

***THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE
FAR NORTH OF THE LIMPOPO PROVINCE***

BY

K.S. MILONDZO

**THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE
FAR NORTH OF THE LIMPOPO PROVINCE**

by

**KHAZAMULA SAMSON MILONDZO
B.A. (UNIN); B.A. (HONS.) (UNIN); B.ED. (WITS); B.P.A.
(HONS.) (STELL); M.A. (ECON.) M.ED. (MANCHESTER);
DIP.ED.MAN. (UNIVEN); P.T.C. (HOXANE)**

**SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In the

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND
LEADERSHIP**

**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE
(QWA-QWA CAMPUS)**

PROMOTER : PROFESSOR D.R. BAGWANDEEN

CO-PROMOTER : PROFESSOR J.N. BENEDICT

JUNE 2003

DECLARATION

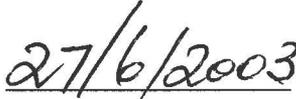
I declare that this thesis:

**"THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES
FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE FAR NORTH
OF THE LIMPOPO PROVINCE"**

is my own original work. All the sources used and quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references. Furthermore this thesis was not submitted to any other University.



KHAZAMULA SAMSON MILONDZO



DATE

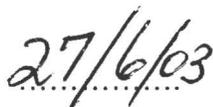
WIE DIT MAG AANGAAN

Hiermee word bevestig dat die ondergetekende die tegniese en taalkundige versorging gedoen het van kandidaat K.S. Milondzo se Proefskrif getitel: “*The Principal’s role in the development programmes for the teaching staff in the Far North of the Limpopo Province*”.

Die Kandidaat het self die aanbring van korreksies gekontroleer.



HANDTEKENING



DATUM

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late father Abel and my mother Josephine Milondzo who inspired and encouraged me to learn and to reach the highest height in education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people:

- Prof. D.R. Bagwandeem, my promoter for his expert guidance, constructive criticism, suggestions and motivation throughout the study. Without his expert assistance and advice, the findings reported in this study would have been less significant;
- Special thanks goes to Prof. J.N. Benedict, for his constant encouragement, advice, assistance, positive guidance, and academic support;
- Dr. M.J. van der Linde, Department of Information Management, University of Pretoria, whom I consulted about the presentation of my statistical data;
- Ms N.M. Hanong for her accurate and professional typing of this thesis;
- Limpopo Province Department of Education, Sports and Culture for granting me permission to visit and interview principals and teachers;
- Principals and teachers of secondary schools, who responded to the questionnaire and interviews, without their responses this study would not have been possible;
- Dr. Marga Stander who willingly accepted to inspect my Afrikaans opsomming;
- Mr. Z.M. Msimanga, who willingly accepted to edit and proofread this study;
- Dr Mogomme Masoga who encouraged me to work on this study during the trial and turmoil times, indeed, the aim was to reach the end of the academic tunnel;
- The library staff and support services of the University of Pretoria, for patiently rendering assistance and support for this study;
- My wife Ivy and my children for their interest expressed throughout the study and their moral support; and, finally
- God the Almighty for granting me the strength and courage to complete this task.

Abstract

Education in South Africa has become a ‘talked-about’ issue, talked about on daily basis in fact. The Media, in both the printed and electronic forms, give much attention and concentrate on various features of education. Immediately, one is able to mention examples of this : transformation, management, equality, curriculum development, Outcomes Based Education, *etcetera*. Prominently included in these topics is the matter of school management. This thesis looks critically at the principal’s role in the development programmes for the teaching staff. This study uses the context-focus of the Far North as its springboard in engaging this sometimes daunting subject. Surely, with all the change in the current South African Education System, there is a need to review the role of principals in schools. This study includes responses from a number of questionnaires given to principals and teachers. The responses are analysed and interpreted in light of the indicated research subject. Conclusions and recommendations are then suggested.

SUMMARY

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE FAR NORTH OF THE LIMPOPO PROVINCE.

CANDIDATE	:	Khazamula Samson Milondzo
PROMOTER	:	Prof. D.R. Bagwandeem
CO-PROMOTER	:	Prof. J.N. Benedict
DEPARTMENT	:	Educational Management and Leadership
DEGREE	:	Doctor of Philosophy

Recent changes in education in the Far North of Limpopo Province have placed new external pressures on educational managers and teachers. Development programmes of teaching staff are fraught with problems such as inadequately experienced personnel, lack of policy guidelines on development programmes, lack of resources such as libraries and instructional materials, lack of proper planning and organisation, lack of proper coordination and lack of dedicated staff who can plan and implement development programmes. Lack of financial resources and adequate venues for in-service training and other development programmes are additional problems. Some of the principals are still resisting involving teachers in decision making. Other school managers are insisting on using one leadership style instead of combining them so as to solve various problems.

The principal is not given enough powers by the government to organise and implement programmes of teaching staff. Most of these programmes are organised by government officials, namely chief education specialists, circuit inspectors, subject curriculum developers, etc. The principal is in a good position to plan and implement some of these programmes. Teachers should be allowed to participate in the selection and organisation of development programmes. Principals should guide and train them when necessary. The principal's managerial role is very important in planning and implementation of development programmes of teaching staff.

The study is concerned with various development programmes that principals could employ in developing their teaching staff. Thus the study focuses on the secondary schools in the Far North of Limpopo Province with a view to answering the following questions:

- ❖ Are principals allowed to select teachers for course attendance?
- ❖ Do principals vary in the use of leadership styles?
- ❖ Are the principals keen to use the participatory approach in their leadership or decision making?
- ❖ Do principals have enough instructional materials and other resources in their secondary schools?
- ❖ At which venue do both principals and teachers want to attend their in-service training courses and other development programmes?
- ❖ Is the present strategy or policy improving matriculation results in the Limpopo Province?
- ❖ Are principals of secondary schools in the Far North given enough powers to organise development programmes of their teaching personnel?

The research report consists of the following six chapters:

Chapter one contains an introduction of the research study, demarcation of the study, statement of the problem, aims and objectives of the research, research methods, research structure, conceptualisation and an outline of the research programme.

Chapter two discusses different types of research methods and techniques. Advantages and disadvantages of various research techniques have been deliberated in full. These methods have been used to collect and analyse data in chapter five.

Chapter three contains a review of literature of staff development and factors affecting it. In-service training models are discussed, analysed and interpreted. Various methods of professional development have been included in this chapter.

Chapter four discusses the concept of leadership as a basis for enhancing development programmes of teaching personnel in the secondary schools. This rests on the argument that school principals who have not been well empowered to organise development programmes might not utilise their leadership model effectively. Thus chapter three explains what management task is and how it could be employed to enhance staff development in the Far North.

Chapter five comprises the report on the empirical study. A questionnaire on development programmes was completed and interviews with secondary school principals and teachers in the Far North-Limpopo Province Department of Education, Sports and Culture were conducted. The various development strategies that principals employ in the Far North were carefully identified and analysed.

The research findings reveal that principals of secondary schools want to be given powers to organise development programmes of their teaching personnel in their schools and teacher centres. The findings are supported by the responses, which are presented in the various tables and figures. However, the principal's leadership styles and power to organise development programmes depend on the particular situation and other factors within their environment.

In **Chapter six**, guidelines for the employment of various models and strategies in the secondary schools are provided. The emphasis in this section is on the importance of both school-focused in-service education and training (INSET) and situation leadership models. These models could serve as a basis for effective implementation of development programmes of teachers in the Far North. The implications and applications of the two models are discussed in full.

In **Chapter seven** findings from a literature study as well as from the empirical study are given. Conclusions based on the findings and recommendations for improvement of the practice and further research conclude the research project or report.

Lastly, this research is predicted in the firm conviction that the quality of the nation depends on the quality of its education and the quality of education depends solely on the quality of teaching personnel. Teachers, as a cornerstone of education, must participate actively and conscientiously in their professional and intellectual growth through various models of INSET discussed in the study. Principals as immediate supervisors of various secondary schools in the Far North should be mandated and empowered by the Department of Education in the Limpopo Province to organise and conduct INSET programmes in their schools. Hence, school-based INSET model has been recommended by this research as the suitable and appropriate model for the Far North secondary schools. If this model could be used appropriately it would improve both the quality of teaching personnel and matriculation results which were recorded as being the lowest amongst the other provinces in South Africa.

Availability of libraries, materials, equipment and other relevant resources could also make a positive contribution towards the quality and development of teaching personnel and the school as a whole. These are deemed to be critical issues for the continuing education of educators.

KEY TERMS

school management

staff development

situational leadership

teacher education

in-service education and training (INSET)

professional development

resource based learning

continuing education

instructional leadership

participatory management

School-based INSET model

OPSOMING

TITEL: Die prinsipaal (skoolhoof) se rol in ontwikkelings programme vir onderwysers in die Verre Noorde van Limpopo Provinsie

KANDIDAAT : K. S. Milondzo

PROMOTOR : Prof. D.R. Bagwandeem

MEDEPROMOTOR: Prof. J.N. Benedict

DEPARTEMENT : Onderwys Bestuur en Leierskap

GRAAD : Doctor Philosophiae

Onlangse veranderinge in die Verre Noorde van die Limpopo Provinsie het nuwe eksterne druk op onderwysbestuurders en onderwysers geplaas.

Ontwikkelingsprogramme vir onderwysers is besmet met probleme, soos personeel met onvoldoende ondervinding, tekort aan beleidsriglyne en ontwikkelingsprogramme, tekort aan bronne, soos biblioteke en onderrigmateriaal, tekort aan behoorlike beplanning en organisasie, tekort aan behoorlike koördinerings, tekort aan toegewyde personeel wat kan beplan en ontwikkelingsprogramme kan implementeer, tekort aan finansiële bronne en behoorlike geboue vir indiensopleiding en ander ontwikkelingsprogramme.

Sommige skoolhoofde is nog huiwerig om onderwysers by besluitneming te betrek.

Sommige skoolbestuurders gebruik net een leierskapstyl in plaas van 'n kombinasie van style om verskeie probleme op te los.

Die skoolhoof word nie genoeg mag deur die staatsdepartemente gegee om ontwikkelingsprogramme vir onderwysers te organiseer of te implementeer nie. Die meeste van hierdie programme word deur staatsamptenare, naamlik

hoofspesialiste, streeksinspekteurs, vakkurrikulumontwikkelaars, ens. georganiseer. Die skoolhoof is in 'n goeie posisie om sommige van hierdie programme te beplan en te implementeer. Onderwysers moet toegelaat word om deel te neem in die seleksie en organisasie van ontwikkelingsprogramme. Skoolhoofde behoort opleiding en leiding te verskaf waar nodig. Die skoolhoof se bestuursrol is baie belangrik in die beplanning en implementering van ontwikkelingsprogramme vir onderwysers (onderwyserspersoneel).

Die studie gee aandag aan verskeie ontwikkelingsprogramme wat skoolhoofde kan gebruik om hul onderwyspersoneel te ontwikkel. Die studie fokus op sekondere skole in die Verre Noorde-Noordelike Provinsie met die doel om die volgende vrae te beantwoord:

- Word skoolhoofde toegelaat om onderwysers vir kursusbywoning te selekteer?
- Varieër skoolhoofde die gebruik van leierskapstyle?
- Is skoolhoofde geregtig om 'n deelnemende benadering tot leierskap of besluitneming te gebruik?
- Het skoolhoofde genoeg onderrigmateriaal en ander bronne in hul sekondêre skole?
- In watter geboue wil skoolhoofde sowel as onderwysers hul indiensopleidingkursusse en ander ontwikkelingsprogramme volg?
- Bevorder die huidige strategie of beleid die matriekuitslae van Limpopo Provinsie?
- Word skoolhoofde in sekondere skole in die Verre Noorde genoeg magte gegee om ontwikkelingsprogramme vir hul onderwyserspersoneel te organiseer?

Ten slotte, hierdie navorsing voorspel en is vas oortuig daarvan dat die kwaliteit van 'n nasie afhanklik is van die kwaliteit van sy opvoeding en die kwaliteit van opvoeding hang hoofsaaklik af van die kwaliteit van die onderwys personeel. Onderwysers as 'n hoeksteen van opvoeding, moet aktief en bewustelik in hul professionele en intellektuele groei soos deur die verskeie INSET modelle in hierdie studie bespreek, deelneem. Skoolhoofde, as die onmiddellike toesighouers van verskeie sekondere skole in Verre Noorde behoort deur die Department van Onderwys in die Limpopo Provinsie bemagtig en bevoeg gemaak word om INSET programme in die skole te organiseer en uit te voer.

Gevolgtik word skoolgebaseerde INSET modelle deur hierdie studie aanbeveel as 'n toepaslike en geskikte modelle vir sekondere skole in die Verre Noorde. As hierdie model behoorlik toegepas word in die toekoms, sal die kwaliteit van sowel die onderwyspersoneel as die matriekuitslae, wat die laagste van al die provinsies in Suid Afrika was, verbeter word.

Die beskikbaarheid van biblioteke, onderwysmaterial, toerusting en ander relevante bronne kan ook 'n positiewe bydrae tot die kwaliteit in ontwikkeling van onderwyspersoneel in die skool maak.

SLEUTELTERME

Skoolbestuur	Personeelontwikkeling
Situasionele	Leierskapmodel
Onderwyseropleiding	Indiensopleiding
Brongebaseerdestudie	Afstsandstudie
Onderwysleierskap	Deelname
Skoolgebaseerde	INSET model

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS	PAGE
DECLARATION	I
WIE DIT MAG AANGAAN	II
DEDICATION	III
AKNOWLEDGEMENTS	IV
ABSTRACT	V
SUMMARY	VI
OPSOMMING	X
TABLE OF CONTENTS	XIII
LIST OF TABLES	XXII
LIST OF FIGURES	XXV
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	XXVII
CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS	
1.1	1
1.2	3
1.3	5
1.4	7
1.5	8
1.6	8

1.7	RESEARCH METHODS	9
1.8	ANALYSIS AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS	9
1.8.1	Education	9
1.8.2	Management	10
1.8.3	Educational Management	10
1.8.4	Educational Manager	10
1.8.5	The Principal	11
1.8.6	Leadership	11
1.8.7	Organisational Culture	11
1.8.8	In-service Education and Training (INSET)	12
1.8.9	Staff Development	13
1.9	A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH REPORT	15
1.10	CONCLUSION	16

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN

2.1	INTRODUCTION	18
2.2	RESEARCH METHOD	19
2.2.1	Qualitative Approach	20
2.2.2	Quantitative Approach	21
2.2.3	Sampling Methods	22
2.2.4	Literature Review	22
2.2.5	Survey Methods	24
2.2.5.1	<i>The Questionnaire Technique</i>	24
2.2.5.2	<i>The Interview Technique</i>	27
2.2.5.3	<i>The Observation Technique</i>	29
2.3	CONCLUSION	31

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS' OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

3.1	INTRODUCTION	32
3.2	THE CONCEPT OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT	33
3.2.1	Definition of staff development	34
3.2.2	What is INSET?	35
3.3	THE NEED FOR <i>INSET</i> FOR TEACHERS	37
3.3.1	The aims of INSET	42
3.3.2	The integration of theoretical studies with experience	42
3.3.3	Upward Mobility: Promotion	43
3.3.4	Combating 'Burn-out'	44
3.4	THE PROCESS OF PLANNING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS	46
3.4.1	Needs Assessment	48
3.4.2	Formulation of objectives	48
3.4.3	Planning the content	48
3.4.4	Selecting presentation methods and Presenters	48
3.4.5	Evaluation of in-service effectiveness	49
3.4.6	Providing follow-up assistance	50
3.5	MODELS AND STRATEGIES FOR PROVIDING INSET FOR EDUCATORS	50
3.5.1	Conceptual Models for the INSET of teachers	50
3.5.1.1	<i>The teacher as an adult learner</i>	51
3.5.1.1.1	<i>Characteristics of adult learners</i>	52
3.5.1.1.2	<i>Self concept</i>	52
3.5.1.1.3	<i>Accumulated experience</i>	53
3.5.1.1.4	<i>Readiness to learn</i>	53

3.5.1.1.5	<i>Orientation towards teaching and learning</i>	53
3.5.1.1.6	<i>Motivation to learn</i>	54
3.5.2	Course-based INSET of teachers	54
3.5.3	School-based INSET of teachers	54
3.5.3.1	<i>The nature of school-based INSET</i>	55
3.5.3.2	<i>How to implement school-based INSET</i>	57
3.5.3.2.1	<i>Identification needs and aims</i>	57
3.5.3.2.2	<i>Identifying priorities</i>	57
3.5.3.2.3	<i>Establish a professional tutor role or start a professional Development team and committee</i>	58
3.5.3.2.4	<i>Identifying Resources, Agencies and Methods</i>	59
3.5.4	School-focused INSET of teachers	59
3.5.5	Teacher Centres	60
3.5.6	Working models for INSET: strategies for change	62
3.5.6.1	<i>The top-down approach</i>	64
3.5.6.2	<i>The cascade or multiplier strategy</i>	64
3.5.6.3	<i>An integrated PRESET and INSET approach</i>	64
3.5.6.4	<i>A teacher up-grading system</i>	64
3.5.6.5	<i>Individual school development approach</i>	65
3.5.6.6	<i>Centralised Provision Model</i>	65
3.5.6.7	<i>Distance Teaching Approach</i>	65
3.5.6.8	<i>Advisory Teacher Model</i>	66
3.5.7	Professional Development and Social Change	66
3.5.7.1	<i>Objectives of Professional Development</i>	69
3.5.7.2	<i>Objectives of Professional Development in Individual Terms</i>	70
3.5.7.3	<i>Objectives of Professional Development in Organisational Terms</i>	70
3.5.7.4	<i>The Strategy of Professional Development</i>	70
3.5.7.5	<i>Professional Development Opportunities</i>	71
3.5.7.6	<i>Methods of Professional Development</i>	72

3.5.7.7.	<i>Other forms of INSET</i>	76
3.6	CONCLUSION	81

CHAPTER 4

LEADERSHIP AS A CRITICAL FACTOR IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

4.1	INTRODUCTION	82
4.2	LEADERSHIP AS A CONCEPT	83
4.2.1	What is leadership?	84
4.2.2	Leadership theories	85
4.2.2.1	<i>Trait theory</i>	86
4.2.2.2	<i>The situational theory</i>	87
4.2.2.3	<i>Behavioural approaches</i>	88
4.2.2.3.1	<i>Michigan and Ohio State studies</i>	89
4.2.2.3.2	<i>Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid</i>	90
4.2.2.3.3	<i>Likert's System of Management</i>	95
4.2.2.3.4	<i>Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership</i>	97
4.2.2.3.5	<i>Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership model</i>	99
4.3	LEADERSHIP AND POWER	106
4.4	LEADERSHIP STYLES	107
4.4.1	The autocratic leadership	107
4.4.2	The democratic leadership	108
4.4.3	The Free-rein / Laissez-Faire leadership	108
4.5	THE MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE PRINCIPAL AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT	109
4.5.1	Planning	112
4.5.2	Organising	113
4.5.3	Guiding (Leading)	113

4.5.4	Controlling	114
4.5.5	Delegation	114
4.5.5.1	<i>Reasons for delegation</i>	115
4.5.5.2	<i>Types of delegation</i>	116
4.6	MOTIVATION AS A STRATEGY FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT	119
4.6.1	The Need for Motivation	120
4.6.2	What Exactly is Motivation?	123
4.6.3	Theories of motivation	128
4.6.3.1	<i>Maslow's theory of motivation</i>	128
4.6.3.2	<i>McClelland's Theory of Achievement, Power and Affiliation</i>	131
4.6.3.3	<i>Herzberg's Theory of Motivation</i>	131
4.6.3.4	<i>McGregor's theory X and Y</i>	133
4.7	PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING	135
4.8	JOB DESIGN	139
4.9	MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)	139
4.9.1	What is MBO?	140
4.9.2	MBO implication for Staff Development	142
4.9.2.1	<i>Implications</i>	145
4.10	CONCLUSION	147

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE FAR NORTH SECONDARY SCHOOLS

5.1	INTRODUCTION	149
-----	---------------------	-----

5.2	THE PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION	149
5.3	TARGET GROUP	150
5.4	SAMPLING PROCEDURES USED TO SELECT RESPONDENTS	151
5.5	STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	154
5.6	CONTROL OF QUESTIONNAIRES	154
5.7	ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA	155
5.8	DATA COLLECTED BY FISHER'S TEST	186
5.9	DATA OBTAINED FROM STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS	187
5.9.1	Facets that prohibit principals to implement staff development programmes in the Far North secondary schools.	187
5.9.2	Implications of the results: Structured Interviews	188
5.10	CONCLUSION	189

CHAPTER 6

GUIDELINES FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES BY PRINCIPALS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

6.1	INTRODUCTION	190
6.2	THE SCHOOL-BASED INSET MODEL	191
6.3	LEADERSHIP AND THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL	195
6.4	HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL AND ITS RELEVANCY TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN THE FAR NORTH	196
6.4.1	Maturity level of the followers	197
6.4.2	Leadership styles and levels of task and relationship behaviour	198
6.4.3	Leadership styles selected in terms of maturity level of the followers	198

6.4.4	Considerations in choosing a leadership style	200
6.4.4.1	<i>Milieu</i>	200
6.5	IMPLICATION OF FINDINGS ON LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT FOR THE FAR NORTH	201
6.5.1	The role of the principal and teacher in curriculum Development in the Far North secondary schools	203
6.5.1.1	<i>Create a climate for change</i>	204
6.5.1.2	<i>Communication</i>	205
6.5.1.3	<i>Staff development</i>	206
6.5.2	The Principal and Subject Committees in the Limpopo Province	207
6.5.3	The Principal and his Deputy Principal	211
6.5.4	The Deputy Principal as Prescriptive Agent	212
6.5.5	The Deputy Principal as Instructional Leader	212
6.5.6	The Principal and the Heads of Departments	213
6.5.7	The Principal and Teaching Staff	214
6.6	CONCLUSION	217

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1	INTRODUCTION	218
7.2	OVERVIEW	218
7.3	ATTAINMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	219
7.4	PROBLEM SOLVING	220
7.5	SUMMARY	221
7.6	FINDINGS	223
7.6.1	Findings from the literature review	223

7.6.2	Findings from the empirical study	223
7.6.3	Findings from personal interviews	225
7.7	RECOMMENDATIONS	225
7.8	PITFALLS OF THE RESEARCH	226
7.9	FURTHER RESEARCH	227
7.10	EPILOQUE	227
8	BIBLIOGRAPHY	231

LIST OF TABLES

		PAGE
TABLE 3.1	ORGANISATIONAL RESPONSES	145
TABLE 5.1	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS RANDOMLY SELECTED	151
TABLE 5.2	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS PER DISTRICT	151
TABLE 5.3	NAME OF CIRCUIT AND TYPE OF SCHOOL	152
TABLE 5.4	1996-1997 STANDARD TEN-EXAMINATION RESULTS IN THE VARIOUS PROVINCES	153
TABLE 5.5	BIOGRAPHICAL DATA	155
TABLE 5.6	GENDER AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE	156
TABLE 5.7	PROFESSIONAL ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS	158
TABLE 5.8	TEACHER-STUDENT RATIO	159
TABLE 5.9	HOW LONG WOULD YOU PREFER AN INSET COURSE TO LAST?	163
TABLE 5.10	TEACHERS SHOULD BE CONSULTED WHEN INSET COURSES ARE BEING DECIDED UPON	166

TABLE 5.11	CAN SOME TEACHERS BE USED TO CONDUCT USEFUL INSET COURSES?	167
TABLE 5.12	INSET COURSES SHOULD HAVE STRONG LINKS WITH PRESET	168
TABLE 5.13	TEACHERS SHOULD BE TESTED ON THE CONTENT AND ISSUED WITH CERTIFICATES	169
TABLE 5.14	THE PRINCIPAL AIM OF INSET AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT IS TO IMPROVE THE LEVEL OF INSTRUCTION IN A SPECIFIC SCHOOL	170
TABLE 5.15	SCHOOL BASED INSET IS PREFERABLE TO THOSE ORGANISED CENTRALLY BY THE DEPARTMENT EDUCATION	171
TABLE 5.16	INSET CAN BE CONDUCTED IN VARIOUS WAYS AND CAN BE ASSISTED BY INSTITUTIONS AND ORGANISATIONAL BODIES	173
TABLE 5.17	STAFF DEVELOPMENT SHOULD HAPPEN ACCORDING TO A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PLAN	174
TABLE 5.18	THE HEADS OF DEPARTMENT SHOULD SEE TO IT THAT THE TEACHERS WHO HAVE ATTENDED INSET COURSES UTILISE THE NEW MATERIALS AND INFORMATION GAINED	175
TABLE 5.19	LEADERSHIP AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT	176
TABLE 5.20	LEADERSHIP AND DISSIMINATION OF INFORMATION TO OTHER STAFF MEMBERS	177

TABLE 5.21	THE PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP STYLE	178
TABLE 5.22	THE ROLE PLAYD BY OBJECTIVES AND POLICY IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT	179
TABLE 5.23	MOTIVATION AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT	180
TABLE 5.24	LEADERSHIP STYLE AND DECISION-MAKING	181
TABLE 5.25	SCHOOL POLICY AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT	182
TABLE 5.26	RESOURCES AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT	183
TABLE 5.27	RELEVANT BOOKS, MATERIALS AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT	184
TABLE 5.28	AVAILABILITY OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES	185
TABLE 5.29	FISHER'S EXACT TEST	186
TABLE 7.1	BRIEF EVALUATION OF THE SPECIFIC AIMS OF THE STUDY	228

List of Figures

FIGURE	DESCRIPTION	PAGE
FIGURE 1.1	IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AS A PART OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT	14
FIGURE 3.1	STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESS	41
FIGURE 3.2	A MODEL OF THE PROCESS OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS	47
FIGURE 4.1	THE FIVE MAJOR GRID STYLES	91
FIGURE 4.2	SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODELS	101
FIGURE 4.3	LEADERSHIP STYLES AND FOLLOWER MATURITY	103
FIGURE 4.4	THE PROCESS APPROACH TO THE ELEMENTS OF MANAGEMENT	110
FIGURE 4.5	THE PROCESS OF MANAGEMENT	112
FIGURE 4.6	TYPES OF DELEGATION	118
FIGURE 3.7	MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS	128

FIGURE 4.8	HERZBERG'S HYGIENE MOTIVATION FACTORS	132
FIGURE 4.9	THE FOUR KINDS OF PARTICIPATION	136
FIGURE 4.10	THE BASIC ELEMENTS OF THE MBO APPROACH	141
FIGURE 4.11	ORGANISATIONAL RESPONSES	144
FIGURE 5.1	ATTENDANCE OF COURSES AND OTHER PROGRAMMES	160
FIGURE 5.2	GIVEN AN OPPORTUNITY TO DISCUSS THE COURSE CONTENT	161
FIGURE 5.3	WHERE WOULD YOU PREFER TO ATTEND INSET COURSES?	164
FIGURE 5.4	COURSE LEADER OR FACILITATOR	165
FIGURE 6.1	LEADERSHIP STYLES	199
FIGURE 6.2	LINE AND STAFF ORGANISATION	208
FIGURE 6.3	DIFFERENT LEVEL FOR EXERCISING DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES	210
FIGURE 6.4	STAFF DEVELOPMENT MODEL	216

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

B.A.	BACHELOR OF ARTS
B.A. HONS.	BACHELOR OF ARTS HONOURS
B..P.A.	BACHELOR OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
D.E.T.	DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
D.ED.	DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
DR.	DOCTOR
H.D.E.	HIGHER DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION
H.E.D.	HIGHER EDUCATION DIPLOMA
H.M.S.O.	HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
H.O.D.	HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
ICET.	INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION FOR TEACHING
INSET	IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING

IT	INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY
J.S.T.C.	JUNIOR SECONDARY TEACHER CERTIFICATE
M.A.	MASTER OF ARTS
MBO.	MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES
NGO.	NON- GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATION
O.B.E.	OUTCOMES- BASED EDUCATION
P.HD.	DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
P.T.C.	PRIMARY TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE
P.T.D.	PRIMARY TEACHER'S DIPLOMA
RDP.	RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME
RSA	REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
S.E.D.	SECONDARY EDUCATION DIPLOMA
S.S.T.C.	SENIOR SECONDARY TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE

S.T.C.	SECONDARY TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE
SABINET	SOUTH AFRICAN BIBLIOGRAPHIC NETWORK
SBINSET	SCHOOL-BASED IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING
U.E.D.	UNIVERSITY EDUCATION DIPLOMA
UK	UNITED KINGDOM
UNISA	UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Most of the third world countries like South Africa face great challenges in improving or 'transforming' their educational systems. Reform is now much greater in the new South Africa. South Africa is faced with the problem of expanding its education to include all pupils of school going age in line with the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), as well as improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools.

Surely, with the birth of the new South Africa with new policies like free and compulsory education, the rapid increase in school enrolments and the increase in the popular demand for education cannot be over emphasised. At long last education is seen as a profitable investment with high social and private returns and any country that fails to provide education for its total school population fails in its duty; it fails to develop the human resources by leaving them undeveloped.

Recent social changes in the Limpopo province have placed new external pressures on principals and teachers to improve their practice. One of the major issues facing principals of secondary schools is to improve the efficiency of the school system and attain high levels of pupil performance. The system of former Black Education needs transformation. Such transformation needs proper planning and highly devoted and committed school managers. It needs strong policy makers at all levels. Also, educational leaders at all levels need skills, abilities and support in order to make the desired changes a practical reality. For any innovation to be successfully implemented, it needs not only support but also training and an effective in-service strategy.

Schools are created and maintained to achieve certain educational goals and objectives. The attainment of such desired results in any institution depends upon, apart from organisational structures, support services and competent teachers, as well as managerial leadership. Strong school principals are therefore important.

The principal of the school is viewed as being the top leader and manager. After a decade in which researchers and pundits all but forgot about the value of educational leadership, the principal has again emerged as a key element in school effectiveness. Considerable attention and rigorous inquiries have been devoted to one dimension of the principalship: instructional leadership (Mavuso, 1993 : 13).

Challenges facing school leaders in South Africa are becoming increasingly more important. Educational leaders of today are faced with problems such as staff motivation, class visits, staff appraisal and staff development.

One of the toughest challenges currently facing educational leaders is to change the attitudes about staff development. McBride portrays the tension between supervisors and teachers by pointing out that the relationship between teachers as a group and supervisors as a group can be described as something of a cold war. Neither side trusts the other and each side is convinced of the correctness of its own position. Supervisors seem to be saying:

“...If they would just listen to us, things would really change for the better.” Teachers seem to be saying, *“What they give us does not help. It would be better if they left us alone.”*

(McBride, 1992 : 10).

The following questions arise: What is the cause of all this? Are principals not aware of the different strategies that should be employed in order to make staff development effective? Is it because teachers lack respect for their

principals? Is it because they lack resources in the management of their schools?

Chauke answered the above questions by arguing that the old patterns of principals' behaviour will not be sufficient to meet the new demands of the future. The efficient organising of the school is no longer the only requirement to achieve competence (Chauke, 1995 : 5).

The principals of today, and of the future, must increasingly be willing to prepare for wise and critical participation in a society characterised by conflict and chronic change. Furthermore, the world is clearly changing at an ever-increasing rate. New techniques are increasing daily. Thus, effective leaders do more by framing goals, setting standards, creating a productive environment and obtaining needed support.

The school managers are the teaching leaders. They thus, in the teaching, formulate policies, strive for goals, make decisions, exercise control, and are reliable and responsive. They are actually dependent on people to assist them to carry out their managerial tasks. It is also their duty to lead their staff in such a way as to make their task easier and improve their management. Development of staff is goal-directed and aimed specifically at influencing the behaviour and attitude of those engaged in the process of staff development in the secondary schools.

1.2 DEMARCATION OF STUDY

Teachers are unique and will therefore vary in education, general skills and ability. There are few common denominators, for example, newly trained teachers will have attended teacher-training colleges as new administrative clerks will have attended technical colleges. Yet many within each group probably will not have developed all the skills and knowledge necessary to perform their jobs at the ideal level.

Today teachers are faced with a number of problems in their sphere of operation, such as classroom management, discipline, human relations, parental involvement, lack of appropriate or relevant qualifications. There is also a crucial lack of communication and understanding between teachers and teacher organisations or unions.

Furthermore, the principals face much external pressure and must deal with conflict and stress. They must also try to keep up with ever-increasing technological and social change. The technological and social revolution that has overtaken all communities to varying degrees, has affected the staff, curriculum, school management, student behaviour, community relations and the very nature of the teaching-learning process itself.

All the above problems facing principals and teachers in the Far North call for continuing staff education. One of the principal's major responsibilities in the Far North is to assist subordinates in developing specific job skills, an activity usually referred to as staff development. Staff development has as its primary task, the need to develop a professional-growth oriented culture in all schools. Chauke (1995 : 3) states it clearly:

“...Staff development is a process and professional growth for individuals with a respectful, supportive, positive organisational climate having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous, responsible self-renewal for educators and school.”

Because the principal of today works in a rapidly and continuously changing environment, there is a need for the principal to develop his/her staff so as to contribute towards effective teaching. Principals need to be acquainted with the strategies of staff development. The underlying reason is that the principal must exercise effective communication with individuals and groups within the formal and informal school organisation to make the school responsive to the changing needs of the society (Bvuma, 1994 : 5).

Staff appear to be the most important resource of an institution. That is sufficient reason for principals to devote most of their attention to staff development.

This study focuses on the Malamulele and Giyani Regions of the Limpopo Province. The two regions formed part of the former Gazankulu Homeland and lie between the Levubu and Letaba rivers next to the Kruger National Park. For purposes of this research, the geographical area will be referred to as the Far North because it lies in the Northernmost corner of the Limpopo Province. The study will be conducted in some of the secondary schools in the urban and rural areas. Secondary schools, which are situated in the rural areas, were formerly known as Community Schools. These schools were built and controlled by the traditional chiefs and their subjects in different rural villages. Currently, both urban and rural secondary schools are under the Limpopo Provincial government. All the members of the governing councils are elected democratically by the local people so as to represent them in the school governance.

The increasing external and internal problems in the secondary schools in the Limpopo Province make it difficult for the principals to run their schools effectively. The utilisation of staff development in the secondary schools would alleviate some of these problems.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Most of the areas in the Limpopo Province are like the Far Northern regions. The Far North is faced not only with the problem of increasing enrolments expanding to include all pupils of school going age in line with the RDP and the constitutional right to education, but also with the problem of improving the quality of teaching and learning in the secondary schools.

During the 1970s and 1980s secondary education enjoyed a period of rapid expansion in the Far North but very little thought was given to staff development. Some effort to introduce staff development programmes in

other areas of the country was caused by the student unrest of 1976. After the uprising the Department of Education and Training built various in-service training centres around Gauteng. However, these types of facilities were not established in the former Gazankulu National State where the Far North region is located.

A strategy for the implementation of a secondary school staff development programme in the Far North has yet to be seriously and scientifically investigated and addressed. Research in this area is regarded as essential in order to improve the standard and effectiveness of teaching in the Far North secondary schools and to make it possible for educational leaders, specifically the principals, to understand, utilise, promote and implement the necessary and functional strategies to achieve the process of development. It is still quite doubtful, whether secondary school principals in the Far North create, implement and utilise resources and school infrastructure adequately to implement and improve staff development programmes. Some of the problems in the Far North senior secondary schools could be attributed to the shortage of in-service training centres, libraries, lack of funds, skilled manpower, lack of support from the government and other factors.

With the above-mentioned problems facing school principals in the secondary schools, the following research questions arise:

- Do principals of secondary schools in the Far North use strategies for the implementation of staff development programmes to improve the quality of teaching and learning?
- Can knowledge of staff development programmes assist the principal to improve the quality of his staff?
- Can in-service training centres and on job based training help the principals to improve their staff morale?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

The aim of the investigation was to evaluate the principal's role in the development programmes for the teaching staff in the Far North of Limpopo Province.

In order to realise this aim, the following objectives were pursued:

- ❖ To provide and account INSET in South Africa with special reference to the Far North.
- ❖ To determine whether principals encourage teaching personnel to take part in decision-making.
- ❖ To identify reasons behind the inadequate provision of INSET for teachers.
- ❖ To determine whether secondary school principals should be advised to employ different leadership-styles.
- ❖ To investigate the planning and organisation of development programmes in the Far North.
- ❖ To determine present needs and future staff development needs for the teaching staff.

Senior secondary schools in the Limpopo Province are functioning but most of them are not effective as revealed by the commission of enquiry into the Education System in the former Gazankulu in 1992. An attempt to solve this problem could be expedited by proposing effective staff development in senior secondary schools in the Far North. Apart from the aims and objectives mentioned above, the following observations can also help educational leaders in the Far North to employ appropriate strategies for staff development:

- The teaching and development programmes that are practised in senior secondary schools in the Far North need to be re-planned.
- The inability of senior secondary school principals to use appropriate strategies for the implementation of staff development programmes in

the Far North is one of the problems that hamper or impede school progress.

- Staff development programmes can be implemented if it can be conducted at schools by both experienced teachers and school managers.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The findings of this study will be of great assistance for both Limpopo Province and South Africa as a whole. The findings of this study serve as guidelines to all stakeholders in the Far North and Limpopo Province as a whole. The results of the findings will also empower the principals of secondary schools to develop programmes for their teaching staff. Principals have a role to play in developing these programmes, so as, to improve the quality of teaching in the above area of study. A variety of development strategies have been suggested in literature review in Chapters Three and Four of this thesis. These strategies can be used by principals to solve problems stated in this chapter.

1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher was faced with certain limitations when conducting this study. One of the main limitations was the fact that it was not possible to get 100% co-operation from the respondents. The response rate was 96%. Attempts were made to get feed back from the remaining questionnaires but all was in vain.

Due to limited resources, the study had to be limited to a randomly selected secondary schools, hence the views of the primary school principals and educators were excluded from this study. A total view would have been gained if the views of the above mentioned personnel were also considered.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODS

Educationists argue that there is no single, perfect method of obtaining data. For this reason, they maintain, collecting data by more than one method is often a prudent procedure. This study is concerned with various strategies that principals could employ in order to develop and improve the performance of their staff in secondary schools. Thus, the study focuses on the senior secondary schools in the Far Northern regions.

The following research methods will be used to determine the possible factors that may promote teaching development programmes:

- Literature review
- The survey method (interview and questionnaires)
- The observation method

The above-mentioned research methods will be discussed in detail in Chapter Two. The researcher will use certain research methods to generate solutions to problems for possible utilisation and implementation of staff development programme. The quality of research findings is directly dependent on the accountability of the research methodology discussed in the next chapter.

1.8 ANALYSIS AND CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Concepts are primary instruments, which we employ to understand reality and the essence of meaning. The following concepts need some clarification:

1.8.1 Education

Walters (1991 : 5) explains education as a personal learning process by which values, attitudes, information and skills are acquired and integrated. Ripinga (1993 : 10) explains education as an activity, which is concerned with the

norms, and the contents of these norms are unquestionably rooted in the view of life and the world of the adults who have to perform the education task.

1.8.2 Management

The term '*Management*' can be traced from the Latin/English word '*manage*' which means '*to control and steer a horse.*' The Dutch use the word '*stuurman*', for which the Afrikaans term is '*bestuur*' (Van der Westhuizen, 1991 : 38).

Although there are different connotative meanings to the word '*management*', it generally means, '*to lead*', with certain objectives and guidelines in mind. Van der Westhuizen (1991 : 39) regards management as a way of "*...getting things done through and with people.*"

The above definitions give a basic explanation for a related term, '*Educational management*', which refers to leading and guiding people in an educational milieu, namely, the learning institution.

1.8.3 Educational Management

Hoberg (1997 : 36) defines educational management as management of staff, pupils and parents, curriculum and teaching, physical facilities, financial affairs, and of school and community relations. Walters (1991 : 5) defines it as the particular process of relating resources to objectives required in organisations which explicitly exist to provide education.

1.8.4 Educational Manager

Govender (1996 : 3) believes that the educational manager is someone at the top level in the administrative hierarchy of an educational institution. His/ her managerial task is to guide and direct, regulate and organise educational matters. Van der Westhuizen (1991 : 38) says the educational manager is

someone who guides, controls and directs in order to achieve objectives in an educational institution.

1.8.5 The Principal

According to Ripinga (1993: 5) the principal is the administrative head and professional leader of a school division or unit such as a high school, junior high school or elementary school; a highly specialised full-time administrative officer in large public school systems, but usually carrying a teaching load in small ones; in public education, usually subordinate to a superintendent of schools. Govender (1996: 7) defines the principal as the head of the school given authority by either the national or provincial ministry of education to run a public school with the help of a school management team as well as a governing body. In this study the principal is defined as a manager, administrator and an instructional leader. The words, headmaster or headmistress are used interchangeably with principal in this study.

1.8.6 Leadership

Leadership is the activity of influencing staff in an organisation to strive willingly for group objectives. Leadership is influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal.

Leadership is the process by which a specific person, the leader, influences a group of persons (subordinates) to such a degree that they voluntarily pursue the objectives conveyed to them (Mavuso, 1993 : 7).

1.8.7 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture refers to the way in which things are done in an organisation.

According to Louw (1990 : 184) organisational culture comprises

“specific patterns of behaviour, value systems of meaning and assumptions that develop over a period of time and become institutionalised in an organisation to enable it to cope with its problems of external adaptation and integration and were transmitted to all members and newcomers, to ensure the survival of the organisation.”

Organisational culture can therefore be considered as the frame of reference and general context within which actions take place in an organisation. For this reason the culture of an organisation should create a type of environment in which the necessary consideration and co-ordination exist to enable the different aspects involved in organisational functioning to operate optimally.

Organisational culture could therefore be considered to be a phenomenon consisting of certain basic systems. These could be the structural system, goal system, management system, technical system and psycho-social system.

1.8.8 In-service Education and Training (INSET)

INSET has been defined in various ways. The definition of INSET depends to a large extent on the emphasis that is placed on it in terms of its plan or design. Bagwandeem and Louw (1993: 19) suggest an omnibus definition:

“In-service education and training, may, in the most general sense, be taken to include everything that happens to the teacher from the day he takes up his first appointment to the day he retires which contributes, directly or indirectly, to the way in which he executes his professional duties.”

In-service Education and Training can be described as education intended to support and assist professional development, which teachers ought to continue throughout their teaching careers. This implies that INSET commences at the

time teachers enter the teaching profession and continues until they retire. During this time, INSET should include all those activities in which serving teachers can participate in order to extend their professional knowledge, skills and interests (Walters, 1991: 68).

1.8.9 Staff Development

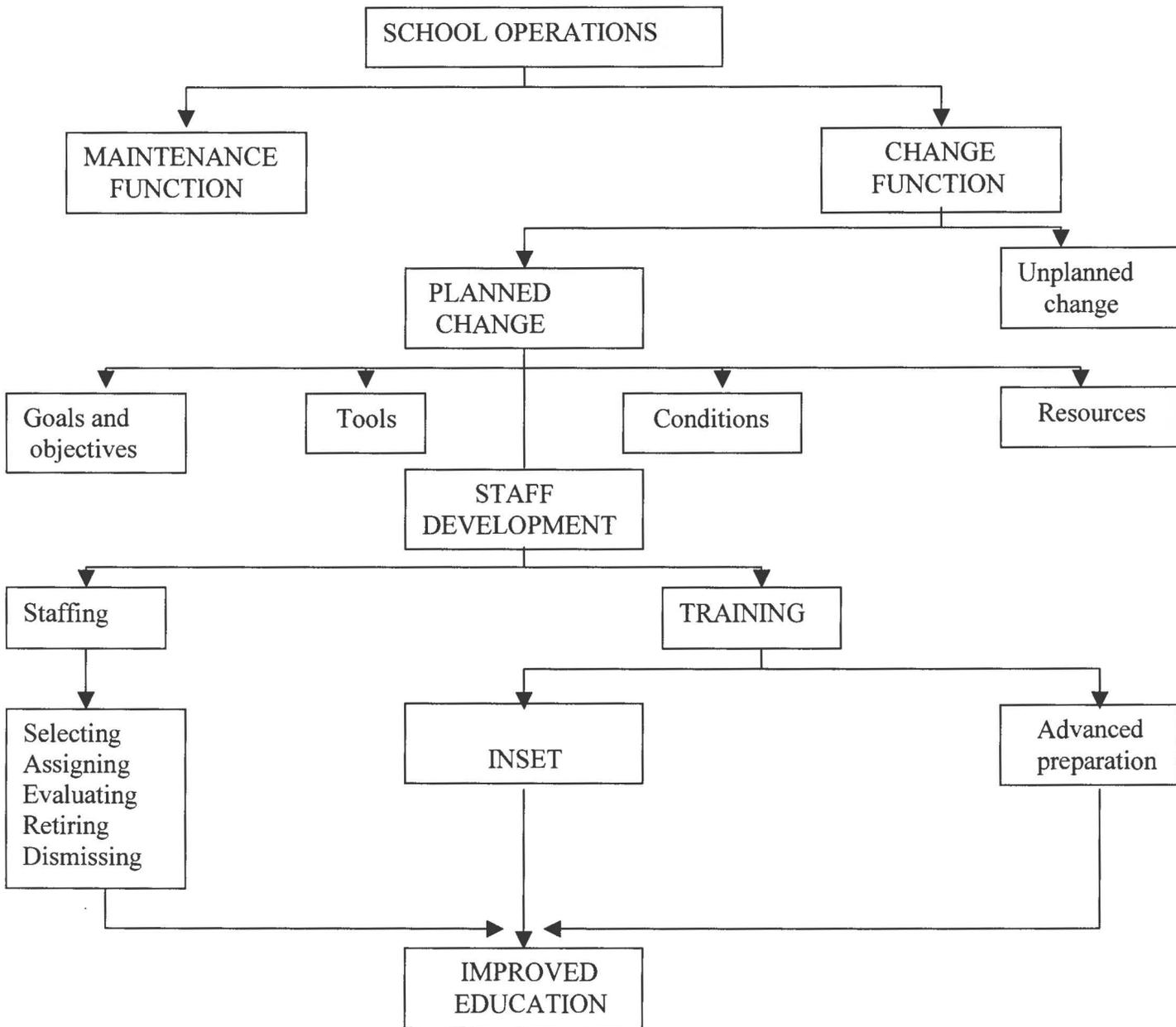
Staff development has as its primary task the need to develop, a professional, growth-oriented ecology in all schools. Cuttance (1993: 5) states it clearly:

“Staff development is a process designed to foster personal and professional growth for individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organisational climate having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous, responsible self-renewal for educators and school.”

