

**NEGOTIATION WITH TEACHERS**  
**AS A MANAGERIAL TASK OF**  
**THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL**

**S.A. SEBETLELE**

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**SEWAGODIMO AMOS SEBETLELE**

**B.A., B.A (HONS)., B.Ed.**

Dissertation submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the  
Degree Magister Educationis in Educational Management  
In the Faculty of Educational Sciences at the North West University  
(Potchefstroom Campus).

Supervisor: Professor P.C. van der Westhuizen

**POTCHEFSTROOM  
2005**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Above all, thanks to God Almighty who provided strength and adequate mental power to endure and to persevere.

I humbly wish to express my heart-felt gratitude and appreciation to the following individuals and institutions:

- My supervisor professor P.C. van der Westhuizen, for his dynamic leadership, encouragement, patience, motivation, care and assistance.
- Marlene Wiggle and the staff at the Ferdinand Postma Library for their valuable assistance with regard to sources and information.
- The Southern and Northern Regions of the North West Department of Education for granting permission to gain access to their secondary schools.
- All the principals who completed and returned the questionnaires, amid their heavy schedules.
- Dr. Suria Ellis of the Department of Statistical Consultancy Services of North West University, with regard to the analysis of research data.
- Miss Rosinah Kganticoe of the Information Technology Department: North West University, Potchefstroom Campus for retrieving lost data and assisting with the arrangement of chapters.
- Dr. J.E. Terblanche of the School of Languages: English (North West University, Potchefstroom Campus for language editing.
- My dear mother Makubedi, my beloved wife Gadifele and children, Malekgetho and Katlego for their unwavering love, support and encouragement.

## SUMMARY

### **Negotiation with teachers as a managerial task of the school principal.**

**Key words:** negotiation; principals; educators; negotiation skills; conflict; power; school management.

The study focuses on the use of negotiation skills as a managerial task of the school principal in order to reduce conflicts between teachers and between teachers and themselves, so as to enhance a good working interpersonal relationship between them. This will lead to the building of trust, professional development and success.

The purpose of this study was to determine through a literature study and empirical investigation, the nature of negotiation in schools and the skills used by principals when negotiating with teachers. The empirical investigation determined the skills used the most and least by principals when negotiating with teachers.

Chapter 1 covered the statement of the problem, aims and methods to be used to obtain an overview of the nature of negotiation. This chapter also covers the empirical investigation which includes the questionnaire, population and sample, the statistical techniques. This chapter further covers the arrangement of chapters.

Chapter 2 emphasises the nature of negotiation in general and in schools. The definition of negotiation and the concepts closely related to it are given in this chapter. The significance of negotiation and the negotiation principles are explained. The process of negotiation with its three phases, are discussed, approaches to negotiation are explained and common mistakes that occur during negotiation are highlighted. Mention is also made of the attitude principals have towards the use of negotiation in schools, as well as the effects that negotiations have on school performance.

The context and skills needed in successful negotiation are discussed in chapter 3. With regard to the context of negotiation, the climate, negotiating for common ground, the characteristics of good agreement and the elements of negotiation are covered. With regard to skills needed in successful negotiation, listening, empathy, space, timing and persuasion are discussed.

In chapter 4 the empirical research design, administrative procedures, population and sampling as well as statistical techniques are discussed. The completed and questionnaires returned by respondents are empirically analysed and interpreted. The practical significance (effect size) of differences between biographical data and the different negotiation factors is done to determine if the differences are large enough to have an effect in practice.

In chapter 5 the summary of all the chapters is done as well as the findings from the research and the recommendations.

Of all the negotiation skills discussed, it is evident that empathy is a skill that is mostly used by principals, followed by persuasion and the process of negotiation. The skill that is used least by school principals and that is also recommended as a topic for further research, is space. Recommendations of this study emphasize the importance of workshops and or in-service training for principals on the use of negotiation skills.

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# CHAPTER 1

## ORIENTATION

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

With this study an attempt is made to determine the extent to which principals use negotiation skills at schools when negotiating with teachers as their management task.

In this chapter, the statement of the problem is explained, the aims with the research are outlined as well as the methods this research will follow, which includes literature study and the empirical investigation. The empirical investigation will cover the questionnaire, population and sample as well as the statistical techniques to be employed in the analyses of data. The chapter is concluded with the arrangement of chapters and a summary.

### 1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As Pottas and Nieuwmeijer (1992:2) correctly claim, negotiation is not an invention of this decade: it is as old as humanity. The importance of negotiation in any situation, including a school, cannot be over emphasized. Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:13) reiterate this fact by saying that in a diverse society such as South Africa, any good manager will have to be a good negotiator. Taking into consideration that the principal is a key figure in a school that has to have immense knowledge of all the other functions of management, it is therefore crucial that as an educational leader he/she understands the negotiation process and possesses negotiation skills (Van der Westhuizen, 1996). For the school principal to manage and administer his school well, he should use negotiation as his primary vehicle to achieve his objectives (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:22).

In all forms of conflicts, be it on a personal-, intra-group- or inter-group level in a school, the principal's role is of cardinal importance as he/she has to intervene to help and to promote settlement between groups in dispute. A large body of the literature has shown that conflict can be of a polarizing nature and can escalate to such an extent that it can have extremely detrimental long term effects on a school (Steenkamp, 1993). The intervention of the principal therefore is of critical importance to

enhance the normal functioning of the school and to strive towards maintaining and achieving education of high quality (Du Toit, 1996:121). Negotiations can be regarded as a conflict management technique that can be used by parties in conflict situations to reach an acceptable agreement (Du Toit, 1990:142).

As far as the situation in (black) schools is concerned, the education is hampered by country-wide boycotts and stay-away actions by teachers to make their grievances and demands for change in the status quo of education known (Van der Westhuizen, 1996:172). It is actions like these that can impact negatively on the academic results of learners and can lead to the closure of schools.

A study of township schools in Gauteng conducted by Wits University's Education Policy Unit spelt out the main problems black teachers and school principals see themselves facing. They are: grossly inadequate facilities and resources; poor leadership, management and administration; a climate of distrust and even hostility among principals, teachers, learners and parents; and a collapse of stability in the social environments surrounding schools (Anon., 1996:51). Another cause of dissatisfaction among the staff, adds Ngongo (1996:183), is resistance from teachers to the practice of supervision and inspection of their teaching.

A concept that the principals may use to negotiate issues with teachers is that of the workplace forum. Although in terms of Section 80 of the Labour Relations Act (66/1995) an employer has to employ more than 100 employees for such a forum to be established, it is a framework that may be used in a school to deal with issues that are to be negotiated between the principal and teachers.

Some of the specific matters for consultation as set out in Section 84 1(a), (b), (i), (j) and (5a) of the LRA (66/1995), i.e. new work methods, changes in the organization of work, product development plans, initiating, developing and monitoring health and safety at work, are issues that can be negotiated between the principal and teachers within the parameters of the school, to reach a consensus before implementation.

Section 86 1(a) of the Act regards disciplinary codes and procedures as the proposals that need consultation before they can be applied. This, also, is a matter that can be negotiated between the principal and teacher given that rigid guidelines have not been set in place yet since the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools.

Further issues that can be negotiated between the principal and educators according to Anon (1996:50)

can include new ideas that would revolutionize the use of school buildings and teachers and give schooling an educational validity which it now lacks. Also, when it comes to school holidays, it can be negotiated how a school can programme them to make them more flexible so as to stimulate the learners.

Clinical and peer supervision is another issue which, as Ngcongco (1996:185) states, focuses attention on the problems the teachers experience, which will ultimately help them to identify their problems and concerns, share these with supervisors and then invite supervisor assistance. Such an exercise will give teachers a very important opportunity to identify areas where they need to grow professionally and encourage them to initiate their own development in the subject they teach.

Untiedt (1993:79) alleges that the dissatisfaction of teachers in their workplace can be detected by stress, withdrawal from school matters, avoidance, personal malicious actions and violent behavior, all of which has disastrous consequences on education, causing poor performance by learners, a high drop-out rate by pupils, withdrawal of parents from school matters and non-effective functioning by school teachers.

