

**IN-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE
GROBLERSDAL DISTRICT OF MPUMALANGA PROVINCE**

BY

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To my wife, Maria, who always gave me the necessary support and encouragement.

To my daughter, Kgaugelo; my typist, Renuka; my promoter, Ms D.L. Dlamini and my dearest colleague Mr V Rajendra who always stood behind me.

ABSTRACT

The profound educational change and transformation ushered in the Republic of South Africa by the new democratic political dispensation in 1994, made the system of education increasingly diversified and complex. As a result, the educational scenario has developed unique management needs for the different management levels in schools, particularly for the principalship.

The importance and need of the continued professional growth of the school leader has, therefore been emphasised throughout this study. The need for the school principal's professional and management growth in these constantly changing times should receive priority if effective teaching as an overriding objective is to be realised. An effective in-service training programme can produce results that will lead to increased competence and effectiveness in the day to day management of our schools.

The aim of this study, therefore, has been to identify the needs to provide in-service training programmes for school principals according to which they may be trained. An empirical investigation has been undertaken to ascertain these specific needs of educational leaders.

Intensive review of literature including relevant books, journals, articles and newspaper reports were made.

A questionnaire as an instrument of research was developed to achieve the objective of this study. A sample of (N = 120) principals out of a total of (N = 265) principals in the district was selected.

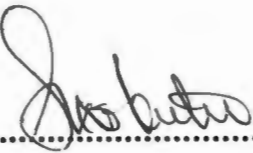
The major findings emanating from this study are inter alia, the following:

- that very few principals have undergone in-service training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties;
- that all principals should be trained whilst in service;
- that in-service training improves performance and expertise;
- that leadership in schools can no longer be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone, some form of in-service training is essential;
- that all school principals should be evaluated periodically to assist them in their role function by providing in-service training;
- that in-service training of principals has been neglected by the authorities;
- that in-service training of school principals should not be voluntary but mandatory;
- that in reality, training of principals should be continuous; and
- that the training needs of principals should be identified before in-service training begins.

In-service management training should become part of government policy. It should be a mandatory exercise rather than being voluntary. Teachers' centres should be established in all circuits to facilitate the training of all concerned. The future of South Africa lies in the education of its youth. The education of its youth depends entirely on the effective teaching and efficient management of personnel.

DECLARATION

"I declare that the dissertation for the degree of Masters at the University of North West hereby submitted has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my own work in design and execution and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged".



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S.W. KUTU

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CHAPTER 1 : ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction

The proper and effective functioning of a school greatly depends on the professional and leadership conduct of the school principal and his management team. Together with his deputy-principal and the heads of department, he forms a leadership machinery, responsible for the day to day smooth and efficient management of the school. Numerous researchers and educationists share the opinion that team approach to leadership enhances maximum effectiveness and excellence in the day to day activities of the school. The job of the school leadership is too vast and demanding to be handled by the school principal alone. As stated by Bedassi (1990: 5) "...schools have developed into complex organisations, and the demand and pressures on principals are greater today than at any previous time".

In spite of the invaluable leadership assistance and support given by the principal's management colleagues, he should not always lose sight of the fact that he is a senior member of the school management team. He should at all times tower above everyone. He should always be seen as "a person of vision and insight, a resourceful leader, full of ideas and respect of the entire field of education ... a person of action, possessing strong leadership qualities and mastery of the technique of administration" (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1973 : 22).

In this era of empowerment, restructuring and school based management, the principal is looked upon as a central and vital figure in the school. Both the instructional and leadership activities emanate from him. In view of these, principals should become a target group for intensified and professionally structured in-service training. Both the national and provincial department(s) of

education need to take the initiative in training the principal in order to prepare him for his demanding role. Principalship should be regarded as a useful and relevant ground for both district trainers and inspectors.

In-service training will reinforce the principal's skill dimensions, facilitate his development and provide him with the most up-to-date leadership information. The fact is that, the school management can no longer be exercised solely on the basis of experience and natural ability. "The school principal needs to be trained in the skills of team leadership and delegation. Moreover, the pressures on principals arising from demands for participation, consultation and accountability are generally recognised" (Bedassi, 1994 : 2).

In-service training which has been found to be the best way of acquiring knowledge will guarantee perpetual learning for the principal. According to Bennis & Manus (1985 : 88), "this perpetual learning is the essential fuel for the leader, the source of high-octane energy that keeps up the momentum by continually sparking new understandings, new ideas and challenges".

The essence of this study is to highlight the important role played by the principal as an educational leader and to highlight the influences of the in-service training programmes in order to improve his leadership competence. The object is to equip the principal with leadership skills so that he in turn should be in a position to train his colleagues (deputy-principal and heads of departments) and subordinates, support staff and teachers. In the words of Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1993 : 40), "principals must be continuous learners and through their leadership, entice others like teachers to be learners too".

1.2 Statement of the problem

Traditionally the principal was merely the head-teacher, and what the school had to achieve was of limited complexity. According to Van der Westhuizen (1991 : 1), "the educational leader required only professional training and experience to manage his school". He goes on to explain that, the view was that a competent teacher had a certain number of years of experience, had the right personality and was suited for the task and the demands of principalship. He is supported by Waters (1983 : 7) when he says that "in the past, heads were appointed to the job in a manner that can be described as a great act of faith".

School principals have to carry out numerous functions and play many managerial roles. Unless they are fortunate, they may be unprepared for many of them. The researcher, also a principal for sixteen years, is convinced that relevant managerial training which is sound and yet also practice-oriented and effective can make a considerable contribution towards better schools.

During discussions with principals from different schools about their work, it became clear that they do not have a clear definition of their roles. When asked what they do, principals tend to emphasise the fragmented and discontinuous nature of their administrative and managerial tasks. According to Buckley, (1985 : 12) many heads feel frustrated by the complexity and the confusion which exists about their role, the change which that role has undergone in the past decade or so, a process which continues and accelerates in the present times. Buckley (1985 : 1-2) states that Jackson (1976) identified among the salient features of principalship "... the unrelenting call for adoption to constant change, excessive paperwork and above all, the high personal stress of the head's job".

Today's schools do not operate under stable or static conditions. A newly appointed head is vulnerable to outside pressures for which an academic training has not provided any appropriate preparation in leadership skills and general effectiveness as a principal. The school's internal structure and inter-relatedness with the community, state and other bodies and organisations make the school environment very complex and also subject to change (Johnson, 1991 : 38).

Van der Westhuizen (1991 : 3) indicates that the educational leader is less well-trained for his task than the subject teacher. Very few educational leaders of today have undergone training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties. It means that as the educational leader ascends the promotional ladder, the more daily tasks he has to perform for which he received no initial training. It is against this background that the problem statements are formulated as follows;

- * What is the place of the principal as a senior member of the management team?
- * What are the in-service training needs of the principals?
- * How can the district trainers and inspectors provide in-service training to the principal while on duty? (Methods).

1.3 The purpose of the study

1.3.1 AIM I: To determine through literature the nature and the scope of in-service training of the principal.

1.3.2 AIM II: To determine the in-service needs of the school principals.

1.4 Method of research

1.4.1 Literature study

Intensive review and analysis of literature including relevant books, journals, articles and newspaper reports was made.

1.4.2 Empirical investigations

1.4.2.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed and pre-tested. The aim of the questionnaire was to gather data relating to in-service education and training of school principals. The questionnaire relates to areas covered in the literature review. A letter was sent to the District Office as well as to the principals selected to participate in the study. The letters stated the field of study and requested permission to conduct the study.

1.4.2.2 Population

Out of the total number of principals ($N = 265$) in the Groblersdal District of the Mpumalanga Province, a random sample ($n = 120$) principals were selected. These 120 selected principals were from primary and secondary schools. They were male and female principals with varying years of experience.

1.4.2.3 Data analysis

With the help of statistical consultants of the University of the North West, a computer analysis was made.

1.5 Definition of terms

The following concepts were used throughout the study and, therefore, require clarification:-

1.5.1 In-service training

In-service training has to do with improving a serving principal's professional, academic and personal development through the provision of a series of study experiences and activities. Fullan (1990) as quoted by Seyfarth (1991 : 129) defines in-service training as "any activity or process intended to improve skills, understanding or performance in present or future roles". Oldroyd and Hall (1991 : 2) describe in-service training and education as "planned activities practised both within and outside schools primarily to develop the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes and performance of professional staff".

1.5.2 Professional education

This (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991 : 2) refer to the widening and deepening of a school principal's theoretical perspectives of advanced study, for example, diploma and/or masters degree.

1.5.3 Professional training

It is the development of the principal's knowledge and skills relating to his or her daily work, through workshops and short courses, usually non-accredited but sometimes for a certificate (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991 : 2).

1.5.4 Professional support

It is usually in the form of activities within the school that aim at developing job experience and performance, for example, job rotation, peer coaching or collaborative action research (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991 : 2).

1.5.5 In-service training programme

It refers to a range of planned activities (on-close-to and off-the-job) that contributes to development. It might include self-evaluation, visits to schools or colleges, preparatory reading or research for a course, follow up activities such as peer coaching, action research and many other activities. Programmes can be of varying scope: regional, institutional, departmental or individual programmes (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991 : 6).

1.5.6 In-service training activities

In-service training activities are simply the components of programmes, for example, a course on a developmental discussion between a school principal and a colleague.

1.5.7 Management development

Oldroyd & Hall (1991 : 5) maintains that management development is that part of personnel development concerned with the school principal's performance in 'getting results with and through other people' as opposed to their performance as principals.

1.5.8 Principal competence

This refers to the repertoire of competencies a school principal possesses. Overall competence is a matter of the degree to which a principal has mastered a set of individual competencies (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991 : 11).

1.5.9 Principal performance

Oldroyd & Hall (1991 : 11) maintain that principal performance refers to what the principal does on the job rather than what he/she can do, that is, how competent he/she is. Principal's performance is specific to the job situation, it depends on the competence of the principal, the context in which he/she works and his/her ability to apply his/her competencies at any given point in time.



1.5.10 Principal effectiveness

This refers to the effect that the school principal's performance has on the teachers, pupils as well as other personnel. School principals effectiveness depends not only on competencies and performance but also on the responses pupils make. Just as competence cannot predict performance under different situations, principal performance cannot predict outcomes under different situations (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991 : 11).

1.5.11 Management skills

Robert L. Katz has identified three basic types of skills which are needed by all educational leaders namely : technical, human and conceptual skills (1986 : 9).

1.5.11.1 Technical skills

1.5.11.1 Technical skills

Hersey & Blanchard, (1982) define technical skills as the ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques and equipment necessary for the performance of specific tasks acquired from experience, education and training (Van der Bank, 1986 : 10).

1.5.11.2 Human skills

Human skills, according to Sergiovanni (1980), as quoted Van der Bank (1986 : 10) refers to the school administrator's ability to work effectively and efficiently with other people on one-to-one basis and in a group setting. This requires considerable self-understanding and acceptance as well as empathy, consideration and appreciation for others.

It is important to note that all teaching staff, whether in a managerial position or not, must have a knowledge and understanding of motivation, attitudinal development, group dynamics, human need and the development of human potential (Van der Bank, 1986 : 10).

Figure 1.1 Different skills at various management levels adapted from Sashkin & Morris (1984) by Van der Bank (1986 : 10)

MANAGEMENT LEVELS	MANAGEMENT SKILLS
Top management (Principals)	Institutional skills
Middle management (Deputy principals)	Conceptual skills
	Human relations skills

1.5.11.3 Conceptual skills

This is the ability of the educational leader to see the school, the community and the educational programme in totality. Sergiovanni (1980 : 14) sees it as "... the effective mapping of interdependence for each of the components of the school as an organisation, the educational programme as an instructional system and the functioning of human organisation". It is clear that conceptual skills are more important to positions higher up in the organisational hierarchy.

1.5.11.4 Institutional skills

This is required if the educational leader is to represent the organisation to other organisations and to society at large. Van der Bank (1986 : 11) postulates that "people differ in their ability to see, think clearly about, appraise, predict and understand the demands and opportunities posed to organisations by its environment".

The educational leader needs accurate and comprehensive views of the school environment relationship in order to be an effective, professional, instructional and cultural leader. Van der Bank (1986 : 11) quoted Krajewski (1983) by stating that the elementary principal fits best in the middle management level and that these principals "are definitely managers whose managerial task must be effected via interaction with people". This statement indicates the need for special training of the school principal in this field.

Van der Bank (1986 : 12) goes on to make the following interesting observation, "all this suggests is that most of our formal education studying is something that will become less and less important to us as we progress through our managerial careers".

This is very true in the case of school principals. It is therefore essential that all educationists should receive in-service training in management in order to manage their schools effectively.

CHAPTER 2 : THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

2.1 Introduction

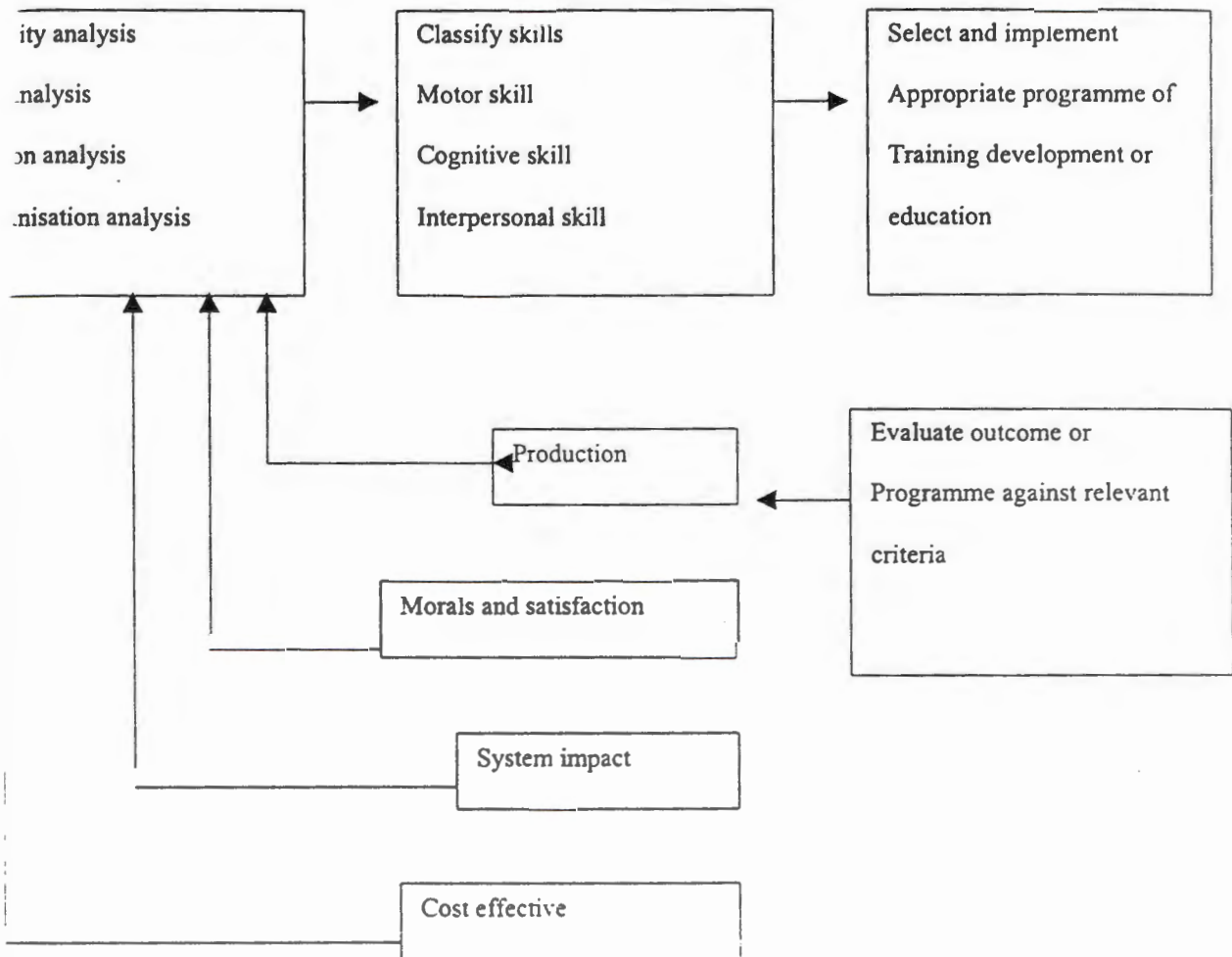
Dramatic changes have occurred in our schools over the past years, and they in turn have created a new set of competencies that principals need to acquire. Many principals were trained and educated before the emergence of such current trends as cultural pluralism, community involvement, special education, student rights and collective bargaining (Sharp & Walter, 1994:174). These trends of course are by no means the end, but rather just the beginning of even more dramatic changes taking place at an accelerated pace. We must be prepared to meet these on-going challenges through in-service training (Sharp & Walter, 1994:174).