It must be noted that as for the definition of INSET there is no consensus on what constitutes staff development. Most researchers agree that staff development must address more than the task of ensuring a basic, minimum level of competency. Staff development must be general in order to maintain the motivation and creativity of all teachers throughout their teaching life and to ensure the maximisation of such creativity.

In summary, authors make distinctions among terms such as training, staff development and education. Training is viewed as a specific activity that focuses on an immediate problem; staff development focuses on the future application of learning and is not always job specific. Education on the other hand, prepares students for entry into general fields and like staff development, focuses on the future application of learning. The summary of staff development structure may be depicted as illustrated on figure 1.1 on page 14.

FIGURE 1.1 : IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING AS A PART OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT



SOURCE : Bvuma (1994 : 8)

1.9 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

The research report consists of the following six chapters:

Chapter one contains an introduction of the research study, demarcation of the study, statement of the problem, aims and objectives of the research, research methods, research structure, conceptualisation, and an outline of the research programme.

Chapter two discusses different types of research methods and techniques. Advantages and disadvantages of various research techniques have been deliberated in full. These methods have been used to collect and analyse data in chapter five.

Chapter three contains a review of literature of staff development and factors affecting it. In-service training models are discussed, analysed and interpreted. Various methods of professional development have been included in this chapter.

Chapter four discusses the concept of leadership as a basis for enhancing development programmes of teaching personnel in the secondary schools. This rests on the argument that school principals who have not been well empowered to organise development programmes might not utilise their leadership model effectively. Thus chapter three explains what management task is and how it could be employed to enhance staff development in the Far North.

In **Chapter five** a report on the imperial study is given. A question on development programmes was completed and interviews with secondary school principals and teachers in the Far North of the Limpopo Province Department of Education, Sports and Culture were conducted. The various development strategies that principals employ in the Far North were carefully identified and analysed.

The research findings reveal that principals of secondary schools want to be given powers to organise development programmes of their teaching personnel in their schools and teaching personnel in their schools and teacher centres. The findings are supported by the responses, which are presented in the various tables and figures. However, the principal's leadership styles and power to organise development programmes depend on the situation and other factors within their environment .

In **chapter six**, guidelines for the employment of various models and strategies in the secondary schools are provided. The emphasis in this section is on the importance of both school-focused INSET and situation leadership models. These models could serve as a basis for effective implementation of development programmes of teachers in the Far North. The implications and applications of the two models are discussed in full.

In **chapter seven** findings from a literature study as well as from the empirical study are given. Conclusions based on the findings and recommendations for improvement of the practice and further research; conclude the research project or report.

1.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the problem of staff development in the secondary schools in the Far Northern region has been introduced. The researcher has clearly indicated the purpose of the study and its field has been demarcated. The aims and objectives of the research related to helping the principals in the Far North to identify strategies for promoting staff development in the secondary schools were identified.

Reference has also been made to the research methods used in this research. Information relevant to the significance of the literature review pertaining to the study was presented briefly. Mention was made about questionnaires and interviews with each teacher, principal and some government officials in the

Far North. Aspects of observation study were also referred to as part of the research methods.

The composition of the research report, that is, different chapters and their contents are clearly mentioned in this chapter. The researcher has also analysed and clarified a few key operational concepts so as to serve as basic knowledge to the investigation. In the next chapter, a review of research methods related to the study will be discussed in full.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Researchers argue that there is no single, perfect method of obtaining data. For this reason, they maintain, collecting data by more than one method is often a prudent procedure. Du Plooy, (1995 : 38) defines research design as:

“...the plan of procedures for data collection and analysis that are undertaken to evaluate a particular theoretical perspectives.”

The research design involves the process of planning what and how data will be collected. It is the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Kothari 1988 : 44).

Educational managers and teaching staff are always trying to unweave and understand educational processes so that it enables them to make correct decisions that have meaningful effects on other stakeholders in Education.

Nyathi, (1992 : 18) supports the above idea, when he says:

“...Because research systematically measures reality, it is a better source of knowledge than one’s own experience, beliefs or intuition.”

There are several research designs and the researchers must decide in advance which design would be the most appropriate for their research projects. This step involves deciding what research methodology and which mode of observation are most appropriate to solicit the answer(s) to the research question(s) or to test the hypothesis (du Plooy 1995 : 39)

In this study, the researcher employs literature survey, survey methods, namely; questionnaires, interviews and observation. Empirical investigation that includes both qualitative and quantitative techniques were also used to collect, analyse and interpret data in the research study. The quality of research findings is directly dependent on the accountability of research methodology followed.

2.2 RESEARCH METHOD

According to Nkuna (1999 : 5) research studies can either be exploratory in nature, or descriptive, and/or conducted to test hypothesis. Nkuna differentiates the three forms of research as follows:

“Exploratory studies explore new areas or organisational research. Descriptive studies try to describe certain characteristics of the phenomena we are interested in knowing about and hypothesis testing studies examine whether or not the conjectured relationships have been substantiated and an answer to the research question obtained.”

The research proposed can best be described as descriptive and hypothesis testing. There has been a substantial amount of research conducted on the subject of school managers and the extent to which they can become effective. However, specific answers to questions have not been done properly, nor have they been tested empirically. This includes the role of the principals in developing programmes for their teaching staff.

Moodley (2001 : 30) defines research as:

“...a systematic process of collecting and logically analysing information for some purpose.”

There are many methods of research that can be employed to investigate the problem stated in chapter One. This study sought to ascertain the role that

principals could play in the provision of school-based INSET. To attain this, the research methodology had to be systematic and goal orientated.

In a broader context, methodology refers to a design whereby the researcher selects data collection and analysis procedures to investigate the research problem (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993 : 9).

2.2.1 Qualitative approach

In this study, the researcher will use both qualitative and quantitative research methods to collect data from the field. Mabuza argues strongly that qualitative and quantitative methods are inseparable in the field of research. Qualitative method is mostly used by researchers who conduct some case studies of small group of people for a long period of time. In this method, the researcher observes and interacts with the respondents in the field. It helps the researcher to gain first hand information, holistic understanding of the phenomena and data collection that gives the investigation a shape as the research proceed (Mabuza, 1998 : 5).

❖ *Advantages of Qualitative Approach*

- Qualitative research is conducted to promote greater understanding of not just the way things are, but also why?
- It involves the collection of extensive narrative data in order to gain insights into the phenomena of interests.
- Data analysis includes the coding of the data and production of verbal synthesis.
- It involves primary induction.
- Hypothesis is more likely to generate results that are more valid.

❖ *Disadvantages of Qualitative Approach*

- The qualitative approach requires the accurate recording of large amount of data over a long period of time.

- The results are difficult to analyse, conclusions are highly tentative, and generalisations are minimal or non-existent.
- At a practical level, qualitative research tend to be costly.

(Naidoo, 1995 : 13).

2.2.2 Quantitative approach

A quantitative non-experimental design with emphasis on the survey more of inquiry was deemed most suitable for this study. This allowed the researcher to gain information on and insight into the action and perceptions of a relatively large sample of role-players on the topic researched. A survey in questionnaire form with purposeful, non probability sampling yield data on the present educational condition regarding staff development in the Far North of Limpopo Province. The quantitative approach involves the collection of numerical data in order to explain, predict and control phenomena of interest. Therefore:

❖ *Advantages of Quantitative Approach*

- Data analysis is mainly statistical.
- It involves primary deduction.
- Hypothesis is more tentative.
- The quantitative researchers attempt to control as many variables as possible.

❖ *Disadvantages of Quantitative Approach*

- There is no value free science; the values of both researcher and the phenomena studied are important variables, which should be taken into consideration when conducting reporting.
- The quantitative approach is more focused and out-come orientated.
- Typically, it concentrates on one or small number of variables in order to describe current conditions.

- The researcher might compare self-esteem of two groups, one mentored and the other non-mentored.

(Naidoo, 1995 : 17).

2.2.3 Sampling methods

When one does (qualitative) research it is usually impossible to involve the entire population. For instance, if the study focuses on teachers and learners at certain South African schools, it is not practically feasible to involve all the learners, teachers and principals of those schools. Thus, the researcher is required to draw a sample from the population. In order to draw valid conclusions, the sample must be representative of the population, that is, it must show the same characteristics as the population.

There are four different types of sampling methods, namely; Random, Systematic, Stratified and Cluster sampling. Booyse *at al.*, (1993 : 52) have this to say:

"...the size of a sample cannot guarantee that it will be representative, yet it is an important factor. The sample must be large enough to allow us to make valid conclusions."

Despite the problems encountered in sampling methods, these methods are very useful if applied appropriately in the research study.

2.2.4 Literature review

The problem of employing correct development programmes to improve teaching personnel is relevant to both theory and practice. Literature on leadership and staff development programmes, for example, motivation, leadership style, INSET, MBO, professionalism etc. are available and have been studied. The researcher will also collect the relevant data for this research by reviewing literature, periodicals, journals, magazines, newsletters,

newspapers, electronic media and any published matter, which has a possible bearing.

Studying relevant literature from international and local sources collected data on various development programmes for teachers. The literature used is reflected in the bibliography and sources acknowledged in the study. The literature review was preferred because it determined what had already been done or researched that could be related to the problem. Literature gives the necessary theoretical background and the problem can thus be dealt with from a practical as well as a theoretical point of view.

This was done in order to define the frontiers of the field of research in perspective, to learn which procedures and instruments have proved useful to avoid un-intentional plactions of previous research, and to be in a position to interpret the significance of the result (Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh 1990: 67-68).

□ *Advantages of a Literature Review*

There are a variety of advantages of consulting literature in conducting a research study:

- The advantage of a review of literature is that the daily activities of participants in the research are not disturbed.
- Data can easily obtained as everything is in writing.

□ *Disadvantages of Literature Review*

Despite its advantages literature review has some disadvantages which need to be considered when conducting literature review:

- Review of numerous books, reports, documents and Acts is time consuming.
- Thus one needs to create enough time to consult enough resources..

- Furthermore, written material is not regarded as first hand material as opposed to, for example, interviews or personal observation. (Bryanard and Hanekom, 1997 : 32).

2.2.5 Survey methods

A survey is described as an attempt to collect data from members of the population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variables. This method will be used in order to enable the researcher to uncover data, interpret, synthesize and integrate the data and point to implications and relationships. In this technique both the structured interview and questionnaire techniques will be used to collect required data from schools, in-service training centres, the Department of Education, regional offices, circuit offices and the community.

Govender (1996 : 31) warns against the danger of subjectivity in an interview, and stresses that normally the respondents will respond to the way in which the interviewer asks the questions. One way to minimize the subjectivity factor is to make a number of visits and with the respondents which would create intimacy and spontaneity of interaction in which the respondents would give, their accounts. That way the data can be assumed to have some authenticity.

2.2.5.1 *The Questionnaire Technique*

The greatest use of questionnaires is made by the survey strategy. However, both experiment and case study research strategies can make use of these techniques (Lewis, *et al.*, 2000 : 278).

The desirability of the use of an accountable questionnaire for this study is supported by evidence from different sources in the literature. Nthangeni (1991 : 122) argues:

“... If we want to know how people feel, what they experience and what they remember, what their emotions and motives are like, and the reasons for acting as they do ... why not ask them?”

❖ ***Advantages of the Questionnaire Technique***

The questionnaire approach was preferred because of the following advantages:

- Respondents have time to think about the answers to questions in the questionnaire.
- A large number of respondents distributed over a large geographical area can be reached.
- As an instrument of science, the questionnaire has great potentialities when properly used.
- It is an economical way of accumulating information of significance. When the subjects of the study are scattered far and wide, it will be a better tool as compared to the tools like interview or observation.
- It permits group administration and is adaptable to any objectives.
- It is easy to plan, construct and administer.
- Once it has been constructed skilfully, the investigator may ask anybody to administer it on his / her behalf.
- It is generally regarded as dependable when used to obtain statements of fact.
- Information of a personal nature often may be obtained more readily by means of questionnaires, especially if the respondent is permitted to omit signatures or if specifically assured that his / her replies will be regarded as confidential.
- It places less pressure on the subject for immediate response.
- It helps in focusing the respondent's attention on all the significant items.
- It may be used as a preliminary tool for conducting an in-depth study later on by any other method.

- In this method, the responses given by the subjects are available in their own language and version, whereas in tools like interview or observation, responses depend on the way the investigator has recorded them.

(Sidhu, 1995 : 139).

❖ *Disadvantages of the Questionnaire Technique*

- Its reliability and validity is low.
- Frequently, questionnaire research constitutes simply a pooling of ignorance.
- It gives a biased sample.
- The respondents who return the questionnaires may not constitute a representative section of the entire group.
- If the subject misinterprets a question or gives an incomplete or indefinite response, nothing can be done.
- Since a questionnaire is more or less rigid in its structure, it is not very helpful in finding information about complex emotional subjects, or about sentiments, which people may not like to put into black and white.
- Some respondents may not like to put their views on controversial issues in writing.
- The behaviours, gestures, reactions, emphases, assertions and emotions of the respondent remain unnoticed.
- There are many people who would not like to share any important information unless and until they are impressed about the cause and the personality of the investigator.
- Some of the research areas are so delicate, sensitive, intricate and confidential in nature that it becomes difficult to frame questions on them.
- It permits the respondents to modify their answers to earlier questions when they find that they are contradicting themselves while answering some later questions.

- The questionnaire cannot be used with illiterate subjects and children. (Sidhu, 1995 : 139-140).

2.2.5.2 *The Interview Technique*

Interviewing was used more frequently than other methods. This is because interviewing as a method of collecting data allows the researcher to explain his or her questions if the respondent (interviewee) is not clear on what is asked. It also allows the researcher to probe deeper following the answer of a respondent.

❖ *Advantages of Interview Technique*

- The interviewer can explain matters which are not clear to the interviewee
- It was also possible to observe the behaviour of the respondent
- The interview method was a flexible instrument
- The interview brought out more accurate and honest responses than other methods.
- It is especially advantageous over a questionnaire in many ways.
- The field worker is personally present to remove any doubt or suspicion regarding the nature of enquiry.
- In interview the investigator can create a right type of friendly atmosphere, which is very conducive for obtaining desired data.
- If necessary the interviewer can give assurances or guarantees to the interviewee that the facts will be properly used.
- It permits even exchange of ideas and information.
- The respondent's difficulties like poor expression and bad handwriting are also avoided as the interviewer fills every schedule.
- The personal contact with the respondent enables the interviewer to probe more deeply into the character, living conditions and general life pattern of the respondent.

- The data gathered through interviews have been found to be fairly reliable.
- There is possibility of cross-questioning, asking modified or simplified questions and putting supplementary questions.
- It is by far the only method usable with some categories of persons like young children, illiterates, persons with limited intelligence and those with an abnormal state of mind.

(Bvuma, 1994 : 5).

❖ *Disadvantage of the Interview Technique*

- The major weakness of the interview is the interviewer bias.
- Interview is comparatively a costly affair.
- A busy person may prefer to fill out a questionnaire at leisure rather than submit to a long interview.
- For an adequate coverage, a large number of field workers may have to be engaged and trained in the work of collection of data.
- Since the objectivity, sensitivity and insight of the interviewer is crucial, this procedure requires a level of expertness not ordinarily possessed by an average research worker.
- The respondents suffer from four limitations, i.e. their lack of experience as interviewees, their judgement about themselves, their accessibility and readiness to divulge the information and their ability to express themselves clearly.
- The recording of data from an interview is full of difficulties.
- Tape-recording of the entire interview is likely to be expensive with respect to time and money.
- It does not work well with infants, shy people, hearing - impaired people, or mentally challenged people.

(Bvuma, 1994 : 7).

2.2.5.3 *The Observation Technique*

Sidhu (1995 : 160) has described the observation method as a scientific technique to the extent that it “*serves a formulated research purpose, is planned systematically rather than occurring haphazardly, is systematically recorded and quotation related to more general propositions and is subjected to checks and controls with respect to validity, reliability and position*”.

The third research method to be employed in the study will be that of observation. In this method, researchers collect data on the current status of entities by watching them and listening to them rather than asking questions about them. Observation may be controlled or uncontrolled, scheduled or unscheduled, visible or concealed, participative or non-participative. The researcher would informally speak to many people, observe the manifold incidents of the day and so be able to understand the atmosphere and culture of the phenomenon being observed.

❖ *Advantages of Observation Technique*

One advantage of the observation technique of collecting data is that real-life behaviour can be perceived, studied and verified. Misunderstanding can also be clarified on the spot (Bryanard, *et al.*, 1997: 39).

Lewis *et al.*, have listed the following as the advantages of participant observation:

- It is good at explaining ‘what is going on’ in particular social situations.
- It heightens the researcher’s awareness of significant social processes.
- It is particularly useful for researchers working within their own organisations.
- Some participant observation affords the opportunity for the researcher to experience ‘for real’ the emotions of those who are being researched.

- Virtually all data collected are useful.
(Lewis *et al.*, 2000:229)

❖ *Disadvantages of Observation Technique*

The following disadvantages can be listed for the collection of data by observation:

- Establishing the validity of observation is always difficult.
- The problem of subjectivity is also involved.
- In an observation, there is also the danger of concentrating only on the aspects of significance simply because they can be recorded objectively and accurately.
- There is the possibility of distortion of the phenomena through the very act of observing.
- The observers tend to see only those things which they want to see.
- Usually when an observer goes to the scene, the situation is new to him/her.
- The incidents described may be samples of rarely occurring behaviour.
- The lack of competence of the observer may hamper validity and reliability of observation.
- The people being observed become conscious of being under such observation and begin to behave in an unnatural manner.
- There are certain situations that the observer will not be permitted to observe and she/he is that way helpless.
- It is a slow and laborious process.
- The events may not be easily classifiable because of the observation remaining focused mostly on the critical and unusual incidents.
- The data may be unmanageable.
- It is going to be a costly affair.

(Bvuma, 1994 : 12).

Observations were made at both urban and rural secondary schools in the Far Limpopo Province area. The researcher used observation whereby he became the non-participant observer. He did this in order not to affect the research study.

2.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of a research design. It has also dealt with the various research techniques related to the study. Techniques such as questionnaires, interviews and observation were discussed in detail in this section. Research design is characterised by random assignment of subjects to groups, control over factors that might disrupt the study, and decisions as to which treatment is given to each group.

Chapters Three and Four in this study are planned to give a full review of literature on staff development, and to suggest some of the strategies which could be employed by principals to develop their staff. Literature review serves as a basis of theoretical knowledge and empirical investigation. The application of some of these research techniques will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five of this study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a review of literature related to staff development will be analysed. The sole purpose of exploring what has already been researched, is to locate the current study within the existing body of knowledge. This chapter will be organised as follows:

- ❖ A brief review of the theoretical or conceptual framework regarding staff development and in-service education and training.
- ❖ A critical analysis of previous and relevant research work and literature, which may place the present study in an appropriate context in terms of its research questions as stated in chapter I
- ❖ Lastly, the conclusion will be given at the end of this chapter in the form of a summary.

The educators in every secondary school are its most valuable asset and the quality of teaching rendered by them can be directly related to their knowledge and skills. The principal who invests in the continuous development of his or her staff gets better motivated staff who perform to the best of their abilities and who stay and work in the same school. This is especially true if such development leads to the fulfilment of higher order needs such as self-actualisation and self-expression.

Schools exist to promote effective learning among their students. The school management is therefore concerned with the *"development of an educational philosophy and the deployment of resources to create an environment in which learning can flourish"* (Chauke, 1995 : 5). This requires good strategies and development programmes which will encourage teaching personnel in their sphere of operation.

New changes in the Far North have brought challenges to educators to improve their teaching strategies and other educational activities. For example, the introduction of the new curriculum 2005 and OBE are both encouraging teaching personnel to study further in line with the new approaches. These changes have affected the quality of teaching and learning through out the whole Limpopo Province. Hence, the need for staff development programmes as strategies to enhance the performance of teaching personnel in the Far North Senior Secondary Schools becomes critical.

3.2 THE CONCEPT OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

If senior secondary schools are to fulfil their missions, then teaching personnel within them must be given an opportunity to grow and develop. Staff need support and help in coping with the ever increasing demands of the community. The challenge is to provide ways and means to help professional teachers grow within their jobs and to assist them in dealing with the evolving trends such as new curricula, methodologies, knowledge and so on.

Bvuma (1994 : 14) supports the above idea, when he says:

"Change is a constant occurrence in contemporary society. Instant communication channels, produced by technological advances, place before student and educator changes in politics, economics, science and social status from every corner of the world".

The mandate of senior secondary schools in the Far North, of course, is to educate the children and young adults of South Africa in order to help them meet the challenges that tomorrow will bring because of these changes.

As an organisation, a senior secondary school needs well-qualified school managers and teaching personnel to fulfil this mandate. As the positions and job requirements within a new democratic South Africa become more complex, the importance of staff development programmes increases.

Thus, a staff development programme, carefully designed to meet the pressing needs of the current era, will represent the best approach in meeting the escalating challenges modern society places upon our schools. The role of staff development is to enable staff to increase their performance and effectiveness in their teaching- learning situation.

3.2.1 Definition of staff development

There are many definitions of staff development. Raubenheimer (1992 : 8) defines staff development as:

"... the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute towards an individual's being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role."

If teaching staff in the Far North are to provide effective teaching and learning, then they should be given a chance to grow and to develop both academically and professionally. Galloway (1993 : 13) supports this idea by defining staff development as:

"... a process designed to foster personal and professional growth for individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organisational climate."

This can only be achieved if staff development programmes are designed or planned to cater for groups and individuals who are working within the senior secondary school. Ntshingila-Khosa (1994 : 9) describes it as a programme of organised activities of both a group and an individual nature, planned and carried out to promote the personal and professional growth of the staff. Other activities such as improving teaching effectiveness of individual members of staff, team teaching and organisational effectiveness also form part of this process.

According to Mawila (1995 : 6) , staff development programmes cover a wide spectrum of content . They include among others:

"Philosophic aspects of education; the goals of a school; the aims and objectives of subject teaching; skills and processes in teaching; teaching strategies and media; educational diagnoses, analysis and evaluation."

While definitions vary, most authors agree that the ultimate goal of staff development should be improved instruction for learners. To realise this outcome, however, a concept such as INSET has to be analysed.

3.2.2 What is INSET ?

The teaching personnel of any Department of Education are its most important asset as indicated above. But they are at the same time also responsible for its largest expenditure. Teaching personnel should therefore be optimally utilised. In-service education and training of personnel after employment is, according to Ripinga (1993 : 7), an important and continuing personnel function. INSET ensures productivity, which ameliorates the quality of teaching and learning because educators are continually improving their teaching skills.

There are multiple definitions of INSET. This section will try to offer some of the definitions which are widely accepted. The significance of both differences and similarities will be discussed in this chapter.

Coombe defines INSET as:

"... organised and planned activities and opportunities to study which offer the already qualified teachers during their time of employment the opportunity to expand the academic and or professional course and know-how which pertain to the execution of their duties within the teaching profession or to function on a higher level".

(Coombe, 1994 : 10).

This idea is supported by Galloway (1993 : 21) who defines INSET as:

"... all those planned activities teachers undertake to improve their instructional effectiveness, personal and professional knowledge and skills to equip them for new or changed roles."

The above definition implies that INSET programmes must be planned so that change can be brought about. The problem of Galloway's definition is that it does not show us the ultimate goal of INSET.

Hofmeyr (1988 : 25) in her research report on inset in the Republic of South Africa identified the "lack of leadership at the school level" as a major problem in INSET. To support the above statement, Bolam (1982 : 21) asserts that:

"...research and development of INSET should be directed at principals and senior staff in order to determine how they could assist in the establishment of essential internal school procedures; the creation of a climate that supports problem-solving in the classroom and provision for staff development."

According to Schofield, INSET should prepare teachers and other educational personnel to be of the highest possible quality. However, at the end of the day, the education of the children should be regarded as an ultimate aim. He says:

"... to protect children from the ignorance of their teachers is to state the objective in its most negative terms. More positively, to provide teachers capable of stimulating the younger generation."

(Schofield, 1994 : 157).

Lastly, it is very difficult to come out with a single definition, which will embrace all aspects mentioned in the above definition. Most of the definitions talk about the improvement of knowledge, competence and professional skills of teachers, but they do not take other motivational factors and professional facets

into consideration. From the definitions mentioned above, staff development includes all professional development activities, which start on the day when duty is assumed and continues up to the day when duty is terminated. Staff development can therefore be seen as any effort which is made to influence knowledge, skills and maturity of an employee in such a way that his productivity will be enhanced. It would thus seem that staff development is an umbrella term for INSET.

3.3 THE NEED FOR *INSET* FOR TEACHERS

The above could only be understood if one can be able to analyse why INSET is needed in the teaching fraternity or profession. Since 1976, a revolution in education has been taking place in South Africa. Schools have been closed due to strikes, boycotts and intimidation. This "*de-schooling programme*" (Walters, 1991 : 73) has been common throughout Africa, and has exposed many faults in education. It also has generated new roles for teachers, principals and schools in South Africa. In order to fulfil this new role, teachers in the Far North INSET and other development programmes.

Historically, teachers have been recognised as agents of educational transformation and INSET is now deemed the best strategy to help educators to effect these changes. External pressure arising from new technologies and new social patterns has created the need for new strategies in education, in which the INSET personnel play an increasingly important part. All over the world there is a great mixture of differences and similarities in the provision of staff development programmes for teaching personnel. Through a study of these nature and cross-cultural exchange of ideas, example and research, it is to be hoped that qualitative improvement in INSET can be effected in the far North.

To show that INSET is an issue of concern, a conference of the International Council for Education for Teaching (ICET) was held in Bangkok in 1984. This conference was attended by six hundred educationists from sixty-two countries. The central theme of the conference was that there should be a

greater provision of INSET to help teachers to develop professionally, to adopt different strategies of teaching to help them to come to terms with the rapid changes taking place in the world, to keep them from becoming stagnant and un-dynamic and to enable them to meet the challenges of the technological age.

The above shows clearly that traditional knowledge, values and skills are constantly challenged. To support the above ideas, Chauke has this to say:

"First, it is inherently important that teachers of all people should continue with their personal and professional education. Second, the rapid, extensive and fundamental nature of present day change-technological, economical, cultural, social, political – makes it imperative for the education system in general and teachers in particular to review and modify teaching methods and curricula".

(Chauke, 1995: 10).

The task facing teaching personnel in the Far North is becoming increasingly complex and demanding. It is now accepted by many educational managers that qualifications alone do not make a teacher competent. At the same time an initial course of educational training is insufficient for a lifetime of professional service in a rapidly changing world. Other factors such as professionalism and commitment are as important as knowledge of the subject and strategies needed in the sphere of operation.

The White Paper issued by the British Government entitled Teaching Quality H.M.S.O., 1983, in Nyathi (1992 : 13), which was produced by the Department of Education and Science, confirms this need for teachers to have both a deep knowledge of the subject that they teach and also the professional skills needed to impart it to children of different abilities and ages. The above paper also emphasises the need for skills necessary for the performance of their functions outside the classroom as well as in the social life of the school

in relation to parents and the wider community. INSET and the professional development of teachers have a role to play in our education system.

In this regard, it is important to note that:

"Qualifications and training alone do not make a teacher ... all teachers need from time to time to avail themselves of in-service training"

(Mabunda, 1993: 4).

Development and growth are an integral part of human existence. The process of development and growth must be seen as an uninterrupted process, one to which human beings will be exposed for life. Walters (1991 : 69) states that:

"... development is a continuous improvement which occurs in advancement and procession."

The professional growth of educators must be seen as a continuous process in which the teaching staff's professional ability will change. There is improvement as a result of new ideas, new knowledge and changing circumstances. For the professional development of teachers it is also important that the needs of the school staff as a whole, as well as those of the individual teachers are identified at school level. Numerous strategies should be implemented to satisfy these needs.

In identifying training needs as an initial step to the school-based INSET planning process, Williams (1991 : 78) highlights the following salient conditions for effective INSET programmes:

- *"Identification by teachers of their training needs in relation to the objectives of the school, and to their own professional development.*

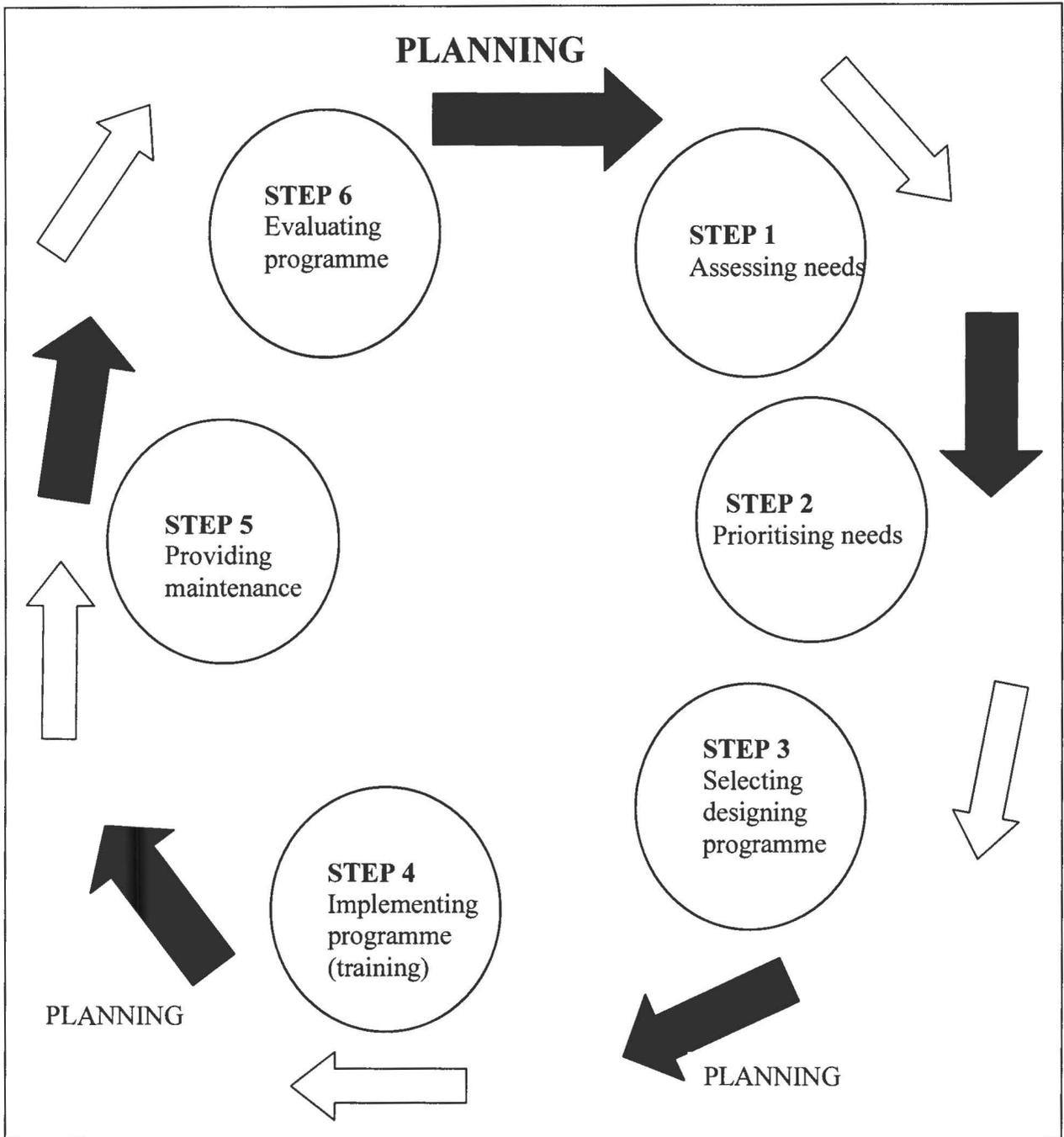
- *Support of governors, the head teacher, senior staff and local authority advisors and involvement of the whole staff.*
- *A coherent school policy.*
- *Precise targeting of provision.*
- *Choice of the appropriate form of INSET, whether individually to the teacher; school-based or externally based.*
- *Choice of appropriate length of course and mode of activity.*
- *Relevance to the teacher's needs and teaching practice.*
- *Appropriate expertise on the part of higher education institutions and other providers of insert.*
- *Appropriate preparatory and follow-up work in school."*

The needs of educators will differ from school to school. It is therefore, imperative that each secondary school should design its own staff development programme based specifically on its own identified needs.

The principal of each secondary school is responsible for ensuring that development programme is designed for his or her school and is accountable for its implementation. This process depends on how the principal organises his or her staff development plan. The steps illustrated in Figure 3.1 on page 41 show how the staff development process should be designed.

The diagram shows clearly that staff development does not just happen. The process takes place when the secondary school follows all the necessary steps in the staff development process. It needs thorough planning before it is implemented in an education system.

FIGURE 3.1: STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESS



Source: Nyathi (1992 : 6)

3.3.1 The aims of INSET

In paragraph 3.2.2 the researcher discussed the definition of INSET. In this section the researcher consider briefly the aims of INSET.

The aims of in-service training can be realised from the various definitions analysed in the preceding sections. It has been accepted by many scholars that there must be a correlation between the definition of INSET and its objectives.

The literature review undertaken emphasises the principle that each piece of research has its own particular focus. Research is generally designed to embrace particular needs and particular objectives.

Oldroyd *et al.*, (1984 : 74) list the following aims of school-focussed INSET:

- *“To provide continuous development of the professional knowledge, skills and commitment of staff.*
- *To clarify through documentation the staff’s awareness of the school’s philosophy, aims and objectives.*
- *To assist educators to implement these effectively and improve the education of learners through a range of activities, for example, workshops, discussions and buzz sessions.”*

The general aims of the above definitions correlate well with the aim of this study, namely, a description of the principal's role in development programmes for the teaching staff in the Far North. This does not mean that one is going to use them as they are, but only those, which are applicable to the Far North. The above will be discussed under the following sub-headings:

3.3.2 The integration of theoretical studies with experience

Most scholars agree that there is a wide gap between theory and practice both at initial and INSET levels. During pre-service education and training (PRESET) there is a tendency to regard college work and teaching practice as

separate activities of a course in training, and at the INSET level teachers are often left bewildered by the vast amount of reading, much of it indigestible, that is required of them. Bvuma (1994 : 2) concluded by saying that globally in teacher education and training, 60 – 80% of a teachers' preparation occurs in the academic disciplines, the remainder in professional experience.

Nyathi observes that teachers have difficulty in combining classroom experience with educational theory. He asks the question:

"How can this gap between theory and practice be bridged to construct their own cognitive maps to make theoretical sense of adverse classroom practice?"

(Nyathi , 1992 : 6)

The above statements emphasise the necessity of integrating experience and theoretical studies in INSET courses. One purpose of INSET therefore must be to answer the above question and providers must build material into INSET courses that is theoretically rigorous and yet practically applicable. There should be a balance between theoretical and practical studies, so as to develop the teacher both academically and professionally. This can be promoted through education courses.

3.3.3 Upward Mobility: Promotion

Most of the studies seem to indicate that upward mobility and promotion are important objectives of INSET. According to a United Nations survey (1991) carried out among the member countries of the Asian Programme for Educational Innovation and Development, it was discovered that:

"... the practice of linking in-service education with further formal qualifications proved popular with many teachers, particularly among those who were seeking upward mobility."

(Naidoo, 1995 : 4).

In South Africa, the pre-1994 government legislation on the basic accountable qualification has meant that teachers must take INSET courses to gain promotion from one grade to another together with the accompanying rise in status and salary, for example, the rise from category REQV 11 to REQV 13. The REQV 13 is deemed as the minimum professional qualification for all teachers to be placed on the permanent staff.

We have seen many teachers with primary teachers' qualifications improving their professional qualifications to M +3 through distance education. Those who have managed to gain further or higher qualifications have improved their salaries and status. Various INSET programmes at universities and other institutions, for example Vista, UNISA, Success etc, offer the highest professional qualifications.

From the above information, it is clear that most INSET courses are geared towards upward mobility within the teaching profession. The new system is looking for performances and qualification. The type of subject specialisation is taken into consideration.

3.3.4 Combating 'Burn-out'

For various reasons, there is an exodus of educators from their professional ranks. Nkuna (1999 : 10) suggests that the number one problem in South African schools at present is redeployment. Teachers are being transferred to schools which are far from their homes. This causes dissatisfaction among teaching personnel.

Another reason is teacher burnout. According to Mavuso, several studies show that teaching is listed as one of the most stressful occupations, well ahead of air-traffic controllers. He attributes teacher stress to the following factors:

- Low esteem and lack of appreciation by the public.
- Excessive paperwork, which limits pupil-teacher-parent interaction.
- Unreasonable loads, large classes and accompanying problems of discipline.
- Censorship of content, textbooks, and methods which threaten teachers intellectual integrity, creativity and freedom of the mind.
- Treatment of teachers as executors of somebody else's orders rather than professionals capable of making educational decisions.

(Mavuso, 1993 : 8).

The above information shows clearly that most of the problems confronting educators are caused by external factors. These include, among others, lack of discipline, political violence, distrust by parents, state laws and being under-qualified .

The need for reform has become urgent because among Black under qualified teachers, the burnout syndrome has reached epidemic proportions. Nkuna puts this problem in perspective:

"If a new spirit and approach are to be achieved in education, urgent and immediate attention should be given to the position of the teacher, his academic background, his professional training, his further development during his teaching career, the conditions under which he works, the salary he is paid and the status he has in the society which he serves."

(Nkuna 1999 : 12)

Mabunda notes the frustration of the teachers after the riots and subsequent turbulence that began in the mid-seventies in South Africa:

"... In some parts of the country significant numbers of African teachers resigned, saying that after a generation of fruitless requests for the improvement of (Bantu) education they can no longer support the system."

(Mabunda, 1993 : 4)

He is strongly supported by Bvuma (1994 : 3) who believes that many Black teachers leave the system not just because education is based on ethnic and cultural segregation and an unfair distribution of resources, but because of the "burn-out" caused by the dreadful conditions in which teachers have to work. These include very large classes, poor attitudes of parents and pupils, poor discipline and poor facilities, all of which lead to stress, fatigue and frustration. He highlights the frustration of the teachers as a cause of the high dropout rate from the profession. There are many thousands of Black teachers now in commerce and industry because of the intolerable conditions in the classrooms, discrimination in salaries and conditions of service.

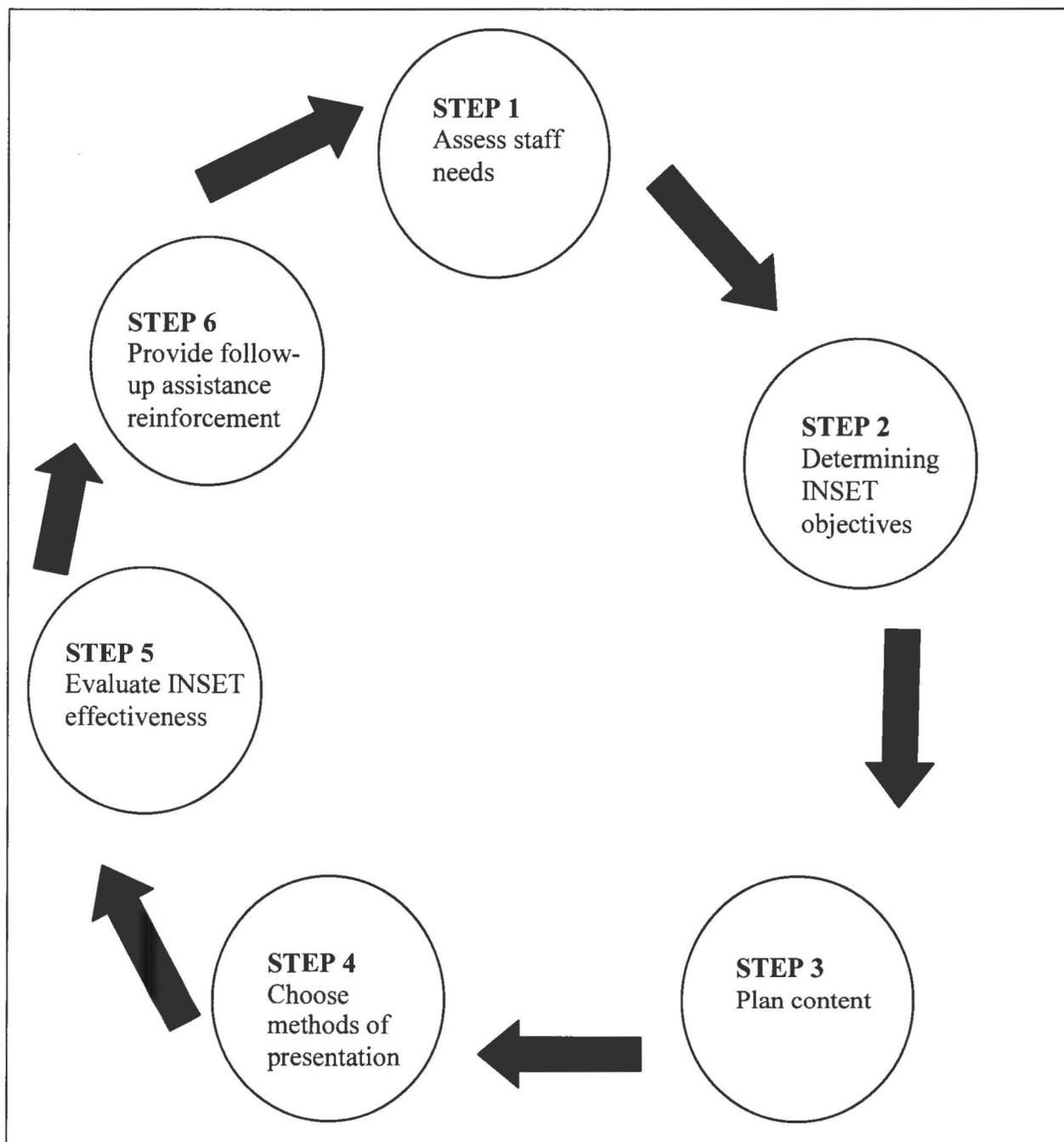
Most of the problems mentioned by the above educationists, are still causing problems in some of the secondary schools in the Far North. The previous regime left many problems, which could not be solved overnight. Good INSET programmes have to be put in place so as to support the teachers and create a renewal and rebirth rather than burnout, frustration, lack of interest and eventual dropout.

3.4 THE PROCESS OF PLANNING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The process of planning INSET consists of the following steps: identifying the needs, deciding on the priorities, devising a strategy for the implementation, carrying out the programme, evaluation and follow-up. The first three steps

form the organising part of INSET. This process can be represented diagrammatically, as shown in figure 3.2 below.