In terms of Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) (Chapter A 4(ii) ) staff development, professional leadership within the school remains the core duty of the head of the institution. In the Education Law and Policy Handbook (1999), the core duties of the principal are set out in the personnel administration measures (PAM) which were agreed at the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC). It is suggested that these measures should be read with the regulations made in terms of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998. It is in this document, PAM (chapter A paragraph 4 (ii)(vi)), where it is stated that the principal, through guidance, professional advice, communication and the encouragement of cooperation between members of the school staff and the school governing body, has to maintain an efficient and smoothly running school. The guidelines for schools in respect of specific stipulations in chapter 3, Fundamental Rights (Articles 10, 11 (2), 12 and 247) of the 1994 Constitution of South Africa, clearly stipulate that negotiation and communication must always be used in solving problems (Fosu-Amoah, 1999:2). The Education Labour Relations Act 146 of 1993 states it as a fundamental right of both the employer, (in this case the school) and the employee (the teacher) to negotiate collectively on matters that may arise out of their normal working relationship (Oosthuizen, 1995:130).

Some reasons advanced by educators why principals fail to negotiate, are inadequate knowledge and information in the negotiation skills, lack of identical professional training and no disposition to in-service training relevant to negotiation (Van der Westhuizen, 1996:146). There is also an assertion that managers are afraid that practicing negotiation will lessen their powers. These reasons are the stumbling blocks to the effective use of negotiation and participation in management skills. Van der

Westhuizen (1991:13) argues that very few educational leaders today have undergone training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties. This means that as the educational leader ascends the promotional ladder, he has more daily tasks to perform for which he has received no initial training.

Furthermore, researchers in the RSA (De Wet, 1992; Du Toit, 1990) testify that a lack of negotiation in an institution brings about conflict escalation and they propose negotiation as a managerial task of the principal. I am of the opinion that, if this management style can find its place in a school, it will enhance a sound relationship between different parties and respect will be created instead of it being undermined.

It is true that some of the reasons that cause problems that lead to dissatisfaction among educators, learners, parents and the school governing body etcetera could be attributed to a lack of negotiation skills on the part of the principal. With this research proposal, focus will be on negotiations with educators as a management task of the principal.

From an analysis of research in the South African context it is clear that much has already been written about negotiation in general (Anstey, 1991; Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996; Ramundo, 1992; Pruitt & Comevale, 1993; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994), and very little about it as a managerial task of the school principal (De Wet, 1992; Olivier, 1994; Clarke, 1995). One of the most recent researches on the topic was done by Fosu-Amoah (1999) who laid emphasis on negotiation with learners as a managerial task of the school principal. As far as literature is concerned, no research has yet been done so far in South Africa on negotiation with teachers as a managerial task of the school principal.

From what has been mentioned above, the research problem can be formulated as follows: What does negotiation as a managerial task of the school principal with teachers entail?

### **1.3 AIMS WITH THE RESEARCH.**

Research aim 1: to determine what negotiations with educators as a managerial task entail.

Research aim 2: to determine the skills needed for successful negotiation.

Research aim 3: to determine empirically to what extent principals use negotiation skills in solving problems with teachers.

## **1.4 METHODS OF RESEARCH**

### **1.4.1 Literature study**

Use was made of primary and secondary sources that are relevant to the research project. The purpose with this literature study was to obtain an overview of the nature of negotiation. A DIALOG search was conducted with the help of the following descriptors: Negotiation, conflict, grievance, the principal's role, the role of educators, power, school management.

### **1.4.2 Empirical investigation**

#### **1.4.2.1 Questionnaire**

Based on the literature study and previous researches by De Wet (1992) and Fosu-Amoah (1999) a questionnaire for principals was developed. The purpose with the questionnaire was to determine to what extent the principals used negotiation skills with teachers.

#### **1.4.2.2 Population and sample**

The principals of 315 secondary schools in the North-West Province were used as the population of this research (n=315). From this population a systematic sampling of 155 secondary school principals was used as the sample for the study (n=155).

#### **1.4.2.3 Statistical techniques**

Statistical techniques were determined and used in conjunction with the Statistical Consultancy Services of the Potchefstroom University for Christian High Education. Computer programmes were used to analyze data.

## **1.5 CHAPTER ARRANGEMENT**

Chapter 1: Orientation.

Chapter 2: The nature of negotiation in schools.

Chapter 3: Skills needed for successful negotiation in schools.

Chapter 4: Empirical research.

Chapter 5: Findings, results and suggestions.

## **1.6 SUMMARY**

With this chapter the statement of the problem, the aims as well as the methods of the research were discussed.

In the following chapters, the extent to which principals use negotiation skills with teachers as their management task will be closely scrutinized. The nature of negotiation in schools will be determined (chapter 2), the skills needed for successful negotiation in schools will be discussed (chapter 3), the empirical research to determine the extent of use of negotiation skills will be conducted (chapter 4) with findings and recommendations made in chapter 5.

## CHAPTER 2

### THE NATURE OF NEGOTIATION IN SCHOOLS

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Negotiation is a daily occurrence for everybody, occurring in employment, social and domestic contexts. It always begins with the assumption that negotiators need each other's agreement to proceed on some matter that they cannot manage alone.

Prior to outlining the skills needed in successful negotiation, it is necessary to make some broad observations on the nature of the negotiation process and outline some of its basic tenets.

With this chapter an attempt will be made to explain the nature of negotiation in its entirety and explore negotiation in schools. A number of definitions pertaining to negotiation and its related concepts as derived from a body of researchers, together with the significance, principles and styles of negotiation will be highlighted. The classification of negotiation objectives - its relationships, strategies and process-as-well as the attitudes relating to the use of negotiation will also receive attention. The chapter will conclude with a summary

Various definitions have been proposed for negotiation, most of which carry a similar emphasis.

#### 2.2 THE DEFINITION OF NEGOTIATION

The definition of negotiation is derived from a large body of theory and research as summarised in the following three sections.

##### 2.2.1 Negotiation as a process

Falkenberg (1995:7) defines negotiation as the process whereby two or more parties who are faced with a problem or a conflict about limited resources attempt to agree on how best to solve the problem or resolve the conflict.

According to Kennedy *et al.* (1987:14) negotiation is a process for resolving conflict between two or more parties in which both modify their demands to achieve a mutually acceptable compromise...a process of adjusting both parties' views of their ideal outcome to an attainable outcome.

In their definition, Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:3) see negotiation as a process of interaction between parties directed at reaching some form of agreement that will hold and that is based upon common interests, with the purpose of resolving conflict despite widely dividing differences. This is achieved through the establishment of common ground and the creation of alternatives. As far as Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:3) are concerned, common ground is not just what people have in common but what they could become together.

Helps (1992:1) also defines negotiation as a process through which an elegant win/win solution is reached which meets the differing needs of the two or more parties involved.

As stated by Nel *et al.* (1998:117) negotiation is the process used by representatives of management and of the trade union to "give and take" within the agreed collective bargaining structures over matters of mutual interest in order to control conflict and conclude an agreement.

Ury (1993:4) defines negotiation as the process of back-and-forth communication aimed at reaching agreement with others when some of your interests are shared and some opposed.

According to Adey and Andrew (1996) negotiation is a process of trying to reach an agreement between two or more parties, each of whom is in control of resources sought after by the other party or parties.

An accumulated body of sources according to Yaw-Fosu Amoah (1999:7) sees negotiation as a process that lays emphasis on a connected set of human actions or operations that are formed intentionally in order to pursue a particular result.

Drawing from the definitions of researchers above, dating back as far as seventeen years ago, negotiation is still defined as a process through which two or more contrasting parties with common interests interact with one another to reach a solution that is acceptable to both of them, amid their differing needs. The fact that it is regarded as a process, is an important characteristic of the definition since a process implies that it is not an event.