In view of this, the time may be right for making principals a target group for intensive leadership training efforts. In-service training programme will enable educational leaders to meet the pressures of change. For the newly appointed principals, who were never inducted and are experiencing serious problems when confronted by their new responsibilities, in-service training will definitely serve as a solution to their problems (Sharp & Walter, 1994:174).

The aim of this chapter is to outline the nature and the scope of in-service training. The study also aims at exposing the educational leader to ways of improving his competency level in the day to day service he is rendering to the school.

A cursory look at the in-service training programme of school leaders in developed countries such as the United States of America, England, France, Sweden and the Netherlands and in developing countries such as Zambia, Namibia and the Republic of South Africa will be highlighted.

Figure: 2.1 In-service training Model for school principals



Source: De Cenzo & Robbins (1988:90)

Phase 1: Identify skills needed.

The trainer interviews trainees (principals) in an attempt to identify in-service training needs. The identification of relevant needs will lead to relevant in-service training programmes.

Phase 2: Classify the skills

It is helpful to clarify skills to be learned in the in-service training programmes. The trainer will be able to identify the type of skill to be developed during the in-service training. Improving one's skill involves actual change in behaviour or performance.

Phase 3: Select and implement appropriate programme

The trainer must be familiar with internal and external resources for his in-service training.

Phase 4 : Evaluate outcome of programme

Results will be productivity, moral satisfaction, system impact and cost effectiveness.

Phase 5 : Recalibration/Follow-up.

Important follow-up to evaluation of the outcome of an in-service training or development programme is made. If the programme seems to have some merits, but is falling short in some respect, modifications could be made. Evaluation of the programme suggests new training.

2.2 Personnel development and training

2.2.1 The concept of in-service training – Further definitions

In-service training is defined in various ways. "It is variously termed as professional development, management development, on the job training and professional growth" (Bedassi, 1994:30). Van der Westhuizen (1991:274) approaches it from another perspective. He regards it as "internal training opportunities that are created by the principal in order to keep entire staff on their toes".

Bagwandeem (1993:13) defines it as follows, "in-service training, like any other education, has to do with aiding people to grow, learn and improve, enjoy, think and do, with the emphasis on improving performance". From the above definitions, it is evident that in-service training programmes are a vehicle of professional development. The aim should centre around the development of the entire teaching corps, including the principal as an educational leader.

Dean (1990:5) in answering the question on what professional development is, defines it as "the process by which individuals, groups and organisations learn to be more effective and efficient". (Cawood and Gibbon, 1989) quoted by Dean (1990:5) describe staff development as "an experiential involvement to support and assist professional and management development that personnel ought to experience through their working lives".

The definitions do not differentiate among the terms in-service education and training, and professional development (Dean 1990:5). If one follows the definitions above, one might see someone who is professional as having a substantial

background of knowledge, and skill acquired during initial training and subsequent trainings. One would expect a professional person to be highly ethical within the terms of the profession. He/she might also be expected to work together for the good of the school and everyone in the School. Professional development can therefore be seen as an increase in some aspect of professionalism and can legitimately be applied to the development of individuals or groups if the purpose of the activity is the increase of professionalism (Dean 1990:5).

Guthrie and Reed (1991:346) maintain that staff development refers to a continuing development programme focused on a wide range of skills, abilities, and group needs. It can be defined further as a formal, systematic programme designed to foster personal and professional growth. They go further to highlight that “in-service education and training is concerned with the acquisition of a specific skill or knowledge of a certain procedure.” In-service training may be a building block within the broader context of staff development. Obviously both staff development and in-service training are important and enhance organisational effectiveness.

2.2.2 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN EDUCATION AND TRAINING

2.2.2.1 Education

While training focuses on the acquisition of specific practical skills and knowledge, education as a science is broader and more general in nature. Education emphasizes theoretical issues that may or may not immediately apply in the given job (Van Rensburg et al, 1994:375).

“Education aims at the improvement of competence in a specific direction, while training focuses on achievement of specific competence for the job” (Magagula, 1992:3). The focus of this study is on in-service training needs and not on

education. This will help principals acquire specific levels of competence and knowledge for the job they are doing.

2.2.2.2 Training

Magagula (1992:3) defines training as the acquisition of skills and knowledge (or technology) as well as change in attitude aimed at effectively, efficiently and competently performing a given job ...” Faast (1984:128) continues to say: “training can be defined as the procedure by which people learn, gain knowledge or skills for a definite purpose”. According to Magagula (1993:3) training is therefore said to be responsible for the following contributions:

- Reduces learning time to reach acceptable performance;
- Improves performance on the present job;
- Formulates attitudes; and
- Aids in solving needs and benefits of the employees

Magagula (1992:3) mentions the following main purposes of training:

- To introduce a new behaviour of the individual, and
- To modify the existing behaviour so that a desirable behaviour is acquired.

2.2.3 Formal and Informal training of the principal

There are two important strategies for training school principals. They are formal and informal training.

2.2.3 .1 Formal In-service training

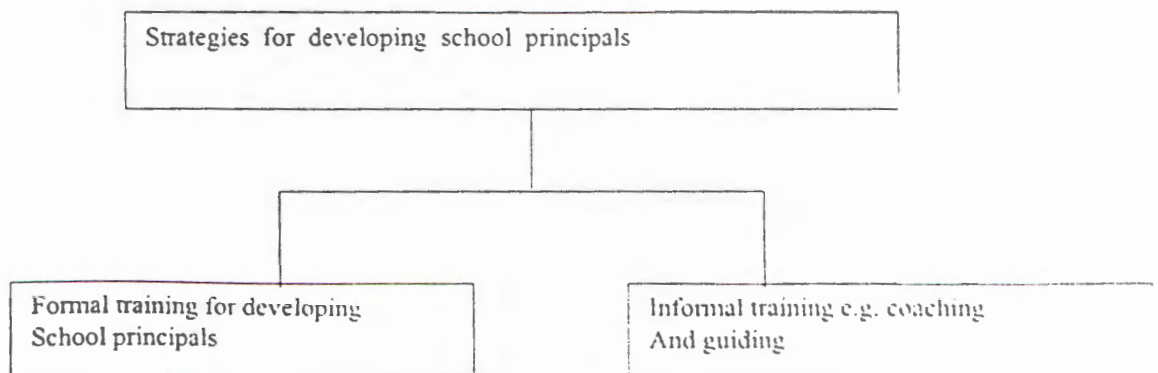
Formal in-service training takes place when leadership skills and knowledge are passed on to or taught in the form of written, structured, in-service training programmes. The programmes have clear goals and operational objectives. The content is built on the prior experience of the participants and is related to their school situations (Bedassi, 1994:31).

2.2.3.2 Informal In-Service Training



Informal in-service training can be described as the discussion between the principal and his colleagues and/or the trainer. Bondesio & De Witt (1991:174) refer to informal in-service training as an 'internal training' which is found to be the major task of the trainer. This could be achieved by holding principals' meetings periodically with the main aim of imparting knowledge, skills, ideas or standards or telling them how they are performing (giving feedback). This is called coaching. Coaching may also take place anywhere at any time in the work environment.

Figure 2.2. Strategies for training the school principals (formal and informal in-service training).



Source: Bedassi (1994:60)

2.2.4 Training as a continuous process and identification of training needs.

Magagula (1992:3) argues that training is a cyclical process which has the following characteristics:

- Identification of needs;
- Transformation of the training needs;
- Selection of appropriate content (skills and knowledge)
- Selection of learning methods or strategies;
- Identification of trainers; and
- Planning, organising, implementation and evaluation of the whole in-service training programme.

According to Bedassi (1994:82), "the development of school principals must be viewed as a dynamic, ongoing process rather than a one-off programme. He stresses that continuous in-service training is essential. Principals cannot only depend on experience and natural ability alone. He should be exposed to continuous training throughout his career" The research conducted by Bedassi (1994:82) among Indian school leaders revealed that over 90% of principals who participated in the research agreed that continuous in-service training in educational management was essential. Only 7% of the respondents disagreed. Buckley (1985:171) also agreed with the continuous process of development through the career of school principals. He divides training needs into three possible stages:

- Initial training before appointment,
- Following training in the early years of service (induction phase); and
- Continuous training at regular intervals throughout the subsequent career of the educational leader.

Buckley (1985:172) recommends the following methods in identifying in-service needs:

- visit to course members before training programme begins, to ascertain individual needs;
- meetings with course members before in-service training programmes begin, followed by a questionnaire completed by course members;
- follow-up visits paid to course members; and
- the appointment of Inspectors or District trainers as course tutors.

Proper identification of training needs for the school principals according to Buckley (1985:171) forms the key to the creation of effective in-service training programmes.

2.3 Aims and objectives of in-service training

Like any other form of training, in-service training has its own objectives. In-service training objectives can be divided into two categories, namely, the broad objectives of in-service training and specific objectives of in-service training.

2.3.1 Broad objectives of in-service training

Bagwandeem (1993:41) outlines the objectives of in-service training as follows:

- It is regarded as a means of combating societal problems and challenges in education;

- it provides the quality of teaching;
- it provides an extension and refreshment of knowledge;
- the participants will acquire new skills and methods;
- it improves the qualifications of the participants; and
- it enables the principal to monitor and shape his professional development.

From the above objectives it has become potentially obvious that significant improvements of education and its management cannot be achieved without a major programmatic effort at providing in-service training firstly, for school leaders, and then for the teaching corps. Bagwandeem (1993:87) comments that the broad aim of in-service training also is to enable the school principal to monitor and shape his professional development. In this way, he continues to say, this would enable him/her:

- to develop his/her professional and managerial competence, confidence and relevant knowledge; and
- To evaluate his/her own work and attitudes in conjunction with his/her colleagues in other parts of the educational service.

2.3.2 Specific objectives of in-service training

A perspective of specific objectives of in-service training is further discussed as follows:

2.3.2.1 Extension of knowledge

This is regarded as the primary goal of in-service training and receives much attention. Principals should avoid falling behind in areas that need their expert

knowledge and attention, especially during changing times. In-service training helps teachers to improve their knowledge and skills (Bagwandeem, 1993:41).

Bagwandeem (1993:14) contends "that the knowledge base has increased enormously in various directions. There is the explosion of human knowledge" ... he says. He goes on to say that "in-service education and training is a tool to mould better principals by improving their knowledge;

- to develop criteria which would help him/her to assess his/her own management efficiency; and
- To successfully advance his/her career as a school leader.

In both developing and developed countries the point is time to time endorsed that principals in a world of expanding knowledge and developing technologies need frequent and substantial time for in-service training or continuing education (Campbell, Corbally and Nystrand (1983:123). "Incessant demands are being made for the remediation and repair of the weaknesses of pre-service training", they say.

Mark Smylie (1981:1) extends these broad objectives of in-service training to include adaptation of the curriculum to continuing cultural and social changes, improved attitudes and skills of personnel, the principal in particular in extension of knowledge continues .. provide ways to help them improve their effectiveness by instilling in them a desire to do a better job".

2.3.2.2 Consolidation and re-affirmation of knowledge

Change in educational needs and the increase in knowledge based in society "have

established an urgent need for qualified principals to refresh and improve skills and knowledge" (Bagwandeem, 1993:43).

2.3.2.3 Continual acquisition of knowledge

The reason for principals participation in in-service training programmes is to increase, extend and modify their knowledge. It is essential for the leader to adapt to changes in modern technology. It is also expected of principals to grow, to learn and to renew themselves to the utmost, while initial training tends to decay rapidly. The need for continual professional development, to keep abreast of changes cannot be over emphasised. The objectives of in-service training must become a routine aspect of professional life (Bagwandeem, 1993:43).

2.3.2.4 Familiarisation with curricular development

The changes in circumstances and technology need an expansion of the curriculum. It is the objective of in-service training programmes to help with the implementation of the new subject areas. There is a need to realise one's theoretical foundations in relation to challenges resulting from changed curricula (Bagwandeem, 1993:43).

2.3.2.5 Acquaintance with the principles of organisation and Administration

Admittedly, little effective work on school organisation and educational administration was attempted in pre-service courses. It is only after some in-service training experience that the principal becomes familiar with the principles of organisation operating in the area in which he functions (Thomas, 1994:7).

It is true that key factors of administration and organisation have been dealt with more profoundly in developed countries than in developing countries. For example, in some developed countries formal qualifications in administration constitute a pre-requisite for appointment to the post of principal of a school (Bagwandeem, 1993:99).

To contribute most effectively to the expertise of principals, the central objective of in-service training should be that which is directed towards organisation and administration. However, current research points to the fact that there is a new awareness of the importance of in-service training in organisation and administration.

2.3.2.6 Mastery of new aids and technology of Education

This is an age of change. It requires new and rapid adjustments. Its impact on education is ongoing challenge. Therefore, in-service training objectives are also directed towards familiarising school principals with this evolving technological revolution. There are increasing rates of change in the technology which can support the principal in his day-to-day work (Bagwandeem, 1993:101).

School principals must have the opportunity to know and appraise the potential of the new technology and be able to influence any decisions about the introduction of new technology in schools.

Principals as educators must reflect the most recent conclusions determined through empirical research. Studies of school effectiveness reveal that where principals use management and instructional techniques devised through research apparently increase student achievement. The results argue strongly for including training in these practices in in-service training programmes.

Principals as practitioners are also encouraged to be participants in the research or field investigation. Problems are studied scientifically to allow for guidance, correction and evaluation of decisions through what is described as action research. (Bagwandeem, 1993:103). Principals must be active participants in current educational research and practice. There is no doubt that in-service training can satisfy both these goals: acquainting school principals with research developments and also affording them opportunities to participate in organised research.

It is believed that the need for acquainting school leaders with the new aids and technology of education is increasing more rapidly than the knowledge is being available. The new technologies in education must be seen as a boon rather than as a bane to school principals. In-service training acquaints school principals with the new aids and technology and school leaders can use these media to assist their daily work (Bagwandeem, 1993:102).

2.3.2.7 Familiarity with changes in local and national policy

In most highly centralised systems of education the efficacious introduction of new policy is developed upon the rapid dissemination of the information prevailing. Key school principals may be appointed as regional convenors and through in-service training courses be informed of the proposed changes. Such principals can then disseminate the information to their colleagues.