FIGURE 3.2: A MODEL OF THE PROCESS OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS



Source: Nkuna (1999 : 11)

3.4.1 Needs Assessment

An assessment of the needs of participants should form the basis of the INSET programme. This process should begin with a co-ordinating committee and should include activities designed to identify the needs of participants of their students and of the administrators. Co-ordination should ensure that INSET is well designed and executed to meet the participants' needs. Proper facilities, relevant curricula, financial resources and well-qualified staff are required to plan, co-ordinate and conduct INSET courses.

3.4.2 Formulation of objectives

Needs assessment data can be used to formulate programme objectives that deserve the best efforts of students and of school personnel. Objectives formulated must stand a reasonable chance of being achieved. In each of the areas dealt with in the INSET programme, related objectives should be formulated to encapsulate beliefs, abilities and practices of teachers, student behaviour and student learning. Objectives which are well formulated will facilitate the evaluation of the programme.

3.4.3 Planning the content

In planning the actual content to present in INSET, the committees or coordinators should select instructional strategies that will be viewed as relevant and potentially effective in the classrooms of those teachers being served, easily learned by teachers and easily blended into regular teaching practices in the classrooms. The content will stem from the needs of teachers and the needs of schools. Extreme care should be taken to plan relevant content.

3.4.4 Selecting presentation methods and Presenters

Demonstrations and strategies, followed by opportunities to practice them will help participants to see the strategies as relevant and potentially effective and

thus increase participants' confidence and conviction that they can use the strategies effectively. INSET coordinators or committees may select experienced teachers, consultants or university personnel as INSET staff, matching individual expertise to the content and strategies to be taught in INSET sessions (Mabuza, 1998 : 9).

3.4.5 Evaluation of in-service effectiveness

Evaluation serves to monitor and document the development of both teachers and students in knowledge and skills, thus providing important motivation INSET participants. INSET coordinators or committees may also use evaluation to provide on-going needs assessment, clarifying teachers' and students' needs throughout the INSET process.

According to Ho (1990 : 180), in the state of Georgia in the United States, assessment of teaching competencies is necessary for teachers to receive continuing certification. In such a system, teachers know what is expected of them and are included in the evaluation process.

The basic components of INSET, which can be evaluated, include the following:

- The design and delivery of curriculum.
- The governance of the programme.
- The resource available for the programme.
- The recruitment, retention and completion of participants.
- The evaluation of the programme.

The effectiveness of the programme can only be measured against the goals of the programme, the outcome, content and both external and internal expectations of the programme (Ho, 1990: 180).

3.4.6 Providing follow-up assistance

Follow-up assistance, a facet often omitted from INSET models, is a critical aspect. Since objectives in the areas of teaching practice and student learning are rarely met while workshops series are in progress, INSET coordinators or committees should use follow-up assistance to provide the assurance that these objectives will indeed be met. Long after workshops have ended, follow-up assistance ensures that they have continuing impact (Bvuma, 1994: 5).

In summary, it is worth saying that the curriculum of any programme is one of the foremost factors to be considered. Method and other organisational aspects are to be designed to achieve its objectives. The subject matter to be presented during INSET courses occupies an important place and should be derived from the needs of teachers and schools. The curriculum needs to be widened and programmes should cover many aspects of the school curriculum in order to be relevant.

3.5 MODELS AND STRATEGIES FOR PROVIDING INSET FOR EDUCATORS

This section will be devoted to discussing the models and strategies used for providing INSET for educators.

A number of publications on INSET indicate that there is a wide range of INSET activities which teachers may go through. In this study, the researcher is going to discuss only those which are relevant to the area of the research inquiry.

3.5.1 Conceptual Models for the INSET of teachers

Conceptual models relate to theoretical models. Below are some theoretical models which can be used for INSET delivery.

3.5.1.1 *The teacher as an adult learner*

Ripinga, (1993 : 2) defines adult education as

"... the education of men and women who have assumed mature responsibilities as family or group members and social beings who are learning purposefully to achieve their individual or social goals."

Learning is an individual phenomenon: only the individual learns. Essentially, learners are self-motivated, but it is appropriate for them to be guided in their endeavours and to be open to suggestions. •

In-service training is based on the principles of adult training. Successful in-service training programmes, where critical analytical thinking skills and an attitude of life long learning are developed, incorporate the characteristics and abilities of the adult learner.

Nyathi (1992 : 9) comes up with a personnel development programme that is designed to satisfy the adult teacher's learning needs. Some of these learning principles can be applied to adult teacher learners in staff development in general. The following are some of the principles:

- Personnel development is most effective if positive motivation is maintained.
- Continuous development is more effective than infrequent activities.
- Effective development is based on the systems approach.

Simkins (1994 : 16) states that adult education is:

"... any process by which men and women, either alone or in groups, try to improve themselves by increasing their knowledge, skills or attitudes or the process by which individuals or agencies try to improve men and women in these ways."



Teachers as adult learners can learn from each other only if the information and knowledge are made available in forms they can understand and adapted to their particular situation. An important aspect of accessibility is the learner's ability to use the resources after they have been selected and made available.

3.5.1.1.1 *Characteristics of adult learners*

Although there are similarities between the way children and adult learners master new skills, there are certain aspects of adult learning that planners of INSET should take note of. Ripinga (1993) argues that:

"Adult learning is a complex phenomenon. While it shares commonalties with childhood learning, there are at the same time substantial differences that necessitate approaching adult students differently from school children."

(Ripinga, 1993 : 12)

The characteristics of teachers as adult learners will be discussed according to Knowles's model of adult learning.

3.5.1.1.2 *Self concept*

While growing and developing, a teacher becomes increasingly more independent and self-determined. A situation where independence and self-directedness are not nurtured, often results in frustration. In-service training should therefore be based on an interactive approach towards teaching and learning. It means that teachers should actively be involved in the planning, implementation and evaluation of in-service training.

It sometimes happens that teachers are unsure of their abilities and increasingly become dependent on the facilitator. Nyathi (1992 : 10) reckons that it could be the result of years of being exposed to a passive teaching and learning climate. The adult sees herself or himself as responsible for

maintaining his or her level of knowledge and competence. The teacher will then participate willingly in in-service training activities.

3.5.1.1.3 *Accumulated experience*

The professional teacher has developed a variety of teaching skills and personal experiences have direct implications for in-service training. The expertise and experience of adult learners can be utilised as a source of knowledge and skills could be based on previous experience and thus familiarise the participant or learner with the content. By acknowledging their expertise and experience, the self-concept and self-image of the adult learners could be increased and in this way their motivation to participate in in-service training increased. Experiential-learning based strategies such as discussion, debates, reflection and group work, could be used instead of the traditional culture method as the only option.

3.5.1.1.4 *Readiness to learn*

The more the teachers develop toward personal and professional maturity, the more they want to improve their potential and their social roles. They learn best when they experience a problem in their sphere of operation. The content of INSET should focus on solving these problems. In adults, the motivation to learn is therefore more intrinsically than extrinsically focused and based more on what they want to learn than on what other people want them to learn.

3.5.1.1.5 *Orientation towards teaching and learning*

Adults focus on the here and now strategy. This orientation towards learning and teaching requires a problem and the planning and implementation of in-service training or staff development programmes. Indicating the relevance and practical value of the content will contribute to successful teaching and learning.

3.5.1.1.6 *Motivation to learn*

Motivation is one of the best teaching strategies to successful learning. From the above information it is clear that when the teachers see the practical and personal value of the content, they will participate and learn without being instructed to do so.

Lastly, INSET in the secondary schools has to do with adult learners that are matured teachers who want to be part of the teaching learning process. Their previous experience should be acknowledged and utilised. Problem solving and critical thinking skills are more important than memorising new content. Adult learners should be regarded as the centre of the teaching-learning activities and therefore the contribution they make to the value of a learning activity may be more relevant than that of their facilitators.

3.5.2 **Course-based INSET of teachers**

This has been the most prevalent model used for in-service training provision in developed and developing countries. It is based on the notion of taking teachers out of their schools and instructing them at an in-service centre. Recently, there has been a realisation that the course-based model could do some things well, but in many areas has failed to achieve its objective.

Heterogeneous groups have different needs and different expectations. Course-based in-service training is not always effective because there might be resistance against the head of the centre or course leader, and this might hamper the process of learning (Dimmock,1993 : 5).

3.5.3 **School-based INSET of teachers**

One corollary of the autonomous school working out its own organisation and curriculum is the need for every school to determine its in-service needs. Only thus can a school's planning be sure of translation into action. Currently in-service provision of teachers is only loosely matched to the needs of the varied

needs of schools. Keen teachers in some countries have deepened their knowledge and extended their skills by judicious use of subject advisers, inspectors of education, university staff, college staff, experienced teachers inside and outside their school and other external advisers and consultants.

The school's definition of their own necessary in-service needs and the laying on of suitable support and development of such needs at school level has been dubbed school-based in-service education.

During the 70s the potential benefit of school-based in-service training was realised. School based in-service training refers to activities taking place physically within a school in which the team consists of staff colleagues, and the problems tackled are those arising in the school (Mawila, 1995 : 11). This approach was advocated as a remedy for the deficiencies of traditional in-service training courses. It was argued and demonstrated that a school could identify and tackle its problems in a relevant and professional manner.

3.5.3.1 *The nature of school-based INSET*

In-service education should begin in the schools. It is here that learning and teaching take place, curricula and techniques are developed and needs and deficiencies revealed. Every school should regard the continued training of its teachers as an essential part of its task, for which all members of staff share responsibility.

According to Ibe (1990 : 5), school-based INSET programmes are initiated by the school principal, the teachers, the support staff and sometimes the community. Such programmes evolve through participatory and co-operative planning among school personnel.

An active secondary school is constantly reviewing and reassessing its effectiveness and is ready to consider new methods, new forms of organisation and new ways of dealing with the problems that arise. It will set aside time to explore these questions, as far as it can within its own resources, by arranging

for discussion, seminars with visiting tutors and visits to other institutions. It will also give time and attention to the introduction of new members of staff, not only those in their first year of teaching but all those who are new to the school.

This model was developed to make the process of needs analysis easier, so that training could be more closely linked to needs and so that barriers of implementation would disappear. However, the model has the inherent dangers of limited application. It can lead to little benefit unless there are good trainers. Most of the runners of courses do not have the experience and expertise.

According to Coombe (1994 : 15), school-based INSET is based on three major premises:

- Teachers should be involved in the identification and articulation of their own training needs.
- Growth experience should be individualised.
- The single school is the largest and most appropriate unit for educational change.

The school principal performs a vital leadership role in ensuring that an environment exists where the teacher and teacher educators feel comfortable sharing their concerns. Educational leaders in the school must value INSET for teachers. They also need to be provided with the assistance to develop the skills needed to create a climate in their schools where communication is valued and encouraged (Ho, 1990 : 172).

Key factors in the success of a school-based staff programme are: the clarity of objectives; the nature of inputs, the process of implementation; and follow-up and evaluation activities.

3.5.3.2. *How to implement school-based INSET*

3.5.3.2.1 *Identification needs and aims*

No satisfactory definition of needs or aims can be arrived at without adequate discussions, consultations and negotiations, all of which will need to go on beyond the start of the programme. A useful starting point for discussion is provided by the following suggested broad aims of INSET: To enable teachers to monitor and shape their professional development. It should enable teachers:

- ❖ To develop their professional competence, confidence and relevant knowledge.
- ❖ To evaluate their own work and attitudes in conjunction with their professional colleagues in their parts of the education service.
- ❖ To develop criteria which would help them to assess their own roles in relation to a changed society for which the schools must equip their pupils.
- ❖ To advance their careers.

3.5.3.2.2 *Identifying priorities*

The planning stage proper begins with the identification of priorities. The precise factors which determine these will vary, but essentially will result from a consideration of the INSET needs generated by policy priorities and resources that are available. Some priorities will generate short-term activities such as a school-based induction course to deal with an unusually large influx of probationers (Schofield, 1993(b) : 7).

Others will lead to a long-term scheme, such as all head teachers attending a special INSET course to equip them with new management techniques and methods. Continuing, but limited, priority might also be given to trying to ensure that at least one suitably qualified teacher is seconded each year for a higher degree course at the university. As far as possible, a balance should be struck between meeting the needs of individual teachers and their

expectations. Equally, a balance has to be struck between activities taking place in school time and in the staff's own time.

3.5.3.2.3 *Establish a professional tutor role or start a professional development team and committee*

One major possibility is to establish a professional tutor role. The idea of a school-based professional tutor is prominent in some overseas countries. The professional tutor co-ordinates in-service work affecting the school and is a link between the school and other agencies engaged in that work. Among the responsibilities of a professional tutor would be that of compiling and maintaining a training programme for the staff of the school, which would take into account both the curriculum needs of the school and the professional needs of the teachers.

Naturally, the allocation of responsibilities would differ from school to school, but one pattern that seems to work is that the principal delegates overall responsibility for professional development to a deputy principal, who concentrates on the staff development aspect and is assisted by a younger colleague who concentrates on student teachers and induction. In this way, the job of co-ordination and that of giving individual advice can work reasonably efficiently. The deputy principal should have the status and professional credibility to advise experienced colleagues and the authority to make needed modifications in a probationer's time-table or room allocation. The assistant tutor should be young enough to establish rapport with new teachers and be close enough to their problems to provide both sympathy and practical help.

A team of this kind would also be responsible for planning the various programmes and activities of school-based INSET, but their executive role can be strengthened considerably if they can seek advice from and collaborate with some kind of professional development planning committee. For example, in a school the deputy principal could chair this committee and the assistant tutor acts as a secretary. The members are broadly representative of the staff. The school's subject adviser and university representatives could also

attend. The INSET programme is thus planned in direct consultation with three of the key providing agencies, while the subject adviser can also offer immediate information about the likely availability of resources from the Department of Education.

3.5.3.2.4 *Identifying Resources, Agencies and Methods*

Both the school manager and a professional tutor should have as close knowledge as possible of the INSET resources available within the area. Some of the main ones are schools, teachers' centres, technikons, universities, professional associations, radio, television, the internet and finally, the Department of Education and its subject advisers or developers.

Theoretical advantages of school-based staff development identified by Ibe (1990 : 70) are as follows: It does not take teachers away from their schools and their regular responsibilities. The training is concrete, more meaningful and more relevant because it is directly applicable to the school. If training needs have been validly assessed and made, the basis for the staff development programme, efficiency and effectiveness are better assured. Moreover, immediate and continuous feedback is possible to prevent programme failure.

The school-based INSET approach changes the whole direction of INSET for teachers. It shifts the emphasis from what others think teachers need to what they define for themselves; from entirely individual provision to substantially team provision; from separate offerings to INSET work integrated into the developing evaluation; planning and professional growth of the school. These are radical changes.

3.5.4 School-focused INSET of teachers

School focused INSET of teachers takes place either on or off the job and can be provided either by outside agencies such as university lectures, subject advisors or by the school itself in a staff conference. It incorporates all the

strategies employed by trainers and teachers in partnership with direct training programmes in such a way as to meet the identified needs of a school, and to raise the standards of teaching and learning in the classroom (Hofmeyr, 1994 : 6). It is thus a synergy of the course-based and the school-based models, but focusing the direction of INSET towards the immediate and specific needs of the school and its teachers.

The importance of the above definition of school focused INSET is the notion of INSET which is tailor-made to meet the needs of an individual school and the notion of teachers and trainers working in partnership to serve those needs. School-focused INSET meets the needs of the school as an organisation. These needs include the needs of every member of staff as an individual.

School-focused INSET caters for teachers as individuals and staff members collectively by identifying curriculum problems, planning and implementing solutions for the school as a whole. The staff as a whole must critically review ideas collected, in order to prioritise them. In this way, co-operative curriculum development will be taking place (Ho, 1990 : 70).

The school-focused approach recognises that planning and carrying out of a school's in-service training programme is a matter of joint responsibility, between the principal, the staff and external agencies. Outside expertise must be integrated with that of teachers, as must national, and regional responsibility for the education service with that of a school for its own pupils, with the goal of effective curriculum change.

3.5.5 Teacher Centres

Pather (1984 : 11) defines a teachers' center as:

"...a supportive organisation which is geared to respond to the needs of teachers as identified both by themselves and by their supervisors and educational institutions in order to contribute to the professional development as a continuous process."

Teachers' Centres act as existing brokers for new ideas and as networks of personnel and are the most sought-after resources by teachers. They optimise INSET because their programmes are teacher initiated and innovative and they are perceived as non-institutional by teachers.

The Centres provide continuing education, curriculum change and development, as well as teacher development. Courses provided can operate at local, district, regional or national levels. Other experts from universities and distance education providers (McBride,1992 : 3) may be drawn in to give advice.

At their best, Teachers' Centres are seen by teachers as providing for teachers' needs. These are principally relevant to the classroom and geared to the local school situation.

The Centres co-operate with all levels of educational services, including the Department of Education, schools and teachers unions or organisations. At the same time, Centres provide meeting areas, up-to-date resources and equipment for media, printing and publication services as a support for teachers.

A survey of Teachers' Centres in New Zealand concluded that INSET of teachers is more effective when teachers play an active role, choose their own goals and activities, and are self-initiated and self-directed. An average Centre in New Zealand serves about 6 000 teachers. These include teachers involved in early childhood to secondary school phases. Neville (1990 : 372) concludes that INSET should be given at the right time, in the right place and engaged with the right people. Teachers' Centres provide such an informal and collegial environment, which makes it possible for them to offer effective INSET for teachers.

Bell and Peightel (1976 : 18-26) present the following taxonomy of teachers' centers:

- the consortium teachers' centre which includes three or more institutions that join resources to accomplish desired goals.
- the partnership teachers' centre which is a co-operative effort between two institutions, out of such a partnership might come a consortium, if another institution were involved.
- the autonomous teachers' centre where teachers make major discussions about its function and management; the main function of these teachers' centres is to review existing curricula and teaching practices and to exhort teachers to effect changes.
- special focus teachers' centres are those centres which tend to concentrate on one particular education concept such as early childhood education, dropout prevention, open education and so forth.

In short, the role of a Teachers' Centre is to provide support, resources INSET and professional development for teachers. They, undoubtedly, have a strong commitment to community needs.

3.5.6 Working models for INSET: strategies for change

Change in education, particularly curriculum change, invariably implies change in INSET strategies. Although the barriers to success in implementing change are complex, one of the main problems often lies in the inadequacy of INSET plans (Bvuma, 1994 : 11).

A major research undertaken in the United States of America (USA) in 1986 by the National Institute of Education through more light on an INSET model designed to cope with change in schools (Pather, 1995 : 93).

For example, an analysis of efforts directed towards planned educational changes in the United States of America has detected the following problems:

- Educators failed to diagnose the problem properly. This has to do with innovations that are inappropriate for the problems they are designed to solve.
- .Failure to anticipate or resolve implementation problems.
- An *ad hoc* approach to educational innovations.
- Absence of monitoring and feedback mechanisms.
- Lack of teacher and community involvement.
- Inadequate planning.
- Absence of leadership.

A Change Facilitator was instrumental in initiating innovations at schools and for insuring effective interaction between the school and the resource systems through the processes: probing, intervention, innovation, configuration, stages of concern and levels of use (Pather, 1995 : 94)

The Change facilitator undertakes a situational analysis of the school during the probing stage. Staff profiles, teaching strengths and weaknesses and test results are reviewed. Based on this needs analysis, an appropriate and carefully designed intervention takes place. The INSET is introduced after consultation with the staff members. An instrument called innovation configuration, comprising several checklists is used to identify and to describe the various operational patterns of innovations that are introduced in the classroom (Moodley, 2001 : 181)

In addition, it is also important for a facilitator to consider factors such as community, parental involvement, school climate, school policy, background of educators, learners' abilities and other issues related to situation analysis in Education.

According to Mabunda (1993 : 4) the generalised working models which may be employed in the secondary schools, include the following:

3.5.6.1 *The top-down approach*

This model adopts the notion of a response to change being almost entirely a set of managerial strategies for introducing and implementing innovations in structured organizations. Such INSET plans concentrate first at the senior officers, principals and then those with managerial responsibilities in the school before tackling the needs of the teachers.

3.5.6.2 *The cascade or multiplier strategy*

This model adopts a process whereby a group of individuals receive training and then become trainers themselves. This model is commonly used in developing countries, i.e., to deal with large numbers of teachers and limited resources. It should be noted, however, that the chosen people might not necessarily be good trainers.

3.5.6.3 *An integrated PRESET and INSET approach*

This approach is referred to as initial training and in-service educational and training (IT-INSET) in the United Kingdom. This approach involves training institution tutors, each with one or two groups of up to six students, working co-operatively with teachers in their classroom at intervals throughout the greater part of initial training courses. It gives initial training students enhanced classroom experience in a supportive context and enables teachers to participate in a mode of in-service training which focuses directly on curriculum issues in their own classroom (Naidoo, 1995 : 18).

3.5.6.4 *A teacher up-grading system*

Up-grading in this context is intended to represent a situation in which teachers receive such training that they become qualified. An example of this would be the Higher Diploma in Education, which the Ramano INSET implemented (1986 - 1990) in co-operation with the University of Venda in the Far North (Mawila, 1995 : 2). Secondary Teachers' Certificate (S.T.C.),

Secondary Education Diploma (S.E.D.) and Higher Education Diploma (H.E.D.) offered by Vista University Further Campus. Other courses such as Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) in Educational Management, Curriculum Studies, Remedial, Guidance and Special Educations are offered by former white universities in South Africa.

Up-grading also includes the case where untrained teachers become trained. This system requires a very substantial commitment to INSET and is often costly, but it has the merit of having in-built teacher motivation because it usually involves a salary increase (Gounden, 1991 : 24).

3.5.6.5 *Individual school development approach*

This is a corporate activity engaged in by the whole staff of a school using staff conferences, study groups and visits for the facilitation of curriculum development in the school. In such an approach the school, as part of its plan, attempts to develop the full capacity of its staff along agreed-upon lines. Such development involves a wide range of INSET opportunities based in and out of the school (Mabunda, 1993 : 6).

3.5.6.6 *Centralised Provision Model*

In this model, the bulk of INSET is provided in one or more institutions. These either concentrate entirely on INSET work or offer this alongside PRESET.

3.5.6.7 *Distance Teaching Approach*

This approach is particularly appropriate for part-time instruction of people who are very widely dispersed. It relies heavily on well-prepared teaching materials, and generally needs responses by correspondence.

Johnston (1971 : 73) revealed that many educators in many countries spent their working days in relatively remote areas and therefore for them distance education courses had proved to be a useful lifeline. In addition this approach

was especially important in developing countries with respect to pedagogical training leading to professional qualifications (UNESCO, 1970 : 43).

The Education Renewal Strategy Discussion Document recommended that the South African Council for Education should advise the Government on the use of distance education to promote INSET as well as PRESET (DNE, 1991 : 31).

The University of South Africa (UNISA), Vista University, University of Stellenbosch, Technikon South Africa and some other institutions use examples of this approach. Occasional individual contact is arranged and often includes opportunities for guidance and counselling.

3.5.6.8 *Advisory Teacher Model*

This model uses specially appointed subject advisory teachers who travel around schools, assessing teachers individually or in groups. To be effective, they need to be well experienced in teaching and teacher guidance and dedicated to their work (Mawila, 1994 : 9).

Finally, one may ask, which model is suitable? The best model will be made up of a combination of elements from all the above models. Such a model must be capable of improving the quality of teaching and learning in the secondary schools.

3.5.7 Professional Development and Social Change

Bagwandeem (1991 : 15) expresses the view that:

“...teachers are under obligation not only to the ethics of their craft and their personal convictions but also to the expectations of their clients and the general good of the social order”.

There are a variety of factors which act as catalysts towards professional development and social change. Amongst these factors is the novel progress in the world, advances in schools, and the recognition that individuals develop uniquely. These factors, among others, are discussed below.

- Recent social transformation in the world has placed new external pressures on teachers to improve their practice. Research and development have led to new practices in industry, not only in the form of new products and marketing but also in new procedures of management. The public sector also depends heavily on basic and applied research by amassing systematic surveys of public opinion and customs, by analysing the consequences of governmental actions and by investing economically in many studies and experimental programmes. No matter what the area of belief, value, behaviour, or tradition, the knowledge – gatherers and researchers of the present often challenge accustomed ways of thinking and behaving with new information (Mawila, 1995 : 8).

The result is that the modern citizen (the teacher included) can take less for granted and must maintain fewer unquestioned and unquestionable assumptions and patterns of behaviour. Thus, the rapid technological and knowledge advances of our modern world have brought new demands on teachers to make the traditional value of staff development a new and challenging reality.

- Secondary schools in the Far North, as organisations, have not been exempted from the effects of this knowledge explosion. Indeed, these changing times also call for less unquestioned tradition and more creative ways of running the school. Between the primary and most immediate social pressures on secondary schools which prod them to change both at the individual level as well as the organisational level are:

- ❖ The recognition and understanding that individuals learn in different ways and at different rates: The researcher refers to this as the social demand for increased flexibility in teaching in secondary schools. This is in line with the new outcome-based education (OBE) approach.
- ❖ The developing view that some required school subjects have little relevance and meaning to the world those students will face after graduation. The researcher thinks of this as the challenge of relevance in education. It is linked at this time to interests in improved career and vocational education.
- ❖ The increasing demands that teachers and secondary schools be evaluated. Financing could then be determined on their performance and increased interest in cost benefit accounting, programmed-planning-budgeting systems and writing behavioural objectives which would highlight this pressure. The researcher refers to this as the social demand for increased accountability in schooling.
- ❖ The recognition that television, movies, audiotapes and written programmes of instruction can be effective substitutes for the teacher has introduced the social demand for more uses of educational technology.
- ❖ The broad interest by experts to change and reorganise the traditional disciplines of knowledge and to make major renovations to combine several different fields can be viewed as a social demand for more interdisciplinary curricula and departures from traditional curricula.
- ❖ And finally, the criticisms from many citizens that secondary schools are too cold and impersonal and that learners are not treated with respect and empathy represent a widespread interest in humanising relationships within the school.

Taylor (1980 : 380) argues that professional development is not just a matter of arranging courses and conferences, designing school-focused and school-based activities or making induction work for the teachers, but the recognition that their primary responsibility for professional growth is to themselves.

Aside from the PRESET preparation of future teachers within universities, staff development in school and outside the school in various forms stands out today as an intervention strategy that offers the greatest hope for helping teachers to cope with the social demands aforementioned.

Until recently we have tended to think of professional development mainly in terms of preparing teachers for promotion. We have perhaps not given sufficient thought to helping teachers to become better at the jobs they are now doing and in this way to meet the overall needs of the secondary school. Some elements of both these considerations are needed. Teachers may gain from their attempts to improve the skills they need to further their careers.

3.5.7.1 Objectives of Professional Development

The word ‘ professional’ is associated with one's profession or calling. Some one belonging to one of the learned or skilled professions was considered socially superior to a person who practised a trade or handicraft. Clark (1995 : 6) is of the opinion that a professional person performs work based on the stabilised facts, principles or methods gained through academic study or through extensive practical experience.

“The review of literature reveals that in-service education and training, professional development, staff development and teacher development are often used interchangeably for all the activities that contribute to the continuing education programme of professional personnel in the field of education.”

(Pather, 1984 : 19)

As indicated above, the line of argument most frequently advanced for the adoption of professional development is as follows:

3.5.7.2 Objectives of Professional Development in Individual Terms

- To help teachers to do their jobs more effectively.
- To enable them to keep up-to-date.
- To broaden experience.
- To prepare for different and increased responsibilities.
- To increase job satisfaction.
- To identify and prepare those ready for advancement;

(Mabuza, 1998 : 7)

3.5.7.3 Objectives of Professional Development in Organisational Terms

- To increase the "*secondary school's*" capacity to predict and cope with changing circumstances in terms of pedagogic, organisational and subject development.
- To provide a vehicle for planning effective management succession in the school.

3.5.7.4 The Strategy of Professional Development

There is a fundamental decision to be made about the kind of approach to professional development that should be adopted. Basically there are two kinds of approaches:

- The peripheral approach which views professional development programmes as important but nevertheless only a fringe activity compared with the organisation's main business.
- The integral approach which views professional development programmes as an essential component which enables the organisation to pursue its business.

The peripheral approach is characterized by *ad hoc* provisions for individuals or to meet particular circumstances. Hand-to-mouth attendance at courses, conferences, and seminars (however good these may be) often passes under the guise of staff training and professional development (Mavuso, 1993 : 5). On the other hand, the integral approach is characterised by developing co-ordination policies, practices and procedures that aim to recruit, train and maintain staff in a way that satisfies both the needs of the individual and the needs of the organisation.

The peripheral approach (which is much easier to administer) tends to be either individual-needs orientated or job-needs orientated. The systematic integral approach on the other hand endeavours constantly to maintain a balance that is monitored and regulated through feedback.

It will be apparent from the above that the tenor of these proposals leans heavily towards the integral approach.

3.5.7.5 Professional Development Opportunities

A wide variety of training opportunities must be available if an appropriate choice is to be made for every member of staff at each stage of his career. Although each opportunity will undoubtedly have a specific aim they must be seen collectively as a spectrum for which careful and appropriate selection can be made. Moreover, although one approach may be right for one member of staff a different method may be required for another member to achieve the same purpose. Bagwandeem, (1991 : 16) asserts that:

“The layman attributes status to the member of any profession in some respects proportionately to the diversions between his personal, formal qualifications and the prolonged preparation of those aspiring to be regarded as practitioners.”

There are various types of opportunities available for the improvement of the teaching personnel's professional growth, efficiency and effectiveness. The

purpose for staff development is to improve the teacher's work, to orientate staff towards changing tasks, to improve efficiency and effectiveness, to promote job satisfaction and professional development.

3.5.7.6 *Methods of Professional Development*

Methods of professional development will include some or all of the following nine activities:

❖ *Induction training*

Induction is a programme designed to orientate the new teachers, new heads of departments, new deputy and principals and teachers on transfer to a new job situation.

Beginner teachers are not fully equipped at the teacher training institutions to be launched into professional careers without further advice, guidance and support. Mavuso (1993: 12) states that orientation of beginner teachers remains the educational task of the principal and senior members of the staff. According to the Annual Report of the Department of Education of 1989 no induction programmes have been designed to orientate the beginner teachers into the teaching practice in schools. This makes teachers in the secondary schools fail to adjust and integrate well in the teaching profession. The training of teachers should be a continuous process where teachers are exposed to INSET and professional development throughout their careers. Discussion on INSET and other opportunities follow in the succeeding paragraphs.

❖ *INSET*

The term INSET is used in different ways in different countries. In the Center for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) project, INSET was defined as:

“...those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals following their initial professional certification, and intended mainly and exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively.”

(Bolam, 1982 (e) : 18)

The above statement has been supported by Mawila (1995 : 7) when he says teachers have professional needs throughout their teaching career. They have included needs as a result of changes in position due to promotion or change of subjects, refreshment needs felt during the period towards the end of a career or prior to teaching of a subject not taught and conversion needs during the period of redeployment or anticipated promotion and that of retirement.

The INSET programmes are usually directed towards bringing teaching personnel up-to-date about new teaching techniques, new teaching media and new institutional policy decisions.

According to Ripinga (1993 : 12) INSET is that form of education which:

- is given to people when they are employed;
- is planned deliberately;
- is designed to fill in gaps in learning or remedy deficiencies in the skills and knowledge of employees;
- aims at more efficient functioning of the employee;
- aims at making the organisation function better;
- follows on a period of PRESET;
- is only a part of continuing education.

INSET is the main source of staff training development that presently exists. It usually implies attendance at courses mounted by agents external to the secondary school. Thus, the off-the-job training situation automatically entails

the problem of transferring the knowledge or skills gained to the on-the-job situation.

❖ *Team-teaching*

There is a great deal of overlap in syllabi. Areas of overlap may be identified by staff and groups of pupils can be combined, even possibly across levels. For example, grade 11 and 12 chemistry classes may be combined and a team of teachers can present the material in collaboration with one another.

❖ *Group seminars*

During group seminars teaching staff form a panel and deal with universal educational problems or topics that concern the syllabi. In this instance outside expertise may be of great value. The principal should arrange that new staff be exposed to the experience of others as soon and as frequently as possible.

❖ *The workshop approach*

This is a particularly fruitful area for interchange of ideas and collaboration. If teaching personnel collaborate in a workshop approach to planning, preparing, presentation and evaluation of lessons taught to pupils, a great deal of professional development can be accomplished.

❖ *Language across the curriculum*

One of the major challenges facing the successful education of Black teachers in the Far North is the fact that formal education is carried out through the medium of English as a second language. Many of the pupils are not proficient in the second language and find it difficult to progress as they really should. The teaching of the language across the curriculum at least improves the pupils' knowledge of the subject terminology applicable to their particular

field of study and helps a great deal to counteract the language handicaps the learners might be experiencing (Mavuso, 1993 : 5).

❖ *Consultancy or Outside expertise*

In many schools skills and experience are built up which could very profitably be deployed in the wider educational system. Generally, the nearest that the educational system ever reaches to harnessing this expertise is to invite a member of staff to give the occasional lecture on an INSET topic. Eraut (1978 : 95) defines consultant as:

“...any external agent from within the educational system that involves himself [or herself] in discussing the educational problems of a class, department or school with a view to improving the quality of teaching and learning.”

Experts in education from elsewhere such as the universities, the inspectorate, etc., can be used to supplement the activities of the staff. In such cases provision will have to be made in the budget to remunerate the persons concerned.

❖ *Locally developed INSET courses*

Educational managers within the secondary school system can also work without the use of outside consultants. In such school systems school managers and teaching personnel work together and write staff development or INSET programmes. This is valuable not only in terms of the written programmes but also in terms of the professional development of teaching personnel.

According to Mawila (1995 : 4), *“using in-house teachers to teach others about new practices takes advantage of the existing craft nature of teaching.”* This model is known as training-of-trainers. In this process teachers share ideas and experiences.

❖ *Courses and seminars*

An annual programme of Departmental seminars and symposia, which may be attended by the teaching staff, is released annually by the Directorate: Subject Advisory Services.

Secondary school principals must ensure that teachers attend courses or seminars on a regular basis. These teachers should subsequently share their knowledge with other staff members about educational developments even if their subjects differ. It is beneficial for all staff to have an overall picture of the teacher education programme as well as new developments in other subjects.

3.5.7.7 *Other forms of INSET*

❖ *Communication*

Regular communication and the exchange of new ideas amongst the staff themselves and also with other employees of the Department should be encouraged. The following can be used as examples:

- Educators attending conferences and participating by reading papers themselves.
- Regular subject meetings organised by the heads of departments (HOD's) or senior teachers.
- Regular meetings organised by subject developers or education specialists from the Department of Education.
- Inter-school exchange by means of symposia or correspondence.
- Widening the experience of teaching staff by means of regular communication and exchange of ideas This applies to new staff, experienced personnel and school management.

❖ *Action Research*

Action Research is described as a process of empowering teachers in the teaching-learning situation. According to Mavuso (1993 : 12), teachers who have been engaged in Action Research are very enthusiastic about this approach. The importance of this kind of research lies in the fact that it “*allows for responsibility, freedom, initiative and creativity on the part of teachers*” (Mawila 1995 : 11). Action Research promotes professional development and enhances teacher empowerment.

This strategy shifts some of the powers from school managers and Departmental officials to teaching personnel. It encourages a participatory approach among the staff members. Action Research is one of the best models which can be used in our secondary schools in the Far North.

❖ *Job Rotation*

Donnelly *et al.*, (1994 : 520) define job rotation as

“... a practice of moving individuals from job to job to reduce potential boredom and increase potential motivation and performance.”.

There are many forms of training provided they are used in a planned way to develop a member of staff: research, project work, participation in working parties and so forth. It is the constructive use that the institution makes of these potential means of training that is the crux of the matter.

❖ *Professional upgrading*

Education is an ongoing process and no educationist can afford to ignore new developments within his or her field of study. It is therefore essential that teaching personnel should be encouraged to keep abreast with the latest developments in their fields of study. They should be encouraged to read

widely or to upgrade their qualifications in which case they should preferably enrol for courses which are relevant to their work. Bagwandeem (1991 : 197) asserts that:

“...several prerequisites will have to be satisfied for the promotion of well supported, systematically structured programmes to hone on skills, enhance behaviour and extend the knowledge of educators in their employ.”

Literature and other publications to keep the staff abreast of developments in various subject fields should be provided. The school should subscribe to educational journals and these should be readily available to staff. Informal discussions on articles, e.g., from the newspapers or magazines should be encouraged and even arranged.

A dynamic progressive staff will be imaginative and innovative in their teaching. This in turn will result in a closer relationship with pupils for a more pleasant educational environment.

❖ *Continuing Education*

Govender (1996 : 14) views continuing education as that phase of the staff development programme aimed at assisting teachers to keep up-to-date with current educational trends. Such programmes result in increasing their knowledge and competence and developing their ability to analyse complex educational problems as well as to maintain sound interpersonal relationships.

Responsibility for continuing education is essentially that of the individual teacher. If the school management takes the view that teachers who are already part of the work -force constitute promoting personpower, it can be expected that management will support the individual staff member's continuing education efforts. School management could also provide an impetus for continuing education activities at the work place. There are several

methods which may be used to provide and maintain continuing education among staff members:

- Firstly, the use of small-group activities in which the staff members of the department share interesting teaching experiences or other topics of mutual interest with staff members of another department. This may inspire some teachers to further their educational training and may encourage others to read relevant teacher- education literature and so extend their knowledge.
- Secondly, the school may plan programmes with stakeholders in education. These could be NGO's, private institutions, etc., in the community. The aim could be directed towards giving staff members insight into the functioning of different community-based services, of demonstrating and explaining new teaching techniques such as teaching English through activity, breakthrough method, outcomes based education, etc. Teachers could be informed about the different referral agencies or services in an area.
- Thirdly, the institution could support individual programmes for continuing education such as degree courses at universities and technikons, relevant to the teacher or the educator's job. In addition, the principals could support attendance at workshops, seminars, conferences and symposia in order to develop their staff. It is recommended that staff members who are sponsored to attend these educational gatherings should prepare a written report about the proceedings and share it with the other staff members so that as many staff members as possible may benefit from one staff member's attendance.

❖ *Career Management*

Career planning is the analysis and specification of teacher's career objectives and the application of various methods to achieve the objectives. Career development is formal action by a school as an organisation to ensure that

teachers with appropriate qualifications and experience are available when the organisation requires their services.

According to Bvuma (1994 : 2) the reasons for career management in organisations are the following:

- The quality of the work life of the employees is improved when they have an opportunity to progress in their careers.
- Employees are able to learn new skills with the result that there is always a demand for them.
- Career management of employees decreases an organisation's turn over rate.
- The personal job satisfaction of the teachers or employees is enhanced when their abilities have been developed and when they are placed in a position which suits their ambitions and abilities.

Career development consists of two main components, namely, career planning and career management.

❖ *Other modalities*

Other opportunities or methods, which can be employed in professional development are as follows:

- Internship in model schools
- Mobile teams of “master teachers” in secondary schools
- Career counselling
- Education and training
- Assertiveness and assertiveness training

3.6 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter has been to survey the INSET literature in a global perspective with particular reference to objectives, definitions and strategies as

well as to the opportunities for professional development. Such a study of provision of INSET in other parts of the world will, it is hoped, help staff development programmes and providers of INSET in the Far North to refine their programmes and prevent an excessively narrow interpretation of the needs of teachers in the secondary schools.

As the Black South African educationist, Dr A. Vilakazi, points out "*Cultures are universal products of man and enrich themselves by borrowing freely from others and shunning the ways of cultural purity*" (Mavuso 1993 : 11).

It has been emphasised in the chapter that staff development refers to the continuous process of adjusting, improving and keeping professionally alert. Every profession, it would seem, should be concerned with the continuing education of its staff members. PRESET is only the first stage in this process. Staff development is one of the essential aspects of the school principal's responsibilities. It is, however, a multi-faceted responsibility, which comprises a variety of development issues, such as induction and orientation, continuing education, INSET and career management. Apart from the above strategies, there are also other generic functions and factors, which can make staff development programmes to be more effective and appropriate in the Far North secondary schools.

The main question is: What is the role of the leader in promoting staff development? Chapter Three will give a general view of what leadership is and why the exercise of leadership is important in enhancing or implementing staff development programmes. Furthermore, other factors such as motivation, management by objectives and other aspects of leadership will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

LEADERSHIP AS A CRITICAL FACTOR IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter a review of literature related to leadership, motivation, job design and management by objectives will be examined and analysed. The purpose of this strategy is to reinforce the conceptualisation of the role of the principal in a leadership position for the organisation of development programmes for teachers.

The researcher will discuss, *inter alia*, the implications of the above concepts or issues as they apply to the principal's role with respect to development programmes for teaching staff. It must be borne in mind that secondary schools have been established to educate pupils so that they may one day take their place in society and work and achieve according to their abilities. It is therefore incumbent for educators across the spectrum to be at the cutting edge of educational innovations to achieve this crucial goal. This opinion is reinforced by Chauke (1995 : 5), who maintains that although principals are leaders in their schools, they are dependent on appropriately qualified and accomplished teachers in order to achieve the goals of education. In addition, principals by virtue of their position as leaders of teachers, leaders of pupils and leaders of parents at their schools, principals are also increasingly expected to be leaders in instructional and professional development.

It is therefore the duty of the principal as an educational leader to create the desired climate in the school in which the teachers can feel at home as fully-fledged practitioners in order to provide quality teaching. One of the main requirements in school principals is that they should have a vision of success for the school and be able to communicate the vision and refine it in consultation with other staff members. Furthermore, if there is to be a more corporate response to important issues, then other stakeholders in the school will need to accept the principals' leadership. The school manager has to lead

the search for effectiveness and has to set up systems to see that goals are pursued vigorously (Mawila, 1995 : 3). But how to do it effectively still remains a problem to most of the principals of the Far North secondary schools.

Change and professional development do not occur by chance. The administrative and managerial duties of a secondary school must be performed by skillful principals. As an instructional leader the principal should motivate and assist teaching personnel to execute their duties diligently and thus raise the standard of teaching and learning.

In view of the above, the following questions arise: what is leadership? What leadership role does the principal play in assisting teaching personnel to perform their duties satisfactorily and to foster a desire to improve instructional performance?

4.2 LEADERSHIP AS A CONCEPT

Although from the point of view of management there are several aspects to leadership, it is essentially a task to combine and co-ordinate human resources and monitor performance so as to accomplish the goals of the enterprise as effectively as possible.

Leadership is obviously a subject of extreme importance in educational management. The most important function of school managers is their ability to provide leadership within the school environment and therefore provide good staff development programmes for the success of the secondary school. Thus, a staff development programme carefully designed to meet the pressing needs of the current era will represent the best approach for meeting the escalating challenges of modern society placed upon our schools (Mavuso, 1993 : 12).

4.2.1 What is leadership?

This question is surely one of the important questions in educational management for so much else depends on the individual's view of the nature of leadership. The meaning and purpose of organisational life, what individuals ought to do, and what individuals can hope to achieve. All these are fundamentally affected by whatever individuals think is the 'true' nature of leadership. But there are many conflicting views about what the nature of leadership nature really is.

Although much has been written about leadership, it is surprising how little we know about it. Attempts to define leadership reflect a variety of viewpoints, as indicated above. However, for the purpose of this study, the following writers' views on the topic of leadership will be regarded as sufficient. Mawila (1995 : 9) defined leadership as:

"... both a process and a property. The process of leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and co-ordinate the activities of the members of an organised group toward the accomplishment of group objectives. As a property, leadership is the set of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influences."

Drake and Roe (1994 : 130 & 140) contrast 'management' and 'leadership'. They understand leadership to mean coping with change in an organisation. *"Leadership is a complex, dynamic, interactive process."* Leadership aims at fostering change in people's view points towards themselves and their attitude toward work and also strives towards a continuous improvement of results.

In view of the above, leadership is described as a process that involves the exercise of influence over the behaviour of one individual or more. In other words, leadership essentially involves one individual consciously trying to get another or other individuals to do something that he or she wants them to do.

Leadership in a secondary school means passing on information to teaching personnel, explaining the mission, goals and plan of the organisation, allocating tasks and giving instructions, consulting with staff and supervising their work, taking whatever steps are necessary to raise productivity, disciplining staff, and handling conflict. The principal with leadership qualities is able to motivate staff, has knowledge of groups and the relations between them and communicates well.

Differing views lead naturally to different conclusions about what the educational managers ought to do and how they can do it. Conflicting beliefs about the nature and purpose of the organisation and how to manage it are often embodied in different social institutions, in political and economic systems and in educational theory and practice.