In the literature negotiation is also seen as a social process and will now be discussed.

### 2.2.2 Negotiation as a social process

According to Tribe (1994:1) the word “negotiate” is defined as the interactive social process in which people engage when they aim to reach an agreement with another party (or parties) on behalf of themselves or another.

According to Kramer and Messick (1995:1) negotiation in this regard, provides a definition of the social context in terms of relationships, configuration of the parties, social norms and values and communication structures.

Purdy (2000:162) defines negotiation as a common form of social interaction in which two or more people attempt to make a joint decision about one or more issues in which they are interested.

From the above definitions, negotiation as a social process can be seen as a reciprocal action by parties with the purpose of influencing each other to reach and make a joint decision that is satisfactory to each of them on matters of common interest.

The literature also regards negotiation as conferring.

### 2.2.3 Negotiation as conferring

The shorter Oxford English dictionary (1980:1393) explains negotiation as conferring with another for the purpose of arranging some matters by mutual agreement or to discuss a matter with a view to settlement or compromise.

Fisher *et al.* (1981) define successful negotiation as resulting in a good deal for both sides, reaching a joint decision efficiently and achieving an amicable agreement to preserve the relationship.

Mullholland (1991:186) positively states that negotiation as conferring means to confer with another to bring about a result: to arrange to bring some result about by discussion and the settlement of terms.

Brady and Parry (1992:94) see negotiation-as-conferring as a discussion between equals with a view to achieving a compromise which is acceptable to both and from which each may even gain.

Thus, negotiation-as-conferring means to consult with each other with the aim of reaching an amicable agreement that will bring results that are acceptable to all conferring parties.

#### 2.2.4 Definition

Drawing from the above range of definitions, it is clear that negotiation is simply two parties reaching an agreement that satisfies both their interests. You are negotiating every time you need something that someone else has.

Thus, negotiation can be defined as follows: **as a social process that can be used to confer with others with the goal of reaching an amicable agreement between parties involved.**

In the following section, definitions of terms closely related to negotiation will be examined.

### 2.3 DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS CLOSELY RELATED TO NEGOTIATION

According to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:5), many concepts closely related to negotiation are utilized of which some need clarification.

#### 2.3.1 Persuasion

Bostrom (1983:11) defines persuasion as a communicative behaviour that has as its purpose the changing, modification or shaping of the responses (attitudes or behaviour) of the receivers. According to Bostrom (1983:231) the really persuasive task is to get individuals to bargain at all. Nieuwmeijer (1988:4) also positively affirms that persuasion is a communication process that results in a change of attitude or behaviour.

According to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:6) persuasion is a communicative behaviour intended to change, modify or shape the responses, attitudes or behaviour of the receiver. An important aspect of persuasion, asserts Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:6), is behavioural change.

Persuasion is regarded as a key component of negotiation. As Pienaar and Spoeltra (1991:6) and Weber (1992:137) observe, persuasive communication is highly regarded as part of negotiation and extremely useful when opinions, attitudes and behaviours have to be changed. It should be distinguished from intimidation or force where the behavioural change is not by choice (Mampuru & Spoelstra,

1994:31).

Thus, persuasion is an act of changing attitudes or behaviour of the receiver by inducing him to do or believe something by way of reasoning, arguing or by influence.

Mediation is also a concept that is closely related to negotiation.

### 2.3.2 Mediation

According to Pruitt and Carnevale (1993:166) mediation is defined as the process through which agreements are reached with the aid of a neutral third party or "helper". The neutral third party, according to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:6) should have no decision-making power and no vested interest in either of the two parties. The mediation should mainly act as a communication and problem-solving catalyst, or as an agent to maximize the exploration and operation of alternatives. The responsibility for the final agreement rests with the conflicting parties.

The above description is the normally - understood meaning of mediation.

Anstey (1994:249) defines mediation as a form of third-party intervention into disputes, directed at assisting disputants to find a mutually acceptable settlement. Although mediators may operate from a high - or low power base they are not accorded authoritative decision-making power but are empowered to facilitate.

In the Education Labour Relations Council (hereafter called the ELRC) Dispute Resolution Procedures (1999:Annexure A) mediation is defined as a process by which a dispute between two or more parties is facilitated by a neutral third party with a view to resolving the dispute. This process may include fact-finding by the same facilitator and includes a formal written report on the nature and shape of the dispute including a settlement proposal. Such a proposal is not binding on any party.

As can be seen from these arguments, the definition of mediation in the ELRC Dispute Resolution Procedures is different to the normally understood meaning of the term.

Given these points, mediation can be regarded as an extension of the negotiation process as the mediator seeks to enhance communication between parties and to assist in finding creative ways to identify mutually acceptable solutions to common problems.

Arbitration, a concept that in most cases is easily confused with mediation, will be explained below.

### 2.3.1 Arbitration

Reece and Brandt (1990:367) identify voluntary arbitration as a process in which both parties have willingly submitted their disagreements to a neutral third party. They further regard compulsory arbitration as a process that implies the involvement of the government in a dispute which threatens national health and safety.

Kennerley (1994:3) regards arbitration as a method of resolving disputes between parties without recourse to the law. He adds that it is voluntary in nature that procedures have to be followed beforehand, that it requires goodwill from both parties and that trust in the arbitrators who are asked to decide the issue is necessary. According to Kennerley (1994:4) it is important to realize that arbitration is an outcome of a failure to agree.

As derived from the ELRC Dispute Resolution Procedures (1999:Annexure A), arbitration can be seen as a process in which a dispute between two or more parties is adjudicated by a neutral third party with the aim to resolve the dispute by making an award that is binding on such parties.

The Labour Relations Act (66/1995) incorporates arbitration as one of the main processes through which many disputes are to be resolved, including dismissals for misconduct and incapacity.

Arbitration can accordingly take many forms depending on the intentions of the parties and the requirements imposed by legislation:

- Final and binding arbitration (the most usual form of arbitration, and used extensively in the Labour Relation Act e.g. Section 143(1).
- Arbitration subject to an appeal (The Labour Relations Act, for example, provides for a limited right of appeal in specific instances e.g. Section 24(7).
- Advisory arbitration, in terms of which the parties are not bound by the arbitrator's determination which has only persuasive influence (eg. Section 64(2) and 135(3)(c).

Arbitration can therefore be seen as a settlement of a question by a person to whom the parties agree

to refer their claims, in order to help them to obtain an equitable decision.

Conciliation, just like arbitration and mediation, is a negotiation concept that is closely inked and easily confused with similar concepts and it will therefore be explained hereunder.

#### 2.3.4 Conciliation

According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1976:471), conciliation is the intervention in a dispute by an outsider who seeks to achieve agreement between the disputing parties, for example the mediation of a labour dispute by a third party, governmental or private, having no power to compel settlement of the dispute but instead relying on persuasion and suggestions.

Within the document entitled the International Labor Office (ILO) Conciliation in industrial Disputes: A practical guide, conciliation is described as the practice by which the services of a neutral third party are used in a dispute as a means of helping the disputing parties to reduce the extent of their differences and to arrive at an amicable settlement or agreed solution.

In the ELRC Dispute Resolution Procedures (1999:Annexure A) conciliation means a process by which a dispute between two or more parties is facilitated by a neutral third party - which process is not binding on any party and which process is aimed at resolving the dispute between such parties without presenting a formal settlement proposal at the end of the process.

Thus, conciliation is a broader term than mediation and can be used to describe a range of third party initiatives used to assist parties to reach settlement without imposing a settlement on them.

In the literature bargaining is also seen as an aspect closely related to negotiation.

#### 2.3.5 Bargaining

A great deal of confusion exists between bargaining and negotiation. According to the Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982), bargaining is "an agreement on terms of give and take; come to terms ...", while negotiation is to "confer with another with a view to compromise, to arrange or to bring out".

Bargaining, according to Nieuwmeijer (1988:8), is a face-to-face competitive interaction process

while negotiation can be seen as being co-operative.