In-service training can be used to achieve this objective of acquainting school leaders with details and principles of reform in the system both locally and nationally (Bagwandeem, 1993:102).

2.3.2.8 Understanding of our cultural changes

It is absolutely imperative that school principals, more than others, be sensitive to the changes in cultural modes that are currently emerging and which may be in apparent conflict with those of an earlier generation. In-service training can therefore prepare principals to confront these apparently insurmountable problems (Bagwandeem, 1993:103).

2.3.2.9 Acquaintance with and participation in Educational Research

Research is the livelihood of Education. As such the relationship between principals and researchers must be complementary to each other's activities. "Educational research has a central role to play in the development of principal education. To meet more increasingly complex and often conflicting demands, educational research will become still more important. Research is needed to guide and monitor.

2.3.2.10 Positive retaining

The objective of in-service training finds significant application in attempting to meet the needs of school principals returning to the teaching profession after a period of absence (Bagwandeem, 1993:99).

In this category returning principals, particularly in developed countries, gradually are able to establish themselves once again. Bagwandeem (1993:100) maintains that these former school leaders who left the profession some years ago, and who re-enter the profession require in-service training most urgently. He elaborates that the school population would have changed, since they have last taught; the individuals themselves would have changed; the course may have become different, and in many other ways, understandably, the problems of teaching would be

different to those with which these principals were confronted in the past (Bagwandeem, 1993:100).

In conclusion, broad general objectives of in-service training have been outlined. Different countries, with different in-service training programmes, will have different objectives which depend on their needs. The main objective is to provide a holistic perspective on the acquisition of knowledge and the upliftment of educational standards in a country.

2.4 Methods of in-service training

There is a wide range of training methods, some of which are discussed below:

2.4.1 Lecture and discussion methods

It includes inputs by individuals with knowledge, coupled with response to questions from participants and linked with discussion in groups. The purpose being:

- to explore ideas;
- to give information; and
- to help participants relate them to their experience, concerns, and way of perceiving (Wallace, 1991:53).

Audio-visual aids and handouts are widely used to capture and hold participants' attention and to supplement what is being said (Wallace, 1991:53). He further maintains that audio-visual aids and handouts have the following advantages:

- overhead projector transparencies can be read at a distance;
- Planned lecture ensures logical presentation of content;

- Clearly presented handouts save participants from taking notes;
- Keeping discussion groups small enough ensures that each member has the opportunity to contribute;
- Restricts the content of reporting back from groups to a few important points; and
- Employ activities such as brainstorming or the nominal group technique which ensure that certain participants do not dominate the debate (Wallace, 1991:54).

Lectures are an efficient way of communicating information to a large group of people and may be both stimulating and enjoyable. Discussions encourage individuals to explore their understanding and to link new ideas or information to their existing knowledge and way of thinking. However, while learning through these activities may inform action in the job situation, it does not address integration of what is learned into skilful performance on the job (Wallace, 1991:54).

2.4.2 Case Studies

The use of particular cases to illustrate learning points has been widely used for many years inside and outside Education. Case studies tend to be used for two different purposes:

- for learners to reflect upon the experience of others whose work is reported and to consider the lessons to be learned for their practice; and
- for learners to raise their awareness by conducting their own investigation into management practice in their school by writing a report (Wallace, 1991:46).

Case studies may form the basis of a simulation exercise or a stimulus for group discussion. Case studies which report on situations that are similar to those experienced by participants are most likely to be perceived as relevant to their job concerns. Writing a case study is an effective way of broadening the range of evidence upon which management decisions may be based (Wallace, 1991:46).

Case studies help to raise awareness and, where they relate closely to a learners' job, they may inform their management practice. The approach is effective especially where people carry out a case study relating to their own management practice. Whatever knowledge may have been gained from the case study has yet to be integrated into improvement in job performance through managerial action in the job (Wallace, 1991:46).

2.4.3 Coaching

Coaching is an on-the-job activity which refers to the process where one person gives guidance to another so as to help improve his/her performance (Wallace, 1991:47). There are two main types of coaching roles namely:

2.4.3.1 Expert coaching

Expert coaches have received training in the coaching skills. They offer expert advice, demonstrate good practice, observe learners' performance and intervene to provide constructive feedback or model skilful performance. Oldroyd and Hall (1991:117) argue that "expert coaching is relatively rare in the teaching profession because it is so labour intensive and therefore costly"

2.4.3.2 Peer coaching

This method has been advocated by Joyce and Showers (1988) as an effective way of following up training in specific training skills (Wallace, 1991:47). According to the model, colleagues visit each other at work, observe, offer feedback and discuss how to perform the management tasks more skillfully. In contrast to the directive style of expert coaching, peers operate as facilitators since they are both learners helping each other to solve problems. Non-directive peer coaching tends to follow procedures for observation known as clinical supervision.

2.4.3.2.1 Steps in peer coaching

- Both partners agree upon the procedure to be followed and the focus for observation;
- The observer records only the information that the person being observed has agreed upon rather than his/her judgements about what is observed. The record is given to the person who has been observed and a period of time is allowed for individual reflection;
- The person who has been observed is encouraged through the observers' questioning to analyse the information and to judge his/her performance; and
- The person who has been observed plans subsequent action.

Both expert and peer coaching are very effective in helping individuals improve their managerial performance where coaching has a specific focus. A combination of coaching and provision of additional relevant information through, say, lectures is

a particularly powerful way of improving performance while promoting a reflective, problem solving approach to practice (Wallace, 1991:48).

2.4.4 Visits

These could be inter-school visits, visits to a different workplace, and educational establishment or non-educational establishment. A common aim of visits is to observe management practice in another setting. The visit may include various activities, such as a tour of the site, meeting with managers, observing a meeting in progress. Visits may be designed as one way or two way learning experience. Inter-visitation schemes may entail reciprocal visits to each party's workplace on one or more occasions (Wallace, 1991:63).

The more similar the workplace being visited is to the visitor's setting, the easier it is to perceive links with their own practice. On the other hand the more different the setting, the greater the challenge to the visitors way of perceiving how management tasks are performed and the greater may be the intrinsic interest of experiencing a different work environment. Visits can provide little learning support with transferring what has been learned into improvement in visitors ' own job performance but they may be complemented by other activities such as action planning and peer coaching (Wallace, 1991:63).



One or two way visits between school principals or one way visits to non-educational establishments may be organised to form part of an external training course. Visits may have a broad or narrow focus. In the former case, visitors sometimes have difficulty in deciding what may be significant for their own management performance. It is therefore important that visits have a clearly understood purpose and structure. It is worth considering negotiating suitable times

In order to minimize disruptions to ongoing work in the place being visited (Wallace 1991:63).

2.4.5 Simulations

Participants are exposed to an experience which is designed to highlight some of the problems of the real situation. Simulations were among the first participative methods to be employed in external school management training courses (Wallace, 1991:59).

They vary greatly in the tasks that participants are set and how closely the context relates to the job setting. A participant may be presented with a series of letters, memos and other documents. He/she may also be presented with complex management games involving, a fictional secondary school where strategic planning decisions lead to various consequences at a later stage in the game. Events and decisions that in reality take place over months or years can be addressed in a matter of a few hours (Wallace, 1991:59).

Simulations help to raise awareness of issues with some link to job performance and provide opportunities to practice skills such as decision-making or chairing meetings. Participation is an intensive and emotional experience. Simulations give little support for participants in transferring into the job what they have learned. Further, some participants may be unwilling to engage fully in the learning experience on offer where they do not perceive how a task relates to their job (Wallace, 1991:59).

Simulations may be most effective if complemented by activities that link more directly with job performance. There is a wide scope for the use of various of

simulations in both development which is organized internally in schools and external training courses (Wallace, 1991:60).

2.4.6 On-the-job-training

On-the-job training is part of in-service training. Bagwandeem (1993:330) describes on-the-job training as “the choice of activities that enable the trainee to gain competence and knowledge experientially”. On-the-job training is about instructions being given to the participants while he is at work. It is simply learning by doing. The participant is expected to implement the principles, skills or newly acquired information into the work situation.

2.4.6.1 Advantages of on-the-job training

Among others, on-the-job training:

- provides opportunities for employed teachers to update their methods and ideas;
- it provides a notable stimulus to improve the quality of education
- the teacher is encouraged to reflect on problem areas, discuss solutions, evaluate results and modify behaviour;
- contributes to the improvement of the teaching-learning process (fundamental goal);
- helps older principal to execute innovative concepts and methods of teaching.

In conclusion, on-the-job training contributes to the effective professional development needs, in terms of activities, desired by educational leaders.

All other methods will depend on the needs of the principal or the group of principals. All methods are good depending on the situation and context in which they are used (Buckley, 1985:130). No one technique will satisfy all individuals, but that different techniques will meet different needs (Kerry & Murdoch, 1992:5).

2.5 In-service training needs of school principals

Smith & Andrews (1989:3) maintain that according to research studies conducted, many principals fail to exhibit day-to-day instructional leadership behaviour and that this failure has led to loss of confidence in school leadership, because of the lack of quality. To renew public confidence in school leaders, will require training and evaluation of school principals.

They further suggest that "if we are to improve on the quality of our schools, we must improve the professional practice of school principals" (Smith & Andrews, 1989:13). The implication is that the utmost care should be taken when the in-service training needs of these educational leaders are being identified. Buckley (1985:172) states that proper identification of training needs for the school principals forms the key to the creation of effective in-service training programmes.

2.5.1 Identification of training needs

Oldroyd & Hall (1991:62) maintain that needs identification is a process that should be handled sensitively, efficiently but not mechanically. It should be democratic and not imposed. It has to take account of the needs of individual, groups, the whole school, as well as those arising from local Education Authority (districts or province) and national level.

Oldroyd & Hall (1991:63) maintain that “the staff to be trained has to be fully involved in the process of identifying needs. The more they are encouraged to contribute to the identification of needs, the more in-service training can play a key role in an overall strategy for professional and institutional reform. They go on to mention that it is important that needs identification happens – rather than assumptions made on an ad hoc basis and that it happens sensitively and systematically”.

Oldroyd & Hall (1991:63) argue that needs identification “is a valuable in-service and training activity in its own right. If properly handled, it can promote professional reflection, particularly when it is linked to and raises awareness about school and curriculum review and development plans”.

Lastly, Oldroyd & Hall (1991:64) maintain that needs identification must be followed by needs analysis from which emerge decisions about priorities for action. Nothing is more frustrating for trainees than to go through a complex needs identification process only to hear nothing further of its outcomes. It is a demanding task for everyone involved and the technical and human challenge of aiming at balanced in-service training to meet individual, groups and institutional needs.

There are many pitfalls according to Oldroyd & Hall, (1991:64) including omitting some individuals or groups, gathering irrelevant information and offending sensitivities. The ultimate sin is to carry out a needs identification exercise and produce a programme that fails to reflect what the needs identification exercise revealed.

However, Buckley (1985:172) also recommends the following criteria in identifying in-service training needs for school principals.

- that visits be made to trainees before training begins to ascertain individual needs;
- that meetings be held with trainees before training begins, followed by questionnaires completed by trainees at the end of the training session; and
- that follow-up visits be made to trainees.

The following areas have been identified as in-service training needs of school principals:

- Management of human relations;
- Management and mobilisation of resources;
- Curriculum management and implementation;
- Development and maintenance of communication skills; and
- Management of conflict situation;

2.5.1.1 Methods of identifying in-service training needs

Ways of identifying in-service training needs are as various as the needs themselves. A survey of lessons from TRIST (Hall and Oldroyd, 1988:29) revealed that in-service training needs identification is best performed when:

- there are clear and concise Local Education Authority guidelines for in-service training, so that principals' trainers know what they are supposed to do;
- there is a clear strategy for consulting school principals;
- there is an element of person face-to-face contact;

- all principals can be involved in the process of consultation and negotiation at some level of the service;
- there is a system of evaluation and feedback that is known and acceptable to participants;
- resources of time, space and people to be available and their probable limits are clarified; and
- principals and local education authority in-service training priorities and programmes are based on the needs identification (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991:71).

Deciding which methods to use will depend on the following:

- how much information is wanted;
- what type of information is wanted (quantitative or qualitative); and
- how quickly the results are needed.

Oldroyd & Hall (1991:71) maintain that using a questionnaire will generate a lot of superficial quantitative information quickly, although analysing the results can be time consuming. It is relatively impersonal, allows little room for personal expression and is inevitably top-down since categories are pre-defined. In contrast, interviews can provide a more narrow, but deeper range of information about fewer people. They take considerably more time and will be perceived as top-down or

bottom-up depending on who conducts them and the relative emphasis on development or accountability.

Methods for identifying in-service training needs can be sub-divided into:

- Methods at individual level; and
- Methods at group or team level

Figure: 2.3 Methods for identifying in-service training needs

At Individual level

1. Self-review using a prepared checklist
2. Job analysis
3. Informal discussion with trainer
4. Observation as manager
5. Individual appraisal interview
6. Questionnaire about priority needs

At Group or team level

1. Departmental review
2. Structural group discussion
3. Team self-review using prepared checklist

2.5.1.2 Identifying individual needs.

Principals identify their individual needs in some kind of self-rating form. It will be used in conjunction with either formal or informal follow-up discussion with a colleague. Initially it will provide the school leader with a framework for reflecting

on their job and how they are doing. The follow-up discussion can then focus on the ways in which the needs identified might be met (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991:72).

This kind of self-rating form can be used in conjunction with analysing the job description to discover areas presenting particular difficulties or demanding undeveloped abilities. They also give the basis for considering future needs when a vacancy arises as well as the development needs of the person appointed. All individual needs identification methods, have results which can provide a profile of needs across the whole team/group/person. They can form the basis of informal discussions with the principal about future individual development or appraisal interviews (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991:77)

Another source for identifying individual principal needs is observation of his/her performance in the capacity as a manager. It is a crucial one and also the primary focus of any in-service training programme. Observation as a means of identifying needs is a highly sensitive process. Oldroyd & Hall (1991:77) maintain that "it is best conducted between consenting adults' or 'critical friends' where a pre-condition for effectiveness is a degree of trust and openness".

Information from the self-rating forms and observation exercises can be fed into the appraisal interview. The appraisal interview serves several purposes such as:

- identifying development needs;
- setting targets and explaining ways of achieving them; and
- it provides an opportunity for a trainee to talk about his/her work in a supportive atmosphere and should include the following:
 - a review of the appraisee's job description;

- a review of work done, successes, areas for development since previous appraisal;
- discussion about future training and expectations in certain target areas; and
- professional and career training issues to be included in the report (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991:77).

2.5.1.3 Identifying group or team needs

At its simplest as (Oldroyd & Hall, 1991:81) indicate, group needs identification process can be a structured group discussion based for example, on the following:

- What are our current strengths?
- What are our current weaknesses?
- What in-service training needs do these strengths and/or weaknesses suggest?
- What type of programme and follow-through support might meet these priorities?
- How would we implement and evaluate such activities?



2.5.2 Management of human relations

Van der Westhuizen (1991:294) states that “people are the chief resource of any educational leader. They are the primary raw materials with which he/she works”. In his/her day to day interactions with various people and groups, he/she should display his efficacy as an educational leader more than anything else. He should develop sound relationships with staff through behaviour that is consistent, objective and fair (Smith & Andrews, 1989:15).