The majority of these writers are supporters of the group function theory of leadership which states that leadership is the function of a group and not necessarily the exclusive trait of one person in a group. Various leadership theories are discussed in the next few pages.

4.2.2 Leadership theories

The search for the meaning of leadership has journeyed down some interesting but somewhat unproductive paths. While some useful insights have been traced and unearthed, no comprehensive theory of leadership has received universal acceptance (Nkuna, 1999 : 3). If one went a step further and read what has been written about leaders and leadership one would soon realize the different angles and approaches.

There are several classical theories of leadership, including situation environmental theories, trait theories and behavioural or group function theories.

4.2.2.1 *Trait theory*

Until recently, thinking about leadership centred on the personal traits and characteristics thought to be essential in a leader. So the researcher will look at this theory in detail to see if it has any merit on staff development programmes.

According to the trait theory leaders are particular kinds of persons blessed with a personality and a set of character traits to which their capability as leaders can be ascribed. Initially leadership research was dominated by this theory. Of late it has been proved inadequate as a tool or guide for research. Its inability to provide an adequate basis for the understanding of leadership does not necessarily mean that it is devoid of all truth. However, it certainly remains true that to be capable of real leadership a leader has to meet basic requirements such as the following:

- ❖ Sincerity
- ❖ Will to serve
- ❖ Sense of responsibility
- ❖ Self-control
- ❖ Involvement and other qualities

(Keith *et al.*, 1991 : 58).

It is tempting to think that a list of inherent qualities can be compiled to make a sort of identikit of the 'natural leader': courage, resolution, sense of humour, etc. In this respect it is interesting to consider the following points:

- Many such lists have indeed been drawn up but no two writers quote the same qualities.
- No single trait or group of characteristics has been isolated which sets off the leader from the members of the group.
- Some very successful leaders conspicuously lacked certain qualities often suggested as necessary.

- Again, we are all aware of works managers who have many of the desirable qualities, yet are incapable of leading anybody anywhere.

In this regard, Mavuso (1993 : 9) asks the question: Is something else required? In response, it may be argued that the traits approach needs balancing by an assembly of those characteristics thought to hinder the exercise of leadership. This lack has, curiously, been shelved.

These points do seem to negate the value of trying to think in terms of personnel characteristics. Nevertheless it has been determined by Govender (1996 : 22) that there are three basic, and essential characteristics of leadership, namely, intelligence, (relative to the intelligence of the followers), self-confidence, or at least the ability to seem self-confident, and initiative.

4.2.2.2 *The situational theory*

The English idiom ‘circumstances alter cases’ is a concise and a strong statement elucidating the situation theory. This puts forward the view that acceptance of a leader by the group depends on the problems that the group is facing. The skills and knowledge required to deal with the situation dictate who the group decides shall lead. This is a plausible approach technically, yet it poses difficulties:

- ❖ There are many experts with whom the works manager is in contact, with high extensive knowledge who, nevertheless, are not accepted as leaders for some reason or other, even when their abilities to judge suggests they should be.
- ❖ Tasks facing a group rarely involve only one speciality.
- ❖ In organisations it is hardly acceptable that leadership should pass from one person to another, like a soccer and rugby ball.

(Chauke , 1995 : 11)

The above theory also draws attention to the fact that different types of leaders can find their way into a particular leadership position. The types of leaders

we have in mind here differ from each other in respect of the way in which they become leaders. The following are examples of such leader types:

- The hard leader-worker becomes a leader because of his capacity for getting things done through hard work.
- The friend-of-man leader becomes a leader because of his affability and humanity.
- The prophet leader becomes a leader as a proclaimer of a cause and could have a great number of followers who have never seen him.
- The back-bench leader ‘the power behind the throne’ becomes a leader unofficially because of his or her influence on the official leader.
- The power-possessing leaders become leaders because they can compel people to obey them – because they have the money or the physical strength or just because they are the bosses.
- The patriarch leader becomes a leader because of respect for his seniority.
- Expert leaders become leaders because they know best because of their superior knowledge.
- The hero leaders become leaders because their people wish to honour them.

(Mavuso, 1993 : 5)

The principals, as officially appointed leaders, needs to be aware of, and accommodative of the situational leaders in their team. Besides taking advantage of situations in their schools that require their expertise, the principals should recognise the expertise of their staff and provide opportunities for its expression.

4.2.2.3 *Behavioural approaches*

Research into the behaviour of leaders has identified that the behaviour or actions of successful leaders are different from those of unsuccessful leaders. Thus instead of trying to establish what a successful leader is, researchers have

tried to determine what it is that successful leaders do, for example, delegate, communicate, motivate, etc. The assumption is that behaviour can be acquired and managers can be trained to become more effective leaders. The research into leadership behaviour brought to light that in order to function effectively a group needs someone to perform two important functions:

- ❖ Job-related functions (for example, problem solving).
- ❖ Social functions (group maintenance).

(Bvuma 1994 : 15)

Under these assumptions the researcher is going to discuss five behavioural approaches as postulated by Chauke (1995 : 15):

4.2.2.3.1 *Michigan and Ohio State studies*

These studies identified two forms of leadership behaviour:

- ❖ *Task-oriented leader behaviour.*

The leader is concerned primarily with production, supervision and control. Subordinates are recognised as instruments to get the work done.

- ❖ *Employee-oriented leader behaviour.*

There is less control and more motivation and participative management to get the job done. The focus here is on the people and their needs.

What the Michigan research team found was that production performance was higher among employee-oriented leaders than among task-oriented leaders. Task-oriented leaders suffered from high staff turn over and absenteeism rates. A conclusion drawn from the research was that leadership does not have only one dimension and that both task-and employee-oriented leaders may be necessary for successful leadership.

4.2.2.3.2. *Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid.*

One of the widely known approaches to defining leadership styles is the managerial grid developed some years ago by Blake and Mouton. Building on previous research that showed the importance of a manager's concern both for production and for people, Blake and Mouton devised the concept of The Managerial Grid (Mavuso 1993 : 8). This grid, shown in the figure 4.1 below on page 91 has been used throughout the world as a means of managerial training and of identifying various combinations of leadership styles (Govender, 1996 : 9).

❖ *Five major grid styles*

Blake and Mouton conceptualised leadership styles as a managerial grid (Mavuso (1993 : 11). Like other models of leadership, the managerial grid has two dimensions: concern for people and concern for production. Bvuma (1994 : 5) argued that concern for production is not only limited to phenomena. Instead, it denotes a concern for whatever the organization engages its people in to accomplish the tasks of the organization successfully. Meanwhile, concern for people refers primarily to sound and warm interpersonal relations. Self-esteem and the personal worth of individuals are emphasised in the sphere of operation.

This style is characterised by a low concern for tasks and a high concern for people. Nkuna (1999 : 9) viewed such a leader as a person who runs a 'country club', looks after people and values friendly relations more than productivity. The 1.9 type of principal enjoys the warmth and approval of his staff. He is only committed to developing positive interpersonal relations in the school. Such a principal is sensitive to criticism and fearful of conflict irrespective of whom it involves.

❖ *The caretaker leadership style '1.1'*

The 1.1 style (referred to as 'impoverished management') is characterised by a low concern for task and low concern for people.. Principals concern themselves very little with either people or production and have minimum involvement in their jobs. To all intents and purposes, they have abandoned their jobs and only mark time or act as messengers communicating information from superordinates to subordinates.

The principal's approach is to assign jobs and then leave people alone, hiding behind the rules and regulations to remain relatively invisible. Govender (1996 : 18) argued that the 1.1. type of principal accepts whatever the school is doing as an expression of its mission. From the standard of teaching, issues like curriculum decisions are left to the inclinations of individual teaching personnel. Decisions are not clear and not easily changed.

The 9.1 style (referred to as 'the authority – compliance manager') is characterised by high concern for production and low concern for people. Principals with a 9.1 rating are autocratic. They tend to rely on a centralized system and the use of authority. Staff are regarded as a means of production and motivation is on competition between people in order to get work done. If staff challenge an instruction or standard procedure they are likely to be viewed as unco-operative.

The '1.9', style (referred to as 'the country club manager') is characterised by a low concern production and high concern for people. Principal with 1.9 rating believes that a contented staff will undertake what is required of them and achieve a reasonable level of output. Production is secondary to the avoidance of conflict and maintenance of harmony among the staff. Principals will seek to find compromises between staff and solutions acceptable to every one.

Although innovation may be encouraged, they tend to reject good ideas if likely to cause difficulties among the staff (Mullins, 1999 : 212).

❖ *The team management leadership style '9.9'*

At the other extreme are the 9.9 principals who display in their actions the highest possible dedication both to people and to production or task. Unlike the other styles, this style assumes that no conflict exists between organisational requirements and the needs of the people.

Principals who adopt this leadership style want to promote conditions that integrate high productivity and high morale through team work. This leadership style emphasises the involvement of those participants who are responsible for planning and executing the work. Communication is two-ways and open. To support this view or argument Nkuna has this to say:

“Communication is the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another.”

(Nkuna, 1999 : 12)

This style encourages team spirit and professional development. All teaching personnel are encouraged to contribute towards the development of the whole secondary school.

❖ *The middle-of-the-road management style 5.5*

Under the 5.5 style (middle of the road management), principals have medium concern for production and for people. They obtain adequate, but not outstanding, morale and task production. This style is characterised by a conflict between task needs and people needs. The solution to the conflict is approached through compromise. The 5.5

style seems sufficient for getting the job done. It is nonetheless, probably insufficient for promoting innovation and change.

In this style, the principal wants to be in good standing with his staff. The principal avoids giving directions. Instead he prefers reflecting on suggestions and recommendations.

Naidoo (1995), in support of the argument, states that:

"The 5.5 oriented administrator maintains a balance between results and people, so that neither concern dominates the other, and goes along with the majority, hoping to avoid being seen in the exercise of power and authority."

(Naidoo, 1995 : 3).

In this style the principal attempts to gain acceptable results by doing whatever is expected by his superordinates, while simultaneously avoiding actions that might upset his teaching personnel.

❖ *The authority-compliance management style 9.1*

At the other extreme are the 9.1 (authority compliance management) principals who are sometimes referred to as autocratic task principals. They are concerned only with developing an efficient operation. Further, they have little or no concern for people. Moreover, they are quite autocratic in their style of leadership. Achievement is the watchword of this approach and interaction is strictly along authority lines (Govender, 1996 : 13). This style is characterised by a top-down approach to problem solving.

Naidoo states that principals who employ this style are action-oriented. Their behaviour is summarised as follows:

“Most 9.1-oriented administrators place high value on making decisions that stick or on doing things in their own way: ‘my way is okay as long as it's my way’. ‘Control the terms of the discussion and you'll control the results’. These administrators are always ready to stand up for their own ideas, opinions, and attitudes and to press forcefully for their acceptance.”

(Naidoo, 1995 : 6)

Principals who employ this style concentrate on getting results by exercising power and authority in a unilateral way. They want their subordinates to show respect and obedience to them. This style is undemocratic in the modern society. It discourages teaching personnel from taking in the decision-making process.

4.2.2.3.3 *Likert's System of Management.*

Management types:

Likert has suggested a four-fold classification of management types which varies slightly from that discussed above:

❖ *System 1: The exploitive-authoritative type*

The principal or management uses fear and threats. Communication is downward with superordinates and subordinates psychologically and socially far apart. The bulk of decisions are taken at the top of the organization.

❖ *System 2: The benevolent-authoritative type*

The principal or school management uses reward as incentives. Attitudes are still subservient to those in superior ranks. Information flowing upwards is restricted to what the principal will be glad to hear

and policy decisions are taken at the top, though some decisions, within a prescribed field, may be delegated to lower levels.

❖ *System 3: The consultative type*

School management or the principal uses rewards and occasional sanctions. Some involvement is sought while communication is both down and up, though upward communication still tends to be limited to palatable views and information. However, subordinates have a moderate amount of influence on departmental activity.

(Mavuso, 1993 : 7).

❖ *System 4: The participative type*

This system taps all major motivational forces, including those emanating from group processes except fear. Motivational forces reinforce one another. Attitudes are quite favourable and trust is prevalent. Persons at all levels feel quite responsible. There is relatively high satisfaction throughout.

The goal-setting process is participatory. Goals are established by the whole group, except in emergencies. As a result, there is full goal acceptance, both overtly and covertly. Information flows freely and accurately in all directions. There are practically no barriers to distort or filter information.

All members of the organization participate in the decision-making process. Decisions are made throughout the organisation by overlapping groups and based upon full and accurate information. Widespread real and felt responsibility accounts for the control function (Mabuza, 1998 : 5).

The above information on the participative type of leadership can be summarised as follows: Management or principal gives economic

rewards and makes full use of group participation and involvement in setting high-performance goals, improving work methods, and so on. Communication is free and full, upwards, downwards and laterally; teaching personnel and supervisors are very close socially and psychologically; decision-making is widely spread through the organisation; the organisation structure is viewed as a series of overlapping groups, with each group linked to the rest of the structure through the person (the 'linking-pin') who is a member of more than one group.

4.2.2.3.4 *Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership*

This is also a situational theory based on the assumption that leadership is effective only when the leader, situation and subordinate are matched. Thus the effectiveness of leaders is determined by how well their style fits the situation. In Fiedler's view an educational manager can maintain this 'fit' by:

- Understanding his style of leadership.
- Analysing the situation to determine whether or not the style will be effective.
- Matching the style and the situation by changing the latter so that it is compatible with the style. Fiedler was of the opinion that leaders, generally speaking, are unable to change their styles.

Behavioural research suggests that leader effectiveness is a product of the leader's motivations, the character of subordinate responses and circumstances of the leader – constituent interaction. Leader-constituent relationships are seen as intricate. Some subordinates respond best when given more autonomy, whereas others want a high degree of direction. Differing managerial situations require different responses (Keith *et al.*, 1991 : 59).

❖ *Contingency theory*

Fiedler's taxonomy has led other researchers to propose a contingency theory of leadership. Contingency theory defines good leadership as the ability to match the right leadership style to the situation. Utilising the two styles (relationship-oriented and task-oriented), the contingency approach suggests that depending on the situational configuration, one of these styles will be appropriate (Keith *et al.*, 1991 : 60).

According to this theory, there is no universal 'good leadership'. Rather, one type of principal will be a good leader in a given situation and may be viewed as a poor leader in another situation. According to Fiedler, effective leadership is the appropriate response to a combination of the nature of the task, the environment, and the characteristics of the subordinate involved. Moreover, the ablest and most effective principals do not always practise and hold on to a single style. Different styles are used in various situations.

❖ *Path-goal theory*

The path-goal theory looks at the relationships between the leader's style, subordinate's expectation, task structure and environment factors. The basic idea behind the path-goal theory is that a leader can influence the motivation, satisfaction and performance of the followers by providing them with rewards; helping them to obtain rewards by clarifying the paths to the goals; and, making the attainment of those rewards contingent upon the accomplishment of performance goals (Naidoo,1995 : 6).

Path-goal theory identifies four styles of leader behaviour:

- Achievement-oriented leadership characterises a leader who constantly emphasises excellence in performance and displays confidence that subordinates can and will achieve the high standards that are set.
- Supportive leadership characterises an approachable leader who shows concern for the needs of subordinates.

- Participative leadership characterises a leader who consults with subordinates and takes their suggestions seriously in arriving at a decision.
- Directive leadership characterises a leader who gives specific guidance regarding what is to be done and how it should be done and ensures that his role as leader (principal) of the group is clearly understood.

According to the path-goal theory, the effective principal is one who clearly defines the goals to be attained, recognises or stimulates the group's identification with the goal and removes obstacles that could stand in the way of teaching personnel achieving these goals. All efforts are directed towards increased opportunities for personal satisfaction as the individual teacher works toward and achieves the goal (Keith *et al.*, 1991: 60).

Path-goal theory argues that the personal characteristics of subordinates and the characteristics of the work environment are a major influence in choosing a leadership style. Further, it suggests that there is no universal style that would result in the motivation of subordinates.

The function of the principal is to assist teaching personnel by clarifying goals and clearing the path toward the achievement of the goals. Different situations call for different styles of motivation in order to promote action and the satisfaction of teaching staff.

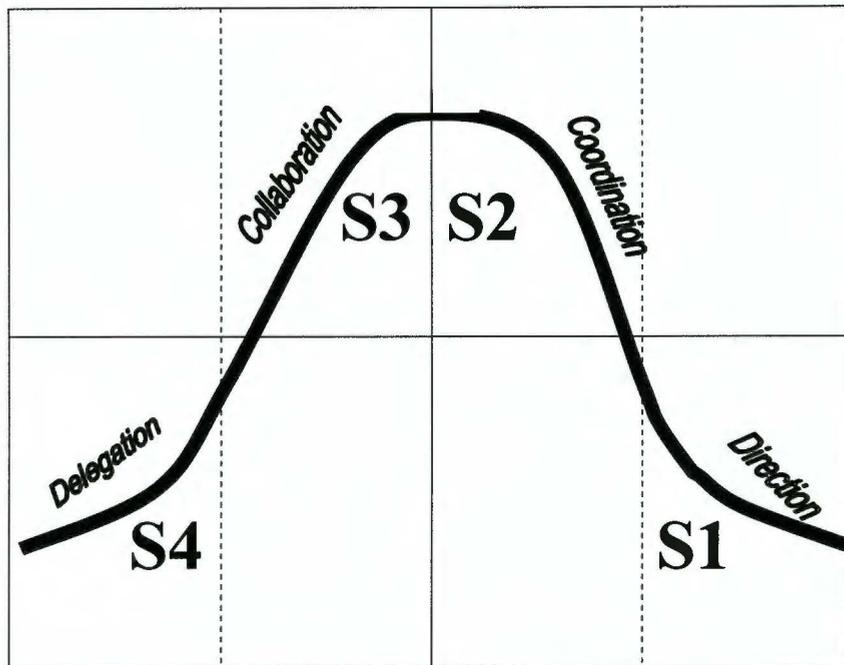
4.2.2.3.5 *Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership model*

This theory states that the most effective management style for a particular situation is determined by the maturity of the subordinates. The maturity of a subordinate is defined as the person's need for achievement, willingness to accept responsibility and his/her task- subordinates' related ability and experience. At the level of immaturity, the leader's style will generally be task driven, gradually changing as the subordinates mature until the style becomes participative. The basic assumption of the model is that leader effectiveness depends on the appropriate maturing of leader behaviour with the maturity of the group or individual (Nyathi, 1992 : 9).

The protagonists of this model acknowledge the importance of many situational variables such as position, power, task, time and others. These factors emphasise the maturity of the group or followers as a critical situational variable that moderates the relationship between leader behaviour and effectiveness.

The diagram below namely, figure 4.2, on page 101, illustrates this. The leadership cycle model presupposes that managerial style must change as a group of subordinates develops and reaches maturity. A successful principal will therefore analyse the situation, determine what degree of support or training is needed and adapt his or her style as the subordinates develop.

FIGURE 4.2 : SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODELS
EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLES



(LOW) ← TASK BEHAVIOUR → (HIGH)
FOLLOWER READINESS

HIGH	MODERATE		LOW
R4	R3	R2	R1

Source: Mullins (1999 : 280)

❖ *Situation*

The situational leadership models employs one variable, namely maturity, to analyse the nature of the situation. Maturity is defined as:

“...the capacity to set high but obtainable goals, the willingness and ability to take responsibility, and the exercise of an individual group”

(Chauke 1995 : 5).

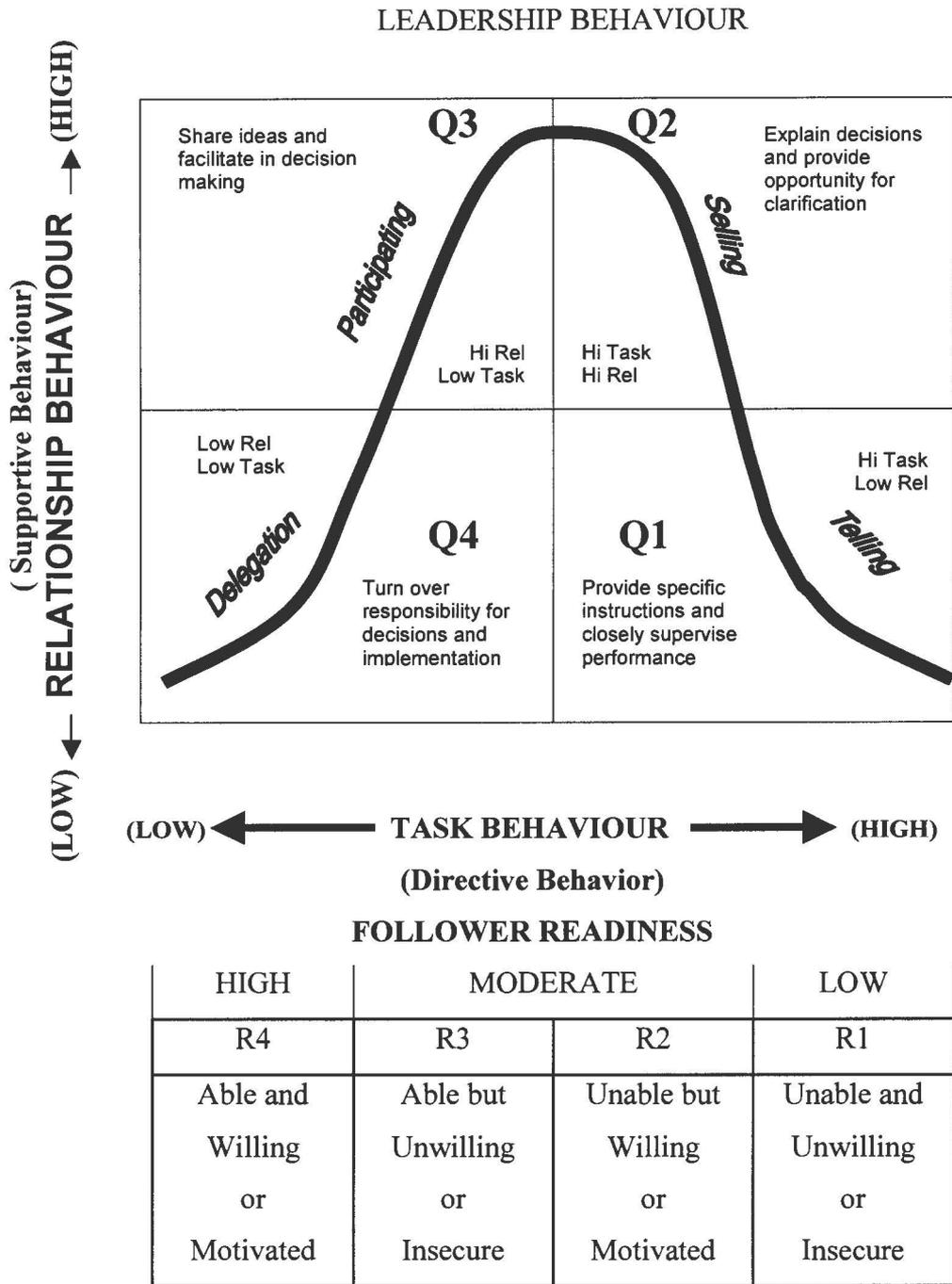
Maturity is a relative concept. A group or an individual is not mature or immature in any general sense. Thus, maturity is defined only in relation to a specific task. Individuals who have a high level of task-relevant maturity not only have the ability, knowledge, experience, and motivation to do the job, but also have feelings of self-confidence and self-respect. On the other hand, teachers who have a low level of task-relevant maturity lack the ability, motivation and knowledge as well as the psychological maturity to do the job.

❖ *Matching style and situation*

The situational leadership model argues that effectiveness is promoted by matching leader behaviour with the appropriate situation. Mawila (1995 : 3) argues that the behaviour depends on the level of maturity in the situation. Leadership behaviour changes with the maturity of the group. This is clearly depicted in figure 4.3 on page 104. It illustrates the bell-shaped curve passing through leadership quadrants.

The model as depicted in Figure 4.3 on page 103 is a matching of four leadership styles (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4) is matching with the four situations of maturity (M1, M2, M3, M4). Appropriate leadership styles for each level of follower maturity is shown (each of followers is portrayed by the curvilinear relationship in each quadrant). The bell-shaped curve means that as the maturity level of one's followers increases along the continuum from immature to mature, the appropriate style of leadership moves according to the curvilinear relationship. The four styles will be discussed below:

FIGURE 4.3 : LEADERSHIP STYLES AND FOLLOWER MATURITY



Source: Mawila (1995 : 3)

❖ *The telling style (Q1)*

The style is characterised by an above average incidence of task behaviour and below average incidence of relationship behaviour. This style emphasises a high incidence of guidance and directing (task behaviour) but limited supportive (relationship) behaviour. Here the principal (leader) leads by providing specific instructions and closely supervising performance. It implies that when the group is very immature (M1) a task-oriented leadership is most effective. Hence, the style is most appropriate for low follower readiness (R1).

❖ *The selling style (Q2)*

This style is characterised by an above average incidence of both task and relationship behaviour. That means the style emphasises a high incidence of both directive (task) and relationship behaviours. It implies that when the group is moderately immature (M2) a dynamic leadership style Q2 high task and high relationship behaviour is most effective. The leader explains decisions and provides opportunity for clarification in terms of rules, procedures and strategies to be followed. The style is appropriate for low to moderate follower readiness (R2).

❖ *The participating style (Q3)*

This style is characterised by an above average incidence of relationship behaviour and below average incidence of task behaviour. This style emphasises a high incidence of two-way communication and supportive (relationship) behaviour, but a low incidence of guidance (task behaviour). This style needs a group that is moderately mature (M3). The principal (leader) allows teams to share ideas and facilitates action-behaviour in decision-making. This style is most appropriate for moderate to high follower readiness (R3).

❖ *The delegating style (Q4)*

This style is characterised by an above average incidence of both task behaviour and relationship behaviour. Furthermore, the style emphasises little direction or support with low levels of both task and relationship behaviours. The principal (leader) implements the style by delegating, observing and monitoring the situation. This is a highly appropriate style for high readiness followers (R4).

❖ *The group-function theory*

The group-function theory emphasises group information and group dynamics and, hence, the way the principal (leader) helps the group or teaching-personnel to function effectively as a team. Protagonists of this theory argue that the only way to gain an adequate conception of leadership is to define it in terms of functions that have to be performed to set a group working as a team for the attainment of its goals. They insist that leadership need not be associated with a particular person and that it can be related to the actions of more than one person in a particular group (Govender, 1996 : 7).

Leadership, they say, is what happens in a group that is working well. It is not necessarily a matter of qualities possessed by some individuals in the group. This theory therefore suggests that the leader's role and the leader's duties and responsibilities can be shared. This points to the fact that interpersonal relationships in a group and the interaction between members of a group are extremely important factors in any effort to understand the nature of leadership.

The group-function theory should have a special appeal to secondary school principals who are leaders of teaching personnel in the Far North. This model encourages teaching personnel to work as a team and principals are expected to share their duties and responsibilities with the rest of the teaching staff.

4.3 LEADERSHIP AND POWER

Behavioural models suggest that leadership is a complex phenomenon. Rather than depending primarily on individual characteristics, leadership is regarded as a set of appropriate responses to changing circumstances. Situational or environmental theorists, by contrast, emphasise that situations create leaders, rather than leaders emerging as those who respond effectively to a variety of situations. Trait theories tend to stress a set of personal characteristics possessed by the individual. These characteristics are thought to be trans-situational. For example, the principal or a teacher with leadership characteristics will be a leader in many and varied circumstances.

Each of the models or theories discussed in the foregoing offers insights into what constitutes leadership. Another important consideration is the relationship between leadership and power. Who or what empowers a leader? One of the most widely used analyses of the sources of a leader's power has been proposed by French and Raven (1959) in Viljoen *et al.* (1992). They identify five bases of power.

Power is the influence potential of leaders and refers to the ability of the leaders and the manner in which they use their authority. Five of the six power bases can be identified as potential means of successfully influencing the behaviour of others, namely:

- Legitimate power is based on the position of authority of principals. They have the right by virtue of their position in the school to expect that their instructions should be carried out.
- Referent power is based on the principals' personal traits and leads to admiration by teachers, who then want to be associated with the principals' actions and ways of operating.
- Expert power is based on the principals' possession of expertise, skill and knowledge, which, through respect, influence others.

- Reward power is based on the ability of principals to provide rewards such as recognition, merits and recommendations for promotion to teachers for successfully completing tasks.
- Coercive power is based on fear. This is the power exercised by principals to force staff members or other persons in the school to complete tasks. Failure to comply will lead to punishment such as undesirable work assignments and severe reprimands (Viljoen *et al.*, 1992 : 151).

Some or all of these different power sources may be available to principals. Principals may choose to use a narrow or a wide range of power sources. The different ways in which principals or leaders choose to exercise power is closely related to the next section, namely, leadership styles.

4.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES

Early attempts to describe leadership styles produced a continuum between two extreme behaviour styles. Terms such as autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire have been used to describe the general approach used by managers in various institutions or human situations.

The basic leadership styles, as classified by Mawila will be discussed below. When leader-action is analysed according to these leadership styles the following can be described as:

- ❖ Autocratic leadership
- ❖ Democratic leadership
- ❖ Free-rein or Laissez-faire leadership

(Mawila, 1995 : 11).

4.4.1 The autocratic leadership

The autocratic leadership style is leader-centred: that is to say, the leaders dominate the scene. They decide for the teaching personnel, the group or the

team. They formulate policy for their schools or enterprises. Autocratic leadership presupposes followers who are subordinates and a leader who is a ruler and an authoritarian. The leader leads by giving orders, by commanding and by demanding (Keith *et al.*, 1991: 62).

4.4.2 The democratic leadership

The democratic leadership style is group-centred: that is to say, it lays the emphasis on what happens in the group, on the group's solidarity and on the way the members of the group co-operate. The group decides and formulates policy and the leader's task is but to help the group to function as effectively as possible as a team. Such a leader does not see his or her 'followers' or 'teaching personnel' as subordinates but as fellow-workers and as team-mates. Democratic leader are not rulers but the chief fellow-workers bent on sharing leadership with the team mates, who may be capable of assisting them in the performance of leader-duties. Such leaders lead by discussing and consulting and procuring group decisions. They are bent on executing the will of teaching personnel or people with whom they work. Decisions are taken in terms of a vote or by gaining consensus.

4.4.3 The Free-rein / Laissez-Faire leadership

The free-rein leadership style is also less aptly called laissez-faire leadership. It is individual-centred, that is, it emphasises the action and reaction of the individual members of a group. In a certain sense it is a super-democratic leadership style where the principal or leader virtually disappears from the scene and leads by acting on good faith, by trusting and relying on the individual follower's loyalty and devotion to the cause (Naidoo, 1995 : 6).

In free-rein leadership the leader says, as it were: "*I shall not be there to give orders or to be consulted. You will be on your own and will have to decide for yourself what to say and do. I shall rely on your understanding of our cause and your will to serve it.*" When a leader-principal delegates a responsibility completely or when he asks a member of his or her group to perform a task

which he or she cannot or does not wish to supervise or check, he or she is using a free-rein leadership style.

In summary, none of these leadership styles is good or bad in its own right. They can of course be misused and a principal (leader) can be unbalanced in regard to his or her preference for any one of them. This is the point the 'situation theory' makes when it insists that also in the use of leadership styles *circumstances will alter cases*. The particular circumstances under which a person acts as a leader will determine whether his or her style will be autocratic, democratic or free-rein.

The 'situation theory' furthermore emphasises the fact that true leaders reveal themselves in the way in which they judiciously adapt their leadership styles to the demands of the particular circumstances. It is quite conceivable that a leader on an occasion can use all three the of above-mentioned leadership styles. For instance, starting off with a meeting in which he or she listens intently to the opinions and proposals of his team mates, then at one stage very firmly calls for order and finally asking a team mate to take over his or her duties and to act on his or her behalf (Mavuso, 1993 : 16).

To exercise leadership, that is, to influence and direct the behaviour and actions of teaching personnel in some particular direction principals have to understand the most important tasks or elements of their leadership role, both main and subtasks. The leadership qualities that principals possess should enable them to do their jobs properly, to motivate their staff and acquire knowledge of their behaviour. They should also be able to undertake staff evaluation or appraisal of educators under their jurisdiction.

4.5 THE MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE PRINCIPAL AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

In this section the researcher will consider management tasks of principals which are key elements of staff development. As Mawila points out:

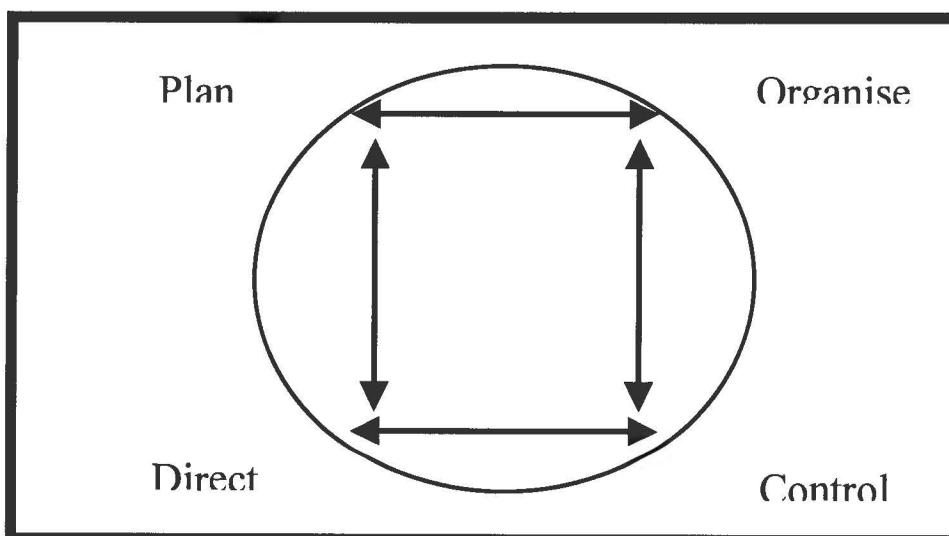
“... the concept of elements of management will provide an understanding of the intricacies of management.”

(Mawila 1995 : 18)

During the past decades the task of the secondary school principal in the Far North has undergone a radical change. Traditionally the principal was merely the head teacher and the task of the school was of limited complexity. As a result of the increasing exigencies of the secondary school as an organization, the principals are subjected to changing injunctions, especially in respect of their management tasks.

The management tasks of principals may be divided into ‘main tasks’ and ‘sub-tasks’. The elements of the main tasks as illustrated in figure 4.4 below, are planning, organising, directing or guiding and controlling, each of which involves a number of sub-tasks, (Mabuza,1998 : 8).

FIGURE 4.4 : THE PROCESS APPROACH TO THE ELEMENTS OF MANAGEMENT



Source: Nthangeni (1991 : 5)

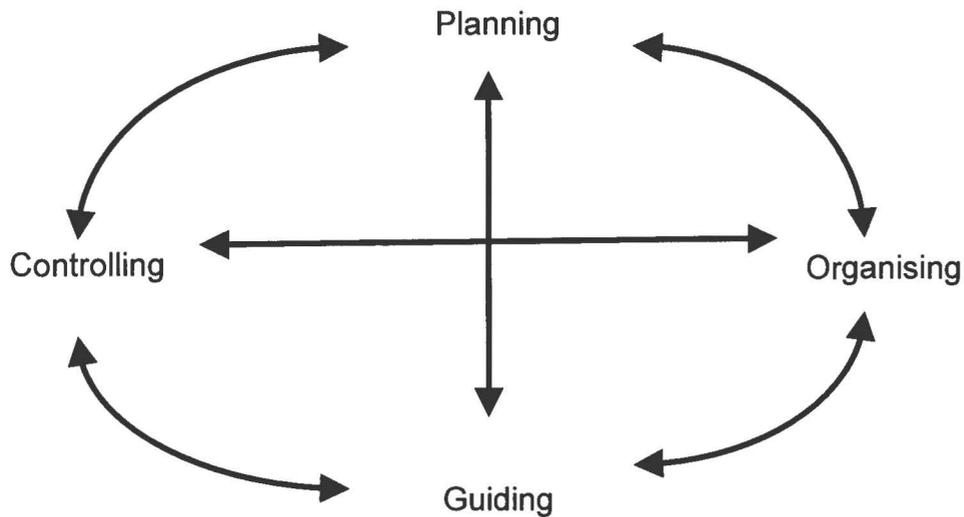
Applying the elements of management to staff development implies:

- Planning, to determine future activities aimed at achieving given objectives of staff development.
- Organising, efficient and effective regulation of actions must take place within the existing school structure.
- Motivating, direct initiative in personnel development to make decisions, to give instructions and to motivate subordinates.
- Delegation, to utilise the talents of subordinates in a fundamental and relevant sense, to train them in service by developing their sense of responsibility, spirit of enterprise, insight, good human relations, organisational ability, to mould suitable successors in good time, to create a spirit of unity and a feeling of security which will lead to self-realisation and career satisfaction.
- Control, in personnel development control ensures that performance takes place according to pre-determined plans in a school system.

(Walters, 1991 : 4).

Mabunda (1993 : 3) describes management as the universal and unavoidable personnel and organisational process of relating resources to objectives. Walters, (1991: 8) maintains that the management functions seem to have a specific sequence. They are interrelated. At any one time one or more may be of primary importance.

FIGURE 4.5 : THE PROCESS OF MANAGEMENT



Source: Bvuma (1994 : 8)

The above statement is supported by Naidoo (1995 : 8) who says personnel management, as depicted in figure 4.5 above, is the planning, organising, guiding and controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration, maintenance and separation of human resources. In this way individual, organisational and societal objectives are achieved.

The relevancy of the above management tasks namely, planning, organising, guiding and controlling will be discussed in full below .

4.5.1 Planning

Planning may be seen as the reflection, in a basic or theoretical manner, the policy, rules, procedures, strategies, methods, skills and expertise by the principal to achieve and realise educational aims and objectives through people and resources. Planning also involves investigations to obtain information for this purpose. It includes setting out this information in an orderly fashion and the decision-making process of selecting the best methods to achieve the objectives.

Planning can be regarded as one of the most important tasks of the principal and it forms the basis of all other management tasks. How well these other management tasks are carried out will depend on the quality of planning. Planning is an intellectual activity; it involves thought processes by means of which future activity is pre-selected to achieve certain objectives (Mavuso, 1993 : 5).

4.5.2 Organising

Organising is that management task which is performed to initiate planning and to establish connections with the various parts of the organisation so that goals may be realised and attained effectively. The following characteristics of organising can be determined:

- ❖ It is concerned with grouping tasks, or, stated differently, the division of work in such a way that plans are effected.
- ❖ It is concerned with the allocation of duties, authority and responsibility without abdicating final responsibility.
- ❖ It is concerned with determining relationships between various people to promote collaboration by means of co-ordination and job and duty descriptions.
- ❖ It is concerned with common effort to achieve set goals.
- ❖ Organising is, in essence, intellectual work or work that involves thought processes which carry out the planning process and therefore involves desk-work.

(Walters 1991 : 8).

4.5.3 Guiding (Leading)

The third management task is guiding. In the management tasks of planning and organising, the activities of people are the focus, while in guiding, the interaction is with the people. In guiding the emphasis shifts to the interactions between the principal and the people involved through which tasks are initiated and kept in motion. Guiding may be regarded as the

management task which gives direction to the common activity of people to ensure that they execute the tasks to achieve a set of goals.

The importance of guiding is that it is the management action that not only ensures the completion of a specific task but also that the work is well done. However, guiding also ensures voluntary co-operation. Motivation is necessary for this and entails direct contact with staff.

4.5.4 Controlling

Control is the work the principal does to assess and regulate tasks in progress and those that are completed. The control is the manager's means of monitoring. From this it can be deduced that control is subsequent to the principal's other tasks. Through controlling, the plan and the execution of the plan are linked and brought together. The principal should plan and organise the activities as well as possible and provide guidance. It should also be ensured that each person does the right thing at the right time and place. Principals should ensure that their plans work.

Control is a very important function in the principal's relationship with the staff. Without this, it would hardly be possible to control and evaluate teaching. controlled and evaluated. Positive control ensures that staff will do their preparation, that students will be taught and evaluated and that tasks will be carried out. Control effects the teaching but staff also have a supervisory role in connection with the students. Positive supervision does not merely mean to find fault or to punish. Its sole purpose is to ensure efficacy throughout the school. The purpose of supervision is to encourage progress on the part of the teacher and students.

4.5.5 Delegation

It is evident that principals would have to be super-human to satisfy personally all the demands made upon them by instructional leadership in a broad sense.

Consequently they have to delegate certain duties to their staff and transfer certain authority to subordinates. Delegation has been defined as:

"...the allocation of duties, authority and responsibility ... to make possible a more meaningful division of work and more efficient work performance".

(Walters *et al.*, 1991 : 4).

In the school situation, the principal delegates certain tasks to the deputy principal or heads of departments who in turn delegate some of these tasks to the teachers in their departments. Delegation is the management function carried out by school principals when they entrust duties or tasks, with their attendant responsibilities, to teachers.

Principals divide the work meaningfully to ensure its effective execution by making the teachers responsible for the results or the achievement of set objectives. Delegation is one of the most significant practices affecting the school principal's ability to get the work done. When the principal delegates a responsibility to a teacher, a relationship based on obligation is created between the two (Viljoen *et al.*, 1992 : 150).

4.5.5.1 *Reasons for delegation*

Because of the complexity of the tasks of principals, they do not have the time to carry out all their tasks effectively. Therefore it is necessary for them to delegate some of their tasks in order to be able to have enough time to spend on activities which cannot be delegated. Some of the more important reasons why delegation is important are discussed below:

- ❖ Delegation of a task with accompanying authority often leads to quicker action and faster, better decisions.
- ❖ Delegation of tasks is an important factor in the training and development of teaching staff.

- ❖ Delegation may also lead to higher levels of motivation.
- ❖ Improved motivation also leads to better attitudes and morale among teachers.
- ❖ Delegation may result in better decisions because often the teacher is an expert who is closest to the task which is being done.
- ❖ If they are able to delegate, principals can perform especially challenging tasks because they will have more time to spend on planning strategies, for instance. More time can thus be devoted to management tasks and less to functionally executed work.
- ❖ In staff development process, deputy principals, heads of departments and senior teachers can be delegated a plethora of tasks to achieve designated school objectives.

By delegating tasks to teaching personnel the amount of work which has to be handled by the principal is decreased, which means that effectiveness is increased. The principal can handle matters which deserve priority and other matters can be delegated. This results in efficient and economical utilisation of time and matters deserving personal attention can be attended to.

4.5.5.2 *Types of delegation*

There are normally two ways of delegating tasks with the accompanying responsibility and authority which can be employed by principals, namely:

- Linearly, in which delegating takes place according to seniority and hierarchical structure.
- Linearly concentric, which means that the principal delegates tasks directly to various staff members. Figure 4.6 on page 119 exemplifies the various ways of delegating tasks.

