	8	Right	Nominal
5	None	8	Right	Nominal
6	None	8	Right	Nominal
7	None	8	Right	Nominal
8	None	8	Right	Nominal
9	None	8	Right	Nominal
10	None	8	Right	Nominal
11	None	8	Right	Nominal
12	None	8	Right	Nominal
13	None	8	Right	Nominal
14	None	8	Right	Nominal
15	None	8	Right	Nominal
16	None	8	Right	Nominal
17	None	8	Right	Nominal
18	None	8	Right	Nominal
19	None	8	Right	Nominal
20	None	8	Right	Nominal
21	None	8	Right	Nominal
22	None	8	Right	Scale
23	None	8	Right	Scale
24	None	8	Right	Scale
25	None	8	Right	Scale
26	None	8	Right	Scale
27	None	8	Right	Scale
28	None	8	Right	Scale
29	None	8	Right	Scale
30	None	8	Right	Scale
31	None	8	Right	Scale
32	None	8	Right	Scale
33	None	8	Right	Scale
34	None	8	Right	Scale
35	None	8	Right	Scale
36	None	8	Right	Scale
37	None	8	Right	Scale
38	None	8	Right	Scale
39	None	8	Right	Scale

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values
40	reportba	Numeric	8	0	Rate giving a r	{1, important}..
41	records	Numeric	8	0	Rate the keepi	{1, important}..
42	partdisf	Numeric	8	0	Rate the partic	{1, important}..
43	motivati	Numeric	8	0	Rate motivatio	{1, important}..
44	pubnewsl	Numeric	8	0	Rate the publis	{1, important}..
45	compcorr	Numeric	8	0	Rate the use o	{1, important}..
46	infocomp	Numeric	8	0	Rate the use o	{1, important}..
47	internet	Numeric	8	0	Rate the use o	{1, important}..
48	bstormin	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
49	conver	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
50	condec	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
51	interv	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
52	instr	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
53	notic	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
54	eval	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
55	repor	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
56	assproj	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
57	demsmgr	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
58	empcomm	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
59	valbelie	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
60	crossq	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
61	confman	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
62	rulereg	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
63	comwrass	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
64	socst	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
65	socisgb	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
66	repback	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
67	krecords	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
68	pardisfo	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
69	motiv	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
70	newsyrbk	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
71	comcorre	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
72	infocoms	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
73	inteassi	Numeric	8	0	Do members o	{1, yes}...
74	cmanstaf	Numeric	8	0	Rate the qualit	{1, poor}...
75	cschsgb	Numeric	8	0	Rate the qualit	{1, poor}...
76	cschosch	Numeric	8	0	Rate the qualit	{1, poor}...
77	cparlear	Numeric	8	0	Rate the qualit	{1, poor}...
78	cschcomm	Numeric	8	0	Rate the qualit	{1, poor}...

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