Van der Westhuizen (1991:294) states that “the overwhelming percentage of all leadership activity is to maintain interpersonal relations. School principals have contacts with varying groups of people, with a contrasting weight of contact between them”. If interpersonal relationships are positive and harmonious, every staff member will want to give his best – not because he is being forced to do so, but because he is working with a leader who has empathy and humanity towards others in a practical way.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:629) maintains that “the quality of human activity in an organization is greatly determined by the spirit which infuses these activities”. This spirit differs from one school to another.

2.5.2.1 Types of human relations in the school context

Management of human relations in the school context can be subdivided as follows:

2.5.2.2 Management of internal relations

These include the management of human relations between teachers, pupils, the principal and the support staff within and on the school premises (Hall, Mackay & Morgan, 1986:16). The school principal should take the lead in ensuring proper management of these relationships.

2.5.2.3 Management of external relations

Hall, Mackay & Morgan (1986:16) state that management of external relations include dealing with local education authorities, principals of other schools, the chairperson and the other members of the governing body.

All these relationships require that school principals be well-versed in matters of human relations. Van der Westhuizen (1991:295) maintains that "in the past, school principals in the Republic of South Africa received little or no structured preparation for their tasks, more particularly by way of formal or informal in-service training. They constantly complained that their training in human relations has been of the poorest and weakest areas of their training programmes".

Indications are therefore, that school leaders have a serious need of in-service training in this regard. They need to be equipped with tools to help them build up that important subtle, and at the same time, indefinable store of power of sustaining good relations" (Hall et al, (1986:3).

Van der Westhuizen (1991:295) maintains that "no matter how effective an educational leader is as an individual, he is capable of very little in life without happy, supportive, effective staff". One cannot deny the fact that there is a connection between the teacher's job satisfaction and his optimum efficacy as an educator" (Smith & Andrew, 1989:8).

For the principal, the healthy relations have the implication that they affect his management responsibility directly in the sense that healthy attitudes between him and the staff encourages confidence of the whole school in him. The educational leader should, therefore be so well-equipped for his task that he should be able to act with confidence as far as the school population relationship area is concerned. In-service training readily ensures such equipment and self-confidence of a leader (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:295).

The healthy climate of human relations has the following advantages for the principal and the school as a whole:

- There is an even flow of communication between the school and the entire school;
- The school population acquaints itself with and expresses opinions about its school;
- Positive aspects of the school are shared among its members; and
- It generates trust and support for the school and by so doing strengthens participation in school activities (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:419).

In conclusion, the importance of good human relations in the school context involves the education and training of each child or person involved in such a way that he/she is able to unfold in the optimum way. Collective or group education and training are provided to achieve the educational goals of the school.

2.5.3 Management and mobilisation of resources

In essence, strong instructional leaders have the capacity to mobilise available resources to implement policies that lead to desired outcomes. Effective principals view resource provision in terms of maximising instructional effectiveness and student achievement.

2.5.3.1 Types of resources

Resources available to the school principal can be divided into:

2.5.3.1.1 Human resources

These are the most important resources in the school context. When well-marshalled, human resources help the students and the faculty achieve success. It is the resource which needs to be carefully managed. Van der Westhuizen

(1991:294) states that “the ideal educational leader should have the ability to inspire and motivate his staff so that their initiative and creative abilities are developed to the maximum extent. In an ideal situation, colleagues will not wait for the head to initiate, give instructions or organise. They will approach him with innovations, experiments and a variety of exciting projects to get his approval for their efforts at educational renewal. In an institution where mutual trust exists, first rate educational work is done. In the end, this type of school delivers outstanding end-products to society”.

2.5.3.1.2 Physical resources

These include resources such as books, funds, teaching aids, school grounds, school buildings, time, other supplies, etc.

The school principal should be in a position to blend and balance these elements and categories of resources through their time management. It is important for the educational leader to be able to analyse and understand the resources that need to be managed (Smith & Andrews, 1989:11).

The school principal should demonstrate his effective use of time and resources when he:

- plans, organises and prioritises work to be done;
- delegates work as appropriate; and
- assigns staff members according to their strengths. (Smith & Andrews, 1989:11).

The school leader should demonstrate skill as a change master, by establishing an ongoing process for planning and making the necessary changes within the school while developing a feeling of individual or group ownership by:

- creating a positive climate for change and creative approaches to change;
- using skills needed to manage change; and
- evaluating the effectiveness of change (Smith & Andrews, 1989:12).

The instructional leader demonstrates the ability to motivate staff members by:

- stating clear expectations to the staff;
- providing clear feedback; and
- encouraging the staff to take risks and to innovate (Smith & Andrew, 1989:12).

The school principal demonstrates knowledge of his/her staff members' strengths and weaknesses, and knows of instructional resources that may be helpful to them by:

- matching staff members' needs to staff development opportunities;
- knowing about resources that enhance instruction;
- mobilising resources and district support to help achieve academic goals; and
- convincing staff members that they are important instructional people in the school (Smith & Andrew, 1989:12).

In conclusion, the educational leader is capable of doing all of these if he/she has been well-trained and well-informed about his role and duties. The whole

undertaking makes the need for in-service training a pre-requisite. The managing of daily operations of a school is a complex task in a complex environment, which requires the full knowledge of a responsible leader.

2.5.4 Curriculum improvement and implementation

Alan & Audrey Paisey (1988:101) explain that the word "curriculum", meaning course of study, is derived from the Latin verb "carrere". This means to run or even to drive, for example, a chariot – a course between two points set by others. The term includes in its meaning variable modes of movement and the possibility of competition with variance in performance, indicated by measures of time, effort and output.

The curriculum or course of study in any school is the working distance between pupil's point of entry and his/her point of departure. The distance usually corresponds to status and function of the school.

Bullman & Jenkins (1988) see the curriculum as "a programme of study, a carefully designated segment of learning experiences related to a body of chosen content".

2.5.4.1 Guidelines for curriculum design

The principal is responsible for the determination and organisation of the curriculum. He should ensure that it is being followed. Future developments are also his/her major responsibility. Failure on this point in the curriculum can bring about stagnation and decline in the school (Paisey & Paisey, 1988:104).

The school principal needs to be proficient with both the quantitative and the qualitative aspects of the curriculum. Figures and opinions are the main constituent elements of this important school document. "He/she becomes a resource, the person with the strong theoretical base" (Chapman, 1984:106). He/she must ensure that what goes on in the curriculum is consistent with the communities and current development in the system. He/she must be aware of the current thought.

As an educational or instructional leader, he should be prepared to put in a lot of time and effort in establishing an effective curriculum. Parents should feel that their children will get good grounding in the basics at the school (Chapman, 1984:111). Parents, a school where their children would yet develop skills and knowledge on the curriculum programmes of the school (Whitaker, 1983:91).

2.5.4.2 Management of the curriculum

The school principal and his/her management team are responsible for the management of curriculum, consciously or unconsciously on a model which is an intellectual device that represents all the experiences, knowledge and understanding. According to the school leader and his colleagues, the model will lead to performance. Whitaker (1983:107) warns that tact and timing on the part of the school principal should be of essence. The fact is, the school leader with what he terms "the good model that produces performance", may still upset some people. This places the close and cordial relationships common in the school under severe strain. This would be brought about by people who are unprepared to accept change and this, Whitaker (1983:107) says "is the tough end of the management of responsibility".

In conclusion, it should be stated that nowhere has any project or undertaking enjoyed the total support of all those who are supposed to work on it. The

important thing is that the leader of the project should have such knowledge and, therefore, stand his ground by working his way forward. A situation of this nature requires strong support of in-service training in order to assist him to carry out his tasks as planned.

2.5.5 Development and maintenance of communication skills

Guthrie & Reed (1991:353) maintain that communication is a process by which ideas, thoughts, opinions, information and feelings are transmitted from one individual to others through a common language or set of behaviours. The means may be spoken, written or non-verbal. Effective communication is an essential ingredient of inter-personal relations and is crucial for organisational success.

Communication links individuals, creates and maintains individual and organisational images or perceptions, and motivates, usages and persuades others from the point of view of the administrator, an important purpose of communication is persuasion. This is not to imply the negative manipulative use of persuasion. Rather, it is to emphasize that communication must frequently be used to change attitudes and to engender support for school programmes, policies, and goals Guthrie & Reed (1991:353).

Since almost all administrative actions or decisions must eventually be communicated, the extent to which administrators are capable in this regard is ultimately associated with their overall effectiveness. The ability of the school executives to communicate with various constituencies associated with schools – students, instructional and non-instructional staff, parents and a diverse school population – is vital for school success. An understanding of the communication process as an arrangements under which they usefully can be employed is a requisite skill for the effective school administrator (Guthrie & Reed, 1991:353).

Smith & Andrew (1989:4) maintain that communicating effectively in an organisation requires skills beyond the interpersonal level. The principal must be able to develop a sound and trusting relationship with the staff by behaving consistently, objectively and fairly overtime. Rules for communicating must be made explicit regarding the content and the processes that are acceptable within the culture of his/her school.

A clear division for the school is articulated by the principal to the point of redundancy. Through slogans, themes, logos and reminders, the principal makes known that everyone in the school is headed in the same direction. Frequent feedback is given to the teachers after classroom visits, to students for achievements of all kinds, and to parents for their support and efforts. Regular bulletins and newsletters are published for the staff, parents and students (Smith & Andrews, 1989:15).

Teachers perceive that communication with principals who are strong instructional leaders results in improved instructional practice in their classrooms, helps them to understand that the relationship between instructional practices and student achievement provides a basis for clearly understanding evaluative criteria, and establishes a clear sense of the direction of the school (Smith & Andrews, 1989:17).

The success of the principal as a good communicator is demonstrated in the following:

- The instructional leader demonstrates the ability to evaluate and deal effectively with others;
- Engages in two-way communication accurately, sensitively and reliably;

- Promotes mutual conflict resolution, problem solving, cooperation and sharing;
- Recognizes what information is appropriate to communicate;
- The instructional leader speaks and writes clearly and concisely; and
- Displays good organisational skills in oral and written communication (Smith & Andrew, 1989:17).

2.5.5.1 Purpose of communication

The purpose of communication is to create a situation where a message or information becomes the common property of both source and receiver. As a result of this act;

- action may take place;
- understanding may be enhanced;
- confusion may be removed;
- a sense of collegueship may be developed. (Smith & Andrews, 1989:17)

2.5.5.2 Forms of communication

Communication in organisations assumes the following two dimensions:

2.5.5.2.1 Formal communications

Formal communications are necessary for direction and control Guthrie & Reed (1991:370).

2.5.5.2.2 Informal communications

Informal communications emerge from personal needs among organisational staff. It is frequently referred to as the "grapevine" (Guthrie & Reed, 1991:370). It contributes to message clarification and provides an opportunity to gauge worker reaction to proposed policies.

In conclusion, it could be said that communication is a very important asset of the principal. It ensures transmission and receipt of messages and information among those working on behalf of a school or school district, and on behalf of teaching and learning. Much of what can be done today would amaze the school principals of the 1930's, but the basic communication needs and purposes of those principals have little changed since then (Guthrie & Reed, 1991:153).

2.5.6 Management of conflict situation

No single definition of conflict is universally accepted. Conflict can be positive or negative. Campbell, Corbally and Nystrand (1983) see "conflict as something occurring whenever incompatible activities occur". Conflict occurs because of conflicting interests between people or groups of people in the organisation. It is often regarded as a failed attempt by the management to plan and exercise authority effectively (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:640).



Conflict is a way of life in schools. Its presence has become more noticeable in recent years because of clashes over matters such as student rights, textbook selections, sex education and teacher benefits.

2.5.6.1 Dimensions of conflict

Conflict can be either formal or informal in nature.

2.5.6.1.1 Formal conflict

In a formal conflict the parties involved specifically state their disagreements about an issue (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:194).

2.5.6.1.2 Informal conflict

Informal conflict occurs when there is disagreement over an issue, but neither party has yet communicated its position to the other (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:194).

Administrators who innovate conflict should do so with clear goals, estimates of the costs they are likely and willing to incur by taking this course of action, and a sense of what outcomes short of total victory would be satisfactory. In addition, they should monitor the course of the conflict as objectively as possible to determine if the goals are still attainable and the projected costs within the range of acceptability. Changes in one's own resources or those of the opposition may require a change in tactics or objectives.

2.5.6.2 Types of conflict

Conflict can be subdivided into the following:

2.5.6.2.1 Interpersonal conflict

Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand (1983:185) see interpersonal conflict as the common and visible type of conflict in schools as well as other organisations. It is the type of conflict involving students, teachers, administrators and parents. Interpersonal conflict is not always apparent to the third party and may derive from

a situation outside the organisation. Thus a principal may be disappointed to learn that two of his very capable teachers are reluctant to work together on a project and later find out that they have been rivals in the teacher association or some other setting.

2.5.6.2.2 Individual-institutional conflict

A social system includes both institutions and individuals. Institutions are characterized by certain roles and expectations, which are consistent with the goals of the system. Behaviour in the social system is a product of interaction between institutional demands as set forth in expectations for persons who fulfill a certain role and the personalities and needs of these persons as individuals. At times, the expectations of an organisation and the needs of individuals within it will likely be in conflict (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:186).

Administrators play a critical role with respect to individual institutional conflict. They themselves may experience conflict with the organisation at times. However, the general expectation is that administrators will be mediators between institutional and personal dimensions of organisational life. At one point, as organisational spokesperson, principals will find it essential to explain, reinforce, and emphasise the school's objectives and procedures. At another point, it will be desirable to listen to members of the organisation, to ascertain their feelings about certain school practices, and try to understand why they take the position they do (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:186).

2.5.6.2.3 Intraorganisational conflict

Conflict may also exist among various groups within a school. At a relatively simple level, conflict may exist among the members of a formal work group such as the

science department at a high level. Individuals are likely to form coalitions and deal with one another in ways designed to attract support for their interest from other group members.

A second kind of intraorganizational conflict is that which occurs between two or more units of the organization. Conflict may result from the efforts of both units to do the best possible job (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:82).

2.5.6.2.4 School-community conflict

Militant community leaders and their followers have confronted school officials (principals) with demands and demonstrations related to desegregation, forced busing, sex education, students rights and a host of other issues. These protests have led to violence in more than one instance, and many school principals have lost their jobs in the wake of such conflict (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand 1983:187).

School –community conflict involves school officials, who are usually in the position of defending their actions or some new policy and range of community residents. It may stem from many kinds of events, but, according to Coleman, three conditions must be present: “The event must touch upon an important aspect of the community members’ lives ... must affect lives of different community members differently ... and must be one on which the community members feel that action can be taken” (Campbell, Corbally& Nystrand 1983:187).

Conflict has to be resolved by means of conflict resolution mechanisms such as neglect, appeasement, domination, compromise and integration. It should be noted that the orientation of individuals to the resolution of conflict varies from situation to situation. Indeed, it may change over the course of a particular situation. For

example, two teachers who are engaged in a win-lose situation about who will teach a particular course may change their orientation to collaboration or compromise as a result of skilful mediation by the principal (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand 1983:197).

2.5.6.3 Administrative behaviour in conflict management

Here we have to consider the ways in which school administrators behave in conflict situations as initiators, defendants, and mediators.

2.5.6.3.1 Initiating conflict

There are times when administrators wish to initiate conflict, trying to stimulate organisational change (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand 1983:197). For example, a high school principal who believes that the science department has not kept up with recent curriculum trends may bring an outside consultant to speak to the department members in an effort to provoke debate. By encouraging individuals to pick up on ideas presented by the consultant, the principal may foster a collaborative approach to curriculum change (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:197).