From figure 4.6 it is clear that the principal can delegate tasks to the deputy principal and heads of departments, as well as individual teachers. The deputy principal can delegate in hierarchical order and the heads of departments can delegate tasks to individual teaching personnel. Each person in the line of

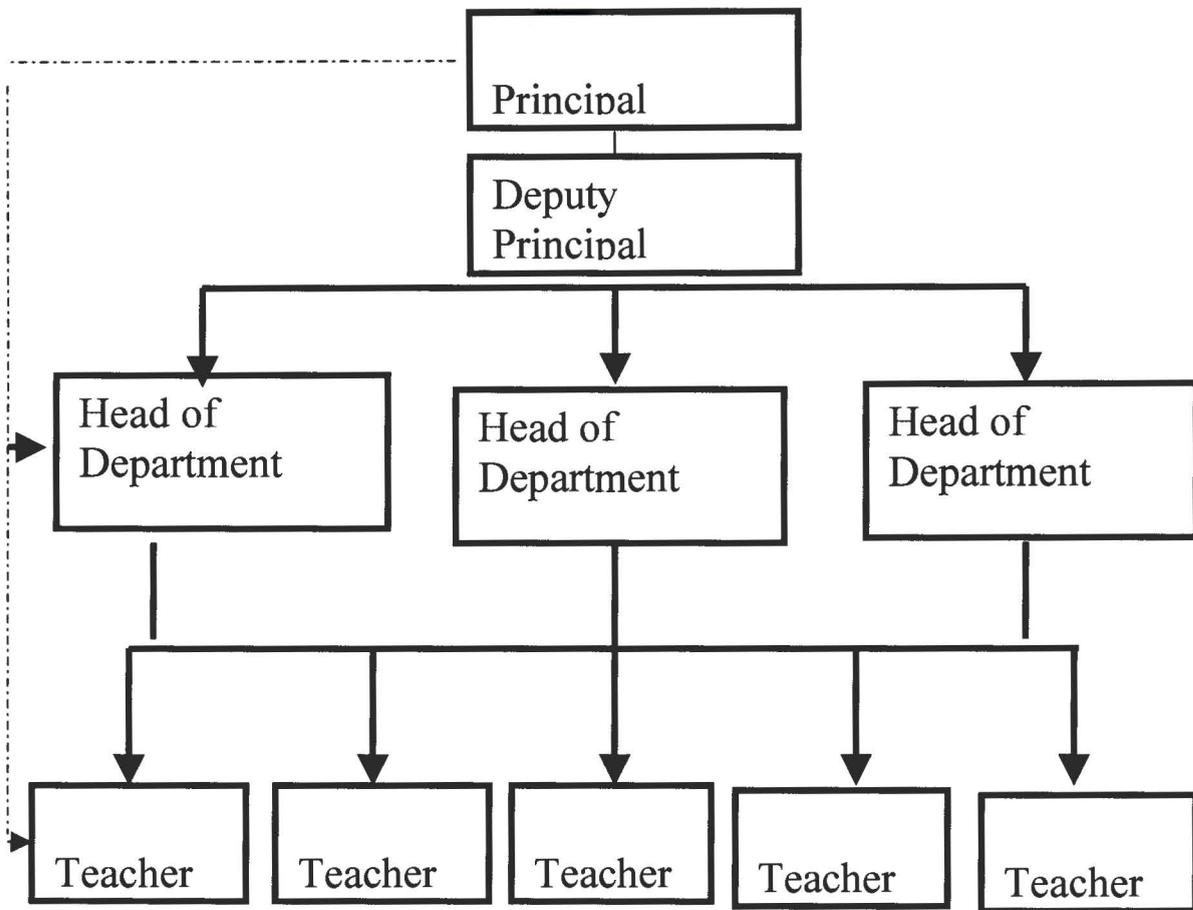
delegation should, however, be careful not to delegate less pleasant tasks and keep important decisions and pleasant tasks to themselves.

Viljoen *et al.* (1992 : 154) reinforces this view that every person who delegates tasks must bear the following in mind in order to be able to delegate effectively:

- authority and responsibility should be delegated with the specific task;
- the correct teacher should be selected and the delegater must have confidence in the other person's ability to execute the tasks;
- the tasks must be clearly outlined; sufficient information be given and guidance and assistance provided if necessary.

In summary, the most important value of delegating lies in the fact that principals are freed from most routine tasks. They are able to spend their time on management tasks, which are the most important part of their functions as managers of their schools.

FIGURE 4.6 : TYPES OF DELEGATION



Source: Mavuso (1993 : 4)

Linear delegation _____

Linear concentric delegation - - - - -

Furthermore, delegation can serve as a basis for staff development or INSET since the teaching staff are guided and assisted to assume greater responsibility. Teaching personnel also learn to work independently and can accept responsibility for their decisions and actions. It also helps to extend activities since more people become involved. Delegating also leads to greater work satisfaction among the teachers, which in turn results in increased motivation and higher morale.

When the principal delegates duties and tasks to teaching personnel, responsibility and authority associated with the task must also be delegated. Through delegation of authority teaching personnel are given the power they need to carry out their assigned responsibilities.

However, it should be noted that even when principals delegate they still remain answerable for the results of the delegation. Further, delegation in the school situation calls for a high degree of self-confidence, emotional maturity, trust and stable relations between the principal and the teacher.

4.6



MOTIVATION AS A STRATEGY FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Motivation and development are close allies in staff development. Teaching personnel spend a substantial amount of time in the working place, and have needs that must be attended to during working hours. As will be seen below, there are scholars who believe that when the needs of employees are not met, they become psychologically 'ill'. Accordingly, in this section the researcher will look at some of the theories on motivation, bearing in mind that only a motivated teacher can develop into a better, more responsive employee.

"People cannot be developed", wrote Julius Nyerere, "they can only develop themselves" (Naidoo, 1995 : 9). Staff development is essentially an internal learning process involving behavioural change in the individual. For persons to engage in this process, they need to be motivated. They need to know why they must do whatever they are doing and the possible benefits that will accrue therefrom. Human beings are rational beings, seeking meaning in what they do.

Motivation is the very core of staff development, which demands that the participants such as teaching staff be motivated. This problem will be discussed in the light of some of the principles of learning because staff development is essentially a learning process:

- ❖ The first of these principles demands the active participation of the teaching staff in staff development process. We can help people to learn, but we cannot learn on their behalf. Active involvement is therefore critical gain an understanding of the programmes and processes involved in staff development.
- ❖ The second principle concerns the content or material learnt. This should be suited to the level of teaching personnel involved.
- ❖ The third principle relates to procedures or mode of presentation to be used. These should be such that they are intelligible to the participants, since the aim is to achieve understanding and competence. This principle will also apply particularly to organisational and administrative issues.
- ❖ The fourth principle demands that whatever activity the participants engage in should stimulate their interest. One way is to ensure that staff development efforts help to meet felt needs or solve pressing school problems. Remediation of discontent therefore can be a motivating condition.
- ❖ The fifth principle concerns reinforcement. There should be constant feedback so that participants know whether or not they are on course. Knowledge that they are on the way toward achieving set goals is motivating on its own. Through feedback both assessment and evaluation are possible.

4.6.1 The Need for Motivation

If employees are to be the focus for staff development and if they are to be enabled to take full control of their own development, it follows that we need to understand human behaviour and motivation. Such knowledge is especially necessary in the case of staff development, which relies on the participation of willing and motivated individuals. There are a number of reasons why human beings may sometimes be averse to taking action. Quite often they may derive a feeling of security from leaving things as they are, or they might very well be afraid of embarking upon actions whose results are uncertain.

As Mavuso (1993 : 9) cogently argues:

“The desire to change, or not to change, is often a matter of feelings rather than a matter of knowing.”

Staff development is participatory in essence. Participation affords human beings a chance to learn, and learning involves behavioural change. The main purpose of understanding the process of motivation is to answer the vital questions like "Why do people initiate action? Why do we choose a particular course of action in the face of so many alternatives?" In addition, we seek to understand what conditions predispose an individual towards learning.

Motivation is directly concerned with people who work for a particular enterprise and involves encouraging them to work well and willingly in the most economical manner in the best interests of the business. The objectives of an enterprise can be achieved only through the efforts of people; and, people need to be motivated, induced, persuaded and prevailed upon in a humane and understanding way to give of their best (Naidoo, 1995 : 26).

However, what motivates one person or group of teaching personnel may not motivate another and therefore for the best results a principal, deputy principal or head of department should, as far as is feasible, get to know something about each of their subordinates. Mere financial reward is more of an incentive than a motivation to many people, although the end result which may be greater effort or better performance, may appear the same. Many people, including teachers, are interested in gaining more from their employment than just money. They tend to look for job satisfaction, doing jobs that they enjoy, in which they feel that their skills or abilities are appreciated and utilised to the full and of which the end products are worth-while.

Many authors on motivation agree that there are two primary types of motivation:

- Self-motivation - stimulated by the person himself or herself.
- Induced motivation - stimulated by the organisation or business through two types of methodology known as the 'carrot' and 'the stick' methodology. In the 'carrot' method the employee or teacher is induced to work harder or more efficiently because a reward is

promised. Conversely, the 'stick' method implies that certain privileges, or even employment, may be lost if efficiency or work improvement does not tangibly improve.

Motivation can be said to start at the interview stage when the teacher is first offered employment. Here the inducement is obviously the job offer, the salary, etc. Naturally, this motivation is very limited and automatically declines within the first few months of employment. In recent years in international businesses even the company car or car allowance, has been found to be a very short-term motivation or perk.

Motivation and stimulation go hand-in-hand and true staff motivation becomes virtually a full-time function of today's principal. One of the primary functions of successful principals is to become a conscious motivator whereby they are constantly monitoring the motivational levels of their staff by observation, conversation, feedback and the development of their own management skills and people perceptions (Mavuso, 1993 : 13). The principal must motivate and stimulate the teaching staff to perform their functions at the highest possible level of efficiency, in the shortest space of time and at the most cost effective level, on a day by day basis.

To make the motivational process even more difficult and complex, teachers are motivated by different things. Something that may be highly motivational to one teacher may be totally demoralising to another. The big secret here is for principals to get to know their staff as individuals, with likes, dislikes and idiosyncrasies. They also need to familiarise themselves with their staff as a team of interactive individuals with common goals and objectives but who do not lose their respective personalities. Thus, the motivational actions of the principal have to take into consideration the individual as well as the team.

4.6.2 What Exactly is Motivation?

Motivation is the process whereby a person is inspired to perform certain actions or to do certain things. In the employer-employee environment it is the ability of the employer to create the inspiration in the employee to perform the job function substantially better than it is currently being performed.

For many teachers this inspiration is inherent in their personalities and such teaching personnel are classified as being self-motivated. However, even they do require motivation from time to time. Other teachers require constant motivation and, as a general rule, it can be said that such teachers lack self-esteem and confidence in their job functions or tragically may be in the wrong profession or require more 'in depth' training.

The term motivation is often used in normal conversation in a manner that does not reflect its true meaning. In the context of staff development, motivation refers to the "*factors that energise behaviour*" (Naidoo, 1995 : 12). A motivated teacher will put much more effort, time, energy and thought into an activity than an unmotivated teacher would normally do. Clearly, from an organisational view point, a work-force that is motivated towards behaviour that assists the organisation reaching its goals is preferable to a work-force that constantly needs external 'prodding' to make them work.

Motivation, it should be stressed, comes from inside the person although it is affected by external stimuli. A considerable amount of research has gone into the area of motivation especially in North America. Some of the theories are detailed below, but before that, we need to consider what motivates people.

There can be no one answer as motivation is internal to the individual and, thus, specific to that person. Also there may be more than one motivating factor. However, one or more of the following may be some of the factors:

- Money and perks
- Authority
- Status
- Reputation
- Responsibility
- Independence
- Professionalism
- Challenges
- Personal development

Mabuza (1998 : 9) argues that money and perks, for example, become less important once gained. He goes on to discuss the topics of adaptation, comparison, alternatives and worry.

- ❖ Adaptation - This refers to the fact that increase in money or perks may give a boost to motivation but the individual soon adapts to this and the level of motivation thereafter declines.
- ❖ Comparison - This refers to the fact that people typically define themselves as wealthy through comparison with others. Once people move up a level of wealth they compare themselves with another group and may feel motivated to gain more money or perks to match this group.
- ❖ Alternatives - This refers to the fact that when people have more money they may become reasonably content with that level and will therefore be less motivated by money and perks. They may be more motivated by other recognised motivators.
- ❖ Worry - This refers to a stage in motivational change that comes to some people. They find themselves with enough money to have control over their lives and are thus motivated to have control over other areas of their life.

Thus, money may be a short-term motivator to the point where individuals may feel they have sufficient money or perceive that they will have sufficient of it to live their lives. This level varies from country to country and individual to individual as noted below:

- ❖ Authority - Some people are motivated by control. If these people do not receive authority through the normal channels they attempt to find it through the non-standard channels that exist in any organisation and may as a result turn against the organisation. Sometimes these people may assume authority beyond their assigned level which may cause difficulty in the organisation.
- ❖ Status - For some people, being seen to be near or at the top of some social group is a great motivator. Job titles, honours and 'medals' are seen by these individuals as important and they will be strongly motivated to achieve them. These people may seek to find status outside of the organisation if they cannot achieve status internally. For example, they may seek to seem religious or to become community leaders.
- ❖ Reputation - Some people are motivated by being seen as 'expert' or by a reputation that they 'make things happen', etc. This often puts them under pressure to behave in a manner that shows they are the expert and time may well be spent keeping ahead rather than doing the work for the organisation.
- ❖ Responsibility - Some people are motivated by 'being in charge' of either products or more usually, people. Such persons may become 'empire builders' and turn to internal politics to achieve their aims.
- ❖ Independence - Some people are motivated by having complete control without any one telling them what to do. They are able to see what their decisions yield. Within most organisations that are not entrepreneurial it is difficult to find enough freedom for such a person to be satisfied.
- ❖ Professionalism - Some people are motivated by doing the best job they can to a set of professional standards. This is usually beneficial for the organization, but if the person is asked to operate with a different set of standards to benefit the organisation it may lead to stress and tension

between the loyalty of the individual to his or her professional standards and those of the organisation.

- ❖ Challenges - Some people are motivated by being stretched to the limit on a regular basis. The mundane is a de-motivator. The challenge for the organisation is to find sufficient challenges for such persons or they will look elsewhere for the challenge.
- ❖ Personal development - Some people are motivated when it involves learning new skills or facts or having new experiences. The danger for the organisation is that the organisation may not have recovered the investment it made in developing this person.

(Naidoo, 1995 : 12).

Most work on motivation assumes that it is important to understand the internal states of mind and the processes of individuals' needs, desires and values. The key point is that it is important to comprehend what individuals feel and how they think in order to predict how they will behave in a given situation.

Various theories of management have been developed, based on assumptions of human motivation, as illustrated in the foregoing. However, in view of the complexities of the subject, there seems to be no universally applicable theory of motivation. As observed by Mavuso, each of the theories seems to have a 'grain' of truth but none of them seems sufficient to explain the behaviour of certain individuals at certain times and not of all individuals at all times.

Mavuso classifies motivation theories under three categories:

- ❖ Satisfaction theories which assume that a satisfied worker is a productive worker.
- ❖ Incentive theories otherwise referred to as the 'carrot and the stick' approach mentioned above, which are based on the theory that individuals will work harder when they are given specific reward for good performance or punished for failure to achieve desired results.

- ❖ Intrinsic theories which assume that people work best if given a worthwhile job and allowed to get on with it. The reward will be the satisfaction with the work itself.

(Mavuso, 1993 : 11).

However, theories of motivation can also be divided into two basic contrasting approaches, namely: the content theories and the process theories. Content theories are concerned with needs and their relative strengths and the goals pursued to satisfy these needs. These theories include: Maslow's hierarchy of needs; Alderfer's modified need theory; Herzberg's two factor theory; McGregor's theory X and Y; and, McClelland's achievement-motivation theory.

Process theories are concerned with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. They put emphasis on the actual process of motivation. They include the Expectancy models based on the research of Vroom, Porter and Lawler; the Equity theory; the Reinforcement theory; and, the Goal Theory (Mavuso, 1993 : 30).

However, this study will only concentrate on the theories which are applicable to staff development and school management. Moreover, these would hopefully impact in a positive manner on the principal's role in the development programmes for teaching staff in the Far North.

Things are not all as bad as they may seem initially. The challenge for the principal of the secondary school in the Far North is to harness and direct the motivation of the teaching staff to satisfy the needs of the school as an organisation.

Research into motivation dates back to the early 1900s in North America. One of the first experiments was by Elton Mayo (Harvard) at the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric and is thus known as the Hawthorne experiment. In brief, Mayo came to the conclusion that people work better if management take an

interest in them. Some later research by Abraham Maslow followed on from the Hawthorne experiment.

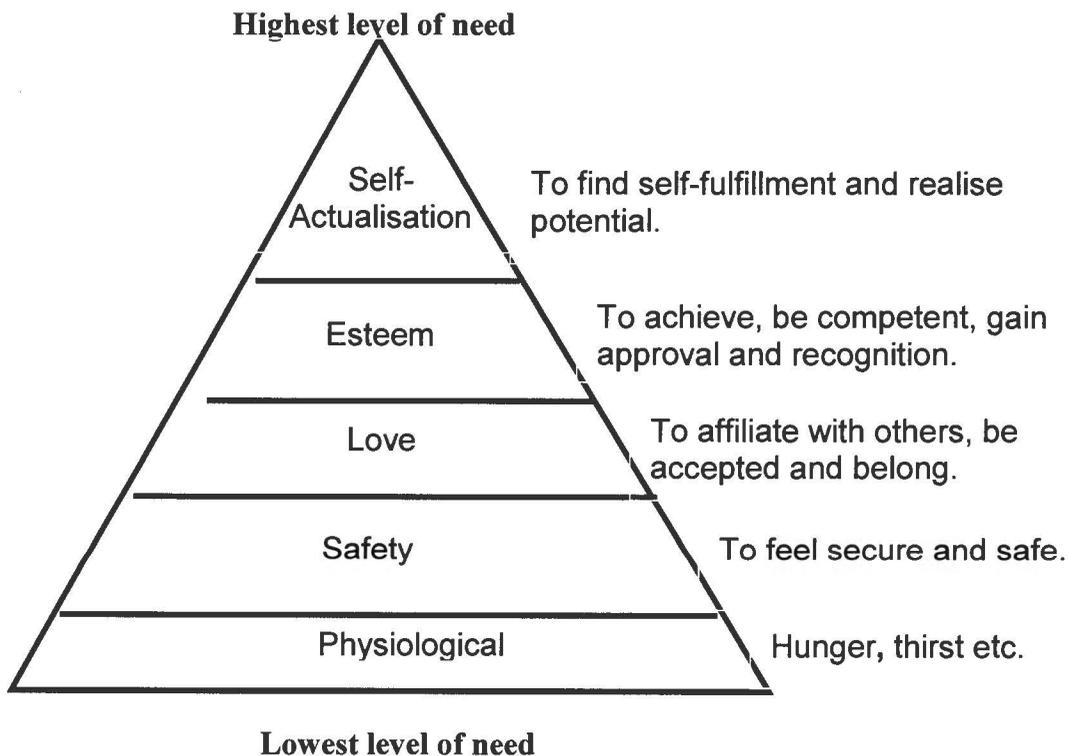
The motivation of the teachers depend on the strength of their motives. Motives are aimed at the objectives. Motivation originates from a need and is a process which initiates and sustains action. First, a need arises. The need leads to stress, which then results in motion (action) to satisfy the need.

4.6.3 Theories of motivation

4.6.3.1 Maslow's theory of motivation

Abraham Maslow's theory emerged from the belief that motivation comes from the desire to satisfy some need. Through this, Maslow developed his 'Hierarchy of Needs' as demonstrated in figure 4.7 below:

FIGURE 4.7 : MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS



Source: Mullins (1999 : 46)

There are two main types of motivation according to Naidoo (1995 : 12), namely, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is motivation from the inside, for example, hunger, curiosity and so forth. On the other hand extrinsic motivation refers to motivation from the outside persons, for example, are concerned about acceptance by others, money and so on (Mavuso, 1993 : 15).

Therefore needs are motivators and are satisfied in a stepped hierarchical fashion, with lower level needs being satisfied first. Needs are only motivators when they are unsatisfied.

The view of basic needs propounded by Maslow flows from the idea of homeostasis. This suggests that the body constantly seeks to achieve a balance of its constituent elements. When the balance of the body is disturbed, for example, through hunger, the person is motivated to eat; through thirst to drink; and, through tiredness to sleep.

Now the question arises: How can the principal assist teaching personnel to meet their needs with respect to development programmes?

❖ *Physiological Needs*

Principals should ensure, among other things, that the school is not too noisy, light levels in the classroom are acceptable, breaks for food and water are built into the work-day and time is available for visits to the lavatory. In this way, teachers should be able to concentrate on their work and not be distracted by bodily needs.

❖ *Safety Needs*

Principals should provide for safety measures at the work-place. Teachers should believe that they have a regularly paid job for the foreseeable future so that they may be able to plan forward. The teacher should also believe that she or he will not lose possessions. 'Possessions' refers not just to material

goods like a house, a home or a car, but also to future earnings like pension, sick pay and any guaranteed pay increases or promotions.

❖ *Love Needs and a Sense of Belonging*

Principals should dedicate their initiatives towards ascertaining that teachers feel that they are recognised as members of a group or a team. This may be addressed by having groups or teams working in close physical proximity and having regular group 'get-togethers' for business purposes and possibly for leisure.

❖ *Esteem Needs*

Principals should help teachers feel self-worth and that their circle of acquaintances recognises them as having 'importance' of some kind. This may come from job titles, access to special perks, the best teacher of the year awards or just from being known as a hard worker and so on.

❖ *Self-Actualisation*

Self-actualisation is one's natural desire to pursue personal excellence or fulfil one's potential. This may be difficult to contain within an organisation if one's potential, or their aspect of personal excellence, does not fit in with the needs of the organisation. However, it may be possible for the principal to offer work to the teacher that relates to his or her interests. For example, a teacher who is interested in sports may be given a project or position as head of Sports and Culture, or to liaise with visitors from other schools.

What is required from the principals is to find out what motivates the teachers. They ought to consider how these motivators may be used to benefit the organisation as well as the individual.

4.6.3.2 *McClelland's Theory of Achievement, Power and Affiliation*

McClelland also developed a theory which based motivation upon satisfying needs similar to Maslow. McClelland's theory is predicted upon three needs: the need for achievement; the need for power; and, the need for affiliation. The need for achievement was found to be highest among the people. To satisfy the need for achievement may or may not require the participation of others (Mullins, 1999 : 425).

In his research, McClelland found that managers, were ranked as the highest with respect to the need for power. McClelland differentiates between personalised and socialised power. All power is the desire to influence or control others, but personalised power at its extreme is control over others through interpersonal actions while socialised power at its extreme is altruistic and exercised for the use of others. Power can add to the satisfaction of an individual's need pattern if all the needs as indicated previously with respect to Maslow's hierarchy of needs are satisfied. For example, principals can use their power to influence the superintendent of education in the appointment of new teachers, in sending one of the teachers on INSET courses or study leave, or in the promotion of a teacher. The principal should know how to exercise his or her power so as to contribute towards staff development.

Human beings always have strong need for affiliation, which lead them to join groups and conform to the written and unwritten rules of that group. Principals should allow their teaching personnel to affiliate to various teaching unions and political parties of their choice. This will help them to grow both academically and professionally.

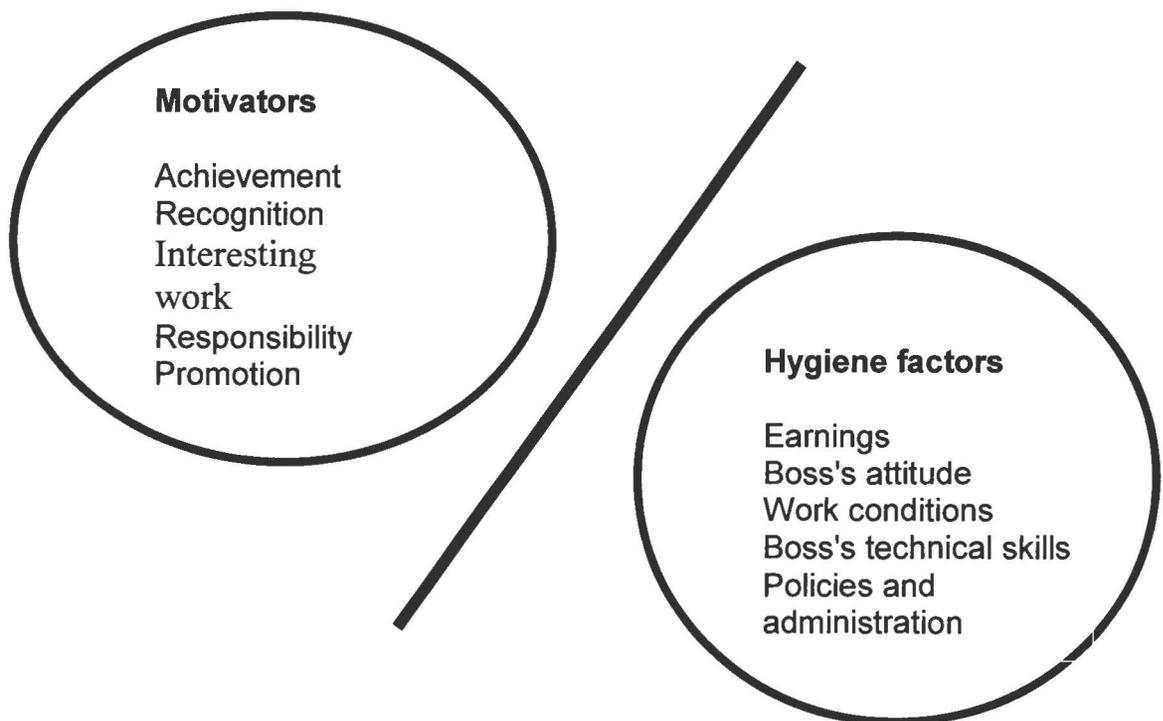
4.6.3.3 *Herzberg's Theory of Motivation*

Frederick Herzberg conducted his basic research in North America into what made people feel job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Interviews with approximately 200 engineers and accountants provided him with a list of motivators and demotivators as follows: Motivators answer the question 'why

work harder?’ whereas Hygiene factors answer the question ‘why should I stay with this organisation?’ Fig. 4.8 below gives further details of this dichotomy.

The researcher is of the opinion that this theory can also be used or employed by principals in the Far North secondary schools. Both factors (motivators and hygiene factors) can contribute towards the development of teaching personnel in the schools.

FIGURE 4.8 : HERZBERG’S HYGIENE MOTIVATION FACTORS



Source: Mabuza (1998 : 7)

The factors above the line in figure 4.8 are also regarded as clear motivators to the teaching personnel. Undoubtedly, teachers feel motivated when they receive acknowledgement and recognition for achievement, interesting work, responsibility and promotion.

The hygiene factors were deemed by the engineers and accountants to cause a level of dissatisfaction if they were removed or reduced. Similarly, for educators, hygiene factors can also cause problems if they

are removed or reduced. If the hygiene factors are not correctly in place teachers as other personnel will be demotivated.

In essence, what makes teachers motivated at work are the tasks they perform; whilst what makes teachers unhappy at work is the environment in which they do that work. Many aspects of the hygiene factors emerge from actions and decisions of the organisation whilst the motivating factors come mainly from the manner in which the heads of departments operates. Principals have to persuade and encourage heads of departments to take the above factors into consideration.

4.6.3.4 *McGregor's theory X and Y*

As observed by McGregor, theory and practice appear to be inseparable. Successful school management in the secondary schools seems to depend significantly upon the ability to predict and control human behaviour in order to obtain desired consequences. It seems therefore necessary to learn the variety of assumptions that managers operate on in order to see which principles can be applied to human motivation and to educators in particular. McGregor (1960) in Chauke (1995 : 7) for example, made two propositions about human nature and behaviour at work. The two propositions are called "Theory X" and "Theory Y" and seem to have exercise great influence on school management and staff development.

Theory X represents the assumptions on which traditional organizations are based and caters for the lower level needs of people at work. In many cases it appears to have prevailed up to the present day. Theory Y represents a more sophisticated approach which takes into account higher level needs and aspirations of staff.

The gist of Theory X seems to be direction and control through a bureaucratic system of organisation and the exercise of authority. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and security levels of Maslow's hierarchy. The stress on productivity, on the evils of

featherbedding and on rewards for performance tend to reflect the underlying belief that management must fight an inherent human tendency to avoid work moreover, the theory also suggests that people will only work under external coercion and control.

The deficiencies of theory X have become apparent, particularly in the larger, more prosperous organisations. The human relations movement came to recognise that the human aspect was lacking in the work environment and identified the importance of social needs of people in the work place.

Motivation seemed to be the lacking ingredient from the old style of management and promised to be an important factor in managing people. As observed by Nkuna (1999 : 4):

“Motivation multiplies the efficiency of individual effort.”

(Nyathi, 1992 : 2).

The theories of motivation by Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg, McClelland already discussed in the previous pages, presented human beings as struggling to satisfy their needs, both material and psychological. These had powerful implications which suggested that bureaucratic organisations which ought to motivate employees through money or by providing secure jobs, confined human development to lower levels of the needs hierarchy.

The human relations view of management was to seek to improve the personal relationship between the boss and subordinates. This seemed to coincide with the general trend towards equality which seemed to be sweeping across several societies. Bennis (1969) in Mawila summarised the views of this movement as:

- A new concept of human beings based on increased knowledge of their complex and shifting needs, which replaces an oversimplified, innocent, push-button idea of human beings.
- A new concept of power, based on collaboration and reason, which replaces a model of power based on coercion and threat.
- A new concept of organisational values, based on humanistic democratic ideals, which replaces the depersonalised, mechanistic value system of bureaucracy.

(Mawila, 1995 : 12).

The assumption that the use of rewards, force and threat by the manager's authority no longer seems to be appropriate in the modern age of management, although theory X may still be appropriate, for example, in crisis situations. It soon came to be concluded that training was not sufficient to guarantee good performance, that the missing element was the wish or will to make an effort and that the old negative sanctions did not seem to be suitable instruments for bringing this about (Mavuso, 1993 : 4).

The implications of theory Y can be seen in regard to participative management, job design, management by objectives, performance appraisal and so forth which seem to be some areas in which management have great impact on staff development.

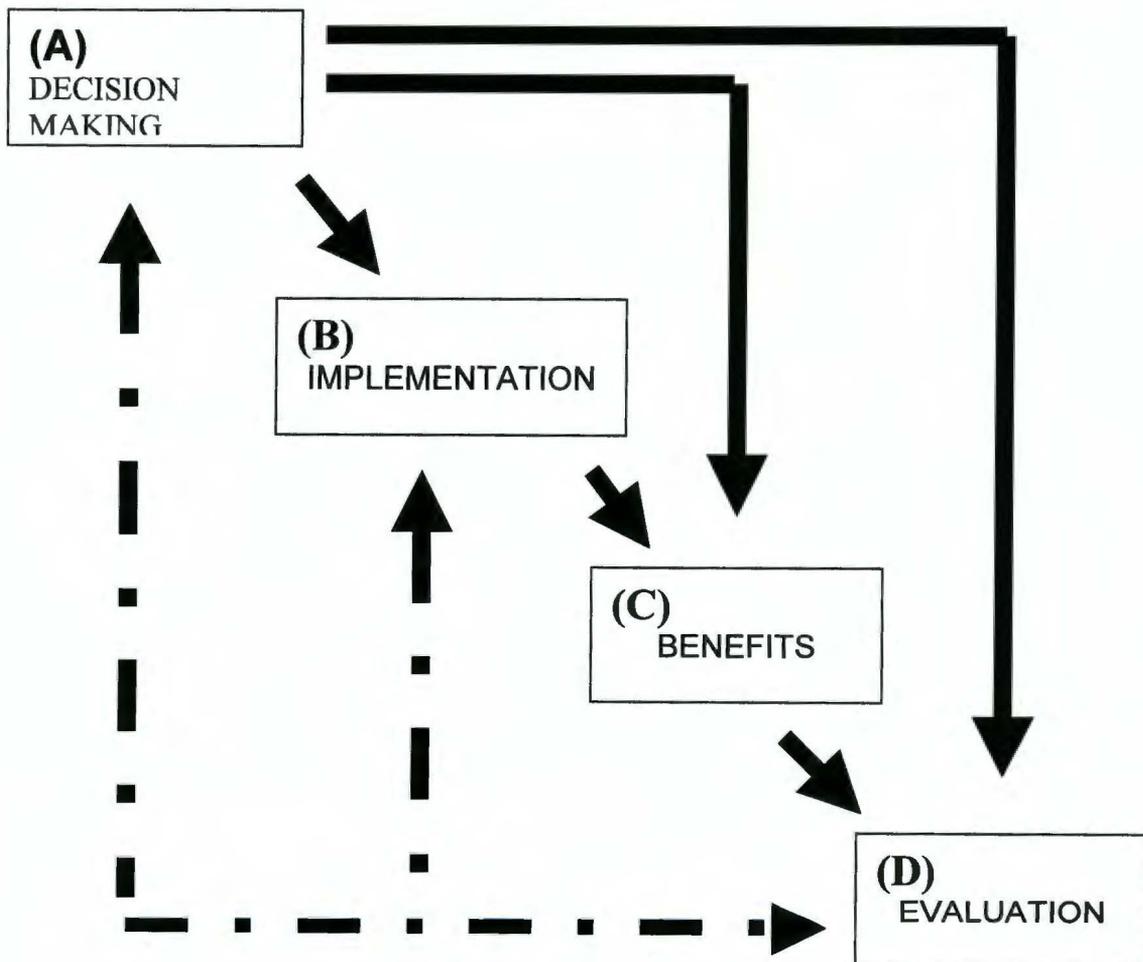
4.7 PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

Participation, as one of the key elements in staff development, is an important motivational factor. Participation allows teaching personnel to decide what kind of action to take to achieve a goal. Participation implies active involvement of staff members in decision-making, which means they become the subjects and not the objects of a staff development programme.

The purpose of teacher involvement in decision-making is to make teaching personnel conscious of their own needs, so that they can identify their own priorities in the light of available resources. Upward planning programmes with downward support are often acceptable and solid because the staff is committed to them.

Participation is important in four different activities – decision-making, implementation, benefits and evaluation. Figure 4.9 below provides a diagrammatic synopsis of these activities:

FIGURE 4.9 : THE FOUR KINDS OF PARTICIPATION



Source: Mabuza (1998 : 2)

Participatory management in the secondary schools implies the involvement of teachers, students and parents in planning, organising, guiding and controlling school activities and programmes.

Mabuza argues that participatory management does not mean that all stakeholders have equal power. Once principals or governing bodies are appointed by way of a democratic process, the rest of the school should support them and give them the right to make decisions on their behalf. In other words, participatory management is democratic and not anarchic.

(Mabuza, 1998 : 9).

Traditionally, the principal was expected to make decisions in isolation. This practice has been condemned as being undemocratic. Undemocratic principals want to have their way and they alone determine the policy. All decisions are taken by them and only certain tasks are allocated to staff. They take full responsibility for the decisions made and ensure that set goals are attained.

The undemocratic principal is the ruler, and as it were, the commander. Such a principal gives instructions to staff members individually instead of delegating via a pyramid structure. That is why the authoritarian type of principals try to be personal in their praise and criticism, but stand apart from the group. These type of principals are inclined to dominate and have difficulty in working with others. They are a stumbling block to the democratisation of education in the country.

A good teaching and learning environment requires that principals be reorientated to manage schools democratically. A principal who manages a school democratically is one who involves the 'people'. Such a principal involves staff by means of mutual consultation in decision-making. Decisions are made by means of voluntary and spontaneous communication and principals play an active role in this process. They provide staff with the opportunity to make a contribution. Definite efforts are made to create positive interpersonal relationships. They offer opportunities for original and creative contributions by staff members, and in this way they may contribute

to attaining goals. New perspectives are opened up during group discussions and staff are free to choose who they would like to work with.

Studies have supported the desirability of participation in decision-making in educational organisations, including secondary schools. The following points summarise much of the research and theoretical literature on teacher participation in decision-making:

- ❖ The opportunity to share in formulating policies is an important factor in the morale of teachers and in their enthusiasm for the school organization.
- ❖ Participation in decision-making is positively related to the individual teacher's satisfaction with the profession of teaching.
- ❖ Teachers prefer principals who involve them in decision-making.
- ❖ Teachers neither expect nor want to be involved in every decision; in fact, too much involvement can be as detrimental as too little.
- ❖ Participation in decision-making has consequences that vary from situation to situation.
- ❖ The roles and functions of both teachers and administrators in decision-making need to be varied according to the nature of the problem.
- ❖ Both internal and external factors affect the degree of participation in decision-making by teachers.
- ❖ Typical administrators are likely to prove ineffective due to deficiencies of acceptance by subordinates as well as due to limitations on the quality of the decision.
- ❖ In order to maximise the positive contributions of shared decision-making and to minimise the negative consequences, the principal as educational manager needs to answer the following questions:
 - Under what conditions should teachers be involved?
 - To what extent and how should teacher be involved?
 - How should the decision-making group be constituted?
 - What role is most effective for the principal?

It is evident that the involvement of teachers, students and parents will depend on the nature of the problem and the situation. The participation of students and parents in the management structures of schools and in decision-making is related to matters such as curriculum development and teacher evaluation. In this regard one would recommend the involvement of such stakeholders as a principle.

4.8 JOB DESIGN

The job designer seems to have an important role to play in staff development and management of teaching staff. Job design appears to be concerned with the specification of the contents, methods and relationships of jobs in order to satisfy technological and organisational requirements, as well as the social and personal requirements of the job holder (Donnelly *et al.*, 1994 : 505).

Job design seems to be one of the areas in which principals can motivate the teaching staff through job rotation, job enrichment, team-teaching and group work, for example, project work and so on. It is also an area in which they display their managerial styles, which can be either motivating or demotivating. It is for this reason that consideration of management by objectives, a way of managing people, is being brought in at this stage.

4.9 MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)

Objectives are needed in every organisation where performance and results directly and vitally affect the survival of an organization. They are the implicit formulations or explicit statements which establish the fundamental direction or the purpose of an organization (Mullins, 1999 : 221-222).

Instructional leadership implies that the principal as the manager of the secondary school should provide a clear vision and direction and be able to delegate certain responsibilities to competent staff. Moreover, effective principals as instructional leaders are capable of translating visions into

attainable goals and establishing a school climate that is not only conducive to learning, but is supportive of teachers.

Bernd argues that the single most important characteristic of successful principals is the ability to support the teaching staff in the planning and implementation of the school's instructional goals. He places further emphasis on the fact that the principal must advocate and implement decisions which will culminate in effective teaching and learning, focus a majority of time and energy on supervision and understand and apply conferencing and coaching techniques (Bernd, 1992 : 64).

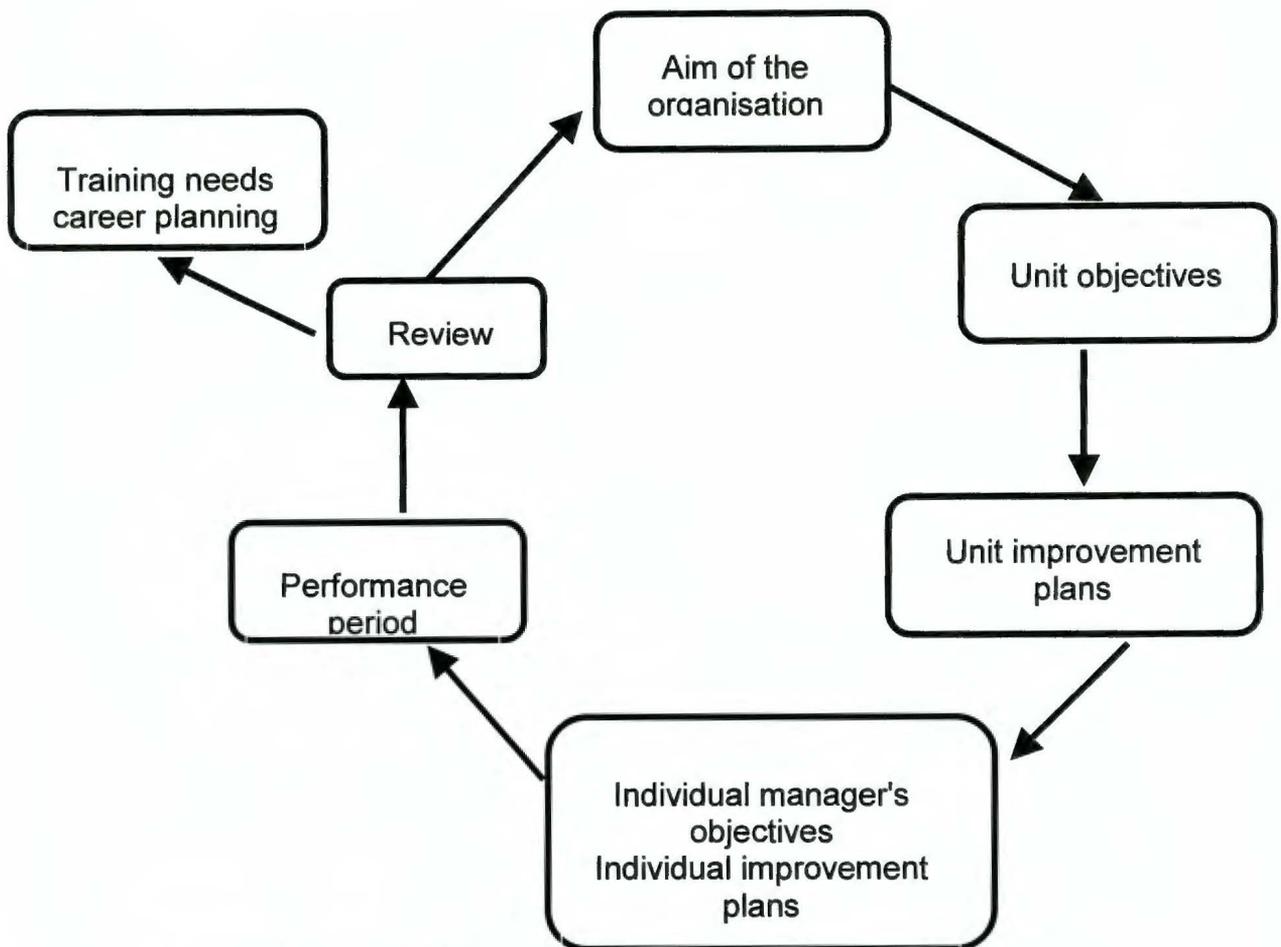
The responsibility of continual monitoring of goal achievement and intervention is a supportive way to ensure success, which is often regarded as crucial to effective principalship. Successful secondary schools have principals who are effective goal achievers. Naidoo maintains that goals and objectives are concerned with how much, where, when and by what means objectives are achieved by people. Without setting objectives and striving to achieve these objectives, a tendency to increase entropy could develop, which could eventually result in disorganisation or even chaos in the school.

(Naidoo 1995 : 15).

4.9.1 What is MBO?

In essence, management by objectives (MBO) is a dynamic system which seeks to integrate a company or an organisation's need to clarify and attain its profits or results and growth goals with the need of managers to contribute and develop themselves. Thus, it is a highly participative style of managing, placing the emphasis on results and leaving the individual managers wide discretion as to the manner in which they achieve them (Duignan *et al.*, 1993 : 23). MBO is a technique whereby the fixing of targets is a basis for achieving greater effectiveness throughout the whole of or part of an organization. This is lucidly illustrated in figure 4.10 on page 141.

FIGURE 4.10 : THE BASIC ELEMENTS OF THE MBO APPROACH



Source: Govender (1996 : 4)

(MBO) seems to be a systems approach for achieving desired ends. As advised by Aristotle:

“... the first have definite, clear, practical, ideal goals and objectives. Second, have the necessary means to achieve your ends - wisdom, money, materials and methods. Third, adjust your means to that end.”

(Govender, 1996 : 7).

Its purpose seems to be to encourage integration, to create a situation in which a subordinate can achieve his or her own goals best by directing his or her efforts towards the objectives of the organisation. It attempts to satisfy the esteem and self-actualisation needs.

It seems to be generally acknowledged that MBO cannot be successfully foisted on the wrong management style. It appears that the entire management style and approach must be supportive of MBO. MBO seems to thrive better in the participative style of management which encourages maximum participation by staff. While it can have some measure of success in a bureaucratic atmosphere, its effectiveness is likely to be greatly decreased by the excess of red tape, control and procedures (Mabuza, 1998 : 4).

4.9.2 MBO implication for Staff Development

Every teacher in the secondary school should have objectives, as should every unit, every department, every division and so on. Furthermore, objectives should be clearly stated so that they will be of some practical value. One of the key responsibilities of principals is to help their teaching personnel to clarify their objectives in terms which mean something to them.

The MBO system comprises:

- ❑ Objectives
- ❑ Plans
- ❑ Managerial direction and action
- ❑ Control (Monitoring)
- ❑ Feedback

As steps are commonly integral parts of any MBO scheme, top school management should:

- ❖ Determine the main objectives quantitatively and derive from them the main plan of action. This is often called the 'strategic' plan, and may cover a long period.
- ❖ Derive detailed plans which will contribute to the attainment of the main plan. These are often called 'tactical' plans, and will usually cover shorter periods.

- ❖ Deduce from each tactical plan which aspects of present practice can be changed to give the most significant contribution to achieving the new objectives. These are often called 'key results areas'.
- ❖ Discuss and agree with the managers responsible for each aspect what performance standards should be achieved in respect of each such 'key results area'. This is often referred to as a 'job improvement plan'.
- ❖ Assist managers to achieve the planned targets by:
 - Providing them with full control information.
 - Freeing them from over supervision.
 - Providing fair salary and succession incentives.
- ❖ Review performance at regular intervals to measure progress, to modify objectives where needed and to discuss further managerial development.