Du Toit (1991:18) explains that according to the basis of the framework of Bacharach and Lawler (1981:xii, xiii) bargaining is grounded in two conditions: a scarcity of resources that fosters competition among those that need the same resources and an uneven allocation of resources that creates the need for exchange between parties who need each other's different resources. In other words, from the explanation given, bargaining is ultimately based on some level of dependence or interdependence in the social relationship (Bacharach & Lawler, 1981:39).

Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:5) observe that bargaining relates to a monetary transaction between two people. It is tacitly understood by both parties that the buyer will try to obtain the lowest price that he can from the seller, so the seller puts his price up higher than he would expect to get and gradually brings it down in response to the 'bargaining' of the buyer.

According to these definitions negotiation and bargaining aim to reach an agreement or compromise through the process of give or take. Consequently, bargaining can be regarded to as an agreement between two parties in settling a transaction between them.

Collective bargaining is also an important concept of negotiation and will be explained below.

#### 2.3.6 Collective bargaining

According to Nieuwmeijer (1988:8) collective bargaining is a negotiation process between two or more parties consisting of groups of people acting collectively. The purpose is to come to an agreement on issues that concern the group as a whole (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:6).

Nel *et al.* (1998:148) describes collective bargaining as a process whereby representatives of the workers and representatives of the employers meet with each other to reach an agreement on conflicting interests.

According to the *Labour Relations Guide* (vol.1: 1-12) the new Act recognizes the need to attempt to resolve disputes of mutual interest by means of collective bargaining, including claims for higher salaries and wages, terms and conditions of employment.

Thus, collective bargaining occurs when a number of individuals acting together for the purpose of

wage negotiations or terms and conditions of employment act collectively on matters affecting them.

Lobbying is the next concept closely related to negotiation and is explained below.

### 2.3.7 Lobbying

Lobbying, asserts Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:7), includes influencing a person or persons influential enough to advance an issue or viewpoint. As Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:32) observe lobbying is usually found in national and international negotiations where one party tries to pressurize the other directly or indirectly through a third party to accept its point of view or objective.

Yaw Fosu-Amoah (1999:14) finds that lobbying is to influence a person or persons or members of a lawmaking body to support or oppose certain actions either through voting or a change of minds.

Lobbying can therefore be seen as an attempt to use an influential person in favour of one's own interest.

In the next section the significance of negotiation will be briefly discussed looking at the doctrines studying it and its value in one to one interactions.

## 2.4 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF NEGOTIATION

In life there is no shortage of disputes. Disputes occur at all levels: between husband and wife, between neighbours, between employees and their employers, between developers and environmentalists, between groups within a nation state and between nations themselves (Tribe, 1994:1). There are many ways to settle such disputes and misunderstandings: some by court of law, some privately and some by established rituals occurring in a legal or quasi-legal context. Irrespective of the process of settlement, be it formal or informal, successful or unsuccessful, there arises a need for negotiation, an interactive social process for people to engage in if they aim to reach an agreement with one another (Cloete, 1992:232; Tribe, 1994:1). The above is regarded by Tribe as the simplest form of negotiation. As Kramer and Messick (1995:167) observe negotiation is a response to conflict which, according to Anstey (1994:1), provides the rationale for negotiation.

It should be regarded as a given that there is a body of research which reveals that co-operation between the various parties in organizations is of paramount importance for effective functioning.

Kemp (1995:27) observes that it is through an interaction process, based on the 'human needs theory', that negotiation will contribute to greater consensus and co-operation between parties who have different frames of reference, that meaningful co-operation can be attained. It is through this process, adds Kemp (1995:27), that barriers of trust, ethnocentrism, stereotyping and antagonism could be overcome.

More complex negotiating processes occur between Trade Unions and management with the aim of reaching agreement on conditions of service for employees within political contexts, for example between politicians and interested groups (Tribe, 1994:2).

The significance of negotiations cannot be over-emphasized. The number of disciplines studying it testifies to this. According to Nieuwmeijer (1988:3) negotiations is being studied by social scientists from diverse fields such as management sciences, industrial psychology, political science, sociology and organizational communications. Important and new frameworks from such studies, adds Kramer and Messick (1995:vii), have infused research and inspired a new and deeper understanding of the negotiation process.

According to Tribe (1994:2) negotiation is also an important lawyering task which was rarely recognized in the past as a necessary skill or process. Tribe observes that, less than 10% of disputes actually go to trial while the majority of cases are being settled by negotiation at early or later stages of the pre-trial process, meaning that negotiation has assumed a central role in legal practice.

Kemp (1995:27-28) mentions four values with regard to the importance of negotiation:

- The conflicting parties, using the human-needs perspective, focuses their energies on the joint solution of the problem(s) instead of the 'outwitting' attitude which is found in the conventional rational interactions.
- The nature of the face-to-face interaction between the leaders of the opposing parties eradicates ethnocentrism and stereotyping as they perceive each other as individuals.
- Distrust and threats are replaced by trust and an improved understanding.
- A culture develops which results in fairer-need fulfilment with the view to the opposing parties where their values and convictions are respected.

The significance of negotiation is also surfacing in the world of technology today. In the digital era each institution must have a compliance system in place. According to Duranceau (2000:1) ensuring compliance with the terms that have been negotiated presents procedural and technical issues that everyone must face. She goes on to point that it is prudent to address the key factors of compliance by negotiating reasonable, consistent rules of use and educating staff and users about them as well as preparing for a breach - rather than wait for a breach to initiate compliance efforts. The latter strategy will expose the institution to needless risk because having a compliance infrastructure in place will provide insurance against loss of access to important resources (Duranceau, 2000:7-8).

From these studies, it is clear that negotiation is a daily occurrence, occurring in employment, in social - and domestic contexts. It is through face-to-face interactions that parties with different agendas or beliefs can gain a better understanding of each other and work jointly towards building and reaching a consensus. Relationships will also be strengthened through the development of a new sense of mutual trust.

## 2.5 NEGOTIATION PRINCIPLES

In the following section principles of negotiation as researched among others by Falkenberg (1995), Nel *et al.* (1998), Giovino (1999) and Hoffmann (2001) will be highlighted.

Negotiation, as mentioned earlier by Purdy (2000:162), is a process in which a joint decision is made by two or more parties. It is a process of give and take. As Bennett (1992:34) correctly puts it negotiation cannot be entered into with an inflexible, pre-determined outcome that does not accommodate the needs and interests of the other party or parties and expect to reach an agreement. He adds that it is only through compromise that the needs and interests of all parties can be accommodated, i.e. win/win negotiations imply that the agreement has to be to the benefit of each party.

Yaw Fosu-Amoah (1999:17) finds that the urge to negotiate comes when people find that what they want or need is available only at the cost or in the form they desire through someone else. According to Bennett (1992:34) each party enters into negotiation with a view to attain the ideal outcome from the process but it seldom happens that it achieves exactly what it sets out to do. One of the cornerstones of negotiation is that the consent of the party is required for agreement. Bennett adds that such a consent has to be an informal decision obtained voluntarily. Each party decides for itself whether the agreement is close enough to what it ideally wanted from the negotiations.

For the purpose of reaching an agreement equality in the process is maintained since each party, weak or strong, can participate, put its views and interests across and use the opportunity to persuade the other parties of the merits of the case. This, adds Bennett (1992:34), is the case even where the power base of the parties differ substantially outside the negotiation room. No party can be forced into an agreement since each party decides for itself whether proposed terms of an agreement are acceptable or not. Bennett contends that "You don't have control over negotiations; it runs its own course". While it is true that you cannot predict the exact outcome of negotiation the process and contents are determined by the parties themselves.