Administrators who consider initiating change by promoting conflict among others must keep in mind the potential impact of their conflict upon the organization and its members. Conflict can be either functional or dysfunctional. Those who introduce it to organizations they care about should first ascertain that the individuals and processes within the organization are capable of dealing with it. (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:197).

2.5.6.3.2 The administrator as Defendant

School principals are often called upon to respond to the initiative of others. Conflict occurs when these initiatives are incompatible with the priorities or activities of the administrator or the organization. How the conflict evolves and whether its impact is constructive or destructive depends on how the principal responds. The principal's first decision is whether to respond at all, and at times the decision will be not to respond. When faced with ambiguous problems, an alternative should be to delay or side track an issue by scheduling it for consideration at a future meeting, assigning it to a committee, or asking the initiator to assemble more supporting information. Some matters resolve themselves without further attention. However, efforts to delay or side track are not without risk when issues are significant and potentially divisive. Thus, it is important for principals to develop a sense of timing for attending to organisational and interpersonal disputes, as well as a sensitivity to their possible causes and consequences (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:199).

It is human nature to personalize criticisms and to react defensively in conflict situations, but such behaviour encourages both sides to adopt win-lose orientation and restricts the likelihood of win-win or collaborative outcomes (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:199). Thoughtful school principals resist temptations to overreact or personalize issues. Instead, they try to understand exactly what the other party seeks and why. However, trying to do so not only increases the chance of achieving a mutually satisfying resolution to the present issues, but also strengthens trust and, communication channels that can help in the future (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand 1983:199).

Individuals may present issues that challenge the core values of the institution. The school principals must recognize the importance of these issues and respond in ways

that preserve organizational stability. Many conflicts to which a school leader is a party are resolved by domination. Indeed, this is a routine occurrence in most organizations, and is facilitated by traditional structures of authority. The authority of office is an important resource for school principals who would dominate conflict situations. However, other forms of power are also employed. Some individuals dominate because others defer to the forcefulness of their personality. Others dominate by marshalling fact or compelling arguments (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand 1983:200).

2.5.6.3.3 The administrator as a mediator

The third posture for administrators with respect to conflict is that of mediation between two or more other parties. For example, principals mediate disputes involving students, teachers and parents. Sometimes these disputes are internal to the organization, such as those involving work relationships between two teachers. At other times, they span organizational boundaries as in disputes involving teachers and parents. Two aspects of mediating role must be considered:

- The first is a preventative – maintenance approach, which involves designing and structuring organizations in ways that lessen the potential for destructive conflict; and
- The second is a fire-fighting approach, which involves coping with problems as they develop (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:201)

There is substantial literature regarding organisational design to promote collaboration and reduce the likelihood of disruptive conflict. Much of it deals with clarifying goals, improving communication, encouraging participation in decision-making, and other organizational processes.

The "fire-fighting" aspect of conflict management is routine for many school principals. For example, high school assistant principals often spend large parts of their day mediating conflicts between students and the organisation, students and other student, student and teachers. Administrators in higher levels of the system may spend less time as mediators but disputed issues that come to their attention tend to have more significance for the organization.

As in other conflict situations, the first question the school leader must address is that of preferred and possible outcomes. Is the issue one that can be resolved so that all parties will be satisfied, or is it such that the best to be hoped for is promotion of hostility and disruptive behaviour? The best remedy will be one that postpones the issue or allows the parties to behave independently of one another (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand 1983:201).

The ideal resolution to a conflict is to remove its source or to help the participants reach a mutually satisfying solution. Conflicts usually stem from disagreements, about resources, preferences and nuisances, values, beliefs or the nature of relationships among the parties. The formal authority of school principals sometimes permits them to alter such factors. Administrators can also use their authority to remove nuisances or to restructure formal relationships among individuals. Administrators can also use their authority to force resolutions that are not mutually satisfying (Campbell, Corbally & Nystrand, 1983:202).

In conclusion, it could be said that the school leader should have all possible ways of resolving a conflict situation as it arises. He/she should be resourceful in this respect. An unattended conflict situation might bring about unpleasant consequences to the organization and its inmates. Speedy reaction to a conflict situation would bring about redemption of somewhat disruptive situation.

2.6 Development of In-service training programmes among school leaders in developed countries.

In-service training of school principals is currently a focus point world-wide. A review of management training in developed countries is given below to provide a better picture on the issue of training and development.

2.6.1 United States of America

Currently management development of school principals is a high priority issue. In twenty five (25) states, it is currently a requirement that school principals attend a management development programme.

Management development in the various states and districts is extensive and varied, and in many instances, universities are involved in the management development of school principals. Professional organisations also play an important role in management development. NASSP (National Association of Secondary School Principals) presents courses weekly and AASA (American Association of School Administrators) offers similar service through its training body, NASE National Academy for School Executives (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:113).

The teacher is required by law to continue his formal education after taking up his first appointment. Salary schedules have become a powerful incentive to continue formal education (Henderson, 1978:15). Some school boards automatically increase a teacher's salary every time he obtains a three-hour course credit, irrespective of the subject.

According to Bagwandeem (1991:271), in-service training in the United States seems to move teachers out of the classroom rather than to improve their effectiveness within it. The more units/degrees a teacher attains, the more likely he is to promote himself out of the classroom into a guidance position or administrative role, or perhaps into higher education.

Certainly, in the United States, as in most other countries, a clearer notion using in-service training as a development task in education is emerging (Harris, 1980:29). This will undoubtedly promote a fuller recognition of the fundamental importance of in-service training to the welfare of all concerned.

2.6.2 England

The NDC (National Development Centre for School Management Training) operates in England. Management development in England came into operation because of the necessity of the effective management of schools and staff. The main aim of management development is to ensure that the quality of education improves (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:113).

In the 1980's, there was a rapid increase in in-service training in various directions in England. Emphasis on in-service training resulted from the cutbacks in initial training at this time. In the United Kingdom, educational institutions looked to in-service training provisions as a means of survival (Bagwandeem, 1993:260).

School-focused in-service training has become the key to in-service training provision in England. School principals and CEA's have begun to recognise that the basis of success for in-service training is the individual school (Bagwandeem, 1993:260).

Today there is an optimistic outlook in terms of the range and extent of in-service training provisions in England. In-service training is also more diverse than before in terms of location, types of courses and quality.

2.6.3 Netherlands

The Interstudie-SO is the only institution in the Netherlands which offers in-service training courses for the management development of school principals. Currently four management programmes are being presented and 4000 people took part in the programme between 1984 and 1985. Since then a network of 15 school management consultants have been appointed and 18 staff members have been involved with the management development programme of Interstudie-SO (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:111).

2.6.4 France

The initial training has its focus on newly appointed principals. This facilitates continuity of training. During the first year as Principal, follow-up training is proposed at regular intervals. There are guidelines formulated in respect of in-service training programmes, which lays emphasis on a practical and problem-solving approach. An important fact is that initial training of school leaders in France is linked to the selection process, which takes place annually (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:111)

2.6.5 Sweden

Training programme is highly developed and organised on a national level. Sweden is a country with a strong tradition of centralisation. The training programme is

compulsory for all school leaders in a particular community. The principal and deputies participate in the same training programme.

During the 20 conference days, schools leaders are expected to undergo a period of practical, society-orientated experience, where they become acquainted with the working conditions of parents.

2.7 In-service training programmes among school leaders in developing countries and RSA

Hofmeyer (1988:2) maintains that in developing countries, in-service training constitutes upgrading of the competence of teachers, extending their general education and enhancing their qualifications. He states that in-service training in African countries is regarded as an educational vehicle which is cost-effective on the one-hand and on the other, it promotes status and restores the teaching faith in teaching as a career.

Furthermore, in most developing countries, in-service training is viewed as a programme for retraining teachers for new roles. Hofmeyer (1983:34) states that a great deal of emphasis is placed on the upgrading of basic academic and professional qualifications.

2.7.1 Zambia

There is a general neglect of educational management training in Africa, especially in Zambia. No training institution in Zambia offers a course in educational management. Furthermore, there is a total lack of interest from educational authorities concerning the professional educational task of the school principal.

People with management training were trained overseas through management programmes, which are foreign to the African culture (Lungu, 1983:93).

Lungu (1983:94) suggests that serious consideration should be given to the certification of the school principals. In his opinion, school principals should develop a sense of responsibility before undertaking management training (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:113).

2.7.2 Namibia

There is a clearly defined management philosophy in Namibia stating that management knowledge and skills are a pre-requisite for all staff at head office and schools.

The demand is that well-equipped individuals should be available at all levels of education to execute total management tasks required at a particular level. For this purpose, the directorate formed a school management guidance team at head office with specific tasks of giving assistance and management training to senior staff (principals) at schools (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:113).

2.7.3 Republic of South Africa

In as far as the situation in the Republic of South Africa is concerned, there is and has been development in the field of educational administration and management. Training has been presented at most universities, though not all offer management courses on a part-time basis so as to accommodate teachers who are in service. As far as co-operation on national and international level is concerned, the RSA has an enormous backlog and something has to be done about this (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:109).

In South Africa, as in the United Kingdom and the United States, the development of in-service training is closely related to the gradual evolution of the educational system and teacher education. It must be stated clearly that the principles and format of education and teacher education in the Black sector have been modeled along white education (Bagwandeem, 1993:276).

The structure of the education system in south Africa before 1994 distinguished "own affairs" and "general affairs" (Bagwandeem, 1993:277). Education was managed separately and disparately by the various educational authorities. Education for Black community was the responsibility of the then Department of Education. These were Black homeland governments of Kwa-Zulu, Lebowa, Gazankulu, Kangwane, Kwandebele and Qwaqwa, and four for the Black independent republics of Transkei, Ciskei, Bophuthatswana and Venda (Bagwandeem, 1993:427).

Each education authority was concerned only with its needs as an employer and not with the needs of the country as a whole. The bottom line was that as a policy matter, in-service training could not be considered in isolation from the conditions under which the educator works in South Africa.

It is quite apparent that teacher development in the new South Africa, with a single Ministry of Education, must change from the defective model to the growth paradigm. In this regard, teachers are destined to play a pivotal role in the design of new curricula and syllabi, preparation of teaching materials, etc (Bagwandeem, 1993:277).

2.8 SUMMARY

To meet challenges and dramatic changes in schools, school principals will have to fully implement aims and objectives of in-service training. That is, the broad and specific objectives of in-service training.

In-service training has to be carried out, addressing the in-service training needs of each and every school leader. This in itself means that, all in-service training methods will have to be employed in relation to the situation of each and every trainee-principal. Methods vary from one situation to another. The methods identified are amongst others, case studies, lectures and discussions, coaching, visits, simulations as well as on-the-job training.

The in-service training needs of principals are amongst others, the management of human relations, management and mobilisation of resources, curriculum development and improvement, development and maintenance of communication skills; and the management of conflict situation.

The chapter has discussed in-service training programmes of school leaders in developed countries such as the United States of America, England, France, Netherlands and Sweden. An account was also given of in-service training of educational leaders in developing countries such as Zambia; Namibia and the Republic of South Africa.

Chapter 3, discusses research conducted among school principals the findings are therefore analysed and interpreted in relation to the needs of the school principals.

CHAPTER 3

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION INTO IN-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS OF PRINCIPALS IN THE GROBLERSDAL DISTRICT OF THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the empirical method of research employed in this study. Briefly, it explains how research was conducted, and what steps were taken to ensure the validity of the study. The theoretical framework of this chapter has been provided in Chapter 2, dealing with the literature review.

3.2 The measuring instrument

The measuring instrument comprises of the questionnaire.

3.2.1 The structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into sections A, B, C and D. Section A contains personal and biographic details. Section B contains information regarding grading, location and type of school as well as the size of the management team of the school.

Section C contains information on management and in-service training methods and procedures. Section D contains information on the in-service training needs of school principals. It consists of open-ended type questions with direct responses in regard to the extent of agreement and disagreement.

3.2.2 The purpose and development of questionnaire items.

The aim of the questionnaire is to gather information about the need for in-service training programmes of the school principals and the determination of the roles and duties which they should carry out as educational leaders.

3.2.3 The sample under investigation

In selecting a sample, a list of all ($N = 265$) schools under Groblersdal district was used. The schools in the sample include Junior Primary Schools, Senior Primary Schools as well as Senior Secondary Schools drawn from the district list. The sample comprised of a total of $n = 120$ schools.

3.2.4 Advantages of a questionnaire



The questionnaire method is an important empirical tool used in investigation. One should not lose sight of the fact that it has its advantages as a method.

3.2.4.1 Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire

According to Bless & Higson-Smith (1995: 111) the most important advantage of the questionnaire method is that a large coverage of the population can be achieved with little time or costs. This notion is further confirmed by Chadwick (1984: 137) when he states that "the major advantage of a questionnaire survey is its economy". One other advantage is that since respondents are asked to mail back the filled-out questionnaires without indicating their name, anonymity is assured and this will help them to be honest in their answers (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995: 111).

Furthermore, bias due to personal characteristics of interviews is avoided, as no interviews are used. Questions which might require reflection or consultation

before answering will be more appropriately dealt with when the respondent has more time for an answer and no waiting interviewer to cause a hasty response. Chadwick (1984: 137) maintains that "the respondent may consult with others, review records and think about a question before answering it".

Chadwick (1984: 137) sums up by saying "some researchers argue that the questionnaire survey is a useful way to obtain information about sensitive topics. If the respondent is convinced that the questionnaire is anonymous, he/she can freely report attitudes and behaviours without embarrassment or fear of reprisal".

3.2.4.2 Disadvantages of a questionnaire method

Although preceding advantages seem to be considerable, self-administered questionnaires in the most and mailed questionnaires in particular, have great disadvantages, especially when used in developing countries (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995: 112).

The main pre-requisite for the use of mail questionnaires is a sufficient level of literacy and familiarity with the language used. This Pre-requisite is usually not satisfied by a large proportion of the population of a less industrialised country. Studies tend to be carried out in foreign languages.

Bless & Higson-Smith (1995: 112) maintain that when sending out questionnaires, it is usually not possible to discover in advance whether or not the respondent has the minimum level of literacy. For this reason, questionnaires may be filled out by people other than the chosen participant. In particular, managers may ask their secretary or other subordinates to do the work for them.

The response rate of questionnaires also tends to be very low. Very often, out of the total number of questionnaires sent out, only twelve to forty percent are returned. Many factors contribute to this poor return (Chadwick, 1984: 138).

- The respondents may never have received the questionnaire due to poor mail service in the rural area;
- It could be that the participant lacks interest and has misplaced the questionnaire or cannot be bothered to fill it in, or is too busy to fill it in, or has no stamp to mail it back, etc; and
- To the unreturned questionnaires must be added the high number of incorrectly or incompletely filled-out ones that must be discarded. It is very common for respondents to skip over difficult or embarrassing questions, spoiling the whole questionnaire in so doing (Bless & Higson-Smith 1995: 112).

3.2.5 Administrative Procedures

Initially permission was sought from the District office and all circuit offices to obtain access to schools and their principals. Letters to this effect were sent to the District Office and the different Circuit Offices.

The next step was to identify postal addresses of the schools in the sample. The researcher was also given permission to make use of the given pigeon hole facilities available at some circuit offices for dispatch of the questionnaire.

On the 30th September 1998, questionnaires were mailed to the respondents through the circuit offices. The following table indicates the distribution of the questionnaire.