In order for the MBO system to function, the key comparisons must be operative as they seem so interdependent. Research and experience have led to the identification of five needs which, if catered for satisfactorily, could do much towards ensuring the achievement of the objectives set by schools and those of their teachers. Figure 4.11 on page 144 demonstrates the steps of the components in action as provided by Chauke (1995 : 5)

FIGURE 4.11 : ORGANISATIONAL RESPONSES

STAFF NEEDS	ORGANISATIONAL RESPONSES
1. 'Tell me (or agree with me) what you expect from me.'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarification of departmental and unit objectives. • Establishing priority areas and tasks. • Developing improvement plans. • Job descriptions.
2. 'Give me an opportunity to perform.'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational planning. • Resource allocation. • Delegation of authority.
3. 'Let me know how I am getting on.'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Control information. • Performance review. • Staff inspection. • Management services.
4. 'Give me help and guidance where and when I need it.'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career development. • Performance review. • Training.
5. 'Reward me according to my contribution.'	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary. • Potential review. • Succession planning. • Training.

Source: Chauke (1995 : 6)

4.9.2.1 *Implications*

❖ *'Tell me (or agree with me) what you expect from me.'*

This is the stage of establishing specific, time-limited, measurable and clearly assigned objectives. Principals are responsible for delivering results that can be achieved only with the assistance of the teaching staff. It seems they cannot obtain these results without making known what it is that the teaching staff are expected to achieve. The starting point is that both the manager and the managed should have a clear understanding of the work they are supposed to be doing and their personal responsibilities in relation to it.

This should be recorded, regularly reviewed and updated if necessary. The clarification of individual responsibilities and objectives seems to provide the foundation on which a constructive system of staff appraisal can rest. It does not seem to be possible to say with any objectivity how well a person is performing without knowing what the performance is intended to achieve.

❖ *'Give me an opportunity to perform.'*

Staff seem to be motivated if they are provided with adequate resources. These include equipment, time and space, to carry out the job. If they are given authority and freedom to get on with the job instead of being over-controlled and over-supervised the potential of achieving the objectives is increased manifold times.

Self-supervision or self-direction means that once objectives have been agreed upon subordinates should be left fairly free to supervise themselves with only a minimum of control from above. Taking this point further, delegation seems to be an important tool for the management of work and development of staff. If properly used, it can increase motivation, commitment and job satisfaction and probably enhance performance.

❖ *'Let me know how I am getting on.'*

This is the feedback method which is established to measure the subordinate's performance against objectives. Achievement oriented staff seem to be more motivated when they know how well they are doing. Effective monitoring of results, with regular discussion on progress made seems to be essential for good staff appraisal.

Discussion of the job tends to form part of the normal exchange between the manager and the managed and creates the basic working relationship. It also gives an opportunity to focus jointly on the extent to which objectives and target dates are being achieved, what improvements might be made, difficulties being met, or any corrective action needed. People tend to learn and change as a result of objective feedback and they normally feel happy to talk about their work, their ideas and their hopes. They seem to gain motivation through achievements and job satisfaction.

❖ *'Give me help and guidance where and when I need it.'*

This stage seems to involve managerial direction and control when carrying out objectives. The principal should be accessible and available for guidance and counselling. Regular review will help the principal or manager to decide how best to assist the development of the abilities of staff and to ensure that they are effectively deployed. If specific skills are needed, training may be arranged for personal development. The development of potential and self-actualisation are highly motivating devices. Although it is the responsibility of the principal or manager to identify job related training needs, teachers should also take some initiative for their development and growth.

❖ *'Reward me according to my contribution.'*

Reward can either be positive or negative. If teachers are doing their job well, the organisation should recognise their contributions by rewarding them and awarding them salary increments or promotion. These seem to be a very

motivating device as they seem to appeal to higher-order needs. Negative rewards can be in the form of disciplining in the event that subordinates are not doing their job well. If the case is genuine, subordinates can be motivated to better performance.

The MBO system can be contrasted with a style of management based on direction and control and adherence to rules. Much of its success seems to lie in the increased motivation and commitment that seem to result from putting members of staff in business for themselves.

In the final analysis it may also be argued that MBO has the following advantages:

- Individual job objectives are integrated with the objectives of the organisation's or, in our case, schools.
- Personal objectives such as achievement, self-development and so forth are also integrated with organisational objectives.
- The quality of delegation is improved.
- Information necessary for the management development of schools or other organisations and succession plans is available from more realistic sources, not based solely on personal assessments.
- Creativity and problem solving are encouraged since problems are brought to light early.

4.10 CONCLUSION

The South African society of which our secondary schools form a part is undergoing rapid social and economic changes, despite the resistance of some people in their sphere of operation. Schools are becoming more and more complex. The principals must be aware of the above mentioned processes if they are to offer effective management.

Principals are expected to change from rulers to leaders. They should take all the managerial functions into consideration. They must link both functions

and objectives with staff development. Good principals are those who motivate their staff and manage their schools democratically. They also offer opportunities for original and creative contributions by staff members, and in this way they may contribute to the attaining of goals.

In chapter Five some of the research methods described in chapter Two will be used to collect data. The data collected will be presented, analysed and interpreted so as to achieve objectives stated in chapter one.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE FAR NORTH SECONDARY SCHOOLS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with the empirical investigation and strategies employed in collecting and assessing data to indicate factors prohibiting or promoting the implementation of development programmes for teaching staff in the secondary schools in the Far North. In this chapter the researcher gives a detailed description of the empirical investigation. A detailed explanation of the research design is provided. In chapter one it was postulated that correct and relevant development programmes employed by the principals in the secondary school would improve teacher efficiency and effectiveness. This hypothesis is going to be tested by means of the data gleaned from the needs analysis for staff development in the secondary schools in the Far North.

The data that was gathered was subjected to statistical analysis to test the hypothesis. This chapter also describes the empirical methods used to collect the data, problems encountered in collecting and analysing the data. The data is also presented analysed and interpreted in this chapter which undergirds this research.

5.2 THE PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

The empirical investigation was designed with a view to determining:

- The various development programmes that principals could employ to enhance staff development.
- To determine whether principals encourage teaching personnel to take part in decision-making.

- To determine whether secondary school principals should be advised to employ different leadership-styles.
- To determine present needs and future staff development needs for the teaching staff.

5.3 TARGET GROUP

The target group for the empirical study included principals and teachers in the secondary schools in the Far North. It was decided to concentrate on principals as representatives of educational managers in the education system. Principals are familiar with various development programmes that can be used to improve the quality of teaching in the secondary schools.

Principals and teachers in the following districts and circuits were selected for this study:

❖ *Giyani district*

- Klein Letaba Circuit
- Man'ombe Circuit
- Nsami Circuit
- Shamavunga Circuit

❖ Phalaborwa district

- Groot Letaba Circuit
- Lelukani Circuit
- Namakgale Circuit

❖ Ritavi district

- Mafarana Circuit
- Nkowa Nkowa Circuit
- N'wanedzi Circuit
- Tzaneen Circuit
- Xihoko Circuit

5.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURES USED TO SELECT RESPONDENTS

Sampling refers to the process by which a sample (subset of population elements) is drawn from the population. Information obtained from the sample elements in a sample survey is generated by using statistical inference to reach valid conclusions regarding characteristics of the population as a whole (Stoker, 1989 : 100).

The research sample consisted of principals and teachers who were exposed to development programmes for teaching personnel. The numbers of principals and teachers used in the research are summarised in the table 5.1. below:

TABLE 5.1 : NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS RANDOMLY SELECTED

SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS
COMMUNITY	31
URBAN	18
TOTAL	49

The researcher obtained 49 responses from principals in the Far North area under the Department of Education, Sports and Culture –Limpopo Province. There is one principal from the former White senior secondary school who did not return the questionnaire to the researcher. Nevertheless (49) 98% of the Principals responded to the questionnaires asked by the researcher.

TABLE.5.2 : NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS PER DISTRICT

(V9) DISTRICT	PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS	%
Giyani	129	43,6
Phalaborwa	71	24,0
Ritavi	96	32,4
Total	296	100

The 303 questionnaires were sent out to randomly selected principals and 296 were received back, which was a 97,7% response rate. This according to recent literature on research is acceptable and limited generalisations may be made.

TABLE 5.3 : NAME OF CIRCUIT AND TYPE OF SCHOOL

Item		F	%	
(V10) Name of circuit	(V11) Type of school			
	<i>State</i>	<i>Community</i>		
01. Groot Letaba	-	3	19(State Schools)	38
02. Klein Letaba	-	6		
03. Lulekani	3	1	31 (Community Schools)	62
04. Mafarana	1	3		
05. Man'gombe	4	2		
06. Namakgale	4	1		
07. Nkowankowa	4	1		
08. Nsami	1	5		
09. Nwanedzi	0	4		
10. Shamavunga	2	2		
11. Tzaneen	1	0		
12. Xihoko	0	3		
Fx19=38% + 31=62%		Fx = 50	100%	

5.4.1 Analysis

Table 5.3 shows that 31 (62%) out of 50 secondary schools are community schools. These schools are in rural areas and were built by the members of the community. That is why they are called community schools. The remaining 19 (38%) state schools are found in the urban areas. These schools are situated in towns and townships next to big cities and towns in the Far North.

5.4.2 Interpretation

Most of the secondary schools classified under community schools do not have the resources and facilities needed to train and develop their staff members. These schools were built by the community without the assistance of the government. It can be seen from table 5.4 that the Limpopo Province has the lowest recorded matriculation results amongst all the provinces. This problem requires that the Department takes over community secondary schools and supports them in the same way that it supports state schools. This will help the principals to manage their schools well. Principals in the community schools will also have resources to develop their teaching personnel at their sphere of operation.

TABLE 5.4 : 1996-1997 MATRICULATION RESULTS FROM THE NINE PROVINCES

The Declining Pass Rate

	1996 PASS RATE	1997 PASS RATE	% CHANGE
Western Cape	80,4%	76,3%	-4,1%
Northern Cape	69,9%	63,7%	-6,2%
Mpumalanga	50,9%	45,7%	-5,2%
Kwazulu Natal	61,7%	54,0%	-7,7%
Gauteng	55,6%	51,5%	-4,1%
North West	66,6%	50,0%	-16,0%
Eastern Cape	49,7%	46,0%	-3,7%
Free State	51,1%	42,3%	-8,8%
Northern Province	37,0%	31,8%	-5,2%
TOTAL	54,7%	47,1%	-7,6%

SOURCE: SUNDAY TIMES, 11-01-1998

In both years (1996 and 1997) standard ten (10) examination results in the Limpopo Province were recorded as the lowest of all the provinces in South

Africa. The location of secondary schools in the Far North count a lot. For example, most of the secondary schools in the Far North, are in rural areas where there are no resources. Factors such as lack of physical resources, educators, learning materials and other related problems are the cause of high matriculation failure rate in the Far North of Limpopo. The above mentioned problems and other related factors are calling principals to develop relevant development programmes for their teaching staff so as to improve the situation.

5.5 STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section A comprised of personal and biographical data. Section A consisted of thirteen (13) questions related to life, experience and qualifications of the respondents.

Section B and C of the questionnaire were designed to show the importance of planning, organisation and leadership on staff development. These two sections consist of twenty seven (27) questions. The questionnaires were directed to gather data with respect to the needs, strategies and management of staff development programmes in the Far North of Limpopo.

Section D of the questionnaire was designed to assess resources, teaching and learning materials in the Far North secondary schools. This section consisted of three (3) questions related to physical, human and other resources in the above mentioned schools. The questionnaires were directed to gather data with respect to the availability of resources, teaching and learning materials.

5.6 CONTROL OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Three hundred and three (303) questionnaires for the pretest were distributed personally by the researcher to principals and teachers in the Far North of Limpopo Province. These respondents were randomly selected from fifty (50) secondary schools in the area of the study. Two hundred and ninety six (296)

of the respondents were very co-operative and supportive. They made valuable contribution towards the completion of the study.

There was only one principal and his six (6) teachers who did not return the questionnaires to the researcher. These staff members were from the former white school in the area of the study. They did not fill the questionnaires on the day the researcher visited the school. They promised to send the questionnaires by post but nothing was received from them. Follow up was made by the researcher but all was in vain. The number of questionnaires returned were 296 (98%). This was regarded sufficient by the researcher to validate the results from the findings.

5.7 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

The data collected through the questionnaire were processed by computer, due to the large number of participants in this research. The following deductions could be made from the tabled data:

TABLE 5.5 : BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Item	F	%
Q2 (V3) Age in years		
1. 20-29	47	15,9
2. 30-39	151	51,0
3. 40-49	81	27,4
4. 50-59	15	5,0
5. 60-69	2	0,7
6. 70+		
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.1 Analysis

Table 5.5. indicates that 296(100%) of principals and teachers responded very well. In V3 (Age), 259 (87.6%) of the respondents were 30 years and older while 37 (12,4%) fell between the ages 20-29 years.

5.7.2 Interpretation

The above shows that most of the respondents are above 30 years. This shows that most of the educators in the Far North received their PRESET long time ago. These educators need more INSET courses to develop them both academically and professionally.

There were fewer young respondents because few newly trained teachers were employed after 1994. The majority of young teachers were left unemployed in the new dispensation. Many colleges in the Far North were closed down because of the above problem.

TABLE 5.6 : GENDER AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Item	F	%
(V4) What is your sex?		
1. Female	97	32,8
2. Male	199	67,2
	Fx = 296	100,0
(V6) Number of years in teaching profession		
1. 1-9	137	46,3
2. 10-19	114	38,5
3. 20-29	42	14,2
4. 30-39	2	0,7
5. 40+	1	0,3
	Fx =296	100,0

5.7.3 Analysis

In (V4) indicates that 199 males (67,2%) and 97 females (32,8%) responded Well.

5.7.4 Interpretation

There were fewer female respondents because more males are promoted into the positions of principalship in the secondary schools. The majority of female principals are found in the primary schools. When male principals become more educated and experienced they are appointed to senior positions, for example, as principals of senior secondary schools, school inspectors etc. Such a process is rarely found among their female counter parts.

The above process shows that most of members of school governing bodies at Far North secondary schools are still doubting the ability and leadership of women in the secondary schools. This policy is not in line with gender policies formulated by the government. It also de-motivates women to do further studies. Those who are involved should take other factors into consideration and be gender sensitive.

5.7.5 Analysis

In (V6) Experience, 159 (53,7%) respondents had 10 years and more teaching experience while 137 (46,3%) had teaching experience ranging from 1 to 9 years.

5.7.6 Interpretation

Teachers are promoted into positions of deputy principal and principal after they have acquired some teaching experience. Hence, the majority of respondents could qualify to be promoted to the above-mentioned ranks as they had 10 or more years of service. Less experienced teachers in the Far North have adequate know-how on how to use some of the teaching methods

in the classrooms. This impacts negatively towards environmental teaching and learning. The above problem requires that principals in the Far North come with relevant development programmes that will solve it.

TABLE 5.7 : PROFESSIONAL ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS

(V7) Academic	F	%
Std 8	0	0
Standard 10 certificate	104	35,1
Bachelor degree	139	47,0
Honours degree	48	16,2
Masters degree	5	1,7
Doctors degree	0	0
	Fx = 296	100,0
(V8) Professional		
P.T.C	5	1,7
J.S.T.C	23	7,8
S.S.T.C	10	3,4
P.T.D	5	1,7
S.T.D	108	36,5
UED	22	7,4
HED	64	21,6
HDE	21	7,1
OTHER	38	12,8
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.7 Analysis

Table 5.7 Shows that 139 (47.0%) of the respondents had Bachelor's degrees, and 104 (35,1%) had a standard 10 while 53 (17,9%) had postgraduate qualifications.

In V8, Common professional qualifications, indicates that 10 (3,4%) of the respondents passed the Primary Teacher's Certificates and 5 (1,7%) Primary Teachers Diploma. Those respondents who had the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificates comprised 23 (7,8%).

108 (36,5%) of the respondents had a Secondary Teachers' Diploma. Eighty six (29%) of the respondents had postgraduate diplomas in teaching, namely, HED and UED. Twenty one (7,1%) had a four year diploma (H.D.E) and the last thirty eight respondents had other teaching qualifications, e.g. Further Diplomas in a field of specialisation.

5.7.8 Interpretation

The Department encourages teachers with standard ten and two-year qualifications in education to improve their professional qualifications. Most of the respondents falling under category M+1 and M+2 are doing their Advanced Certificate in Education, so as to improve their categories and their salaries accordingly. Hence, there are few teachers with lower professional qualifications in the Far North secondary schools.

TABLE 5.8 : TEACHER – STUDENT RATIO

Item	F	%
(V13) Teacher – student ratio		
1. 1:15 – 1:25	2	4,1
2. 1:26 – 1:35	26	53,1
3. 1:36 – 1:45	15	30,6
4. 1:46 – 1:90	6	12,2
	Fx = 49	100,00

5.7.9 Analysis

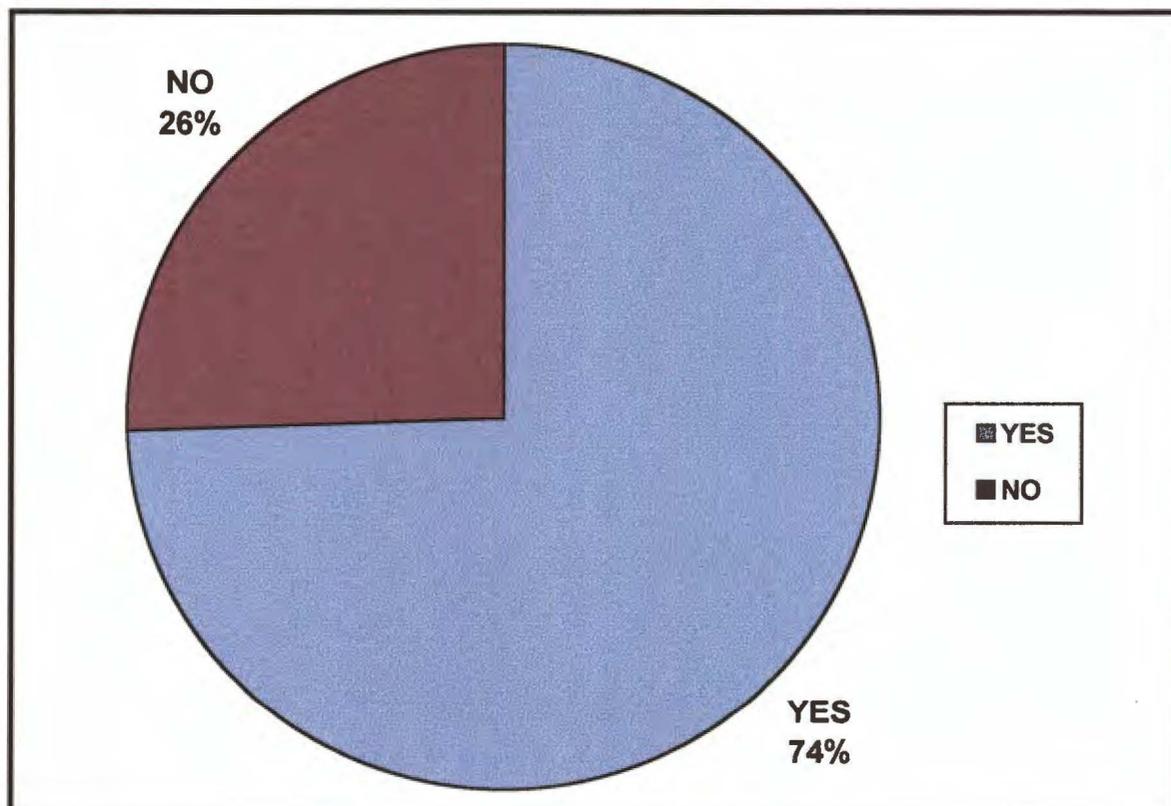
Table 5.8 shows that teacher-student ratios differ greatly in the Far North secondary schools.

5.7.10 Interpretation

Data from the above table reveal that most secondary schools have reasonable teacher-student ratios, ranging from 1:26-1:35 (49,7%). Fourteen schools had 1:36-1:45 of the teacher-student ratios. It was discovered that there were still some secondary schools, which had a ratio of between 1:46-1:90 (11,8%). These are mostly found in the rural areas. Of significance is the fact that 1: 15-1:25 (4.7%) is found in the urban areas, for example, in the ex Model C schools.

This disparity impacts negatively on teaching and learning at the rural secondary schools. For Example, secondary schools that are having high pupils ration in the Far North get poor matriculation results at the end of the year.

Figure 5.1: ATTENDANCE COURSES AND OTHER PROGRAMMES



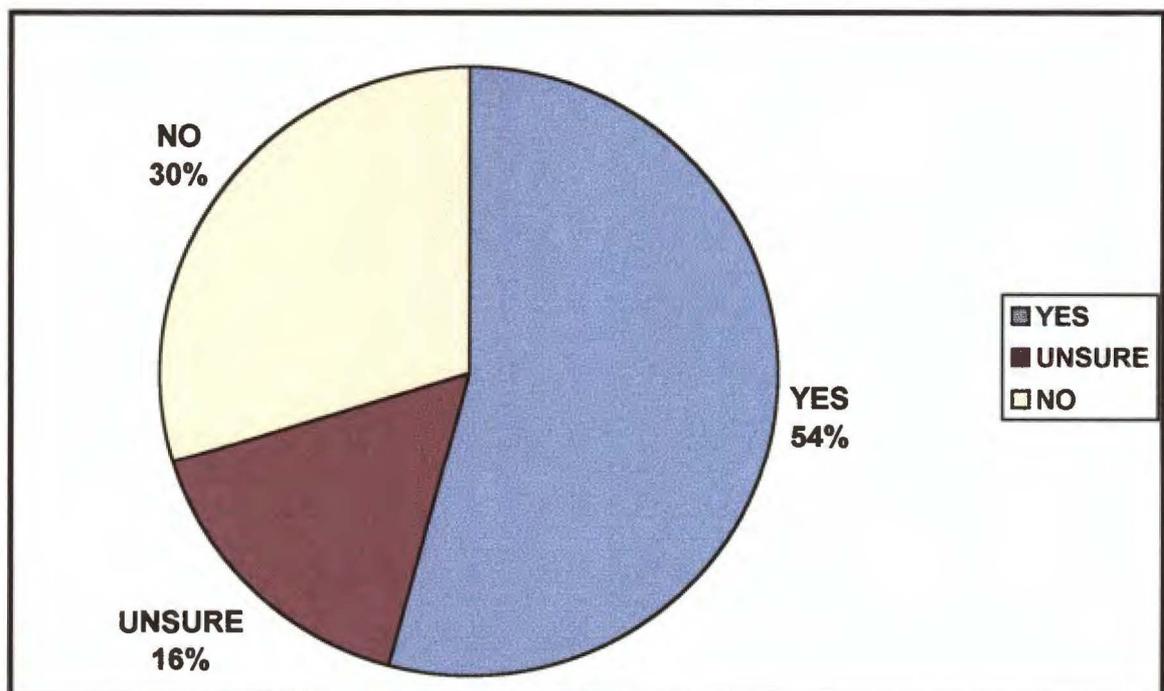
5.7.11 Analysis

Figure 5.1 Indicates that 220 (74,3%) of the respondents agreed that they had attended INSET courses and other related programmes. There were only 76 (25,7%) of respondents who did not attend any course since they were employed in their various schools.

5.7.12 Interpretation

From these findings it is evident that principals of some secondary schools in the far north were encouraging their teachers to attend INSET courses organised by the Department of Education. Those who did not attend, were either not forced by their principals or were restrained by lack of resources at their schools. This kind of practice has serious educational implications in that principals supervise teachers and resources; and rarely promote staff development at the Far North secondary schools.

FIGURE 5.2 : GIVEN AN OPPORTUNITY TO DISCUSS THE COURSE CONTENT



5.7.13 Analysis

From Figure 5.2 it is noted that 160 (54,1%) of the respondents agreed that they were given opportunity to discuss the course content with the other staff members. It is also observed that 88(29,7%) of the respondents were not given an opportunity to discuss the course content with the other staff members in their schools. Forty-eight (16,2%) of the respondents are recorded as unsure cases.

5.7.14 Interpretation:

It must be noted that most of the secondary schools in the Limpopo Province do not have a clear policy concerning staff development and feedback after an INSET course. This could be the reason why some principals are not insisting on their staff members to share INSET courses with other teaching personnel.

THE PLANNING AND ORGANISATION OF THE INSET COURSES

TABLE 5.9 : HOW LONG WOULD YOU PREFER AN INSET COURSE TO LAST?

Item	F	%
(V16) Length of inset		
1. ½ day	10	3,4
2. 1 day	41	13,9
3. 2 day	80	27,0
4. 1+ Week	115	55,8
	<i>F_x = 246</i>	100,0
(V17) How many times per year		
1. Once	8	2,7
2. Twice	32	10,8
3. Three times	48	16,2
4. Four times	139	47,0
5. Five times	28	9,5
6. Six or more times	41	13,9
	<i>F_x = 296</i>	100,0

5.7.15 Analysis

Table 5.9 (V16) shows the duration of INSET course preferred by principals and Teachers. 115 (55,8%) of respondents preferred one week-long courses. 80 (27,0%) of respondents preferred two-day courses, and 51 (17,3%) preferred half to one-day courses.

5.7.16 Interpretation

From the data presented in table 5.9 it can be deduced that both teachers and principals of secondary schools in the Far North prefer week-long or longer courses, which are well organised and well planned. This shows clearly that teaching personnel need their immediate managers to organise week-long

INSET courses at their schools so as to gain both professionally and academically.

5.7.17 Analysis

(V17) shows the suggested frequencies of courses. 139 (47%) of the respondents preferred to attend courses in a subject four times a year. Forty-eight (16,2%) preferred to attend courses three times a year, 69 (23,4%) preferred to attend courses five or more times a year and 40 (13,5%) preferred to attend courses once or twice a year.

5.7.18 Interpretation

From these findings it is evident that most of the respondents wanted to attend INSET courses regularly. They also prefer courses that would develop them both academically and professionally. These could be possible if the principals could be given some powers by their authorities to organise and arrange the above courses in their schools.

FIGURE 5.3: WHERE WOULD YOU PREFER TO ATTEND INSET COURSES

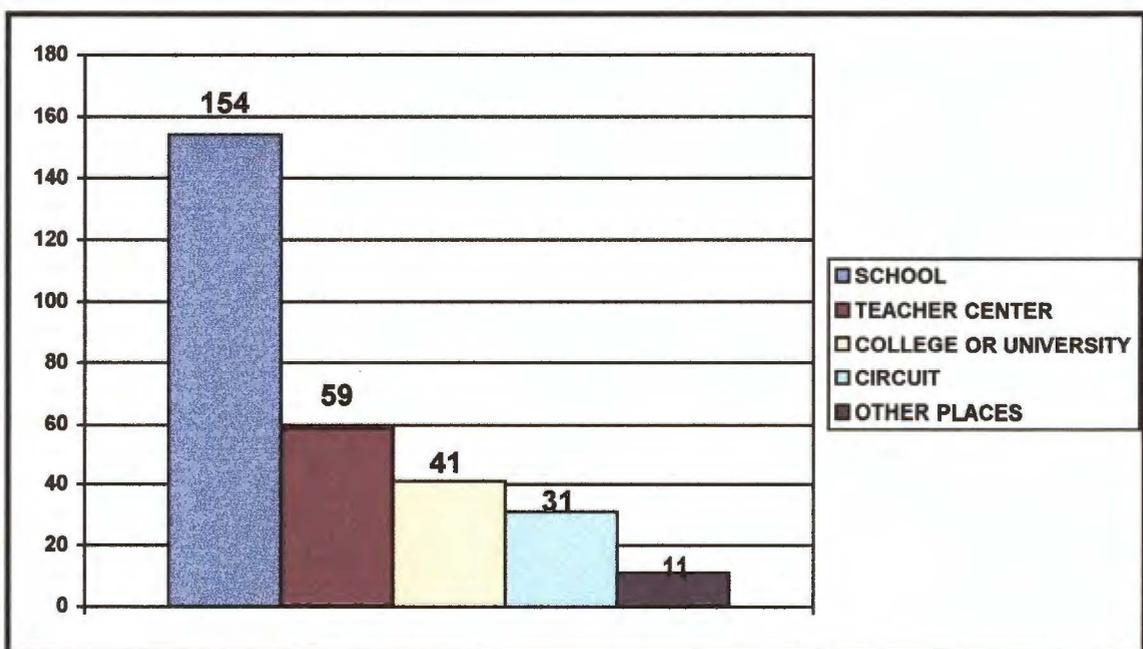
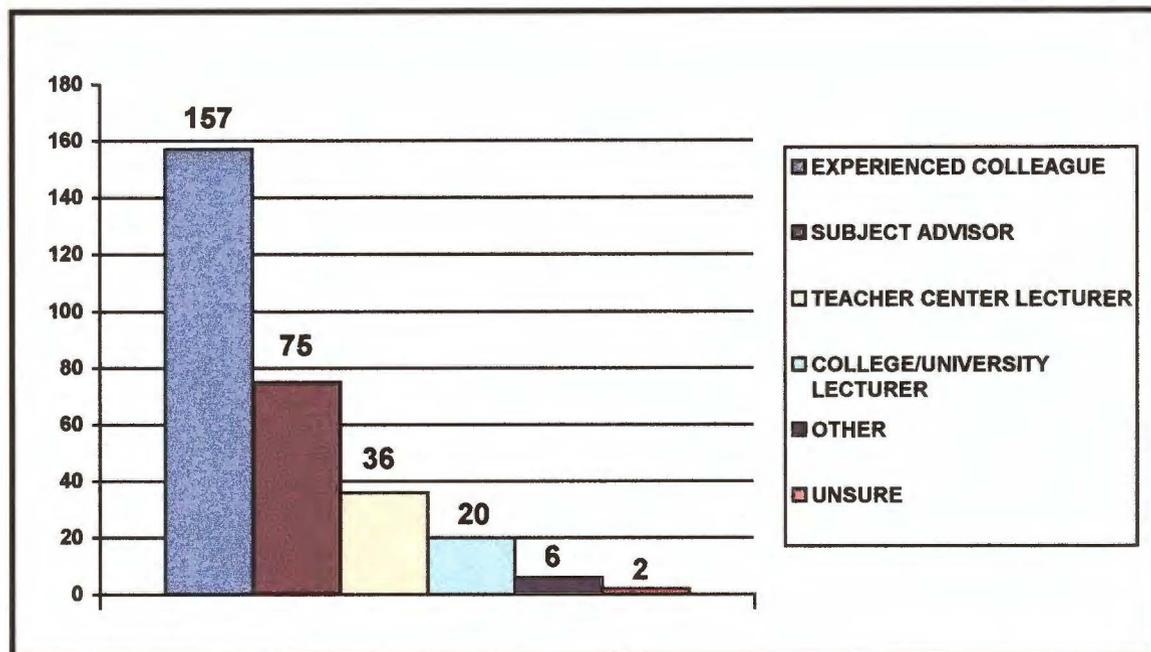


FIGURE 5.4: COURSE LEADER OR FACILITATOR



5.7.19 Analysis

Figure 5.3 indicates that 154 (52,0%) of the respondents, preferred to attend their INSET courses at the school. Fifty-nine (19,9%) of the respondents, wanted to attend their INSET courses at a College or University. Thirty-one (10,5%) wanted to attend these courses at the circuit office, while forty-one (13,9%) of the respondents wanted to attend the above courses at a teachers' centre. Only eleven (3,7%) of the respondents want to attend INSET courses in other places.

Figure 5.4 reveals that 157 (53,0%) of the respondents wanted their experienced colleagues to become course leaders or facilitators. Seventy-five (25,3%) of the respondents, preferred the subject adviser to be the course leader or facilitator while thirty six (12,2%) of the respondents wanted a teachers' centre lecturer to be the course leader or facilitator. Only six (2,0%) of the respondents wanted other people to be course leaders or facilitators. Two (0,7%) of the respondents were not sure.

5.7.20 Interpretation

From the findings it is evident that most of the respondents preferred school based INSET training than other forms of training. The majority of respondents who want to attend their INSET training courses at school have supported this. They want staff development to take place in their work situation so that teaching personnel can relate the development to their performance and achievement. In the staff development process, the principal may organise INSET courses while experienced and senior staff members facilitate or lead the training programmers. Other experts can be used as consultants if need be. This will help both the educators and the facilitators to understand and analyse the problems that are taking place in the classroom environment.

TABLE 5.10 : TEACHERS SHOULD BE CONSULTED WHEN INSET COURSES ARE BEING DECIDED UPON

Code	F	%
(V20) Teachers should be consulted when topics for INSET courses are being decided upon.		
1. Agree	14	4,7
2. Strongly agree	258	87,2
3. Unsure	2	0,7
4 . Disagree	9	3,0
5. Strongly disagree	13	4,4
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.21 Analysis

V(20) shows that 272 (91,9%), the majority of the respondents, agreed that teachers should be consulted when topics for INSET courses are being

decided upon. Twenty (7,4%) of the respondents disagreed while two (0,7%) of the respondents were unsure.

5.7.22 Interpretation

91,9% of the respondents confirmed that teachers want constant consultation whenever staff development programmes are planned and implemented. Development is enhanced when all stakeholders are involved in the development process. The principal should request in-puts from other staff members before the process of implementation. This is a clear indication that most of school managers in the Far North are still using telling style rather than democratic style in the secondary schools. Through staff development, principals can understand management change better.

TABLE 5.11 : CAN SOME TEACHERS BE USED TO CONDUCT USEFUL INSET COURSES?

Code	F	%
(V21) Teachers should be used		
1. Agree	124	41,9
2. Strongly agree	142	48,0
3. Unsure	17	5,7
4. Disagree	7	2,4
5. Strongly disagree	6	2,0
	F _x =296	100,0

5.7.23 Analysis

V(21) indicates that 266 (89,9%) of the respondents agreed that teachers should be used to conduct INSET courses. Thirteen (4,4%) of the respondents disagreed, while seventeen (5,7%) of the respondents were unsure.

5.7.24 Interpretation

The majority of the respondents support the idea of using experienced teachers in conducting INSET courses. Teachers' experiences should not be ignored when ever the courses are planned or implemented. It is, however, important that the principals should identify teachers who have expertise in various field. This process will help both teachers and principals to develop academically and professionally. The involvement of teachers will also create confidence amongst the participants and facilitators.

Educators that are producing good results in the Far North secondary schools are waiting anxiously to help and conduct INSET courses to their colleagues that are not doing well.

TABLE 5.12 : INSET COURSES SHOULD HAVE STRONG LINKS WITH PRESET

Code	F	%
(V27) Links between In-service and Pre-service training		
1. Strongly agree	140	47,3
2. Agree	138	46,6
3. Unsure	17	5,8
4. Disagree	1	0,3
5. Strongly disagree	0	0
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.25 Analysis

Table 5.12 reveals that 278 (93,9%) of the respondents agreed that there should be a strong link between INSET courses and PRESET, while 17 (5,8%)

were not sure about the linkage. On the other hand, 1 (0,3%) of the respondents disagreed in this regard.

5.7.26 Interpretation

Most of the respondents believe that a connection between PRESET courses and INSET courses would be valuable. Perhaps the principals could be encouraged to find out who the respondents believe would benefit from this linkage or connection. The above revelations call the principals at the Far North secondary schools to narrow the gap between PRESET and INSET so as to have continuity in both academic and professional development.

TABLE 5.13 : TEACHERS SHOULD BE TESTED ON THE CONTENT AND ISSUED WITH CERTIFICATES

Code	F	%
(V28) Teachers should be tested		
1. Strongly agree	102	34,5
2. Agree	136	45,9
3. Unsure	19	6,4
4. Disagree	23	7,8
5. Strongly disagree	16	5,4
	F _x = 296	100,0

Code	F	%
(V29) Certificates should be issued		
1. Strongly agree	164	55,4
2. Agree	83	28,0
3. Unsure	20	6,8
4. Disagree	20	6,8
5. Strongly disagree	9	3,0
	F _x = 296	100,0

5.7.27 Analysis

Table 5.13 indicates that 238 (80,4%), the majority of the respondents, agreed that teachers should be tested at the end of the INSET courses. Two hundred and forty seven (83,4%) of the respondents agreed that certificates should be issued at the end of INSET courses.

5.7.28 Interpretation

Most of the respondents in Table 5.13 confirmed that teachers should be tested and be given certificates at the end of the INSET programme. This would encourage teaching personnel to attend INSET courses in various centres. Tests should encourage them to concentrate and to revise the work done. Certificates would be used as a token of appreciation and achievement at the end of the INSET Course.

Certificates have a serious impact on the teachers who have attended INSET courses. They use these certificates to support their experiences when they apply for higher positions. Most of the teachers in the Far North, keep their certificates for future reference and use.

TABLE 5.14 : THE PRINCIPAL AIM OF INSET AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT IS TO IMPROVE THE LEVEL OF INSTRUCTION IN A SPECIFIC SCHOOL

Code	F	%
(V30) The aim is to improve the level of instruction in a school		
1. Strongly agree	116	39,2
2. Agree	106	35,8
3. Unsure	27	9,1
4. Disagree	24	8,1
5. Strongly disagree	23	7,8
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.29 Analysis

Table 5.14 shows that 222 (75%) of the respondents agreed that the aim of INSET and staff development is to improve the level of instruction in a school while 47 (15,6%) disagreed. 28 (9,4%) of the respondents were not sure about the issue.

5.7.30 Interpretation

It is evident from these findings that both principals and teaching personnel see the importance of having INSET and staff development programmes in their schools. These programmes are regarded as vital tools in improving their level of instruction in various schools. Schools are regarded by most of the respondents as good venues for both instructional leadership and teaching.

TABLE 5.15 : SCHOOL BASED INSET IS PREFERABLE TO THOSE ORGANISED CENTRALLY BY THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Code	F	%
(V31) School based in-service training is preferred to that centrally organised		
1. Agree	91	34,5
2. Strongly Agree	102	30,7
3. Unsure	50	16,9
4. Disagree	42	14,2
5. Strongly disagree	11	3,7
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.31 Analysis

Table 5.15 indicates that 193 (65,2%) of the respondents preferred school-based INSET to the one organised centrally by the government officials. 53 (17,9%) disagree with the statement. Only 50 (16,9%) of the respondents were not sure.

5.7.32 Interpretation

This is a strong indication that both principals and teachers want to be empowered so as to organise and develop INSET courses in their schools. Principals of these schools are in good positions to organise and supervise these programmes. The principals are in a better position because they understand the culture and climate of their schools better than the government officials do. This can also help to minimise the travel cost for course attendance.

The above mentioned process helps the principals of neighbouring schools to organise INSET courses jointly. It also encourages team work amongst teachers who teach the same subjects at different schools. This creates the spirit of harmony and unity between schools and teaching staff the Far North.

TABLE 5.16 : STAFF DEVELOPMENT CAN BE CONDUCTED IN VARIOUS WAYS AND CAN E ASSISTED BY INSTITUTIONS AND ORGANISATIONAL BODIES

Code	F	%
(V32) Staff development can be conducted in various ways		
1. Strongly agree	142	48.0
2. Agree	140	47.3
3. Unsure	10	3.4
4. Disagree	3	1.0
5. Strongly disagree	1	0.3
	F _x = 296	100.0

5.7.33 Analysis

Table 5.16 reveals that 282 (95,3%) of the respondents agreed that staff development can be conducted in various ways. Four (1,3%) of the respondents disagreed while ten (3,4%) of the respondents were unsure.

5.7.34 Interpretation

From these findings it is evident that the majority of the respondents are familiar with various methods and programmes that can help in conducting staff development. Various ways and strategies should be known by both the facilitators and the recipients of knowledge. This will help both facilitators and teachers to know various ways of conducting staff development programmes.

The more the facilitators know about various methods and strategies of developing staff, the more the staff gain both professionally and academically. These have a lot of impact on the teaching and learning situation.

TABLE 5.17 : STAFF DEVELOPMENT SHOULD HAPPEN ACCORDING TO A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Code	F	%
(V33) Staff development should happen according to a plan		
1. Strongly agree	146	49,3
2. Agree	127	42,9
3. Unsure	15	5,1
4. Disagree	6	2,0
5. Strongly disagree	2	0,7
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.35 Analysis

V(33) indicates that 273 (92,2%) of the respondents agreed that staff development in schools should happen according to the staff development plan. Eight (2,7%) of the respondents disagreed while fifteen (5,1%) of the respondents were unsure.

5.7.36 Interpretation

These results confirmed that staff development should happen according to a plan. Respondents knew the importance of planning in staff development. Principals should include staff development programmes in their year plan, so as to improve the quality of teachers at their schools. Staff development plan helps teachers in the Far North to gear themselves towards it in advance. It also helps the facilitators to prepare and to know when they will be expected to present INSET courses.

TABLE 5.18: THE HEADS OF DEPARTMENT SHOULD SEE TO IT THAT THE TEACHERS WHO HAVE ATTENDED INSET COURSES UTILISE THE NEW MATERIAL AND INFORMATION GAINED

Code	F	%
(V34) Materials and information gained from INSET should be utilised		
1. Strongly agree	150	50,7
2. Agree	133	44,9
3. Unsure	6	2,0
4. Disagree	3	1,0
5. Strongly disagree	4	1,4
	F _x = 296	100,0

5.7.37 Analysis

V(34) indicates that 283 (95,6%) of the respondents agreed that materials and information received from INSET should be utilised in various schools. Seven (2,4%) opted to be against the statement while only six (2,0%) were unsure.

5.7.38 Interpretation

The findings show that most of the respondents confirmed that the materials and information gained from the INSET courses should be utilised. The school managers should see to it that materials and information gained from INSET are applied and used by various subject teachers.

It has a lot of impact if principals instruct teachers who attended INSET courses to pass it on to other staff members. Teachers in the Far North have more respect for their principals than they do for any other persons in the school situation. This process encourages teachers who attend INSET courses to listen attentively and to take some notes to other staff members who did not manage to attend.

TABLE 5.19 : LEADERSHIP AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Code	F	%
(V35) The principal should nominate those members of staff to whom the course has relevance		
1. Strongly agree	250	84,5
2. Agree	34	11,5
3. Unsure	6	2,0
4. Disagree	3	1,0
5. Strongly disagree	3	1,0
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.39 Analysis

V(35) reveals that 284 (96%) of the respondents agreed that Principals have to nominate the members of staff to whom the course has relevance. Nine (2%) of the respondents chose to be against it while six (2%) were uncertain.

5.7.40 Interpretation

The principals should use their prerogative to nominate staff members to attend INSET courses. Principals are expected to select teachers for requisite INSET courses. In the past some principals used to send teachers who were not teaching some of the subjects conducted at the INSET centre. This created a lot of problems for most of the teaching personnel because they were forced to attend INSET courses for subjects which they are not allocated to teach. This demotivated most of the teachers who attended such courses. INSET courses should be attended by teachers who are teaching the same courses offered by the INSET. This will help teachers to excel and develop both academically and professionally. People learn faster when they are studying something that they are interested in. This can also motivate the teachers to attend INSET courses whenever they are invited.

TABLE 5.20 : LEADERSHIP AND DISSIMINATION OF INFORMATION TO OTHER STAFF MEMBERS

Code	F	%
(V36) Principal must see to it that teachers who have attended courses should pass information to others.		
1. Yes	283	95,6
2. No	9	3,0
3. Unsure	4	1,4
	F _x = 296	100,0
Code	F	%
(V37) The principal maintains a balance in the organisation of all programme components.		
1. Yes	260	87,8
2. No	12	4,1
3. Unsure	24	8,1
	F _x = 296	100,0

5.7.41 Analysis

V (36) indicates that 283 (95,6%) of the respondents agreed that the principal should see to it that teachers who attended INSET courses should pass information to others. Nine (3,0%) of the respondents disagreed. Four (1,4%) of the respondents were uncertain.

V(37) shows that 260 (87,8%) of the respondents agreed that the principal should maintain a balance in the organisation of all programme components in

the school while twelve (4,1%) disagreed with the statement. Twenty-four (8,1%) were unsure.

5.7.42 Interpretation

Most of the respondents in V(36) still regard the principals as persons with authority. They see them as the person who can instruct teachers to pass information to other members of staff. 95,6% confirmed that the principal should make it a point that teachers pass information and knowledge gained from INSET courses.

This was also supported by the 260 (87,8%) who wanted the principal to maintain a balance in the organisation of all programme components. This shows that the respondents regarded the principal as both a professional and instructional leader.

The above findings show clearly that principals are still commanding respect and leadership in the Far North secondary schools. The above mentioned information calls the government officials to give more power to principals so as to enable them to develop their teaching personnel.

TABLE 5.21 : THE PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP STYLE

Code	F	%
(V38) An authoritative – consultative participative leadership style is the best style in INSET		
1. Yes	212	71,6
2. No	36	12,2
3. Unsure	48	16,2
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.43 Analysis

V (38) reveals that 212 (71,6%) of the respondents preferred the combination of leadership style, while 36 (12,2%) were against the combination of the leadership style 48 (16,2%) of the respondents were unsure on how the style should be used.