A number of researchers, among others Fisher and Ury (1981:32-33); Tillet (1991:46-48); Evans (1992:30-33); Ury (1993:98-99); Morgan (1995:35-37) Falkeberg (1995:9-10); Shapiro (1996 15); Nel *et al.* (1998:148-150) Giovino (1999:24) and Hoffmann (2001:13) have drawn up some negotiation principles that are generally used in the corporate environment. These are depicted in the table below:

Table 2.1 Overview of negotiation principles

<p>Fisher and Ury (1981)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Separate people from the problem</li> <li>*Focus on interest not positions.</li> <li>*Design or create options for mutual gain and benefit.</li> <li>*Best alternative to a negotiated agreement.</li> </ul>	<p>Tillet (1991)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Preparation</li> <li>*Establish a positive climate</li> <li>*Avoid positions and personalities.</li> <li>*Trust</li> <li>*Cooperation</li> </ul>	<p>Evans (1992)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Planning and preparation.</li> <li>*Mutual accreditation of bargaining partners.</li> <li>*Acknowledge the legitimacy of difference.</li> <li>*Existence of common ground</li> <li>*Possession of power.</li> </ul>	<p>Ury (1993)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Don't react: go to the balcony.</li> <li>*Disarm them: step to their side.</li> <li>*Don't reject: re-frame</li> <li>*Build them a golden bridge.</li> <li>*Use power to educate.</li> </ul>	<p>Morgan (1995)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Planning</li> <li>*Re-frame</li> <li>*options to the starting lineup</li> <li>*Opening offer.</li> </ul>	<p>Falkenberg (1995)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Reaction control</li> <li>*Intense listening</li> <li>*Re-frame</li> <li>*Explore common ground</li> <li>*Explore consequences.</li> </ul>
<p>Shapiro (1996)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Planning and preparation.</li> <li>*Building trust.</li> <li>*Focus on what you want to accomplish.</li> </ul>	<p>Nel <i>et al.</i>, (1998)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Building trust.</li> <li>*Accepting negotiation in good spirit.</li> <li>*Accepting each other's negotiating status.</li> <li>*Recognise each other's power.</li> </ul>	<p>Giovino (1999)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Opening offer.</li> <li>&gt;know your walk away point.</li> <li>&gt;avoid presenting the first offer.</li> <li>&gt;never take the first offer.</li> <li>*Narrowing the gap.</li> <li>&gt;sweetening the deal.</li> </ul>	<p>Hoffman (2001)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Planning</li> <li>*Letting your counterpart save face (golden bridge)</li> <li>*Never participate in fraudulent deals (trust)</li> <li>*Follow appropriate protocol</li> <li>*Nothing is negotiated under the table</li> <li>*Some things are not negotiable</li> <li>*Don't disclose confidential information</li> <li>*Win/win concept.</li> </ul>		

From this overview of negotiation principles it is eminent that some writers share some common principles. These are the following:

- Planning and preparation.
- Opening offer.
- Reaction control.
- Accept each other's status.
- Explore common ground.
- Explore consequences.
- Reframe.
- Building a golden bridge.

These principles also represent a certain sequence that will be discussed next.

The first step to take before entering into negotiations is to plan and prepare a strategy that will take you through the whole process of negotiation.

#### 2.5.1 Planning and preparation

A large body of research on negotiation indicates that thorough planning and preparation should precede all negotiation principles in order for negotiations to be successful. Preparation, according to Tillett (1991:46-48), includes all those elements that are essential for the resolution of the conflict or problem; careful identification of and reflection of the need of both parties and an evaluation of options, costs and benefits.

Since no one is born a negotiator care should be taken when choosing the right person in an organisation or community to undertake the negotiation. According to Evans (1992:30) such a person and the support team should be trained and experienced in what they are seeking to do. If negotiations are to be done by teams each person must have his or her functions to carryout.

In selecting a negotiating team, asserts Morgan (1994:35), selectors must opt for individuals who are far-sighted, persuasive, constructive, flexible, decisive and softly spoken. In an event, where circumstances do not warrant a team, the negotiation will be carried out by a single employee. Care must be taken not to choose a person with an aggressive/driver type personality.

To avoid costly blunders, today's negotiators need to be more resilient yet steadfast and more creative yet credible (Hoffmann, 2001:1).

According to Shapiro (1996:1) planning and preparation represents 80% of the success factor in negotiations.

Preparation must include adequate research of all necessary data and information regarding a proposal and its possible outcomes and a series of what-if scenarios. It must not only include all the necessary data and information of one party but also of the other side, together with its interests, history, negotiating strengths, hidden agendas etcetera.

The preparation must include the establishment of a positive climate for negotiation to take place. A positive climate includes a sense of openness, trust, communication, honesty and preparedness to consider the other side.

Hoffmann (2001:3) reiterates the importance of planning in negotiations. Realistic objectives that include all the goals that are to be achieved should be established, the field should be sized and the other side's needs and personalities should be established. An organisational consensus should be built and a value proposition designed. The negotiators should also think of the best possible alternatives that could be proposed during the negotiation together with the legal implications of action that could be taken.

Poorly planned negotiations could be fatal as the negotiators would lack direction and confidence that could have resulted in valuable agreements for all the parties.

The next step, which is the most crucial in negotiations, is the presentation of the opening offer.

#### 2.5.2 Opening offer

The opening offer is one of the most critical moments of the negotiation. Before the negotiators enter the negotiation, they should know their walk-away point, which implies that negotiators should have a clear idea of what they want out of the process and what would be minimally acceptable to them. Once the party had decided on their walk-away point the other party must not know about it (Giovino, 1999:2).

As far as Morgan (1994:37) is concerned the party should delay divulging their own opening offer because if they make the other party present theirs first, they will have a better idea of what they should offer. The party should rather use silence to get the other side to show their hand first.

Another important point cited by the writers is never to accept the first offer, no matter how reasonable it is. Accepting the first offer presented to the party makes it look over-eager and might give the other side a greater sense of control, or it might cause the other side to feel as though they have lost that part of the negotiation and would like to retaliate on the next issue. Accepting the first offer might also create the impression that you are weak and could cause the party dearly later during the negotiations.

Morgan warns against pitching too high if a party is compelled to state their starting stance and advises that the party should rather be credible. Giovino confirms this by saying that the party's initial offer should not be their walk-away point but should be an offer that is more advantageous to them. The writers warn that too high an offer might seriously impair the team's credibility and in the end they might have to settle for significantly less than they originally demanded.

To avoid making a blunder that might cause the party dearly, authors advise that parties need to be patient. If the other party realises the over-eagerness of their opponents they might capitalise on it. A mutually satisfactory outcome is the prime objective and not the speed with which it is reached.

In order for parties to create a climate that is conducive to resolving the more difficult issues with this principle, they should avoid more contentious matters in the early stages of the wrangling and rather open with matters that are reasonably important to both sides and appear relatively easy to settle.

Another important step is how to maintain a cool head when tempers flare.

### 2.5.3 Reaction control

The authors Fisher and Ury (1981:32), Ury (1993:98) and Morgan (1994:35) agree that when things are going badly during the negotiations, one should try for a break, even if it means having to make up a fast excuse. The break is mainly used to come with better ways to handle the tension and get one's emotions under control.

According to Fisher and Ury (1981) people should be separated from the problem. Because everybody is entitled to his/her own opinion, which should be recognised, nobody has the right to attack the

other person when interests clash. In negotiations, the legitimacy of differing viewpoints and mutual accreditation of opponents as legitimate bargaining partners should be recognised (Fisher & Ury, 1981; Evans, 1992:33). Adequate time and energy must be used in defining and finding solutions to the problem.

Ury's "going to the balcony" is meant to buy time for the negotiator in stressful situations, which allows him/her not to respond immediately when being antagonised, but to maintain a sound perspective on the negotiation.

Falkenberg (1993) observes that if someone does not react to extreme provocation then one should know that he is dealing with a top level master of the art and science of negotiation.

Various techniques that negotiators can use to control their reactions include biting ones tongue, counting up to ten before replying or staying silent. By so doing, the negotiators are mentally able to "climb a tree" as they effectively remove themselves from the fray and observe what is happening from a mental distance. They are able to widen the gap between stimulus and response and thus become truly capable of choosing how to respond (Falkenberg, 1995:9). Other tactics used to diffuse the aggression of fellow negotiators include a smoke or cloak-room break, calling for a caucus or taking a biological break.