Table 3.1 Distribution of the questionnaire according to the school types

SCHOOL TYPE	NUMBER DISPATCHED TO	COUNT	PERCENT (%)
Junior Primary	40	40	33.3
Senior Primary	40	40	33.3
Secondary	40	40	33.3
Total	120	120	100

Respondents were requested to return the completed questionnaire by return post or through their circuit offices on or before 30th October 1998. A register was kept with respect to the number of questionnaires dispatched. The questionnaires were numbered sequentially and their numbers were recorded against the school, which were recorded to check the return of this completed questionnaire from the various schools.

In general, excellent co-operation was received from the principals. Out of 120 questionnaires sent out, 88 completed questionnaires were received. This constitutes 73% returned questionnaires, which is sufficient to validate research findings.

3.3 Analysis of data and interpretation of results

The responses in the questionnaire were fed into a computer and analysed. Frequency distributions were obtained for each section or statement.

3.4 Conclusion

Chapter 4 contains the analysis of data. These findings enabled the researcher to suggest an appropriate structured programme for the in-service training of school principals.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

In attempting to determine the in-service training needs of the school principals, an empirical investigation was undertaken with the aim of collecting information on various aspects of in-service training relevant to school principals.

4.2 Analysis of data and interpretation of information

The questionnaire responses were fed into the computer and an analysis of data was made. From the analysed data, the following interpretations were made:

4.2.1 Biographic data

4.2.1.1 Gender of respondents

In considering the personal particulars of gender of the respondents involved in this survey, it is clear that the majority are males.

Table 4.1 reflects the distribution of the respondents with regard to gender. The distribution includes all principals in the sample drawn from both Primary and Secondary schools. The objective of such a sample was to prove the belief of the researcher, that the need for in-service training of educational leaders is necessary at all levels of schooling, i.e. primary and secondary levels. One cannot look at each level of schooling in isolation. Moreover, the nature of the work done at both levels is similar, though it might differ in capacity and magnitude.

4.1 Distribution of Gender of the respondents

Gender		Male		Female	Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
	49	55.7	30	44	88	100

4.2.1.2 Age of respondents

Table 4.2. Distribution of sex and age of respondents

Gender	Age	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51 & Above	Total
Male	Count	6	9	16	13	5	49
	%	12.2	18.4	32.7	26.5	10.2	100
Female	Count	10	13	10	4	2	30
	%	25.6	33.3	25.6	10.3	5.1	100
Total	Count	16	22	26	17	7	88
	%	37.8	51.7	58.3	36.8	15.3	100

According to Table 4.2., female members of the profession become principals earlier than their male counterparts. The female members show a decline as they proceed towards more senior age. Though not backed by research, this could be ascribed to the fact that the most senior female principals leave the teaching profession because of increasing family responsibilities. That being the case, it will seriously affect their chances of participating in In-service Training programmes meant for school principals.

Awandeen (1991: 492) points out that "planners of In-service training will have to be careful when structuring and organising programmes, so that these programmes are perceived as a waste of valuable time and effort".

Table 4.2 shows that there are more male than female principals in the different age groups, except in 31 - 35 and 36 - 40 age groups. There are several reasons for this.

Women may marry and then leave the profession. Once they marry, they cannot always combine career and household responsibilities successfully;

It is possible that married female staff do not apply for promotion posts outside their immediate environment or home town; and

Geographic mobility is a limiting factor in case of a woman since she cannot easily accept a management post in a neighbouring town while a man can do this and plan for his family to move (Bedassi, 1994: 76).

Women do not always receive support from family members when they aspire to the management posts or already fill them - something totally against affirmative action as emphasised in the new employment Act. The above factors may affect the participation of women principals in INSET programmes. It is evident, therefore, that the male educational leaders at all levels, will participate in order to achieve career promotion or expertise.

4.2.1.3 Years of experience of respondents

Table 4.3. Distribution of years of experience

Gender	Male		Female	
	Years of Experience		Years of Experience	
	Count	%	Count	%
1-3	1	2.1	6	15.4
4-6	8	16.3	7	17.9
7-9	8	16.3	5	12.8
10-12	6	12.2	7	17.9
13-15	10	20.4	4	10.3
16-18	7	14.3	3	7.7
19-21	3	6.1	3	7.7
22-24	1	2.0	2	5.1
25-27	4	8.2	1	2.6
28-30	1	2.0	1	2.6
Total	49	100	39	100

Figure 4.1 Representation of years of experience according to gender

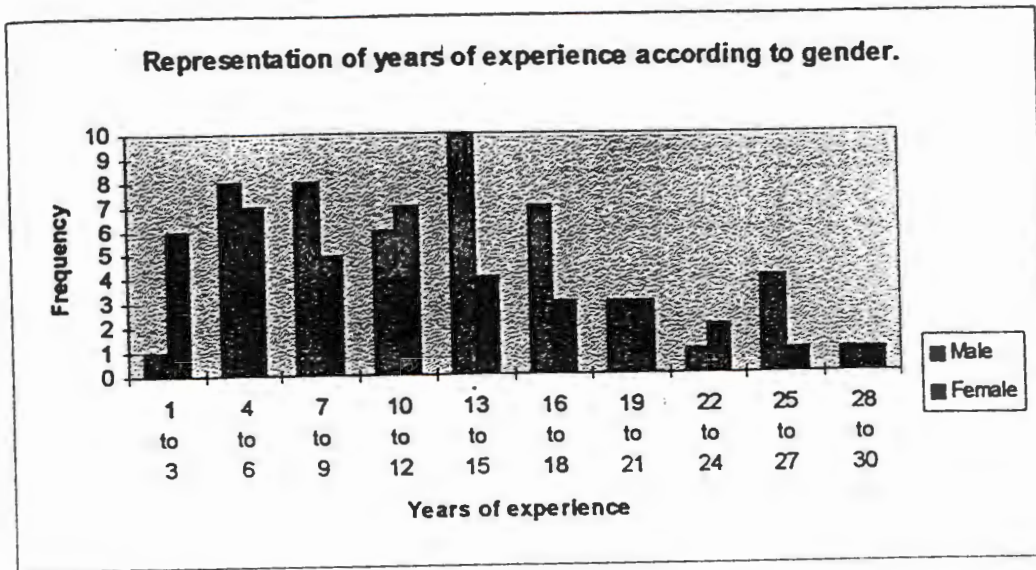


Figure 4.1. explicitly represents the state of affairs as far as the years of experience according to gender is concerned. Looking at Table 4.3., the highest frequency distribution of years of experience is between 4- 6 and 16 - 18. This suggests that should the provincial education department start with the in-service training programmes of its principals, it is likely to satisfy the needs of the majority of principals that still have along way to travel a long their professional route. According to Bedassi (1994: 82), "The development of school principals must be viewed as a dynamic ongoing process rather than a one-off programme". The statement implies the continuous nature of in-service training and, therefore, if the provincial department deems it necessary to expose its principals to in-service training programmes, such training would be of considerable significance since it would cater for the majority of the principals until they reach their retirement age.

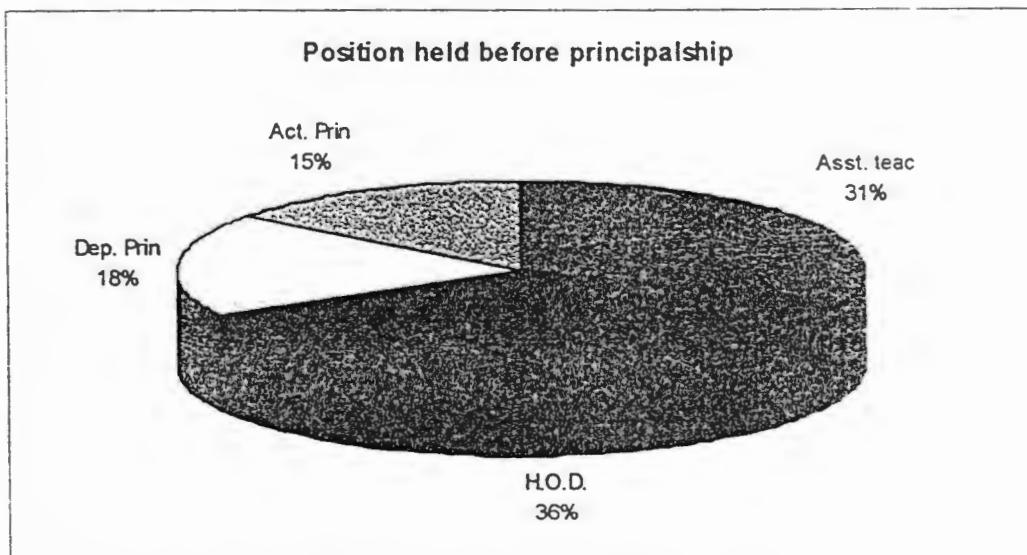
The main objective would be to replenish and provide skills, techniques and knowledge for coping with the new situations with which the school principals would be confronted.

2.1.4 Position of respondent before becoming principal

Table 4.4 Distribution I.R.O position held before principalship

	Position before principal	
	Count	Percent %
Assistant Teacher		
Head of Department		
Deputy Principal	27	30.7
Acting Principal	32	36.4
Total	16	18.2
	13	14.8
	88	100

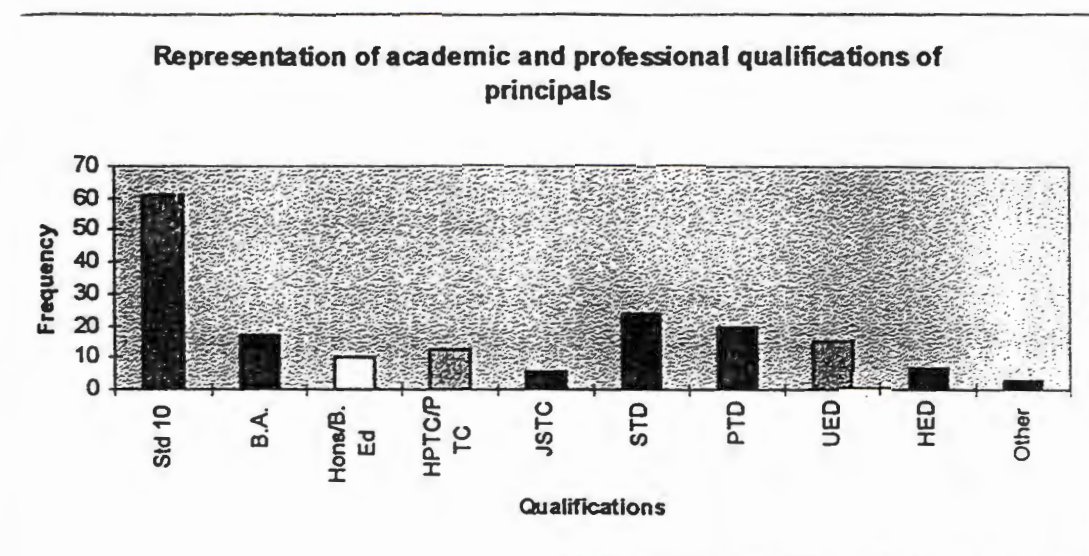
Figure 4.2 Position held before principalship



Key :

- Ass. Teac - Assistant Teacher
- Act.Prin - Acting Principal
- Dep. Prin - Deputy Principal
- H.O.D - Head of Department

Figure 4.3. Distribution of academic and professional qualifications



Key : Std 10 - Standard 10

B.A. - A degree (B.A.)

Hons/B.Ed. - Honours of B.Ed.

Figure 4.3 and Table 4.5 depict the distribution of academic and professional qualifications. It will be observed that 69% of principals do not have degrees. A great deal has to be done to make teaching a profession of graduates, especially for those holding posts as school principals. This will ensure that school leaders do not stagnate, but try to further their education. According to Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1993 : 40), "Principals must be continuous learners and through their leadership, entice others like teachers to be learners too".

The implication is that the in-service training need is great for the province to satisfy. This reinforces that "Very few educational leaders of today have undergone no training to enable them to cope with managerial duties" (Bagwandeem, 1993 : 1).

Figure 4.2 and Table 4.4., depicts the position held before principalship. The highest levels are reflected in the levels of assistant teacher (30.7%) and the Head of Department (36.4%) respectively. The assistant teacher and Head of Department are dependent on the principal for their in-service training.

If there is a serious need for training among the school principals, this implies that among teachers and Heads of Department, the need is doubly serious. For the in-service training to become effective, the provincial department should not neglect the induction programme of newly appointed school principals. This would make the in-service training more meaningful and effective. Induction provides a base for in-service training.

4.2.1.5 Academic and professional qualifications

Table 4.5 Distribution of academic and professional qualification

	Highest Academic Qualifications			Highest Professional Qualifications	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count
Std 10	61	63.3	HPTC/PTC	13	14.8
B.A Degree	17	19.3	JSTC	6	6.8
Honours	10	11.4	STD	24	27.3
B.Ed	-	-	PTD	20	22.7
Masters	-	-	UED	15	17.0
Doctorate	-	-	HED	7	8.0
			Other	3	3.4
Total	88	100		88	100

3 Grading of schools of respondents

Table 4.6. Grading of schools

School	Grade			
Primary	P1	Primary school with 600+Pupil	8	9.1
	P2	Primary school with 300 - 599 Pupils	23	26.1
	P3	Primary school with 1 - 299 Pupils	23	26.1
	P4	Primary school with 1 - 199 Pupils	10	11.4
Secondary	S1	Secondary school with 600 + Pupils	8	9.1
	S2	Secondary School with 1 - 599 Pupils	16	18.2
Total			88	100

There is 72.7% primary schools of different grades, with 2% being P2 and P3 primary schools. Secondary schools make only 27.3% of the total sample.

4.4 School type and location

Table 4.7. School type and location

School Location	Count	%	School Type	Count	%
Rural	88	100	Public	88	100
Urban	88	100	Total	88	100

In Table 4.7., all the schools are situated in the rural areas and they are all public schools. This implies that schools are distant from each other. This could be a disadvantage to in-service training sessions, especially if such sessions are to take place in the afternoons. The Principals would be travelling from.

Table 4.8. Principal's responses with regard to In-service training

	SAG		AG		UNDECIDED		DA		SDA		MEAN	SD
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
1.12 Very few principals undergo in-service training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties	60	68.1	26	29.6	-	-	2	2.3	-	-	4.64	0.6
1.13 All principals should be trained whilst they are in-service	63	71.6	25	28.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.72	0.4
1.14 In-service training improves performance and expertise.	70	79.5	18	20.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.80	0.4
1.15 Leadership in schools by principals cannot be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone. Some form of in-service training is essential.	67	76.1	21	23.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.76	0.4
1.16 All school principals should be evaluated to assist them in their role function by providing in-service training.	62	70.5	25	28.4	1	1.1	-	-	4.69	0.49	-	-
1.17 In-service training of principals has been neglected by educational authorities.	66	75	22	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.75	0.4
1.18 In-service training of principals should not be voluntary but mandatory.	65	73.9	23	26.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.74	0.4
1.19 In reality, training of principals should be continuous.	67	76.1	20	22.8	1	1.1	-	-	-	-	4.47	0.4
1.20 Training needs of principals should be identified before in- service training begins.	43	48.9	45	51.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.32	0.4

[Key : AG - Agree; SAG - Strongly agree; DA - Disagree; SDA -strongly disagree]

Size of the management team

Table 4.9. Size of the management team

	Size of the Management Team			Deputy Principals	
	Count	%		Count	%
One H.O.D	28	31.8	No deputy Principal	62	70.5
Two H.O.D.s	41	46.6	One deputy principal	26	29.5
Three H.O.D.s	18	20.5			
Four H.O.D.s	1	1.1			
	88	100		88	100

From this Table 4.9., one is able to see that all schools have one or two even up to four Heads of Department. Even though most of the schools do not have deputy principals, there are big schools with deputy principals. As part of the management team, Heads of Department and Deputy Principals are also in need of in-service training in order to provide them with skills, knowledge and expertise. For this group to be trained, the Principal needs to be trained first. The Deputy principal and the Heads of Department are the responsibilities of the principal to train.