5.7.44 Interpretation

The principals' leadership style is important in the school. From these findings it is evident that those principals who preferred to use a combination of leadership styles were more popular in their school management. There is no style that is regarded as the best in school management. All styles are good if used appropriately by the leader.

If principals in the Far North use the leadership style appropriately, it can increase motivation amongst the teaching staff. Combination of styles can also solve many problems related to discipline in the Far North secondary schools.

TABLE 5.22 : THE ROLE PLAYED BY OBJECTIVES AND POLICY IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Code	F	%
(V39) The principal should set clear objectives, which are relevant and attainable for staff development.		
1. Yes	272	91,9
2. No	14	4,7
3. Unsure	10	3,4
	F _x = 296	100.0

5.7.45 Analysis

V (39) shows that 272 (91%) of the respondents agreed that the principal should set clear objectives that are relevant and attainable for staff development. Fourteen (4.7%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement while ten (3,4%) of them were unsure.

5.7.46 Interpretation

From these findings it is evident that most of the respondents wanted the principals to set clear objectives that are relevant and attainable for staff development. The principals should also clarify some of the objectives to their staff members. This should help to clear some of the problems that the staff might encounter in the process of attaining the above objectives.

Clear objectives have done away with uncertainties among the teaching staff. They also serve as guidelines for most of the teachers in the Far North. These will also encourage teachers to work very hard so as to achieve intended objectives.

TABLE 5.23 : MOTIVATION AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Code	F	%
(V40) The principal should always motivate his or her teachers to upgrade their knowledge.		
1. Yes	292	98,6
2. No	2	0,7
3. Unsure	2	0,7
	Fx=296	100,0

5.7.47 Analysis

Table 5.23 indicates that 292 (98,6%) of the respondents agreed that principals should always motivate their teaching personnel to upgrade their knowledge while performing their duties at school. On the other hand, 2 (0,7%) of the respondents opted to be against the statement. Two (0,7%) of the respondents were not sure in this regard.

5.7.48 Interpretation

The principals require not only to lead their subordinates, but also to motivate them to do further studies. The principal should be exemplary in acquiring knowledge. The principal should always be available and accessible to give guidance to their staff members.

Most of the principals in the Far North are more to child-centered than teacher- centered. Educators are not doing well because of lack of motivation from school management. Some of the above principals are not leading by examples.

TABLE 5.24 : LEADERSHIP STYLE AND DECISION-MAKING

Code	F	%
(V41) Principal's leadership style should foster joint decision-making.		
1. Yes	280	94,6
2. No	8	2,7
3. Unsure	8	2,7
	F _x = 296	100,0

5.7.49 Analysis:

V (41) reveals that 280(94,6%) of the respondents preferred a leadership style that fosters joint decision-making. On the other hand, 8 (2,7%) of the respondents chose to be against it. 8 (2,7%) respondents were not sure whether they preferred joint decision-making or not.

5.7.50 Interpretation

The principal's leadership style determines their success and achievement in their schools. Principals as managers have the primary task to work harmoniously with their subordinates. They need the co-operation of the teaching personnel to attain goals and objectives. Principals, as leaders in their schools, are expected to have consensus with teachers, so as to make joint decisions with them. Top down approach has caused a lot of dissatisfactions among educators in the Far North secondary schools. Principals that are using bottom up approach in the Far North are getting more co-operation from their subordinates.

TABLE 5.25 : SCHOOL POLICY AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Code	F	%
(V42) The principal's development policy should make provision for adaptation and innovation.	274	92,6
1. Yes	9	3,0
2. No	13	4,4
3. Unsure		
	Fx=296	100,0

5.7.51 Analysis

V (42) indicates that 274 (92,6%), the majority of the respondents, agreed that the principals' development policy should make provision for adaptation and innovation. Nine (3,0%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement while 13 (4,4) of them were unsure.

5.7.52 Interpretation

Of the respondents 92,6% confirmed that both principals and teachers need school policy that make provision for adaptation and innovation. Staff development can take place optimally if principals develop a sound policy for their schools.

It is, however, important that such development should take place after consensus has been reached by all teaching personnel. Consensus is the only process that can lead to good governance in the school. Although educators want to be involved in policy formulation, it is the task of the principal in the Far North to formulate school policies and see to it that are implemented correctly at their schools

TABLE 5.26 : RESOURCES AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Code	F	%
(V43) The school has enough instructional materials, namely teaching and learning media.		
1. Yes	26	8,8
2. No	265	89,5
3. Unsure	5	1,7
	Fx = 296	100,0

5.7.53 Analysis

In this item, the respondents were requested to give their views on the teaching and learning media. V (43) shows that 265 (89,5%) of the respondents do not have either teaching or learning media. Only 26 (8,8) respondents had teaching and learning media.

5.7.54 Interpretation

These results confirm that the majority of the respondents were in the rural secondary schools where there are inadequate facilities. There were few privileged respondents 26 (8,8%) who agreed with the statement. It may be concluded, from general consensus of the respondents, that the Department of Education has a role to play in the provision of physical and learning material at the Far North secondary schools. However, principals should serve as the key developmental agent, which drives the process forward.

TABLE 5.27: RELEVANT BOOKS, MATERIALS AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Code	F	%
(V44) Our school library has relevant books and materials that can contribute towards staff development	16	5,4
1. Yes	278	93,9
2. No	2	0,7
3. Unsure		
	Fx=296	100,0

5.7.55 Analysis

Data from (V44) reveal that most resource centres do not have relevant books and materials that can contribute towards staff development. This has been

supported by 279 (93,9%) of the respondents. Principals from these secondary schools experience great difficulty in developing their staff. Only 16 (5,4%) of the respondents indicated that their schools had relevant books and materials.

5.7.56 Interpretation

The gross injustices in the past have been resources in the schools. During the apartheid regime, these schools in the former homelands were seriously deprived of necessary infrastructure. In contradistinction, nearly all of the ex model C schools which are mainly White schools, have relevant books and materials that can contribute towards staff development.

Lack of resources and learning materials have demotivated many teaching personnel not to continue with their studies in the Far North of Limpopo.

TABLE 5.28 : AVAILABILITY OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Code	F	%
(V45) There is a library in our secondary school.		
1. Yes	66	22,3
2. No	227	76,7
3. Unsure	3	1,0
	Fx=296	100,0

5.7.57 Analysis

In (V45), 227 (76,7%) of the respondents revealed that most secondary schools in the Far North do not have libraries. Only 66 (22,3%) out of 296 respondents reported that there were libraries in their schools.

5.7.58 Interpretation

Most secondary schools that do not have libraries are those situated in the rural areas. People in rural communities cannot provide facilities such as libraries and laboratories. Unlike those who are in the urban areas most people in rural areas are not working. Private companies frequently build or sponsor facilities such as libraries, or educational centre in the urban schools because of their relationship with the workers and the people who are staying in the township.

The principals should invite consultants to train some of their educators to principals at Far North secondary schools should be empowered by consultants on how to make good relationship with the corporate world. This process will help to attract more financial aid and sponsors at the above schools.

5.8 DATA COLLECTED BY FISHER'S TEST

Fisher's test was also used to collect data from hundred (100) respondents in the area of the study. The findings and results from the above test are tabled and discussed below.

TABLE 5.29 : FISHER'S EXACT TEST

Results of Fisher's exact test for comparing of community and state school principals (P= 0,0220)		
School (Principals)	Lack of instructional material	
	NO	YES
Community	1 (3,3%)	29(96,.7%)
State	5 (27,8%)	13 (72,2%)

According to table 5.29 (results from Fisher's exact test for a 2 X 2 contingency table), 96,7% of community schools v/s 72,2% of state schools indicated with significant difference ($P = 0,220$) a lack of instructional materials.

The result of the above test confirmed that there is a serious need for instructional materials in the Far North secondary schools. The community schools however, had a significantly higher need for these resources, hence the poor matriculation results in these schools. These findings show clearly that community schools were mostly neglected during the homeland system in the Far North of Limpopo Province.

5.9 DATA OBTAINED FROM STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

In this section data obtained through interviews with government officials, principals, educators, learners and other stake-holders are presented. The responses from the above stake-holders have given the researcher a clear picture about the situation and factors that hinder the principals to develop development programmes for their teaching staff in the Far North.

5.9.1 Facets that prohibit principals to implement staff development programmes in the Far North secondary schools

In this research the following facets were identified by the respondents as the main factors that prohibit the staff development in the Far North secondary schools:

- Lack of clear INSET policy. Out of the hundred people interviewed, 90% of them indicated that they do not know of an INSET policy formulated by the Department of Education in Limpopo. Ten per cent (10%) responded that they only know the one formulated by the previous regimes, namely, Gazankulu Department of Education and D.E.T under the apartheid government.

- Lack of staff development programmes at schools. Out of hundred educators interviewed, 95% revealed that principals were not allowed to organise programmes in the Far North secondary schools.
- Lack of induction courses for principals and educators. 90% of the school managers interviewed, indicated that they were not inducted into their new positions as school managers.
- Lack of resources and learning materials. 80% of respondents out of hundred interviewees revealed that they did not have relevant resources for staff development at their schools.
- Lack of management and leadership skills at their sphere of operation. 90% out of hundred secondary school principals interviewed, indicated that they were not taught how to use different managerial and leadership skills at their work.

5.9.2 Implications of the results: Structured Interviews

The most crucial findings in this study is that principals in the Far North of Limpopo were not empowered to conduct and develop staff development programmes at their schools. The five factors revealed in this section, are some of the facets that hinder principals to develop their teaching personnel in the Far North secondary schools.

The above mentioned problems have a serious managerial and instructional leadership implications in the Far North secondary school. This kind of situation raises questions on how principals will be able to develop their staff when they have no relevant resources and learning materials at their schools. Principals will not be expected to conduct orientation courses while they have not received any managerial training and induction courses themselves. This practice has serious leadership and educational implications in that government officials check and control resources and never conduct or

develop staff development programmes for the teaching personnel in the Far North secondary schools.

From this survey most of interviewees / respondents agreed that principals by virtue of their positions are in good standing to develop their teaching personnel better than those who are working in the district and provincial Department of Education. From my conclusion, principals need to be empowered in order to do their jobs properly in the Far North secondary schools.

5.10 CONCLUSION

This study reveals that the problems concerning the management of staff development by school principals in the Far North secondary schools, needs further in-depth empirical investigation. Some of the problems were revealed and elicited by this research study. From the findings one can conclude that there is a need for school based INSET in the Northern Province.

This chapter describes the principals' managerial role regarding the development of their teaching personnel. It also examines how school principals could improve staff effectiveness and defiant performance in their schools.

Structured questionnaires and personal interviews were used to gather the data from community and state secondary school respondents in Far North Area of the Limpopo Province.

In the next chapter, guidelines for the implementation of development programmes by principals in the Far North secondary schools will be discussed. The intention of this discussion is to develop relevant INSET model that will empower principals to develop training programmes for their teaching staff.

CHAPTER 6

GUIDELINES FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES BY PRINCIPALS IN THE FAR NORTH SECONDARY SCHOOLS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study as the title suggests, namely, *The principal's role in the development programmes for the teaching staff in the Far North of the Limpopo Province*, suggests that an INSET model be developed for the region. Before a model of this nature can be designed, there are factors that must be considered. For example, the nature of the problem as detailed in chapter one, the findings of related research and the peculiar circumstances of the target community.

Principals are, by virtue of their position, leaders of teachers, pupils and parents at their schools. As professionals, educators in secondary schools are also expected to be leaders in situational and professional development.

The principal has always been recognised as a leader in the South African education system . What is new is that, as a result of the restructuring process, the leadership role of principals is changing direction and becoming more complex. Their role is thus crucial not only in facilitating change but in transforming the management approaches used, so that they become more effective in meeting the needs of the education system, development programmes and protocols especially at the provincial and local level.

In practice this means that principals of secondary schools, whether working in rural or urban areas, must learn to be more decisive and assertive in their leadership roles. They must adopt leadership styles and development programmes that not only enable effective change but also empower those involved in promoting education and the teaching initiative to become ‘ self-leaders’ in the management of the tasks delegated to them. Principals of

secondary schools in the Far North will be successful if they adopt some of the leadership styles and INSET models described in Chapters Two and Three respectively.

In Chapter Two, it was argued that there is more than one INSET model concerning staff development. This chapter will argue that the school-based INSET model enjoys more support than other INSET models. Hence, a school-based model such as that propagated by Hartshorne (1994) would be a viable model to implement staff development programmes in the Far North. The reasons are that school principals exercise more influence on learning in their work than any other single person. Furthermore, “ *being a principal of a school is not enough; the principal must lead the school towards educational excellence*” (Mabuza, 1998 : 3). The school is a place where principals can establish their power-base and employ development programmes to develop their teaching staff. To be a leader of the school requires the principal to choose the right model or strategy so that staff will feel more comfortable and grow professionally.

In Chapter Three reference was made to the various concepts and theories related to leadership and management. In this chapter, then, it becomes necessary to consider other models that are applicable to school-based INSET models, arising from the analysis of the data in Chapter Four.

6.2 THE SCHOOL-BASED INSET MODEL

In the current reappraisal of INSET the role of the school is perhaps the most neglected factor in the whole process. Joyce *et al.*, in Bagwandeen and Louw (1993 : 107) have the following to say:

“If the education profession is to flourish and if schools are to be a vital force in society, it is necessary to rebuild the school into a life-long learning laboratory not only for children but for teachers as well.”

One corollary of the autonomous school working out its own organisation and curriculum is the need for every school to determine its INSET needs. Only thus can a school's planning be sure of transition into action.

Schofield shows how the school-based approach to INSET emerged out of teacher professional development models in the United Kingdom in the 1960s. The "*professional development*" approach saw INSET given to teachers as individuals through non-school based courses by subject advisers or other specialists. Material was seldom relevant to teachers' school environments and rarely included support or follow-up. The content of these approaches was regarded as irrelevant by teachers. It was imperfectly suited to meeting the needs of the education system since it ignored problems faced by teachers on returning to school (Schofield, 1994:159, see also Bolam, 1982 : 216)

Schofield (1994 : 159) goes so far as to note that the programmes were "*typically carried out by distant rationalists well removed from classroom activity.*" To support this statement, in (V21) 266 (89,9%) respondents affirmed that teachers should be used to develop other colleagues in their schools.

In the 1990s School-based in-service Education and training (SBINSET) re-emerged in different contexts. In the United Kingdom SBINSET developed in the context of changes under way in the British education system initiated by the Baker Act (1988). This act attempted to increase state control of educational outcomes through centralised national examinations while divesting responsibility for educational provision from the state by increasing school-level managerial responsibilities (McBride, 1992 : 8 and Simkins, 1994 : 15). With this increased emphasis on school-based control and management, school-based approaches to INSET have been revisited (Schofield, 1994 : 161).

In the developing world, SBINSET has been applied in, amongst other countries, Malawi and Zimbabwe. In both these countries SBINSET is seen as a viable solution to pressing education and development problems. In Malawi,

for example, school-based INSET is seen as central to overcoming the challenges of universal primary education and it is felt that “well planned SBINSET may provide the only way of upgrading professional skills” (Coombe, 1994 : 10). According to Coombe, this INSET needs to be part of “*school development planning and could include clustering of schools.*”

Experiences with SBINSET in the developing world indicates that:

- Programmes emphasise ownership, peer support and collegiality (Zimbabwe, Better Schools Programme: Programme documentation, cited in Coombe 1994 : 69).
- Programmes are cost effective, decentralised and participant driven (Coombe, 1994 : 15).
- SBINSET can be used as a form of INSET or PRESET, an approach followed in countries in the Caribbean and Asia (Coombe, 1994 : 16).
- Although integration problems exist between national and district priorities and those of schools, these can be overcome by clear task descriptions and frameworks as well as by the establishment of clear loci of responsibility within Ministries of Education for teacher and school utilisation, development and support (Coombe, 1994 : 20; see also, Gauteng Teacher Policy Task Team, 1994 : 9).

To support the above ideas, Hartshorne (1994) argues that INSET programmes are most effective when they operate “*close to where teachers are and with their full involvement and participation, and where it is co-operative and democratic in its style and nature*” (1994 : 280). The above information was also supported by respondents in the Far North as indicated in (V20) where 291 (98,3%) agreed that teachers should be involved and consulted when topics of INSET courses are being decided and planned. All of the sources listed above support the importance of the school-based INSET model proposed by this study.

Currently, INSET provision for teachers in the Far North is only loosely matched to the needs of the profession and very rarely to the varied needs of schools. Keen teachers in some provinces have deepened their knowledge and extended their skills by judicious use of subject advisers, superintendents of education, university staff, experienced teachers inside and outside their school and other external advisers or consultants. In the Far North INSET courses are usually organised and planned by superintendents of education and subject advisers. These courses are normally conducted at the former colleges of Education, circuit and regional offices. Officials are reluctant to conduct INSET courses at schools. Both principals and teachers are not empowered to organise and plan these courses at their schools.

INSET should begin in the schools. It is here that learning and teaching take place, curricular techniques are developed and needs and deficiencies revealed. All secondary school principals should regard the continued training of their teachers as an essential part of their role function. In addition, all members of staff should share responsibility for the implementation of INSET programmes.

The above-mentioned model (SBINSET) encourages the participation of teachers throughout the process. Principals and teachers support one another so as to attain intended goals in the school. Principals and teachers at secondary schools in the Far North have good reasons to support SBINSET. The study showed that 193 (65,2%) of respondents prefer school-based INSET to one centrally organised by the government officials. The above information was also supported by 260 (87,8%) respondents who agreed that the principal should maintain a balance in the organisation of all programme components in the school.

The application of the above model will solely depend on the leadership style of the principals in their place of work.

6.3 LEADERSHIP AND THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Leadership, as discussed in Chapter Three is an integral part of the school management process. It is seen as the ability of a leader to influence attitudes and behavioral patterns in such a way that the tasks and objectives of the school are completed within an agreed time.

To be effective as leaders in terms of the foregoing theoretical underpinnings, principals of secondary schools in the Far North will need to develop flexible leadership styles. For this they will need to know when to take full control, when tasks can be delegated safely and when they must relinquish their directive roles and as experts give support, advice and guidance to teachers, parents and students.

Naidoo (1995 : 4) maintains that leadership is *“the ability to align employees behind a common objective, to get them to buy into common values and to shape and see a vision of what could be.”* He also sees leadership as *“a process requiring a great deal of skill, insight, instinct, sensitive understanding of human nature and the willingness to take difficult decisive action when not all the facts are known.”*

Govender (1996 : 6) sees leadership as *“primarily a process of motivation”*. Other authors point out that leadership includes the ability to lead others in attaining goals and the ability to guide and direct the way.

Two concepts come through clearly in the above definitions. Firstly, the process or need to lead, implying a futuristic perspective, for example a vision or mission of the school, and secondly the process or need to inform, support, guide and motivate individuals and groups in achieving appropriate individual or mutually supportive goals, implying a shared concept in terms of responsibility and accountability. Furthermore, being a principal of a school is not enough; the principal must lead the school towards educational excellence (Nkuna, 1999 : 13).

Principals, because of their unique position in the school and the different levels of the education system, are in an ideal position to assume this leadership role. They can play a major part in facilitating development programmes and development in their sphere of operation.

In contemporary education systems, their leadership skills are seen as crucial for the successful carrying out of school projects and programmes planned for teachers and the school as a whole. The success of principals in this will depend on their ability to develop these skills as well as their understanding of the dynamics that affect the leadership process.

In chapter three, various theories on leadership were reviewed. The following theories were discussed:

First-level theories, mentioned were those referring to 'great man theory' and 'trait theory'. The second level emphasised situational and interactional theories. The third level theories, which go beyond the descriptive level and predict outcomes, such as the situational leadership and effectiveness models, were those of Hersey and Blanchard. This chapter will argue that situations vary. Hence, the situational leadership model propagated by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) in Bvuma (1994 : 24) would be a viable model to implement various development programmes in the Far North secondary schools.

6.4 HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL AND ITS RELEVANCY TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN THE FAR NORTH

Hersey and Blanchard's well known situational leadership model in Nkuna (1999 : 5) is based on three interacting concepts: task behavior, relationship behavior and maturity levels. Principals can use these three concepts as a basis for deciding on appropriate leadership styles to be adopted. In terms to this model or theory:

- **Task behaviour** is seen as the amount of direction needed to get work done.
- **Relationship behaviour** relates to the amount of emotional support provided by the leader.
- **Maturity level** relates to the degree and level of knowledge, skill and competence shown by followers, together with their willingness and capacity as team members to set goals and become responsible and accountable for the tasks delegated to them.

6.4.1 Maturity level of the followers

The maturity level of followers or workers can be classified into four main groups as follows:

- **Low maturity level:** At this level the individual is unwilling or incapable of taking any responsibility. In the secondary school setting, this could be a lay teacher who still has to be trained.
- **Moderate maturity level:** Persons with a moderate maturity level are those who lack sufficient training or experience to take any real responsibility on their own but who are willing to do so, for example, newly graduated teachers who have recently completed training.
- **Moderately high maturity level:** Teachers in this group are those who have the necessary ability, but for some reasons are not prepared to take any additional responsibility, for example a teacher who has been on study leave and feels insecure when commencing work again.
- **High maturity level:** Teachers falling into this group are those having both the necessary ability and the commitment to complete the tasks delegated to them, for example, the experienced, confident, competent teacher.

(Mawila ,1995 : 9).

6.4.2 Leadership styles and levels of task and relationship behaviour

Further research carried out by Hersey and Blanchard (Nkuna 1999 : 11) found that leadership styles varied along a continuum and were determined by the degree to which task behaviour or relationship behaviour dominated in a leadership situation.

- **In high task and low relationship situations** a more autocratic leadership style tends to be used, in which the leader's behaviour is "*more directive*" telling.
- **In high task and high relationship situations** a more participatory leadership style is usually chosen, in which "*selling*" is the behaviour selected.
- **In low task and high relationship situations** a more democratic leadership style is selected, in which the leadership behaviour is participatory.
- **In low task and low relationship situations** a more free rein, permissive leadership style is selected, in which leadership behaviour used favours delegation.

6.4.3 Leadership styles selected in terms of maturity level of the followers

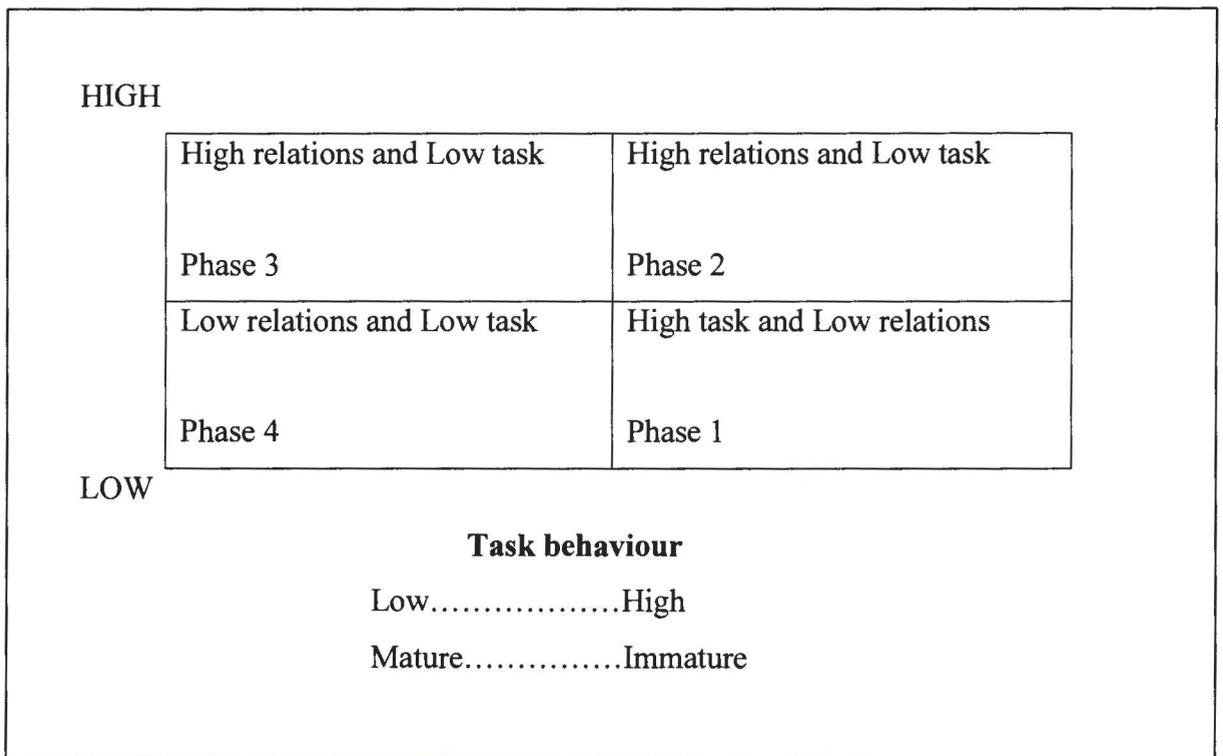
Following research done in terms of leadership styles and the maturity level of followers, Hersey and Blanchard (Nkuna 1999 : 13) showed that the following behavioral patterns were adopted for the different maturity levels of the followers. In work situations where the maturity level is:

- **Low**, fairly autocratic leadership style is used and followers need to be told what to do.
- **Moderate**, a more participatory leadership style is needed, in which the leader explains decisions and clarifies issues, in other words, uses a more "*selling*" type of behaviour.

- **Moderately high**, a more democratic leadership style is appropriate, in which the leader shares ideas and facilitates decision-making.
 - **High**, a more free-rein leadership style can be adopted, in which the leader delegates responsibility and autonomy for tasks to be completed.
- (Nkuna, 1999 : 13).

These leadership styles can be represented diagrammatically as indicated in figure 6.1 below:

FIGURE 6.1 : LEADERSHIP STYLES



Source: Nyathi (1992 : 7)

This model proposes a type of leadership that is dynamic and flexible. Regular evaluation of the skills and experience of teachers is necessary to decide what leadership style the principal can employ or apply. If the style is suitable, it will not only motivate but also guide teachers to further maturity.

Hersey and Blanchard hold the view that as subordinates become more mature, the degree of direct control and supervision ought to decrease. “ *An increase in maturity on the part of people who are somewhat immature should be rewarded by increased positive reinforcement and socio-economical support (relationship behaviour)*” (Nkuna ,1999 : 15).

6.4.4 Considerations in choosing a leadership style

From the foregoing it is critical for the principals in the Far North to consider the leadership styles discussed. The proclivity of leadership style is a choice made in the interest of the effective pursuit of goals by the group in the secondary school. The question is what considerations play a role in this choice? The following are probably the most important:

6.4.4.1 Milieu

The milieu in which the principals as leaders function consists of themselves, followers, school governing body, colleagues, the school as an organisation and the purpose for which they must act as leaders.

- The principal has a specific personality and a natural tendency towards a certain leadership style. Functioning will be optimal if the style that comes naturally can be used. A good leader is capable of shifting to other styles when needed. If the surroundings require constant operation in a style that does not come naturally, it will cause unnecessary pressure and the ideal is to hand the leadership over to someone else.
- The followers, who could be teachers, pupils, governing body, etc. have certain preferences to the style of leadership. Each individual has his/her own preference. A group develops personality or a sense of self that also has preferences.
- The requirements of the task of the group also determine what style will be best. A task that brings a lot of pressure and therefore requires a

lot of discipline, will require a more telling style, while a task that requires reflection and creative thought will be better completed in a participating style.

- The pressure under which the group functions also determines the style. A task that is to be completed in a short period of time requires a style that differs from that when little pressure is present.
- Maturity of the group and leadership style should be taken into consideration.

Two kinds of maturity are distinguished:

❖ *Work maturity*

This indicates the ability to do the work. It also pertains to knowledge and skills required by the job. People who have this kind of maturity have the knowledge to do tasks without having to be told.

❖ *Psychological maturity*

This is seen in a person's readiness to co-operate and take responsibility for the tasks. Such persons place a great premium on their own responsibility and need to display self-confidence and a positive self-image in terms of their work.

As the group moves toward maturity the style of leadership can be adjusted accordingly. A group with little maturity requires telling leadership, those with a bit more would prefer selling leadership, the next, participating leadership and the most mature a delegating style.

6.5 IMPLICATION OF FINDINGS ON LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT FOR THE FAR NORTH

The most important implications of these findings for the principals and teaching personnel are the following:

- Leadership in the secondary school pertains to the ability to lead members into fulfilling an educational task of the school.
- There is no style of leadership that is best under all circumstances.
- Various people can and should act as leaders in varying situations e.g. the principals as leaders of the secondary school, HODs as leaders of their own subjects committee and the teachers as classroom leaders.
- Flexibility in utilising leaders is necessary. The teaching personnel should be helped to have appreciation for and openness towards the value of different styles of leadership.
- Because leadership does not primarily concern inborn characteristics, leaders can be developed with the right guidance, for instance principals can develop their teaching personnel by delegating them to perform different leadership roles in the secondary school.

Apart from the above stated considerations there are also factors that could be taken into account by the principals of secondary schools in the Far North. The following factors should be taken into account when the principals of the Far North secondary schools want to employ the above models, namely, school focus-based and situational leadership model, in developing their teaching personnel.

- Curriculum development and assessment.
- Enrollment as a factor.
- Subordinates as a factor.
- Superordinates as a factor.
- The culture and climate as factors.
- Readiness of the follower as a factor.

Some of these factors have been discussed in this study. All these factors could play a very important role in the principal's leadership in the Far North. Apart from the above mentioned factors, the type of society, the education

system, the economic system and government need to be looked upon when the principal selects a particular style in the Far North.

As indicated above, there is no such a thing as the best style in school management. All leadership styles are good if used appropriately. If necessary, a combination of styles could be employed by principals of secondary schools in the Far North. This has been supported by 213 (72%) respondents in this study, who affirmed that all styles are good if used appropriately (V38, table 4 : 21).

The principal's managerial role could also be seen when the curriculum is implemented in various schools. Principals in the Far North secondary schools could play a pivotal role in curriculum development. The styles of management should motivate teaching personnel to participate well in curriculum implementation at their various schools.

6.5.1 The role of the principal and teacher in curriculum development in the Far North secondary schools.

In the Republic of South Africa the design of subject curricula is mainly seen as a function of so called curriculum frameworks within the Department of National Education. Committees for each school subject design the core curriculum, which is thereafter localised within specific executive Education Departments. Representatives of these departments are members of the framework curriculum committees. These committees were previously called networks, which is descriptive of the input of various persons, bodies and institutions all over the country (Steyn, 1993 : 48).

Inter-departmental committees for each subject curriculum preceded the practice of curriculum networks. The main responsibility for the development of specific subject curricula was in the hands of specific Education Departments and the former Joint Matriculation Board as far as subjects for exemption purposes were concerned. The present curriculum framework committees work in close collaboration with the established Certification

Board for pre-tertiary education. This board has the responsibility to formulate norms and standards for every subject curriculum.

Presently all the provincial Education Departments under the National Department of Education have well established sections for curriculum development at head office and well-qualified staff at regional offices. In the Northern Province it is headed by the chief director. Under him there are directors and chief specialists at the various regions in the North. Curriculum innovation or adaptation can therefore be implemented within the schools of specific regions.

Working committees with selected principals and teachers as members could implement the adaptation of subject curricula. In the following paragraphs a summary will be given on how principals and teachers in the Far North could use their role in curriculum design, innovation and implementation.

In the literature on curriculum implementation it is generally accepted that the principal, as head teacher, is and should be curriculum leader in the school (Steyn 1993 : 49). This leadership role concerns implementation of designed curricula through teaching as well as formative curriculum evaluation. As educational managers the principals in the Far North should make sure that the different subject curricula are implemented in such a way that the educational goals of the school are met.

In order to successfully implement a newly designed or adapted curriculum the principals of secondary schools in the Far North need to recognise and plan for stages in the implementation process as follows:

6.5.1.1 *Create a climate for change.*

Change is a complicated process that demands well-planned strategies to successfully implement a new curriculum. Curriculum team and principals of secondary schools in the Far North should realise that existing curricula, teaching plans and materials are familiar to teachers

and provide a sense of security. Both the team and the principals in the Far North possess the knowledge and skills to teach the existing content but deep inside they are not quite sure if they would succeed in teaching the new content. Furthermore, it will take time to develop new materials and lesson plans to teach newly developed aspects of the proposed subject curriculum.

The principals of secondary schools in the Far North should understand the following underlying assumptions about change:

- ❖ Change is not an instantaneous event but a process that takes time.
- ❖ Individuals and not institutions accomplish change as such.
- ❖ Change is a highly personal experience. The personal feelings of teachers are therefore just as important as the technical aspects of innovative curriculum change. Motivated teachers who understand and believe in the national policy for newly developed aspects of the curriculum will play a major role in the success of the change process.
- ❖ Change entails developmental growth in both feelings and skills in implementing new curricula.

(Steyn, 1993 : 50)

During this stage the principals should familiarise themselves with the above-mentioned assumptions and think about effective strategies to create the right climate for curriculum change in their schools. The Education Department should present INSET strategies for implementation of newly designed curricula.

6.5.1.2 *Communication*

Communication is one of the useful skills that could be used by principals of secondary schools in the Far North. Communication is important to all phases of curriculum development (Steyn, 1993 : 50). During the implementation phase, however, it reaches peak importance

from the try-out stage until final dissemination (Nkuna, 1999 : 12). Principals and senior staff members towards the new curriculum in connection with the rationale for and line of reasoning in designing the curriculum must orientate the appropriate staff members. That means that information gathered from the situation analysis, aims, content, guidelines for teaching and evaluation strategies as well as teacher guides and printed curriculum materials must be communicated to the teachers.

This has been supported by 283 (95,6%) respondents, who agreed that the principal should see to it that teachers who attended courses should pass information to other teachers (V36, table 4 : 20). Ways of communicating change to the teachers are workshops on specific aspects of the curriculum, small group discussions, bulletins and handouts of proposed curriculum materials. Meetings of parent teacher associations are valuable opportunities to communicate the rationale for change in the curriculum. Principals of secondary schools in the Far North could use all these strategies.

6.5.1.3 Staff development

Integrating INSET courses into a school's life is a crucial component of school change programmes. Reviews of a school's systematic change programmes indicate the high contribution of INSET to the successful implementation of change programmes in Bangladesh, Columbia, Ethiopia, Malawi and Zimbabwe (Schofield, 1994 : 158). Furthermore, INSET specifically planned by teachers and initiated by schools is seen by teachers as being relevant and capable of supporting school change programmes (Dallin *et al.*, 1994; see also Coombe, 1994 : 21).

After the acceptance of change teachers in the Far North secondary schools should receive INSET to prepare them for new aspects of the proposed curriculum, that is, Curriculum 2005. The implementation

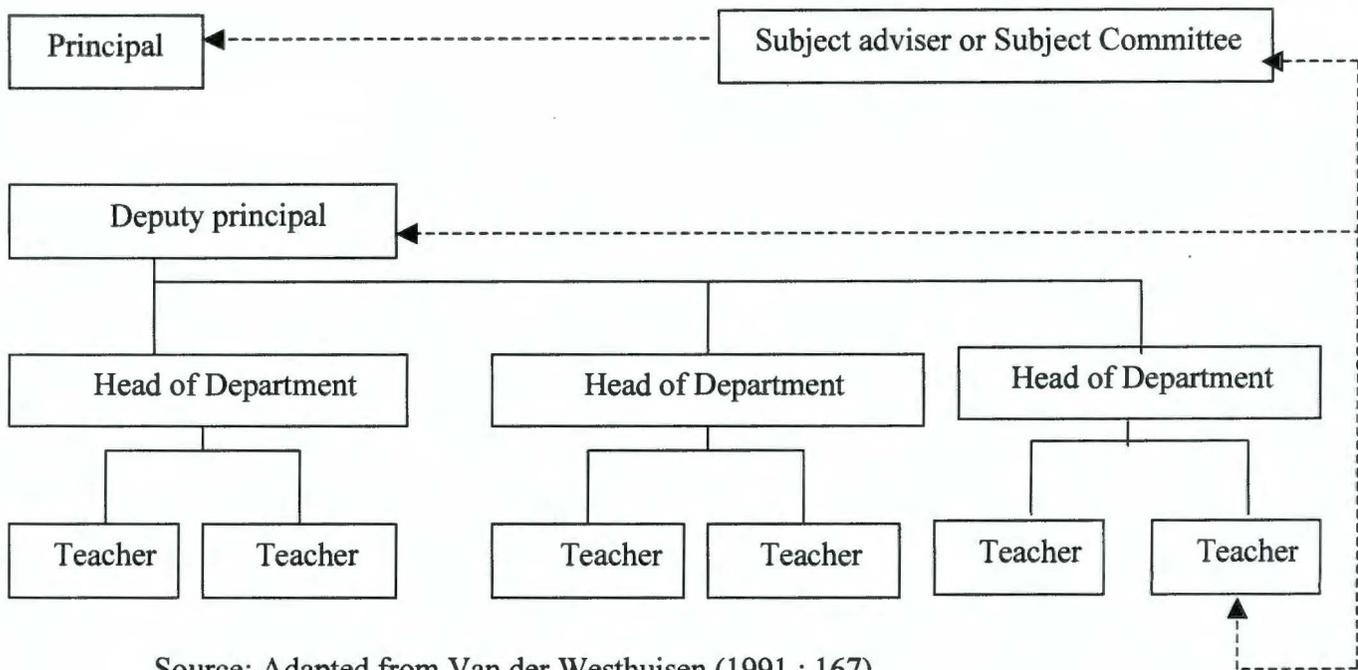
effort may fail because curriculum leaders in the Far North are not aware of the importance of adequate staff development there.

6.5.2 The Principal and Subject Committees in the Limpopo Province

Subject committees established by the Department of Education also promoted INSET but only to a limited extent (Chauke, 1995 : 8). There were many subject committees in the Far North. The chairperson of these committees was an education specialist from the Department of Education, Culture and Sports. What was done to facilitate policy decisions and expertise recommendations made by members?

During 1988-1992 subject advisers for several subjects were requested to establish regional committees so as to promote specialisation in the teaching of various subjects and move problems in the local schools. The Departments of Education in the three former homelands were assigned by the former Department of Education and Training. to organise INSET and subject committees. These committees were run and controlled by government officials as indicated above. There was minimal involvement of principals in these committees. Hence, most of these committees did not succeed in the Far North. The arrangement should have flowed from the principals to members of their staff. Subject advisers and subject committees should have acted as advisers to the principals in the school situation. For more information, see the flow of information from the management structure on page 208.

FIGURE 6.2 : LINE AND STAFF ORGANISATION



Source: Adapted from Van der Westhuisen (1991 : 167)

In the above-mentioned structure, use is made of people who give advice but who are not themselves directly involved in the managerial function of organising. This means that expert advice is given to people who are involved and advisers are indirectly involved in the line structure.

In the school situation the school-based INSET model means that the adviser, i.e., the subject committee, has advisory power but cannot enforce its authority. For example, the advisers are empowered to make a decision, but have no authority to ensure that the decision is implemented in the school. The educational authorities or government officials in the Far North should have achieved their objectives, if the above structure has been put in place. These structures empower the principal to organise and implement school-based INSET in the secondary schools.

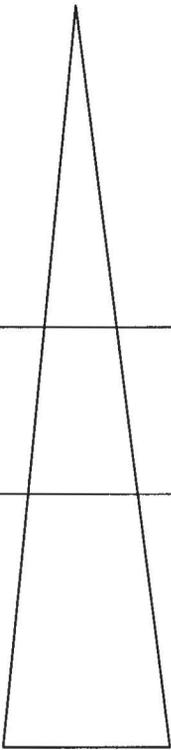
“It becomes more and more difficult for one person to make responsible and accountable decisions, regardless of competency and expertise” (Nkuna, 1999 : 3). Research has shown that participative team management could be an effective way of managing the school in a democratic manner.

Secondary school principals are increasingly called upon to implement the concepts of school-based management. This includes increased delegation, committed work, advisory groups and shared leadership (Mawila, 1995 : 9).

Most principals in the Far North already strive to involve other staff members in decision-making with varying degrees of success. This success depends on the nature of the leadership style that principals employ at their schools.

One way in which the principals could succeed in developing teaching personnel in the Far North is to delegate and involve them at all levels of decision-making. This study confirms that decisions made by group discussions and consensus or decisions made by leaders with the help of the other group members are more acceptable than decisions made by individuals only (Nyathi, 1992 : 4). Figure 6.3 on page 210 illustrates the different levels within which principals can exercise their different leadership styles in the secondary school.

FIGURE 6.3 : DIFFERENT LEVELS FOR EXERCISING DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES

Management level	Hierarchy	Planning task	Leadership styles
Top management: School principal and Deputy school principal		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Draw up overall plan 2. Strategic planning 3. Long-term planning 4. Determine goals 5. Determine guidelines for Management levels. 	S4. Delegating
Middle management: Heads of departments		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Plan specific tasks 2. Functional planning (tactical) 3. Draw functional objectives 	S3 S2: Selling styles
Operational management: Subject heads and teachers		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Executive strategic and tactical planning 2. Short-term or operational planning 3. Plan on a daily basis 4. Planning is mainly repetitive 	S2: Selling style S1: Telling style

Source: Van der Westhuizen (1991 : 4)

Principals and members of their school management teams at different levels of decision-making could use the above-mentioned styles. These styles have contributed a lot towards the implementation of school-based INSET.

The management team of the secondary school cannot be viewed as an informal group without status. The management team forms an integral part of the management structure of the school as an organization. Team management as a democratically orientated process emphasises the role of the principal, deputy principal, heads of departments as well as other staff members (Bvuma, 1994 : 3)

6.5.3 The Principal and his Deputy Principal

Although the deputy principal is an important and dynamic resource in schools and in continuing improvement of education, most teachers regard the role of deputy principal as follows:

“The deputy principal is a teacher whose main function is to deputise for the principal during any absence. The main duties are as a ‘go-between’ (keeping the staff and principal informed of what the other side is thinking) and as an organiser doing those jobs no-one else thinks are apart of their responsibility”

(Govender, 1996 : 7).

The above quotation shows clearly that the role of the deputy principal is not clearly understood by the members of teaching personnel. Deputy principals are a neglected variable in the effective management of the school (Calabrese, 1991:51). Effective schools have deputy principals who are dynamic, enthusiastic, creative and caring. Ironically, there is little support for the traditional deputy principals’ role in the Far North.

Deputy principals are a vital part of the school management team. Given the broad range of responsibilities delegated to them the importance of those responsibilities, and the skills and judgments required to carry them out, it is difficult to imagine how most high schools could operate effectively without the day-to-day contributions of their deputy principals (Mavuso, 1993 : 5).

The duty of the deputy principal is to ensure that the school functions smoothly even in the absence of the principal. The effectiveness of the deputy principals will largely be determined by a sound and successful relationship with the principals, the management team, teachers, pupils and parents. It is important that they have a share in the management and organisation of the school, in matters related to the professional, administrative and organisational duties in the school.

The principal should take a personal interest in the professional development of the deputy principal. Principals should also make continuous efforts to utilise all the abilities of the deputy principals by establishing a major role for them in the school management team. (Naidoo, 1995 : 21) The principal and other members of the school management should form a leadership partnership in the management of the school recognising each other's important contribution to the success of the secondary school. The teaching personnel must view the deputy principal as a person with knowledge and abilities that could help them in a variety of ways.

6.5.4 The Deputy Principal as Prescriptive Agent

Deputy principals are recognised as professionals with ownership of a body of knowledge. The dispersion of their knowledge occurs during informal conversations and formal staff development. The deputy principal's knowledge includes knowledge about discipline, classroom management, community development and budgeting (Calabrese, 1991 : 54). Deputy principals need to employ appropriate styles of leadership when they are dealing with newly-appointed teaching personnel.

The prescriptive style (S1) that the deputy principal has to employ on newly appointed teaching personnel, involves conducting induction and staff development programmes to enhance the performance of teaching personnel.

6.5.5 The Deputy Principal as Instructional Leader

The main purpose of instructional leadership or supervision can be described as the improvement of classroom instruction. To achieve this in the Far North, teachers have to be continually trained with a view to developing themselves professionally.

Instructional leadership is a system that is dedicated to helping teachers to be successful in their classrooms. Both capable and less capable teachers will

continue to develop their instructional skills with the aim of improving the quality of their performance (Calitz *et al.*, 1996 : 39).