After emotions have been controlled the next step to follow is to accept and recognise each others' status and authority.

#### 2.5.4 Accept each others' status

It is important to acknowledge the legitimacy of difference as it is not a crime to have differing viewpoints in a democracy (Evans, 1992:33).

Nel *et al.* (1998:148-150) states that the parties need to recognise and respect each other's independence and the fact that there will be fundamental differences between them. By virtue of the fact that the negotiators are not representing themselves but their principals, the mandate of their constituencies should be respected by both parties.

Ury (1993:99) also emphasises the need for parties to acknowledge each other's points of view and authority and not to try to polarise the situation.

Exploring common ground is also an important negotiation principle.

#### 2.5.5 Explore common ground

Evans (1992:33) and Falkenberg (1995:10) regard this technique as an important negotiation principle as it searches for commonality or complementarity in the needs and interests of the parties involved. The legitimacy of the existence of common ground in negotiations by both parties is emphasised.

The technique in this principle include the structuring of questions so that the answer is positive even though the contents remain divergent, recalling the road travelled together and restating every possible area of common ground, even the obvious ones.

Negotiation is not only about what you want but also about educating your opponents or learning from them.

#### 2.5.6 Explore consequences

From an analysis of literature, this approach is crystallised by educating the other side. This technique is mainly used when a group of negotiators or a person refuses all invitations to re-frame the game higher up the hierarchy, who is stuck in the strategic styles of confrontation and competition.

According to Falkenberg (1995:10) with this approach negotiators will try to involve the other party in teasing out the probable consequences to all parties of continuing at the current level on the hierarchy. By so doing they are avoiding threats and instead invite all parties to consider the consequences of any party being pushed beyond its bottom-line. The approach is to educate the other side as to the reality of the situation and the consequences of that reality for all involved.

Some writers contend that if the other side resists all options then power should be used to educate them about the costs of not agreeing. Ury (1993:99) emphasises the importance of leaving the “golden bridge” open for them to save face. As he puts it, the mindset is to bring them to their senses, not to their knees, and to allow them to back away without backing down.

This technique is meant to be educative with the hope that the other parties will see that there is a better way and a higher level.

The next step to follow is how to re-frame the negotiations.

### 2.5.7 Re-framing

This technique takes place when negotiators are being polarised. Some authors contend that this happens when negotiators discuss the threats of the other party as if they were positions, their positions as options and their options as inputs to inventions.

Falkenberg (1995:10) explicitly typifies this technique by adding that re-framing the game happens when any destructive, confrontational approach is treated as though it were distributive and competitive.

Re-framing can take place by asking problem-solving questions rather than outrightly rejecting the other party's proposal. Analysis of literature shows that re-framing is done to encourage the other party to shift up a level in their way of thinking and behaving (Ury, 1993:98).

After re-framing the talks, the next step of designing or creating options for mutual gain comes into view.

### 2.5.8 Building a "golden bridge"

The analysis of literature shows that this technique is crystallised by "saving face" of the opponents. It is mainly meant to make it easier for the opposite side to agree and make the outcome appear as a victory for them.

Hoffmann (2001:1) mentions it explicitly when he iterates that if you let your counterparts save face when their prestige is challenged it can easily make the difference between making or breaking a deal.

According to Giovino (1993:3), to bring the other party closer to your offer or to get what you want, is to sweeten the deal or to narrow the gap, that is to give the other side something that you know they want. This leads the negotiators to come up with options to the various parties' starting line-up. The ability to invent options, as Morgan observes (1994:37), is one of the most useful negotiation skills anyone around the table could hope to have. The important thing is not to criticise the other party's options but simply to negotiate with them in good faith.

This technique calls for a design or creation of options for mutual gain and benefit. If the other

party knows and have assessed their opponents' main interest, they are able to plan as to how and to what extent those interests might be realised while being consistent with achieving their own interests as fully as possible. According to Fisher and Ury (1983) one should always endeavour to insist on and achieve objective criteria in weighing and assessing the points put forward. It is of vital importance to focus on what you want to accomplish but also to remember the needs of the persons with whom you are negotiating (Shapiro, 1996:2).

Divergent subjective viewpoints can only be settled in an orderly fashion by an arbitrator or judge. The intention of entering into negotiations is to seek to arrive at a result by avoiding arbitration and the best way of achieving this is to appeal for objective criteria as far as possible (Evans, 1992:32).

The intention, it seems, of applying this competence in negotiations is to raise the level of negotiations above confrontation and competition and, if achieved, long-term relationship will be established.

#### 2.5.9 Build relationships based on trust

From the views of different writers it is clear that this principle cannot be overlooked or ignored since untrustworthiness would breed suspicion and may lead to dishonesty in negotiations.

According to Nel *et al.* (1998:148), parties should not give misleading information and participate in fraudulent deals in order for this principle to succeed. If the negotiator lies, the other party buys into it and damage results (Hoffmann, 2001:3).

The parties need to put agreements in writing and comply with official and non-official procedures and rules which include the following: protecting the confidentiality of information of the parties. This can only be done if covered under a confidentiality agreement as to the legal framework for exchanging such information (Hoffmann, 2001:4). The agreed-upon negotiation procedures should be upheld and the appropriate protocol followed.

Building trust does not only mean getting the people with whom you are negotiating to trust you and sign on to your new idea, but also means to generate trust among those who would be involved in implementing the change (Shapiro, 1996:2).

Hoffmann contends that negotiators should reach out and build productive and effective long-term relationships that should precede all serious negotiations and that the strengthened through

development of a new sense of mutual trust. If the process of negotiation is approached in the right manner and every party is honest and reasonable, the outcome is likely to be favourable for all concerned. A firm but friendly approach will accord with respect and democracy.

#### 2.5.10 Conclusion

There is widespread agreement in the literature that in most instances, people who handle important negotiations are chosen because they are talented administrators, lawyers or engineers. The problem is that they are seldom talented or experienced negotiators, so they fail to achieve optimal results.

Clearly, every party around the negotiation table will have their own approach but there are tactics that inexperienced and less sophisticated negotiators may use to improve their success rate and raise their level of competence and effectiveness. Negotiating principles are part of the negotiating game and not an attempt to wound or overpower the other party.

It is worth mentioning that, given the facts that most of our black schools still find themselves in a state of anarchy, resisting change and in crisis situations, the principals as managers of their schools should lead and open the process of negotiation, practice and apply the negotiation principles in their endeavour to build good relations with all the stakeholders in the school and develop a sense of mutual trust-enhancing in the process.

In addition to utilising the negotiation principles, principals should know the process to be followed when negotiating in order to arrive at an outcome that is favourable to all concerned.

## 2.6 THE PROCESS OF NEGOTIATION

Negotiation is a process that consists of the following three phases (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:16; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:35; Theron, 2002:202-203):

- The need to negotiate and the preparation for the negotiation (prelude).
- Face-to-face persuasive communication (duration).
- The implementation of the agreement (termination).

These three phrases usually follow a logical order and deals with the following key issues:

## 2.6.1 Phase 1: prelude

Parties prepare themselves to enter into negotiations. Their objectives, issues, standpoints, strategies and tactics to be followed are outlined. There are important practices that should occur in this phase that are relevant for school managers to apply when negotiating with teachers.

### 2.6.1.1 Practices during the prelude phase

The most important practices that apply in this phase are the following (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1993:87-88; Theron, 2002:212):

- Know the subject of the negotiation: the subject which led to the request of the negotiation should be made known and an agenda drawn up.
- The parties prepare for negotiations: once the topic is known, the parties are expected to come to the negotiation table well prepared.
- Arrangements are made and details circulated in advance: the time and place of the negotiations as well as the names of the teams should be established and agreed upon in advance.
- Set time limits: the expected duration of the negotiation should be specified.
- Accurate information is made available: information that is needed by the other party for preparation should be made available.
- Confidential information remains private: parties should not reveal information that was regarded as confidential.
- Protection of informants: information that was informally obtained in confidence from a member of the other party should not be revealed during or after the negotiation.