Item 1.12 Very few principals have undergone in-service training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties and tasks.

According to Table 4.9., 68.1% of the respondents strongly agreed and only 2.3% disagreed with the statement. The total response of 97.7% supported the statement that very few principals, if none at all, have undergone in-service training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties and tasks. The mean value of the response was 4.64 and the standard deviation was 0.61. Hence, the item was rated as highly positive. This is probably due to the lack of training facilities principals had in the past.

respondents are strongly supported by Van der Westhuizen (1999: 3) when saying that the educational leader is less well-trained for his tasks than the subject teacher. The higher the educational leader ascends the promotional ladder, the more the daily tasks he has to perform for which he received no initial training.

Traditionally, in the past principals used to develop in-service training programmes for others, Heads of Department, teaching staff as well as the school administrative and clerical personnel. Moreover, by virtue of their senior position in the school's hierarchical structure, principals used to work with and through others (as subordinates) to accomplish school objectives and goals.

According to Caldwell (1986: 175) "they have been so busy with implementing change and providing in-service training for other members of staff that they may have neglected their own professional growth".

Item 1.13. Principals should be trained whilst they are in service.

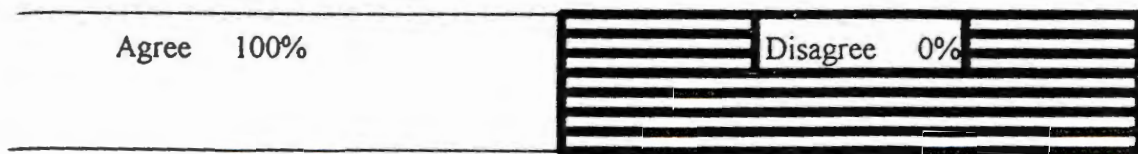
About 71.6% of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement. Most fully agreed with the idea that Principals should not interrupt their continuous service in order to undertake training elsewhere. The researcher is of the opinion that on-the-job training of school principals is the best and most cost-effective method of training. This conclusion is validated by the statistical values namely, the mean and the standard deviation ($\bar{x} = 4.72$, $\sigma = 0.45$).

Bagwandeem (1993 : 30) describes on-the-job training as a choice of activities that enable the trainee to gain competence and knowledge experientially. "On-the-job training is about instruction exposed to the participant while he is at work. It is simply learning by doing and it reinforces learning. The participant is expected to implement the principles, skills or newly acquired information in the work situation".

Item 1.14 In-service training improves performance and expertise

It is heartening to note that 100% of school principals agree that in-service training is of extreme importance for their efficient role function.

Figure 4.4 In-service training improves performance and expertise



The role function of principals has become more extended and more demanding in the current educational milieu. Factors which contribute to this includes the ever-widening scope of schooling itself, the rapid growth in technology which brings varied and more complex resources into schools, and the changing political and economic context within which schools function. Therefore outstanding performance and expertise are necessary to cope with this dynamic situation.

Bagwandeem (1993 : 13) states that "INSET, like any other kind of education, has to do with aiding people to grow, learn, enjoy, think and do with the emphasis on performance".

Magagula (1992: 3) looks at training as "the acquisition of skills and knowledge or new technology as well as change in attitude aimed at effectively, efficiently and completely performing a given job".

In view of all of these, Faast (1984: 128) concludes that in-service training is responsible for the following important contributions:

- Reduces time to reach acceptable performance;
- Improves performance on the present job;
- Formulates attitudes;
- Aids in solving operational problems, and
- Fills manpower needs and benefits employee.

The researcher is also of the opinion that we are at a point where we need to examine critically not only the method and practice of in-service training of school principals, but the whole structure with which the professional development of the school management is governed, funded, organised and rewarded. We need to be more aware of the need to plan for change and for support during the critical phase of implementing change in the administration of the schools.

Item 1.15. Leadership in schools by principals cannot be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone, some form of in-service training is essential.

The statement enjoys 100% support by the respondents. The general feeling is that in-service training will reinforce the principal's skill dimension, facilitate his development and provide him with the most up-to-date leadership information.

In the past, educational management training was not always considered necessary. Experience as a teacher plus certain personal qualities, diffused and undefined, have been regarded as sufficient. This has obviously proved administrators wrong. School principals have to carry out numerous important functions and play many significant roles. Unless they have been trained to carry out these functions and play these roles, they may find themselves unprepared for most of them. The researcher is of the opinion that only relevant managerial training, which is sound and yet practice-orientated and effective, can make invaluable contributions towards better leadership in our schools.



1.16. School leaders (Principals) should be periodically evaluated to assist them in their role function by providing in-service training.

It is significant that a large majority (70.5%) strongly supported and 28.4% only agreed with the statement that principals should be periodically evaluated in order to assist them in their role functions. This is confirmed by the value of the mean and the standard deviation, which are 4.69 and 0.49 respectively.

The primary aims of evaluation are the improvement in the work (managerial) achievements of the principals. As a secondary goal, evaluation aims at giving recognition to proven achievement, identifying future educational leaders, determining attitude to work and determining whether the individual is ready for further promotion.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1992: 256) "from the management point of view, evaluation is an unavoidable process". This is because tasks have to be delegated and accountability for fulfilling tasks and realising goals is part of any organisation. School leaders at different levels of management operate on delegated duties (role function) therefore evaluation is necessary because they are held accountable for fulfilling their prescribed tasks.

Evaluation with effective feedback and the thought of development where necessary are desirable in order to improve pupil learning and to improve effective school management and organisation and strong leadership.

Item 1.17. Training of school principals has been neglected by the education authorities.

In most instances, training of school principals has been neglected by the educational authorities. The truth of the statement has been evidenced by 100% support by the respondents (School Principals).

There is a serious gap between managerial skills of Principals within the school and research, and the knowledge on school management. No matter how good the academic qualifications of school principals, they are living and working in an age in which constant re-training is imperative if they are to cope effectively with their tasks.

"Educational management is a dynamic and changing task and has to be constantly adapted to changing circumstances, not only in the social, political and economic environment" (Bedassi, 1994: 85).

The unitary system of education in South Africa which came into effect in April 1994 made new demands on principals and they have to be prepared for such demands. Therefore, in-service managerial training of principals cannot be ignored or given lesser preference than equalisation of resources, important at this may be.

A systematic approach to the selection, training and support of school principals is essential to the improvement of schools. Since the principal is the "hub" of the school, its effectiveness will depend to a large degree on the principals effectiveness as the school leader. Quality education in schools requires excellence in Principals and their co-managers. This can be achieved by the development of skills and knowledge through in-service training of school leaders.

Item 1.18. In-service training of Principals should not be voluntary but mandatory.

Figure 4.5 Principals response to whether in-service training should be voluntary or mandatory



All respondents (100%) thought that INSET should be mandatory. It is apparent that respondents attribute considerable importance to INSET as a vehicle for the improvement of skills and knowledge.

Principals were never exposed to training before. This will offer them a golden opportunity to acquaint themselves with INSET programmes. It is now up to the provincial department to see to it that its senior personnel (principals) are trained.

Item 1.19. In-service training of principals should be continuous

An overwhelming majority of responses (100%) is achieved in this regard. Principals agree that some form of continuous in-service training is essential since leadership in

schools provided by school principals cannot be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone.

It can thus be concluded that there is a need for in-service training in school management irrespective of the principal's previous experience. Provision of a specialised training programme for school principals is strongly supported by the researcher because the principal's professional tasks are not the same as those of a good teacher in his subject field. "The question is no longer whether or not the principal has a managerial task, but rather how well he is equipped for his managerial task" (Van der Westhuizen, 1991 : 27).

Item 1.20. Training needs of principals should be identified before in-service training begins.

The 100% response of principals in this regard is an indication that principals are tired of the "hit and miss" type of leadership they experience in their schools. This is further confirmed by the mean value and the standard deviation, which are 4.32 and 0.47 respectively (i.e. highly positive).

The researcher is of the opinion that in-service training should be systematically organised and not handled as a global entity. Needs of trainees should first be identified. Buckley (1985: 172) recommends the following methods in identifying training needs.

- Visits to course members before training programmes begins to ascertain individual needs,
- Meetings with course members before training programmes begin, followed by questionnaires completed by course members at the end of the training programmes; and
- follow-up visits paid to trainees.

7 In-service needs of school principals

Table 4.10. In-service training needs of school principals.

	SAG		AG		Undecided		DA		SDA		Mean	SD
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
21 To renew public confidence in school principals	28	31.8	60	68.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.47	0.50
22 To improve on the quality of our school, we must improve the professional practices of school principals	41	46.6	47	53.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.44	0.50
23 Proper identification of in-service training needs for the school principal forms the key to the creation of effective in-service programmes	39	44.3	49	55.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.35	0.48
24 People are the chief resource of the educational leader	31	35.2	57	64.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.33	0.47
25 If interpersonal relationships are positive every staff member will want to give his best.	29	33	60	67	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.32	0.47
1.26 The school is not an independent or isolated entity from the community.	28	31.8	59	68.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.38	0.49
1.27 In the past, school principals in the RSA received little or no structured training on human relations.	33	37.5	60	62.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.36	0.46
1.28 Strong instructional leaders have the capacity to mobilise resources.	32	36.4	56	65.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.30	0.46
1.29 The school curriculum should be consistent with the community's wish and current developments	26	29.5	62	70.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.30	0.46
1.30 A curriculum is a good model that produces performance	32	36.4	56	63.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.36	0.48
						-		-		-		8

{Key: AG - Agree; SAG- Strongly Agree, DA-Disagree; SDA - Strongly Disagree}

Item 1.21. To renew public confidence in school leaders will require training and evaluation of school principals.

All respondents (100%), with their overwhelming support, confirm the literature review which states that "to renew public confidence in school leaders will require training and valuation of school principals" (Smith & Andrews; 1989: 3). The evaluation of the school principals' acquisition of in-service training skills in this respect shall be done in line with the provided in-service training model for school principals, which makes provision that after an in-service training session, evaluation of the outcome of a particular programme shall be carried out according to the relevant criteria.

Item 1.22 To improve on the quality of our schools, we must improve the professional practices of school principals.

In this regard, 53.4% strongly agreed. Respondents demonstrate that in-service training provides quality practice without which the day-to-day work of the principal will not be seen as a success. Bagwadeen (1994: 41) states "that principals should avoid falling behind in areas that need their expert knowledge and attention, especially during changing times. In-service training helps school principals and teachers improve their knowledge and skills."

Change in education needs and the increase in knowledge posed in society "have established an urgent need for school leaders to refresh and improve skills and knowledge" (Bagwandeem, 1993: 43). Through INSET, the educational leader will be able to cope with changing educational needs and circumstances.

Faast (1984: 128) also maintains that in-service training is the procedure by which people learn, gain knowledge of skills for a definite purpose. Training is therefore responsible for the following contributions:

- Reduces learning time to reach acceptable performance;
- improves performance on the present job;

- formulates attitudes;
- aids in solving operational problems; and
- fills manpower needs and benefits employee.

Item 1.23 Proper identification of in-service training needs for the school principal forms the key to the creation of effective in-service training programmes.

This statement enjoys full support (100%) by the respondents, with a mean value of 4.35 and a standard deviation of 0.48. the response is thereby rated as highly positive. The respondents fully agree with Buckley (1987: 172) when he states that proper identification of in-service training needs for the school principal forms the key to the creation of effective in-service training programmes.

He recommends further that the following be followed when identifying in-service training needs of school leaders:

- That visits be made to trainees before training begins to ascertain individual needs of principals;
- That meetings be held with trainees before training begins, followed by questionnaires completed by trainees at the end of the training sessions; and
- That follow-up visits be made to trainees.

Meetings held and questionnaires completed suggest to the training officers, the areas in which the trainees are still lacking. Positive feedback in those areas would be given during follow-up visits.

Item 1.24. People are the chief resource of the educational leaders.

The overwhelming support given in respect of the statement points out to the importance of the statements. Without pupils or students the school cannot warrant to be a school. Without teachers as people, the school again will not achieve its set aims.

In carrying out his daily task, the school principal is continually engaged in an interactive relationship with people. "The measure of success achieved in this complex interaction will determine his efficacy as an educational leader more than anything else" (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 294).

Item 1.25. If interpersonal relationships are positive, every staff member will want to give his best.

The ideal educational leader should have the ability to inspire and motivate his staff so that their initiative and creative abilities are developed to the maximum extent (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 294). This view has been given a sound blessing by the respondents as well. The response could be construed as highly positive as 33 (37.5%) strongly agree and 55 (62.5%) agree). Van der Westhuizen (1991:294) goes on to illustrate this point by saying that "in an ideal situation, colleagues will not wait for the Head to initiate, give instructions or organise. They will approach him with innovations, experiments and a variety of exciting projects to get his approval for their efforts at educational renewal."

The school principal should be able to establish and create an atmosphere of positive and harmonious relationships. He should be in a position to set the tone for his school. In an institution where mutual trust exists, "first rate educational work is done. In the end, this type of school delivers outstanding end-products to society" (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 294).

Hall, Mackay & Morgan (1986: 13) add that "the overwhelming percentage of all headship activity is to maintain interpersonal relations. School principals have contacts with varying groups of people with contrasting weight of contact between them". If interpersonal relationships are positive and harmonious, every staff member will want to give his best not because he is being forced to do so, but because he is working with a leader who has empathy and humanity towards others in a positive and practical way (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 294).

Magagula (1992: 3) maintains two main purposes of training that could be of value in this regard:

- To introduce a new behaviour of the individual; and
- To modify the existing behaviour so that a desirable behaviour is acquired.

Respondents fully agree (100%) with this notion. The school is not an independent entity on its own, but an institution within the community for the community at large".

It has a school-community consisting of the principal, staff members, parents and pupils and former pupils who work together in the interests of effective teaching and training of the child (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 406).

Item 1.27. In the past, school principals in the RSA received little or no structured training on human relations.

That principals constantly complained that their training in human relations has been of poorest and weakest areas of their training programmes, if ever, is being proved by the support of the respondents over the issue. This is reinforced by the statistical values namely, the mean and the median ($-x=4.36$, $q = 0.48$). The researcher is of the opinion that if ever training was provided, it was of a weak and inadequate nature.

Hall, Mackay & Morgan (1986: 13) see the sustenance of good human relations as the "important, subtle and at the same time, identifiable store of power". For the school principal it has the following advantages in store for him:

- There is an even flow of communication between the principal and the entire school-community.
- The school-community acquaints itself with and expresses opinions about its school;
- Positive aspects of the school are shared among its members; and

It generates trust, support for the school and by so doing, strengthens participation in school activities (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 419).

Item 1.28. Strong instructional leaders have the capacity to mobilise resources.

Respondents (100%) show support for this statement that implementation of policies that lead to desired outcomes and effective students' Achievement depends solely on the successful mobilisation and utilisation of resources.

Van der Westhuizen (1991: 294) also confirms this by stating that if well-marshalled, human resources help student and the faculty achieve success. The ideal educational leader should have the ability to inspire and motivate his staff so that their initiative and creativity are developed to the maximum extent (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 294).