In school-based INSET, the deputy principal should continue to visit classrooms and demand a high degree of professional training. Some of the responsibilities of the deputy principal, as an instructional leader include:

- Formulating, implementing and evaluating goals for the school.
- Developing, implementing and evaluating the curriculum.
- Supervising and evaluating personnel and providing staff development opportunities.
- Developing and managing resources for the teaching and learning process.
- Evaluating instructional materials and programmes for use in the classrooms.

(Calitz *et al.*, 1996 : 39-40)

Lastly, the deputy principal must also have the ability to communicate ideas and feelings. The instructional leader is expected to transfer information clearly and concisely. By having good communication skills, the instructional leader will successfully fulfill the above responsibilities.

6.5.6 The Principal and the Heads of Departments

The principal, the deputy principal and heads of departments undertake the tasks of staff development and INSET jointly. Many of the functions described in the previous sections are performed in rotation and jointly by the principal and the senior staff members.

However, the departmental heads have special duties and functions with regard to the INSET of teaching personnel, which are determined by their particular subject fields. This has special reference to the aspects of subject policies, subject files, subject meetings and other issues related to teaching materials.

The principal needs to conduct INSET programmes such as induction for the newly-appointed heads of departments. The principal needs to employ school-based INSET because the process of training is taking place in the school. In case of experienced heads of departments, the principal could delegate them to execute certain functions within the school.

6.5.7 The Principal and Teaching Staff

Principals of schools play a key role in the staff development and INSET of their staff. Therefore they should constantly and purposefully strive for the improvement and development of their staff. Teaching is a dynamic science and teachers who do not keep up with new developments and improve their teaching methods and technology run the risk of stagnating (Viljoen *et al.*, 1992 : 143).

The task of principals in the Far North is to encourage the teaching personnel to continue with their studies, which they must do by their own example and guidance. Every INSET course that is attended by a member of staff from the school has to be followed up in school. The hints and guidelines offered by such a course have to be tested at least, if not implemented. Written study material should be dealt with thoroughly at meetings, and noted down in the teacher's reference library.

A sound policy or mission statement is one of the best guidelines for INSET which principals have at their disposal. A school policy is a systematic account and summary of the accepted practice, prescribed work methods, rules, codes of conduct and so on which apply to the school. It is the basic handbook of the school, which is given to all teachers, especially beginners and those newly appointed. It makes it possible for them to familiarise themselves with everything to do with the school in a very short space of time (Viljoen *et al.*, 1992 : 45)

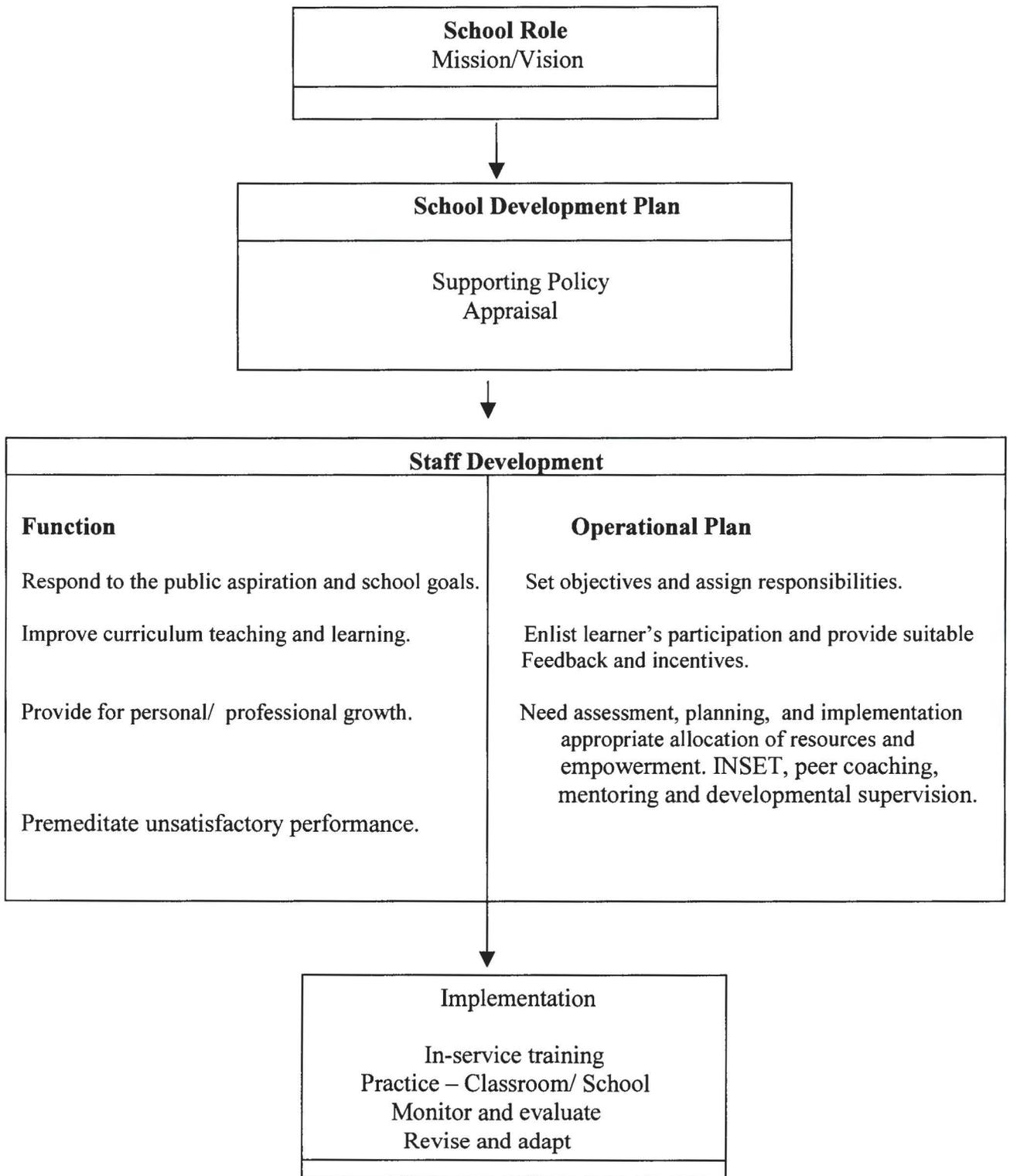
It has to be constantly updated and improved and should be revised and updated by principals at least once a year, with the help of their senior staff

members. The principal will constantly have to check whether the school policy is being studied and applied by the teaching personnel.

Staff development must be the means towards the achievement of the mission of the school. If the means towards the achievement of the mission or goal is not effective, one cannot be expected to achieve anything. Staff development plans and school development as a whole should be supported by specific policies that are a guiding light towards development.

Blandford's model indicates that the function of staff development is to empower educators to come up with specific plans that, if successfully executed, can enhance the quality of learning outcomes (Nyathi, 1992 : 6). The implementation part of the model puts the plan into practice. All the time reference to the mission of the secondary school is made to determine the relevance of all development programmes. This is illustrated in figure 6.4 on page 216.

FIGURE 6.4 : STAFF DEVELOPMENT MODEL



Source: Nyathi (1992 : 8)

6.6 CONCLUSION

The school-based model of INSET is one of the more popular development programmes today in Africa. This model is more effective if it is complemented by the situational model proposed by Hersey and Blanchard's works in various organisations. As the study suggests, this chapter has developed a staff development model, which, it is hoped could turn secondary schools in the Far North around and help them to produce good results at the end of every year.

The researcher employed the model in the educational management perspective because of the model's flexibility and the concept of learning together. Furthermore, the model uses a variety of techniques to help participants learn, including peer group discussion, mentoring, distance learning and self-study. The model is also grounded in the experience of participants and the school leadership is given authority to plan and to organise development programmes in their sphere of operation.

The next chapter takes a general overview of the study. It makes concluding remarks and some recommendations that can be useful to the Department of Education in the Limpopo Province in general, and to the principals of secondary schools in the Far North in particular.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is to provide an overview of the findings, recommendations and draw conclusions from the study. The discussions will further elaborate on the following:

- The relation of leadership types and staff development programmes.
- Various factors to consider in employing or implementing staff development programmes for the teaching personnel.

7.2 OVERVIEW

Current changes in education in South Africa demand that educationists reconstruct education to focus more specifically on the needs of the child. In addition, contemporary society requires that education provided across the spectrum should be more relevant and effective.

The call for educational transformation has gained the status of a national priority. Within the current context of changing structures and policy formation, the relationship between reform initiatives, teacher development and the role of the principal needs to be examined critically. The role and status of the principal in the present South African society has been severely affected by approaches to educational reform and the metamorphosis from the legacy of apartheid to a fully democratic society.

This research study therefore aimed at placing empowerment of educators on a more scientific footing than has hitherto been the practice. Hence, while this research study paid particular attention to principal empowerment and teacher development in the Far North secondary schools, the critical cross-field

outcomes are applicable, *mutatis mutandis*, to all secondary schools and even primary schools county-wide.

In this respect, the researcher is optimistic that the model suggested and the recommendations propounded could be of help in implementing empowerment and INSET development programmes for teaching personnel.

The following are some of the problems which have been identified in this study:

- Lack of adequate resources, for example, physical resources, human resources, equipment and learning material.
- Negative internal factors, for example, lack of empowerment and development programmes for both principal and teaching personnel.
- External factors, for example, lack of INSET policy, lack of funding and implementation of suitable INSET models by the Department of Education, particularly in the Far North region.

In order to manage their schools effectively, principals need to be aware of different leadership models and an appropriate INSET model to cope with the above factors. Principals by virtue of their position, status and authority can initiate and formulate an appropriate INSET models and organise programmes for their teaching personnel at their schools.

7.3 ATTAINMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research 'study' as stated in Chapter One include:

- To determine whether secondary school principals are using correct strategies in implementing staff development programmes in the Limpopo Province.
- To promote staff development by means of school management and INSET models.

- To consider the present situation and future development of teaching staff efficiently and effectively.
- To help increase performance and inputs of the staff in the teaching-learning situation.

In the researcher's view the objectives of the study have been realised:

- Strategies to enhance the empowerment of the principal and teacher development have been explained and discussed.
- Theories which are used globally were explicated in detail for the fundamental purpose of serving as a guide for the principals and government officials on how to empower teachers.
- Through the application of various INSET development programmes as suggested the quality of teaching personnel will be enhanced and improved, thereby improving the quality of education.
- Principals and senior teachers will be recognised as facilitators and initiators of various INSET programmes in their sphere of operation.

7.4 PROBLEM SOLVING

As stated in the previous chapters, principals in the Far North are faced with numerous problems which hinder staff development in their secondary schools. The research problem stated in Chapter One arose from the fact that no development programme was planned or suggested for the empowerment of principals and teachers in the Far North. Principals also differ in personality as well as in values, leadership styles, educational backgrounds and the socio-economic factors around their place of work. These factors may influence both the principal and teaching personnel's performance in their place of work.

The problems stated in this study have been addressed. There is a clear understanding that a well organised school-based INSET programme will inevitably lead to teacher development and good learner performance. These variables enjoy a high and positive correlation in terms of the data gathered in

the empirical investigation.

7.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, a synopsis of the various chapters are given. Furthermore, research findings, recommendations, limitations of the study, suggestions for further research and conclusions are discussed.

The purpose of this study was to determine the various models that could be employed in the Far North secondary schools. In Chapter One, the following matters were discussed:

- Statement of the problem
- Aims and objectives
- Demarcation of the study
- Research models
- Structure of the research report
- Clarification of concepts

Chapter two discusses different types of research methods and techniques. Advantages and disadvantages of various research techniques have been deliberated in full. These methods have been used to collect and analyse data in chapter five.

In Chapter Three, a theoretical review of staff development and other concepts related to it were investigated. Chapter Three provided the background of the leadership models that could be employed by principals in staff development in the secondary schools.

In Chapter Five, the empirical study on various models of staff development that could be used by principals of the Far North secondary schools were reported, analysed and interpreted. This was done with a view to answering the following questions:

- Which INSET model and leadership style are mostly preferred by principals and teachers on staff development in the Far North secondary schools?
- Do principals utilise the same style to tackle different kinds of decisions?
- Is there any leadership style consistently better than others? If so, does it apply to all kinds of decisions and situations?
- Are there any other skills that could contribute towards leadership and staff development in the Far North?

The research findings showed that both principals and teachers prefer the school-based INSET model than the one, is centrally organised by the Department of Education. As far as the leadership styles are concerned, most of the principals and teaching personnel prefer a combination of styles. The utilisation of the styles depends on the situation: Hence the situational leadership model is mostly preferred to support SBINSET in the Far North secondary schools.

Chapter Six outlined a summary of the recommended models that could be used effectively by principals in the Far North secondary schools. The researcher chose the school-based INSET model since it is more convenient to both principals and teachers. This model empowers principals to develop and implement all development programmes of teaching personnel in their sphere of operation. Principals who conduct INSET courses also use experienced teachers.

The researcher also chose Hersey and Blanchard's situational model. It emphasises different situations and maturity levels of leaders as a basis for effective leadership in school management. This model supports the SBINSET model because it could be applied by principals of secondary schools in various situations in the Far North.

The chapter also underscored the background of the model and discussed how it could be applied or implemented in the Far North secondary schools. Various applications of the model have been demonstrated by giving suitable examples. The emphasis in Chapter 5 is on the employment of the school-based INSET model by principals in the secondary schools.

7.6 FINDINGS

7.6.1 Findings from the literature review were the following:

- That the concept of staff or personnel development is not static, but could be defined, analysed, discussed and interpreted by various researchers or scholars from different understandings or perspectives.
- That the concept of staff development seems to mean one and the same thing in different ways.
- That there are various INSET models which scholars are using all over the world.
- That leader effectiveness depends on the appropriate maturing of the leader behaviour and on the maturity of the group or individual.
- That there is nothing like ‘best style’ in school management.
- That personnel or staff development needs to be conducted for both principals and teachers in any school situation.

7.6.2 Findings from the empirical study were:

- That the Northern Province Department of Education had its own numerous problems, for example, financial constraints and lack of qualified person-power at both the district and circuit levels.
- That there tends to be a lack of clarity in the policy on staff development.
- That there tends to be lack of teachers’ centres where staff development and INSET programmes could be conducted.
- That classroom backlog posed a serious problem in the Far North

secondary schools. Most of the secondary schools in the Far North are in the rural areas.

- That because of the shortage of classrooms, principals were unable to exercise their powers appropriately.
- That there tends to be a lack of discipline and a high rate of absenteeism amongst teachers who were put in the excess list.
- That because of redeployment, principals were unable to enforce the culture of teaching and learning.
- That there was a high matriculation failure rate.
- That most of the respondents (291) 98,3% wanted to be consulted when topics of INSET courses are decided and planned.
- That most of the respondents (83,4%) agreed that certificates should be issued to teachers who have participated in INSET programmes.
- That most of the respondents (75,0%) affirmed that INSET and staff development programmes improve the quality and level of instruction in a school.
- That most of the respondents (65,2%) preferred school-based INSET than the one centrally organised by government officials.
- That most of the respondents (85,1%) were in agreement that principals should nominate teaching personnel to whom the course has relevance.
- That most of the respondents (95,6%) concurred that principals should see to it that teachers who attended INSET courses should pass information to others.
- That most of the respondents (95,9%) supported the contention that the principal's leadership style should foster joint decision-making.
- That most of the respondents (91,9%) applauded the view that principals should set clear objectives, which are relevant and attainable for staff development.
- That most of the respondents (98,6%) endorsed the proposal that principals should always motivate their teachers to upgrade both their academic and professional knowledge.
- That most of the respondents (89,5%) expressed their concern that

there are not enough instructional teaching and learning materials in their schools.

- That most of the respondents (76,7%) affirmed that there are no libraries in their various secondary schools.
- That most of the respondents (94,3%) agreed that their school libraries do not have relevant books and materials that can contribute towards staff development.

7.6.3 Findings From Personal Interviews were as follows:

- Lack of delegation and central planning are the main causes of non-empowerment of principals in school management.
- Secondary schools that are in the rural areas are often neglected by government officials.
- Government policy change to a democratic approach in education was a hindrance to principal empowerment.
- Teaching personnel need to develop skills, knowledge and human relations, which will enable them to attain their educational objectives.
- Rural schools lack resources; this makes life difficult for both principals and teaching personnel.

7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the findings from the interviews and the empirical investigation, the following motivated recommendations are made:

It is recommended that:

- The duty of the principals should be to encourage their teaching personnel to make use of the available learning materials and facilities for both professional and academic growth.
- Principals in the Far North secondary schools be encouraged to implement or employ the school-based INSET model in the

management of their schools.

- Principals have to encourage their teaching staff to attend INSET courses, which are organised in their field of specialisation.
- Principals have to encourage their teaching personnel who have attended INSET courses to pass information to other staff members.
- Principals have to delegate and consult other staff members before implementing any decision in the school.
- Principals should be encouraged to apply the situational leadership model in their management of staff development.
- Policy makers should be encouraged to empower principals of secondary schools to organise development programmes in their schools.
- Principals have to encourage policy makers and the private sector to build educational facilities in their schools.
- Research on the impact made by development programmes should be undertaken in the Far North secondary schools.
- Principals should be encouraged to invite experts from other institutions to come and conduct courses in their schools.
- Individual needs of teachers should be the focus of development programmes.
- It is recommended that a position of Co-ordinator for INSET programmes be created in the Department of Education to be filled or occupied by a well-qualified and experienced principal or senior staff member in the Far North.

7.8 PITFALLS OF THE RESEARCH

This research study cannot claim to have revealed and shown all the problems experienced by the Far North secondary schools. This would be unreasonable as problems are not static but dynamic and situational.

Furthermore, because of the budgetary constraints experienced by the researcher, the researcher could not manage to reach all relevant institutions and some of the people targeted by this study. However, the researcher has

managed to reach all the secondary schools randomly selected for this study. Lastly, the researcher has used, as far as is humanly possible, the scarce resources at his disposal to complete the project.

7.9 FURTHER RESEARCH

All research is intended to suggest further research because no research is complete in itself. The following topics for further research are suggested:

- Cost-effective approaches in the provision of INSET in the Northern Province.
- Perception of teachers towards redeployment.
- An evaluation and appraisal of the teaching of various school subjects in the secondary schools
- The role of teacher appraisal in education.
- Distance-learning as an alternative model of INSET delivery in rural secondary schools.

7.10 EPILOGUE

It has been emphasised throughout this thesis that the principals occupy an important position and play a pivotal role in school management. The service they provide needs delegation, diligence and empowerment. Efforts must be made to encourage principals to organise development programmes in terms of the essential principles of democratic decision-making in their schools.

The purpose of this investigation was to identify gaps in INSET provision and to make suggestions for the improvement of INSET in the Far North. Suggestions were presented in detail in the previous chapter, and briefly, in this chapter. It is hoped that serious consideration will be given to the possibility of incorporating these suggestions into the planning and organisation of future INSET programmes in the Far North and Limpopo Province as a whole, as well as in other provinces of South Africa.

It is hoped that the recommendations resulting from the findings in this research will be utilised with a view to improving the quality of teaching and learning. Undoubtedly, these constitute a prerequisite for good educational outcomes in the secondary schools.

At this point it is important to evaluate the extent to which the specific aims of the study have been addressed. Table 7.1 summarises this evaluation.

TABLE 7.1 : BRIEF EVALUATION OF THE SPECIFIC AIMS OF THE STUDY

NO	SPECIFIC AIM	BRIEF EVALUATION
1	To investigate if lack of development programmes in some selected secondary schools in the Far North leads to the higher failure rate.	INSET programmes were offered during the homelands system, but now is no longer effective. It is true: a well-trained and educated teacher produces good results.
2	To investigate if principals in the Far North are allowed to organise INSET courses in their schools.	The study reveals that both principals and teachers hate courses that are centrally organised by Department officials.
3	To review some models on leadership and management relevant to INSET in teacher education.	Literature was reviewed and linked with the problem in the study. Models on leadership and management and their implications for INSET were identified and applied to the study.
4	To find out if there are staff development programmes in place, aimed at empowering educators to contribute towards good, quality teaching.	Less than 30% of secondary schools have school-based staff development programmes in the region. Most of the secondary schools do not have enough resources to conduct effective staff development.
	To investigate if there are any factors that may hinder professional and academic	The study reveals that most of the secondary schools do not have libraries

5	growth in the Far North.	and learning materials. This shortage can act as a hindrance towards professional and academic growth.
6	To review appropriate models for staff development in the Far North.	An appropriate INSET model was developed in Chapter Five that can augment staff development programmes in the region, namely, the school-based INSET model.
7	To find out if there are principals who are willing to start organising INSET courses in their secondary schools.	The interviews conducted among the selected principals and teachers showed that 75% of them were willing to start immediately, if they could be given authority by the Department of Education in the Limpopo Province.

The value of this study will not be determined by the number of recommendations given above, but rather, by the improvement in the quality and effectiveness of INSET provision brought about by implementing the recommendations postulated. It is believed that the recommendations and suggestions made will be taken into consideration by the authorities concerned so that, in the final analysis, the INSET programmes could prove to be a dynamic catalyst for the improvement of education in the region particularly and in the country generally.

It must be noted that the situation in the Far North is not as bad as some people may think. The fact that 75% of the respondents were willing to start staff development programmes immediately in their secondary schools, makes one draw the conclusion that the region has enthusiastic and dedicated educators, who have a potential which could be positively exploited for the benefit of the learners and the community at large.

Finally, recommendations made in this chapter, especially the guidelines needed for empowering teaching personnel, need to be further evaluated. Principals need to be empowered in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning, not only in the Limpopo Province, but also in South Africa as a whole.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, E. (Ed.) 1975. *In-service Education and Teachers' Centres*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C. and Razavieh, A. 1990. *Introduction to research in education*. Hart, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
- Bagwandeem, D.R. and Louw, W.J. 1993. *Theory and practice of in-service education and training for teachers in South Africa*. Van Schaik, Pretoria.
- Bagwandeem, D.R. 1991. In-Service Education and Training (INSET) for Indian Education in RSA. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
- Bagwandeem, D.R. 1999. A study of the Provision of Distance Education for the Upgrading and Improvement of the Qualifications of Teachers in the Province of Kwazulu – Natal. D .Ed. Thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Bedassi, I. 1994. In-Service training program for school managers in Indian Education. D.Ed Thesis. University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Bell, L. 1992. *Managing teams in Secondary Schools*. Macmillan, London.
- Benedict, N.J. 1995. *Elements of Curriculum Development and Teaching Principles*. Juhler Publishers, Yaba, Lagos.
- Bernd, M. 1992. Shared decision making requires effective instructional leadership. *NSSP Bulletin*, 76 (540): 64-70.
- Bill of rights. Act No 108 of 1996.
- Bolam R. 1982. *School-focused In-service Training*. Heinemann, London.

Booyse, J.J. *et al.* 1993. *Research in education*. University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Brynard, P.A. and Hanekom, S.X. 1995. *Introduction to research in Public Administration and related academic disciplines*. J.L. Van Schaik, Pretoria.

Bvuma, B.C. 1994. *In-Service Education in South Africa today*. Paper presented at TUATA Regional conference, October 1994.

Calabrese, R.C. 1990. *The School as ethical democratic community*. NASSP Bulletin. 74 (528): 10-16.

Calitz, L.P. and Heystek. 1996. The In-service Training of principals in management competencies. In: *Journal of Education South Africa*, 8(3): 23-31.

Chauke, M.C. 1995. Changing culture of teaching and learning in South Africa. Paper presented to the matric's fare well function. Giyani show ground. 26 September 1995.

Chisholm, L. 1999. Review of South Africa Education: 1996 – 1998. Education Report, Durban.

Chisholm, L. *et al.* 2000. Report of Curriculum 2005 Review Committee: Executive Summary, 31st May 2000, Pretoria.

City Press, 12 March 1989. Verwoerd's dismal legacy.

Clark, S.S. 1995. *What leadership skills do principal really need? The school Administrator*. May 1995.

Clenmara, B. 1982. *The Ecology of Professional Development*. Kogan Page, London.

Coetzee, J.M. 1991. *The age of iron*. Penguin Books, London.

- Coombe, C. 1994. Planning ways to improve School Quality in Zambia Urban and Rural Districts. Report to Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ).
- Cuttance, P. 1993. *School development and review in an Australian state education system*. In Dimmock, C. (Ed.). *School Based Management and Effectiveness*. Routledge, London.
- Dallin, P. 1993. *Changing the School culture*. Cassell, London.
- Dallin, P. *et al.* 1994. *How Schools improve: An international report*. Casell, London.
- David, S. and Robison, M. 1992. From classroom to School and back again: Constraints and possibilities. Paper presented at the classroom Action Research Network Conference: "*Cultures for changes*", September 1992.
- De Lange, 1981. H. S. R. C. Report of the main Committee on investigation into Education: Provision of Education in the RSA No.1. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Dimmock, C. (Ed.) 1993. *School based management and School Effectiveness*. Routledge, London.
- Donnelly, J.H., Gibson, J.L. and Ivancevich, J.M. 1994. *Organizations: Behaviour, Structure and processes*. Erwin, Sydney.
- Drake, T.L. and Roe, W.H. 1994. *The principalship*. Fourth Edition. Macmillan College publishing Company, New York.
- Drucker, P.F. 1988. *Management*. Heineman, London.
- Duignan, P.A. and Macpherson, R.J.S. 1993. *Educative leadership : a practical theory*. Pergamon, London.

- Du Plooy, G.M. (Ed.) 1995. *Introduction to communication: Communication Research*. Juta and Co. Ltd., Cape Town.
- Du Toit, P.J., Rresch, N.C., Shah C.G and Schreuder, J.H. 1993. *Professional development: activities for the principal and teacher*. Maskew Miller Longman, Cape Town.
- Easen, P. 1985. *Making school-centred INSET work*. Open University, Groom Helm, London.
- Eraut, M. 1978. Some Perspectives on Consultancy In-Service Education. In: *British Journal of In-Service Education*, 4(1/2) : 95.
- Eraut, M. 1985. In-Service Teacher Education. In: Husen, T. and Kogan M. (Ed.) *International Encyclopaedia of Education*. (5) : 2511-2526.
- Farrant, J.S. 1986. *Principles and Practice of Education*. Longman Publishers, Singapore.
- Fouche', C.F.H. 1991. *Communication in Educational Management*. OKB 110. Study guide. CESA, Pretoria.
- Fullan, M.1991. *The New Meaning of change*. Cassell, London.
- Galloway, S. 1993. *Identifying INSET needs*. In: Burgess, R. et al. (Eds.), *Implementing In-service Education and Training*. Falmer, London.
- Gane, V. and Morgan, A. 1992. *Managing head teacher appraisal*. Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd, London.
- Gay, L. R. 1980. *Educational Research* Second Edition. Charles E. Merrill, Ohio.
- Genck, F. H. 1983. *Improving school Performance*. Praeger Publishers, New York.

- Gibton, D. 1997. *Principal of Autonomous schools in Israel: The Second Generation*. Ph.D. Thesis, Tel AVIV University, Israel.
- Goad, L.H 1984. *Preparing Teachers for Life-Long Education*. Pergamon Press, Hamburg.
- Gouden, P.E and Mkize, M.G. 1991. *Upgrading of school principals*. In: *South African Journal of Higher Education*. Vol.5, No.2, 1991, pp.18-25.
- Gough, R.G 1985. *Staff Development as part of the continuing education of teachers*. In: *British Journal on In-Service Education*, 12(1):35-40.
- Govender, M.T. 1996. *Staff development and management change*. Paper delivered at International conference, Madras, May 1996 : 1-18.
- Greenland, J. (Ed.) 1983. *The In-Service Training of Primary School Teachers in English Speaking Africa*. Mcmillan Education, London.
- Handy, C.B. 1993. *Understanding organizations*. Penguin, London.
- Harling, P. 1984. *New Directions in Educational Leadership*. The Falmer Press, London.
- Hartshorne, K.B. 1994. *Crisis and challenge: Black Education. 1910-1990*. haul. Oxford University press, Cape Town.
- Hartshorne, K.B. 1985. *INSET in South Africa: The HSRC Report*. Urban Foundation Seminar, 17-18 July 1985, South Africa.
- Henderson, E.S. 1978. *The evaluation of In-Service Teacher Training*. Croom Helm, London.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. 1988. *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources*. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall. New York.

- Hicks, D. 1979. *School-Focused In-Service Training*. Inner London Education Authority (ILEA), London.
- Hoberg, S.M. 1997. *Education Management of the pre-primary school: The bipartite role of the teaching principal*. *Educare* 26 (1&2) 1997.
- Hofmeyr, J. 1994. *Educating the Educators*. In: *DSA in depth: Reconstructing Education*, February 1994: 35-37.
- Hofmeyr, J. 1998. *Policy Issues in INSET: International and South African Perspectives*. Mobil Foundation of South Africa, Johannesburg.
- Ho Wan Kam (Ed.) 1990. *Improving the quality of the teaching Profession*. ICET, Singapore.
- Hughes, M.G. 1990. *Educational Administration: International trends and issues*. In: *International journal of Educational Management*, 4 (1), pp.24-25.
- Hutson, N. 1981. *In-Service Best Practice: The Learnings of General Education*. In : *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 14(2): 1-10.
- Huysamen, G.K. 1994. *Methodology for the social and behavioural sciences*. Butterworths, Halfway House.
- Ibe, M.D. 1990. *School-Based Staff Development programmes: Theoretical Based and Realities*. Ho, W.K. (Ed.) 1990. *Improving the quality of the teaching profession*, ICET, Singapore.
- Kallaway, P. et al. 1984. *Apartheid and Education: The Education of Black South African*, Ravan Press, Johannesburg.
- Keith, S. and Girling R.H. 1991. *Education management and participation: New directions in educational administration*. Allyn & Bacon, London.

- Killen, R. 1996. Outcomes-based education: rethinking teaching. Paper presented at Unisa, Pretoria. October 1996.
- Kothari, C.R. 1988. *Research Methodology: Methods and techniques*. Wiley Eastern, New Delhi.
- Leedy, P.D. 1979. *Practical Research Planning design*. Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc, London.
- Lewis, P. Saunders, M. and Thornhill, A. 2000. *Research Methods for Business Students*. Prentice Hall, England.
- Lovell, J.T. and Wiles, K. 1983. *Supervision for better schools* Fifth Edition. Prentice-Hall Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Mabunda, G.K. 1993. Managing change in schools. Paper presented at the principals' Regional conference, Giyani, September 1993.
- Mabuza, J.E. 1998. Teacher Empowerment: New challenges for school principals. Paper presented at TUATA Regional conference, Golden Gate, September 1998.
- Magagula, C.M. 1992. *A model for training school administrators in Third World countries*. University of Swaziland.
- Mashamba, G. 1991. *People's Education*. Maskew Miller Longman, Cape Town.
- Mavuso, H.H. 1993. Managing change in the secondary schools. Paper delivered at Manyeleti Game Reserve, May 1993.
- Mawila, H. 1995. Teachers' participation in staff development. Paper presented at the principals' Regional conference. Grasskop, August 1995.

- McBride, R. 1992. *INSET, Professional Development and the Local Management of schools*. In Wallace, G. (Ed.) *Local Management of Schools: Research and Experience*. Multilingual matters. Clevedon.
- Moodley, A. 2001. *The role of the principal in the provision of school-focussed In-Service Education and Training*. Ph.D. Thesis, University of the North (Qwaqwa campus).
- Morant, R.W. 1981. *In-Service Education within the School*. George Allen, London.
- Morgan, C. *et al.* 1994. *A handbook on selecting senior staff for schools*. Open University Press, Oxford.
- Mouly, G.J. 1978. *Educational Research: Art and Science of investigation*. Allyn and Bacon, Boston.
- Mouton, J. 1996. *Understanding Social research*. J.L. Van Schaik, Pretoria.
- Muller, J. and Taylor, N. 1995. *Schooling and everyday life: Knowledges sacred*. Paper presented at the second theory, culture and Society Conference, Berlin.
- Mullins, L.J. 1999. *Management and Organisational Behaviour*. Prentice-Hall, England.
- Naidoo, E.M. 1995. *Managing together: INSET and teachers*. Paper delivered at the teachers' conference on Implementing INSET Programmes at schools, Delhi, October 1995.
- National Curriculum Development Committee, 1996. *Curriculum Framework for General and Further Education and Training*. Department of Education, Pretoria.

- Neville, M. 1990. *Teachers centres: Teacher Initiated In-service: the New Zealand Experience in* Ho W.K. Improving the Quality of the Teaching Profession, ICET, Singapore.
- Nixon, J. 1989. *School-Focused In Service Education: An Approach to staff Development*. McMillan Education, Basingstoke.
- Nkuna, J.N. 1999. A model for training teachers in the rural schools. Paper delivered to the Principals' conference. Giyani Chachulani Hall, 15-17 October 1999.
- Nthangeni, N.E. 1991. Strategies for the Implementation of a School effectiveness programme in secondary schools in Venda: A comparative study. Unpublished Master of Education dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- Ntshingila-Khosa, R. 1994. Teaching in South Africa: Observed pedagogical practices and teacher's own meanings. *Proceedings of a seminar on effective Schools and classrooms*. Improving Education Quality project, Durban.
- Nyathi, J.P. 1992. Changing the School culture in the Northern Transvaal. Paper delivered at the Principals' Regional conference, Manyeleti Game Reserve.
- Pather, G. 1995. An Inverstigation into the management of In-Service Education and Training (INSET) in the Natal-Kwazulu Region. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Natal, Durban.
- Pearce, J.A. and Robinson, J.R. 1982. *Strategic management*. Richard D. Erwin Inc, Illinois.
- Popham, W.J. 1981. *Educational management*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
- Raubenheimer, D. 1992. *An Emerging Approach to Teacher Development: who drives the bus?* Perspectives in Education, 4 (1) : 67-80.

- Reynolds, D. 1985. *Studying school effectiveness*. Taylor and Francis Printers LTD, Great Britain.
- Ripinga, S.S. 1992. Principal and change in the new South Africa. A paper presented at the annual conference of Gazankulu Principals' Association, Sabie River. 15 August 1992.
- Robinson, M. 1999. Teacher Education in South Africa. In: *Journal of Education for teaching*,(25): 11–23.
- Rubin, L.J. (Ed.) 1971. *Improving In–Service Education: Proposals and Procedures for change*. Allyn and Bacon Inc, Boston.
- Rumble, G. and Harry, K. 1982. *The Distance Teaching Universities*. Croom Helm, London.
- Schofield, A. 1993. School Based INSET in the future South Africa. Paper delivered to the Kenton (Olwandle) Conference. Scottsburg, Natal.
- Schofield, A. 1994. Changing the wind: School change, INSET and Reconstruction. Paper delivered to the Kenton 21 Conference. Gordon's Bay, Western cape.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. and Starrat, F.J. 1983. *Supervision: Human Perspective*. McGraw–Hill Book Company, New York.
- Showers, B. and Joyce, B. 1987. Improving In–Service Training: The message of research. In: *Educational Leadership*, (21): 21 – 30.
- Sidhu, K.S. 1995. *Methodology of Research in Education*. Sterling Publishers Pvt.. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Simkins, T. 1994. Efficiency, effectiveness and the local Management of Schools. In: *Journal of Education Policy*, 9 (1) : 15-33.

Smith, C. 1995. You can do much without sticking to structures: The power of vision to develop a school culture. Paper presented at Kenton Conference, October 1995.

South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) 2001. *Annual Conference Proceedings for 2001*. Gauteng, South Africa.

Sowetan, 31 August 1998. Overcoming problems in Education.

Sparks, G. 1983. School improvement through Staff Development. In: *Educational Leadership*, (12): 59 – 61.

Star, 3 November 1988. South Africa's Education system is old, tired and poorly suited.

Stenhouse, L. 1988. *An Introduction to curriculum Research and Development*. Heineman Educational Books Ltd., London.

Steyn, I.N. 1993. *Curriculum Design and Evaluation: A study and workbook*. Vista University, Bloemfontein.

Stoker, D.J. 1989. Basic Sampling Methods. In: *HRSC (1989) Survey Methods and Practice*. Module 2. HRSC : Opinion Survey Centre, Pretoria.

Sunday Times, 17 December 2000.

Sunday Times, 29 March 1998.

Sunday Times, 31 January 1999.

Sunday Times, 30 March 1997.

Taylor, N. (Ed.) 1993. *Inventing knowledge. Contests in curriculum construction*. Maskew Miller Longman, Cape Town.

Van der Westhuizen, P.C. 1991. *Effective educational Management*. Haum, Pretoria.

Viljoen, J. and Moller, T. 1992. *School Management 1*. Via Africa Limited, Pretoria.

Walters, R. 1991. *School Management in Teaching Practice: Method for student teachers*. Maskew Miller Longman (Pty) Ltd., Cape Town.

Wiersma, W. 1991. *Research methods in education*. Fifth Edition. Allyn & Bacon, Boston.

Yogev, A. 1997. School-Based In-Service Teacher Education versus Industrialized Countries: Policy Perspectives. In: *Prospects*, (27): 131-149.

APPENDIX 1

Private Bag X13
PHUTHADITJHABA 9866
20 February 2002

The Regional Director
Department of Education
Private Bag X578
GIYANI 0826

Dear Sir

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ON "THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE FAR NORTH OF THE LIMPOPO PROVINCE".

I hereby request your permission to conduct research for Ph.D in (Educational Management and Leadership) in sampled secondary schools in the Far North of Limpopo Province.

The title of my thesis is "**The Principal's Role in the Development Programmes for the Teaching Staff in the Far North of the Limpopo Province**". I am registered with the University of the North (Qwaqwa Campus).

Promoter : Professor D.R. Bagwandeem
Co-promoter : Professor J.N. Benedict

My fieldwork plan is as follows:

1. A sample of teachers and Principals of schools will be interviewed.
2. A questionnaire survey will be conducted with a sample of secondary schools.
3. Observation of a few in-service courses in progress will be undertaken.

The research will be conducted during the first and second week of May 2002.

Furthermore, a request is made to you for permission to make arrangements with Area Managers, Circuit Inspectors and Principals of the above mentioned schools included in the sample as well as subject advisors prior to the visit.

A copy of the questionnaire will be made available to you as soon as it is approved by my promoters.

Yours faithfully


.....
RESEARCHER: K.S. MILONDZO


.....
DATE

APPENDIX 2

RESEARCH PROJECT

1. INTRODUCTION

You are respectfully requested to give an honest response to each of the questions and statements in this questionnaire. Firstly, the purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data and information about what you consider important in respect of a principal's role in the development programmes for the teaching staff in the Far North. Secondly, to determine needs in the present situation and for future staff development efficiency.

This questionnaire is to be completed individually by principals, deputy principals, head of departments and teachers, or any person acting in any of these capacities.

2. CO-OPERATIVE RESEARCH

The research project will be carried out in close liaison with circuits and other stake holders in the Mopani region – Limpopo Province.

3. PARTICIPATION IN THE PROJECT

Your co-operation in completing this questionnaire is very important. Be totally honest in your reply and do not consult other people. Your contribution will help to evaluate the visibility of staff development in the Mopani region – Limpopo Province.

4. CONFIDENTIALITY

The information that you provide will be treated confidentially. Therefore your name and the name of your school will not appear on the questionnaire.

The information will be used for a research project in which I am involved, with the University of the North. Please complete this questionnaire because the information you give will not be given to any other person. There are no wrong or right answers.

The findings of the research will be processed and form the basis of a research publication.

5. INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Carefully read all the questions before you answer them. Where a number of possible answers are provided, select the answer that you feel best fits your situation and encircle the appropriate number in the shaded area, or write your answer in the shaded space.

EXAMPLE:

At present I am (Choose only **one** answer)

Controlling	1
Leading	2
Motivating	3

SECTION A: PERSONAL DETAILS

Respondent number

V1 1-4

1. Date on which this questionnaire is completed

D	D	M	M	Y	Y	Y	Y

V2 5-8
 9-12

2. What is your age in completed years?

V3 13-14

3. Please indicate your gender

Female

Male

V4 15

4. Position in you present job (Choose only **one** answer)

Principal	1
Deputy Principal	2
Head of Department	3
Teacher	4

V5 16

5. Number of years in the teaching profession

V6 17-18

6. What is your academic qualification? (Choose your **highest** qualification)

Standard 8	1
Standard 10	2
Bachelor degree	3
Honours degree	4
Masters degree	5
Doctoral degree	6

V7 19

7. What is your professional qualification? (Choose your **highest** professional qualification)

P.T.C	1
J.S.T.C.	2
S.S.T.C.	3
P.T.D.	4
S.T.D	5
U.E.D.	6
H.E.D.	7
H.D.E	8
Other (Specify)	

V8 20-21

8. To which **district** are you presently attached?

Giyani	1
Phalaborwa	2
Tzaneen	3

V9 22

9. To which **circuit** are you presently attached?

--

V10 23-24

10. Type of school in which you are currently employed?

Community school	1
Private school	2
Farm school	3
State school	4

V11 25

11. How many pupils are you teaching at the present moment?
(Give the **total** number of pupils you are teaching for all your classes)

--

V12 26-29

12. Average number of teachers per students e.g. 1:25

--

V13

--	--	--	--

 30-33

13. Have you attended a course, symposium, or conference in the last three years?

Yes	1
-----	---

No	2
----	---

V14

--

 34

If **yes** at Question 13 above, then

14. Were you given the opportunity to discuss the course content with the course leader?

Yes	1
-----	---

No	2
----	---

V15

--

 35

SECTION B: THE PLANNING AND ORGANISATION OF THE IN-SERVICE COURSES

Encircle an appropriate answer of your choice in the shaded area.

15. How long would you prefer **INSET** courses to last? (Choose **one answer only**)

½ day	1
1 day	2
2 days	3
1 week	4
Other (Specify)	

V16

--

 35

16. How many times per year would you like to meet with colleagues of other schools to discuss managerial problems that you encounter in your school or classroom?

Once	1
Twice	2
Three times	3
Four times	4
Five times	5
Six or more times	6

V17 37

17. Where would you prefer to attend **INSET** courses?
At the ...

School	1
Circuit office	2
College or university	3
Teacher centre	4
Other (specify)	

V18 38

18. Who, of the following, would you prefer to be your course leader or facilitator? (Choose only **one** answer)

Experienced colleague	1
Subject advisor	2
College or university lecturer	3
Teacher centre lecturer	4
Other (specify)	

V19 39

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by encircling your choice:

[KEY: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Unsure; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly disagree]

19. Teachers should be consulted when topics for in-service courses are being decided upon.

V20 40

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

20. Some teachers must be used to conduct useful **INSET** courses.

V21 41

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

21. Teachers should be released during school hours to attend in-service courses.

V22 42

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

22. In-service courses must be made compulsory for all teachers.

V23 43

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

23. In-service teachers who attend courses should pay a course fee.

V24 44

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

24. Teachers staying far from centres providing in-service training must have their travel costs refunded.

V25 45

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

25. In-service courses should also be offered through distance education methods to reach all teachers.

V26 46

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

26. In-service courses should have strong links with pre-service training.

V27 47

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

27. Teachers should be tested on the content and method of what they have learned at the teachers' centre.

V28 48

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

28. Certificates should be issued to teachers attending courses for salary improvement.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

V29 49

29. The principal aim of in-service training and staff development is to improve the level of instruction in a specific school.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

V30 50

30. School based in-service training is preferable to those organised centrally by the Department of Education.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

V31 51

31. In-service training and staff development can be conducted in a number of ways and can be assisted by many institutions and organisational bodies.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

V32 52

32. Staff development should happen according to a staff development plan.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

V33 53

33. The heads of department should see to it that the teachers who attend the subject-orientated courses utilise the new material and information gained while on **INSET**.

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

34 54

SECTION C: LEADERSHIP AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Use the following codes for the statement you select.

YES Encircle **1**
NO Encircle **2**
USURE Encircle **3**

34. The Principal should nominate those members of staff to whom the course has relevance.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V35 55

35. When the teachers have completed the course, a Principal must see that they pass on the information to other teachers involved in that subject.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V36 56

36. The Principal maintains a balance in the organisation of all programme components

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V37 57

3.7 Authoritative, Consultative and Participative leadership styles are the best leadership styles in INSET.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V38 58

3.8 The Principal should set clear objectives which are relevant and attainable for staff development.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V39 59

39. The Principal should always motivate his or her teachers to upgrade their knowledge.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V40 60

40. The leadership style of the Principal should foster joint decision making in the planning and implementation of staff development programmes.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V41 61

41. The Principal's development policy should make provision for adaptation and innovation.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V42 62

SECTION D: RESOURCE AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

42. The school has enough instructional materials, namely teaching and learning media.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V43 63

43. Our school library has relevant books and materials that can contribute towards staff development.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V44 64

44. There is a library in our secondary school.

Yes	1
No	2
Unsure	3

V45 65

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