## 2.6.2 Phase 2: duration / face-to-face

The parties meet on a face-to-face basis to present their matter, using outlined argumentation, strategies and tactics to persuade one another to accept various proposals. The phase is characterised by

persuasive techniques and ends when the parties reach consensus and formalise an agreement.

#### 2.6.2.1 Practices during the face-to-face (duration) phase

The most important practices during this phase are the following (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:89-91; Theron, 2002:167-169):

- **Active participation:** parties demonstrate this by being actively involved in the whole process of negotiation, without being begged to do so.
- **Both parties need to be heard:** each party should be granted an opportunity to present its case in full with the other party listening attentively.
- **Previous agreements remain in force:** all previous agreements made as a result of prior negotiations should be respected. Any intended deviation from this practice should be negotiated.
- **Established facts should not be countered with abstract pronouncements:** measurable and testable facts that are presented by a party to justify their position should not be countered on grounds that are subjective and value-laden. Proof has to be provided to substantiate the query.
- **Demands should be made at an early stage:** in situations in which bargaining occurs demands by parties should be stated early in the process.
- **A demand should be expressed in concrete terms:** a party wishing to change an existing situation has to indicate clearly what is to be changed, and in what respect it is to change.
- **A counter-demand should be communicated at an early stage:** a party wishing to introduce a counter-demand in response to demands that have been made upon should do so at an early stage in the negotiation. To introduce counter-demands at the last minute effectively returns the negotiations to the starting point, resulting in a possible delay to an agreement.
- **Offers stand as made:** an amendment to an offer should be negotiated.
- **Sanctions are a last resort:** sanctions are only considered when all attempts at

reaching a settlement had failed. If sanctions are used to force a solution they may create an antagonistic climate and may force the other party to take defensive measures.

- Request for adjournment should be respected: where the purpose of adjournment is to consult the party or person(s) being represented or for the other negotiating party to discuss the other party's proposals in private it should be granted and respected. The duration of the adjournment should be negotiated before it begins.
- An adjournment should have a purpose: the adjournment should contribute positively to the negotiation. It can aid development or breathe new life into a negotiation but should not solely be used as a tactic or a substitute for negotiation.
- Minutes should be kept: each party takes its own minutes. As soon as an agreement is reached it is recorded in writing and the wording checked with the other party. At the end the minutes should be discussed in their entirety. It is important to be selective as everything cannot be noted down.
- Final agreements should be signed jointly: at the end of the negotiation, all the agreements are summarised in a final document. After it has been checked for accuracy it is signed by all the parties in the presence of one another.
- Recommencement of negotiations: if the parties are not able to reach a settlement in time agreed before closure an agreement can be made to meet again at a given time, place and venue.

### Phase 3: Termination

Negotiations are terminated once an outcome and agreements had been reached, all decisions been implemented in their entirety by the two parties and the original reason for entering into negotiations ceases to exist (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:56).

#### 2.6.3.1 Practices during the termination phase

The most important practices during this phase are the following (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:89-91, Theron, 2002:167-169):

- Good faith must be demonstrated: this will be evident when, after the conclusion

of negotiations, both parties have something to implement to prove their good faith.

- Implementation should follow agreement: this means that set time frames, procedures and specified standards should be strictly observed.
- Unilateral amendments and adjustments are unacceptable: any change from the negotiation agreement should be negotiated and agreed upon with the other party. Any divergence from the agreement by one of the parties nullifies the other party's obligation to observe it.

Over and above the steps that have to be taken as part of the planning and preparation, situational factors such as time and place should be taken into consideration. More basic matters such as tea-breaks, meals, secretarial and record-keeping facilities, media coverage, seating arrangements and other related items must be sorted out to the satisfaction of all the parties involved (Nel *et al.*, 1998:151).

According to Fong (1996:2) current negotiators relish digging into details and demonstrating their knowledge, arming themselves with detailed analyses and facts to support their position with the aim of overwhelming the other side with logic. With this type of approach, negotiators expend energy defending their positions rather than creating good deals for both sides, damaging good working relationships and rarely reaching a win/win situation where both sides are satisfied with the outcome.

The parties are usually mutually dependent upon one another for reaching their respective objectives or satisfying their needs hence it is impossible for them to find solutions without the cooperation of the other party (Theron, 2002:204). A new bargaining tool - interest-based negotiation - is the answer (Stepp *et al.*, 1998:1). The essence of interest-based negotiation, continues Stepp *et al.* (1998:1) is information sharing, creative exploration and working towards mutually beneficial solutions.

Planning and preparation, which is critical to successful negotiation, consists of various steps and include matters like content, extent, form, expectations of the parties and objectives (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:26). Besides the technical details - as negotiations deal with human beings who have experiences - values, viewpoints and reactions different from the other party, preparation should also focus on the human side of negotiating (Fong, 1996:3). Negotiators do not think alike, so additional data to build trust, understanding and respect between both sides is essential.

The negotiation process has been widely discussed in the literature and several authors have proposed

Ritson, 1993:45-48; Tribe, 1994:43-46; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:42-46; Fong, 1996:1-5; Stepp *et al.*, 1998:1-9; Nel *et al.*, 1998:150-153). These contributions are summarised in table 2.2. This work has been mostly influenced by the contributions of Fong (1996:1-5) and Stepp *et al.*, (1998:1-9) as their contributions are based on the conflict of interests and this chapter reflects their steps but sought also to incorporate the contributions of a wide range of other theorists in the field.

These studies show the following:

- Negotiations cannot be entered into if thorough preparations and planning have not been done by both parties. A lack of these means that negotiations are doomed to fail.
- The three phases should be followed in a logical order to ensure the smooth running of the process.
- The aim with the negotiation process is not only to find a mutually beneficial solution to problems but also to build good relationships for future negotiations to take place.

From an overview of suggested steps for the process of negotiation as depicted in table 2.2, it is clear that some of the steps are shared by theorists. These steps will be integrated and discussed under the following headings:

Step 1: Describe and define the issue.

Step 2: Identify, clarify and explore interests.

Step 3: Create options.

Step 4: Agree on criteria.

Step 5: Test the options against criteria.

Step 6: Document the agreement in writing.

Table 2.2  
Steps in the negotiation process

POTTAS AND NEWMEIJER (1992)	DE BEER AND RITSON (1993)	NEL (1993; 1998)	TRIBE (1994)	FRANKLIN (1996)	STEPP (1998)
1. Preparation - decide what the topic of the negotiation is - research and gathering of information - analyses and evaluation of the information - the formulation of objectives - the preparation of the face to face phase - decide on the presentation of the matter	1. Preceding - planning	1. Preparation	1. Agenda setting	1. Preparation	1. Describe and define issues
2. Duration	1. Clarification - restructuring	1. Interaction (face to face)	2. Clarification of the facts - setting objectives and opening offers Evaluation and repositioning	2. Clarify interests for both parties - formulate multiple options -use objective criteria - refine agreement	2. Identify and explore interests - create options - agree on criteria -test options against criteria
3. Termination	3. Closing	3. Administration	3. Closing	3. Document the agreement in writing	3. Write the contract language

The steps also represent a certain sequence which will be discussed next.

**Step 1:** Describe and define the issue.

The bargainers describe and define the issue such as the topic to be discussed and/or the problem to be resolved (Theron, 2002:204). This step is of critical importance, because if the issue is defined too narrowly it may allow little opportunity to develop an adequate option pool. If defined too broadly on the other hand, it may lead to frustration and exasperation. The rule of thumb is to be as specific as possible in defining the issue without becoming so specific that only part of the described problem can be resolved (Stepp *et al.*, 1998:5). This step gives direction to the matter when referring to preparation and record-keeping.

**Step 2:** Identify, clarify and explore interests.

Given that the process is interest-driven well-developed and clearly articulated interests are essential. The parties must exhibit a genuine desire to understand the other's point of view. Interests by their very nature must be accepted as legitimate and not-to-be-debated. The parties must ask questions and confirm their understanding of interests.