The management of the human resource can be achieved fully through informal in-service training. According to Bondesio & De Witt (1991: 274) as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, "informal training can be absorbed as the discussion between the principal and his subordinates. This could be achieved by holding subject and staff meetings periodically with the aim of imparting knowledge, skills, ideas or standards to subordinates and telling them how they are performing. This is called coaching, the purpose of which is to improve performance. Coaching can take place anywhere at any time in the workplace (Bondesio & De Witt, 1991: 274).

Item 1.29. The school curriculum should be consistent with the community's wish and current developments.

As parents, all principals (100%) fully supported this statement. Parents usually feel that a good curriculum will provide good grounding for their children. Chapman (1984: 106) maintains that the "principal must ensure that what is good in the curriculum is consistent with the community and current developments in the education system. He/she must be aware of current thought".

parents want a school where children would get development and knowledge from the curriculum programmes of the school (Whitaker, 1983: 91).

Item 1.30. A curriculum is a good model that produces performance.

Principals view this item as a model which indicates their *modus operandi*. For the school children, the curriculum is a source of knowledge, skills and achievement. The parents view this model as the inculcation of their norms and standards. They want to see these norms and standards passed on to their posterity.

1.8 Summary

In this chapter, the researcher has attempted to make an empirical analysis and interpretation of data to arrive at varying aspects of INSET and the accompanying professional needs of school principals.

The various items discussed in this chapter are believed to serve as a point of departure for the formulation of in-service training programmes that will satisfy the needs of school principals in their day-to-day administration of the school.

The findings in this survey correlate closely to those of several other research projects which emphasised the importance of training school leaders, for very few educational leaders of today have undergone training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties. It must be kept in mind that the effective functioning of the school depends on the professional conduct of the school principal and the leadership and management roles he fulfils.

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According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 3), extensive research in the Republic of South Africa has established that the task of the principal has undergone an evolutionary change and that his present task is mainly managerial.

CHAPTER 5 : FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The system of education in South Africa has, ever since 1994, undergone rapid and profound changes. The ability needed by educational leaders to perform certain administrative and managerial tasks proved inadequate. Even before the democratic dispensation came into being, various inadequacies had been identified in the field of educational management training of school principals in South Africa.

The De Lange Commission of 1981, for example, found that "...educational management training has been inadequate and could not satisfy the needs of management". Van der Westhuizen (1991:295) found this regrettable and expressed his concern by pointing out that school principals in the Republic of South Africa received little or no structured preparation for their role functions, more particularly by way of informal in-service training in managerial skills.

The researcher has made attempts in the foregoing chapters to highlight the needs, importance and relevance of acquiring managerial skills by principals in order to improve the effectiveness of their schools and the quality of education in general.

What predominantly emerges from this study is the urgent need for the establishment of a policy by the National Department of Education as well as the Provincial Education Departments in respect of in-service training programmes for school principals.

2 Findings

2.1 In-service training of the principal and its contribution to the development of the managerial skills

The findings of this study have been the confirmation of the dire need for the provision of structured continuous in-service training for school principals. The study has revealed that the in-service training of school principals is vitally important to bring about a climate of school effectiveness. In-service training of school leaders must be seen as an effective activity which has the power to create excellent conditions in which effective educative teaching can take place in schools. The acquisition of managerial skills is bound to lead to quality management and control which in turn will contribute to the success of the education system in South Africa.

Bedassi (1984:82), who conducted research among Indian school leaders, revealed that over 90% of principals who participated in the research agreed that continuous in-service training in educational management was essential. Only 7% of the respondents disagreed.

The foregoing views of the researcher are supported by Mbatha (1993:283) who found that "...In-service training contribution to management development of principals in Kwa-Zulu, Natal Province, has been tremendous". He goes on to state that a large expansion of in-service training was urged by agencies and organisations who had come to the realisation that training was the only one of a number of solutions that could be adopted to equip principals with the managerial know-how.

Oldrough & Hall (1991:25), with great conviction, support the view that In-service training is a major "vehicle" for delivering educational reform. They go on to state that principals of schools need In-service training for knowledge, skills and performance during this era of socio-political changes. There is a need to learn new skills in

response to new situations such as those created by the current socio-political and educational reform."

School principals spend a considerable amount of time working with school staff members, parents and members of the public in different settings. They have to interact continually with Heads of departments, teaching staff, pupil councils, the parent-teachers associations, caretakers as well as with sports and cultural committees. These groups of people differ in many respects, particularly in size and the very nature of their specific organisational structure and purpose, but they all possess certain basic characteristics in common which the principal needs to recognise.

It is the opinion of the researcher that in-service training of school principals in the specific functions assigned to school leaders will contribute towards educational upliftment and improved production of the teaching staff of any school. Continued career development is the hallmark of every profession.

Effective school principals must keep abreast of the times. Therefore management development and training is not only desirable, but also an activity to which authorities must increasingly commit their concern and attention.

5.2.2 The place of women in educational management



One other striking feature exposed by the researcher is the fact that there are more males than female in management who are principals. According to Mbatha (1993 : 167), it would seem that this trend is very common in South Africa.

The researcher is of the opinion that sexual bias against females was evident in schools, particularly secondary schools for blacks. Mbatha (1993:167) found that the trend is that "...women continue to be restricted to filling principal's positions in lower

and senior primary schools even if they hold a qualification which could enable them to occupy posts of principalship in senior secondary schools".

The researcher reveals that a male entering the teaching profession has a better chance for upward mobility than his female counterpart with the same qualifications.

Another striking revelation is that most female members of the profession seem to resign before they reach retirement age, or immediately after they marry. They can no longer succeed in managing their professional and family matters concurrently.

The researcher also found that the discrepancies between male and female members is due to the fact that women, in most instances, do not apply for any promotional post outside their home town, especially married women. It is easier for male members to move nearer to the place of the profession, especially black male members of the profession. However, there is hope that with the new democratic government which "abhors" sexism. We will find more women in managerial posts in our schools.

5.2.3 The trend in the promotion of principals

It is discouraging to note from research that 67% of school principals in the district schools are non-graduates. This high percentage, however, reflects the trend that promotion post holders at the primary school level need only have an M + 3 (matric plus teacher's diploma) qualification whilst those at secondary must have at least a bachelor's degree.

The researcher is of the opinion that there is also an urgent need for the formulation of a clearly defined policy and instrument for evaluating candidates for promotion to the managerial posts at the different levels of the hierarchy. Recently school principals' promotions have seen the implementation and demise of several instruments.

5.2.4 The importance of in-service training

As the hypothesis of this study the important of in-service training has received the overwhelming support of the respondents. This is similar to the case of Bedassi (1994:82) who conducted research among Indian school leaders which revealed that over 90% of principals, who participated in the research, agreed that continuous in-service training in educational management was essential. The respondents undoubtedly realised that the demand made upon them as school principals, are challenging and constantly changing. Consequently, immediate forces on their in-service training in managerial skills will bring about better management techniques, planning procedures, organisational and administrative approaches.

Botha (1993:327) is also of the opinion that because of the dramatic and traumatic changes that are taking place in South Africa, school principals should realise that the management styles and techniques they have developed during the course of their careers might not be relevant for the managerial problems that they might encounter in the new educational scenario. For this reason, in-service training of school headmasters is essential.

The major findings in relation to the importance of in-service training have been found to be the following:

- that very few principals have undergone in-service training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties and tasks;
- that principals should be trained while they are in service;
- that in-service training improves performance and expertise;
- that leadership in school by principals can no longer be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone, some form of in-service training is essential;
- that school leaders should be periodically evaluated to assist them in their role functions, providing in-service training;

- the training of school principals has been neglected by the educational authorities;
- that in-service training of principals should not be voluntary, but mandatory;
- that in-service training of principals be continuous;
- that training needs of principals should be identified before in-service training begins;
- that to renew public confidence in school leaders will require training and evaluation of school principals;
- that to improve on the quality of our schools, we must improve the professional practices of school principals;
- that proper identification of in-service training needs for the school principal forms the key to the creation of effective in-service training programmes;
- that people are the chief resource of the educational leader;
- that if interpersonal relationships are positive, every staff member will want to give his best;
- that the school is not an independent or isolated entity from the community;
- that in the past, school principals in the RSA received little or no structured training on human relations;
- that strong instructional leaders have the capacity to mobilise resources;
- that the school curriculum should be consistent with the community's wish and current developments; and
- that a curriculum is a good model that produces performance.

5.3 Recommendations

In order to fulfill his role in a truly professional manner, it is essential for the school principal to acquire insight into the functional and managerial tasks of his role function. As the professional leader of the school, the school principal is responsible for school administration and is also the key figure at the professional development level of staff members.

The following issues concerning the in-service educational management training of school principals should be noted for the benefit of the South African education system:

- * Principals should have a mandate to undergo in-service training organised both nationally and provincially;
- * school management consultants or advisors should be appointed with the specific task of guidance to principals regarding management activities at schools;
- * development and implementation of a national in-service training policy for school principals should be given urgent attention;
- * a school management advisory team at a provincial level of an education department should be appointed with the specific task of assisting and training senior management personnel at schools;
- * the formation of a national, provincial and district association for school principals should be considered; and
- * the establishment of principals' training centres at district level to facilitate training.

Education management is necessary for the functioning of the school and, therefore, requires a thorough scientific, theoretical and practical training. A college for school management in South Africa is required where a great deal could be done to overcome major problems facing our future schools - the lack of leadership skills, knowledge and critical attitudes about current problems and strategies for dealing with them.

5.4 Topics for further research

The researcher's empirical investigation has resulted in various questions and opinions concerning the needs of school principals in respect of in-service training.

The following aspects may lead to further research:

- * the need for scientifically developed policy and instruments for the evaluation of candidates for promotion to management posts at different levels of the hierarchy; and
- * the place of women in educational management who reflect a low expectation in terms of possibilities for promotion.

5.5 Conclusion

This research study has attempted to highlight in-service training of school principals in perspective as an effective educational management development tool. The study was extensively supported by literature on both local and overseas countries such as the USA, France, Sweden, England and Holland.

The changes that are taking place locally and globally require the principal's willingness and determination to attend structured, continuous in-service training courses, visits to other schools, personal upliftment by way of rendering material on educational management and talking to other school leaders, etc.

All principals, should receive training to prepare them for their new responsibilities. For the school leader, broad experience, judgement and even latent leadership potential may not be adequate in our modern era with all its dramatic and traumatic challenges.

Some training presented in a systematic, structured, ongoing and dynamic way will be required. Moreover, the process of training a school principal should be recorded.

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QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

SECTION A

1. BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Kindly answer the following questions by crossing X in the relevant block.

1.1 SEX

Male		1
Female		2

1.2 AGE

Below 30 years		1
31-35		2
36-40		3
41-45		4
46-50		5
51 and above		6

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1.3 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS PRINCIPAL

1-3		1
4-6		2
7-9		3
10-12		4
13-15		5
16-18		6
19-21		7
22-24		8
25-27		9
28-30		10

1.4 POSITION HELD BEFORE BECOMING PRINCIPAL

Assistant teacher		1
Head of Department		2
Deputy Principal		3
Acting Principal		4
Other		5

1.5 HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS

Below Std 10		1
Std 10		2
A degree (B.A)		3
Honours B.Ed.		4
Masters Degree		5
Doctorate		6
Other		7

1.6 HIGHEST PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

L.P.T.C		1
H.P.T.C./P.T.C		2
J.S.T.C		3
S.T.D.		4
P.T.D.		5
H.E.D.		6
U.E.D.		7
Other		8

SECTION B

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Answer by making a cross (X) in the relevant block

1.7 GRADING OF SCHOOL

P1	P2	P3
P4	P5	
S1	S2	

1.8 SCHOOL LOCATION

Rural		1
Urban		2

1.9 TYPE OF SCHOOL

Public		1
Private		2

1.10 ~~SIZE OF~~ THE MANAGEMENT TEAM

No H.O.D.		1
One H.O.D.		2
Two H.O.D.s		3
Three H.O.D.s		4
Four H.O.D.s		5
Five H.O.D.s		6
Five plus		7

1.11 DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

No Deputy Principal		1
One Deputy Principal		2
Two Deputy Principals		3
Three Deputy Principals		4
Three plus Deputy Principals		5

SECTION C

MANAGEMENT AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF PRINCIPALS

Kindly select the number which corresponds with your opinion and indicate by marking with X in the relevant block.

Key:

1. Agree
2. Strongly agree
3. Do not know
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

	Agree	Strongly Agree	Do not know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.12 Very few principals undergo in-service training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties.	1	2	3	4	5
1.13 All principals should be trained whilst they are in-service	1	2	3	4	5
1.14 In-service training improves performance and expertise	1	2	3	4	5
1.15 Leadership in schools by principals cannot be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone. Some form of in-service training is essential.	1	2	3	4	5

1.16	All school principals should be evaluated to assist them in their role function by providing in-service training.	1	2	3	4	5
1.17	In-service training of principals has been neglected by educational authorities.	1	2	3	4	5
1.18	In-service training of principals should not be voluntary but mandatory.	1	2	3	4	5
1.19	In reality, training of principals should be continuous.	1	2	3	4	5
1.20	Training needs of principals should be identified before in-service training begins.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

IN-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Kindly select the number which corresponds with your opinion and indicate by marking with x in the relevant block.

Key:

1. Agree
2. Strongly agree
3. Do not know
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

	Agree	Strongly Agree	Do not know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.21 To renew public confidence in school leaders will require training and evaluation of school principals	1	2	3	4	5
1.22 To improve on the quality of our schools, we must improve the professional practices of school principals	1	2	3	4	5
1.23 Proper identification of in-service training needs for the school principal forms the key to the creation of effective in-service training programmes.	1	2	3	4	5
1.24 People are the chief resource of the educational leader	1	2	3	4	5

1.25	If interpersonal relationships are positive, every staff member will want to give his best.	1	2	3	4	5
1.26	The school is not an independent or isolated entity from the community	1	2	3	4	5
1.27	In the past, school principals in the RSA received little or no structured training on human relations.	1	2	3	4	5
1.28	Strong instructional leaders have the capacity to mobilise resources.	1	2	3	4	5
1.29	The school curriculum should be consistent with the community's wish and current developments	1	2	3	4	5

1.30	A curriculum is a good model that produces performance	1	2	3	4	5
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Date 03 /02/99

Your reference

Our reference

TO: COLLEGE RECTORS
DISTRICT MANAGERS
CIRCUIT MANAGERS
PRINCIPALS
TEACHERS

RESEARCH PROJECT: FIELDWORK

The Department of Educational Planning and Administration hereby request you to grant our B.Ed and M.Ed Postgraduate student(s) permission to conduct research in school(s)/College(s) under your jurisdiction.

TOPIC: IN-SERVICE TRAINING NEEDS OF SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS IN THE GROBLERSDAL DISTRICT
OF MPUMALANGA PROVINCE

STUDENT NAME: S.W. KUTU

Thank you in anticipation

Sincerely


DR M.W. LEGOTLO

HEAD: PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

Enquiries : S.W.Kutu

P O Box 43
Sleutelfontein
0465
12 May 1998

The District Manager
Groblersdal District
P/Bag X615
Marble Hall
0450

Dear Sir/Madam

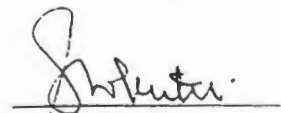
RE : PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS

Permission is hereby sought to conduct research in schools in the District under your jurisdiction. The research topic is "In-service training needs of school principals in the Groblersdal District of the Mpumalanga Province"

I hope that my request will be considered.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully



S.W. Kutu (Principal)