It is also useful to determine which of the interests are mutual, as a means of quickly surfacing common or shared interests, which in turn reveals fertile opportunities for developing viable options. Interests not shared by both parties are regarded as separate interests and are shelved as they may be required to be satisfied in the final solution (Fong, 1996:3; Stepp *et al.*, 1998:5).

At this point the other party could seek to resolve differences through further investigation and through listening to and questioning the other side (Tribe, 1994:44).

**Step 3:** Creating options.

The key to success in this step is to go for quality. A technique to encourage brainstorming is to focus on the list of interests. Multiple options should be formulated in addressing the expressed interests of both sides and not to prejudice any ideas so as to satisfy as many of the interests as possible (Tribe, 1994:45; Fong, 1996:3; Stepp *et al.*, 1998:5).

**Step 4:** Agreeing on criteria.

With this step, the parties need to agree on criteria they will use to evaluate the options. Since criteria are the gauges by which options are measured, compared and judged, this is a difficult step, especially since few exist. One of the best gauges for evaluating options is the respective interest of the parties, since there are generally few interests that must be satisfied for the solution to be viable or acceptable. Coming to agreement on these and any other appropriate criteria determines the outcome of this step (Fong, 1996:3; Stepp *et al.*, 1998:5).

**Step 5:** Testing the options against the criteria.

With this step the agreement needs to be refined to ensure balance and acceptability for the parties (Fong, 1996:3). Evaluating each option in light of the agreed-upon criteria can inhibit dialogue which can become overly mechanical, (Stepp *et al.*, 1998:5-6). Several techniques can be applied that can enable the parties to avoid getting bogged down:

- Review the list of options and focus on those that present broad approaches to solving the problem.
- Give each participant a marker and ask him or her to place a checkmark next to the options presented and that he or she believes best meet the criteria. The heavily favoured options then become the primary focal points.

**Step 6:** Documenting the agreements in writing

The agreement details, commitments made, metrics to measure progress and criteria to declare a successful outcome should be documented in writing. In drafting the agreement confusion or gaps may appear requiring clarification from the drafting committee. The final written solution comes back to the group to ensure the group's consensus approval (Fong, 1996:3; Nel *et al.*, 1998:153; Stepp *et al.*, 1998:6; Theron, 2002:206).

If all the steps are followed in sequence they can promote and create the optimal negotiation.

#### 2.6.4 Synthesis.

It is clear that the practices during the prelude, the face-to-face and the termination phases seem to be very important skills that negotiators need to practice in order to negotiate effectively.

The extent to which the following practices are used by school managers when negotiating with teachers at schools will be determined empirically by the questionnaire in chapter 4:

- Prelude phase and its practices.
- Duration phase and its practices.
- Termination phase and its practices.

In the next section attention will be given to various approaches to negotiation from which the parties can make a choice that fit into their plans.

### 2.7 APPROACHES TO NEGOTIATION

Approaches to negotiation have been widely discussed in the literature and several authors have proposed two approaches above the rest that will be briefly discussed (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:8; Pienaar & Spoelstra 1991:8-11; Anstey, 1994:111-114; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:34-35; Venter, 1999:31-32).

The choice of approach depends on a variety of factors including the nature of the issue at stake, the history of relations between the parties, their respective bargaining skills, ideological influences, constituencies and the intensity of the conflict (Anstey, 1994:112). Another factor that Anstey adds when it comes to a choice of approaches is the extent to which parties have a concern about their own and each other's outcomes, whether they are concerned only about how much they can achieve out of the exchange or whether they also have concerns about the relationship and the extent to which the other's needs can be met for the purpose of nurturing positive longer term relations.

The contributions of the authors towards the suggested integrated approach and the Distributive approach will be incorporated and briefly discussed below.

### 2.7.1 The integrated approach

The available relevant literature shows that this approach is crystallised by the win-more-win-more model since both parties attempt to achieve the greatest gain with the smallest possible loss for the other party by means of cooperation. This approach seems to be the most commonly used model of communication since it takes place in everyday life situations where managers negotiate with each other about budgets and projects and company representatives negotiate with suppliers.

In this form of negotiation disagreements are seen to be more costly than compromise and gains and losses need to be equalised. Authors are optimistic that with the integrative approach the relationship between parties is strengthened and maintained, since there could be future dependence of the parties on each other (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:13).

### 2.7.2 The distributive approach

An analysis of literature shows that this approach is crystallised by a win/lose model since both parties go into the negotiation with the objective to win for themselves regardless of what happens to the other side.

This approach is central to labour negotiations and is usually regarded as the dominant activity in the union-management relationship (Anstey, 1994:125). The approach tends to centre on substantive issues such as wages, overtime rates leave or fringe benefits. According to research the actions of one party will be directed at the other party rather than at solving the problem and power tactics will be employed to shift the opponents to a position that most closely approximates the position of the other party.

It can be concluded that since the approach itself refers to the activity of dividing limited resources among the disputants it will always occur in situations in which one party wins what the other party loses. The basic objective of each negotiating team will be to bring the other party as closely as possible to its own desired outcome.

The next section will highlight some of the common mistakes usually made by negotiators during the process of negotiation.

## 2.8 COMMON MISTAKES THAT OCCUR DURING NEGOTIATION

The following points are regarded as general mistakes that occur during the process of negotiation and that can also lead to intervention by a mediator ( Fosu-Amoah, 1999:33; Giovino, 1999:1-5;Theron, 2002:214-215).

- Poor listening.

The negotiators' minds are so preoccupied with what they want to say that they fail to listen properly. Listening does not only apply to the content but also to the underlying feelings and intentions of the party. Top level negotiators will use this to their advantage as they will be able to disarm their more blustery counterparts.

- Poor questioning.

If negotiators do not listen properly they will not be able to ask relevant questions, which are important as they reveal valuable information. Top level negotiators will quickly detect this deficiency and use it to outwit their opponents.

- Poor replies to questions.

Sometimes negotiators give vague answers to the questions of their opponents instead of being brief and to the point. This impedes negatively on the progress of negotiations since questions have to be repeated or reframed to get relevant answers.

- Debating instead of negotiating.

General errors made in this regard are:

- \* early rejection of alternatives.
  - \* early adoption of firm position.
  - \* immediate opposition towards the opponents proposals.
- The use of irritating tactics.

A typical problem here is the usage of the language that irritates or offends opponents. The language used in negotiation should not offend the other party for instance calling it a capitalist or a slave driver.

- Notes and minutes not kept.

Negotiators should be selective when taking notes or keeping minutes since everything cannot be noted down. Only important arguments, statements and facts need to be minuted. In so doing, the party will be able to check their understanding of what the other party is saying by reflecting it back on them.

- Too much aggression.

An aggressive negotiator will bum bridges rather than building them. Aggression will impede negotiating and will make it much more difficult to reach agreements. Instead of trying to counter the other party's aggression one must try for a break and get one's emotions under control.

- Abandon win/lose negotiation.

This win/lose approach always results in a failed or less than optimal negotiation. An attempt must be made to care about the other person and meet his or her needs. A win/win approach, where each party gets its needs met, is the most successful way to negotiate.

- Understand that you do have power in negotiation.

The mistake people do in this instance is to buy into the belief that they do not have power. Every negotiator has the power to sign a contract or walk away. The only power that the other party has is not to give you what you want.

- Do not look so smart that you put the other party on the defence.

The mistake here is coming to the negotiation table being overconfident, even pompous. Instead, one should act professionally and human. One should look engaged and interested if the opponents come to the table looking for a win-win negotiation.

Thus, for negotiators to be successful the above skills should be learned, reviewed and implemented in every negotiation session so as to avoid the common mistakes mentioned, and as a result impeding progress towards the whole process of reaching an amicable settlement.

The following section will deal with the type of attitude that is found to be useful in negotiations.

## **2.9 ATTITUDE TO THE USE OF NEGOTIATION**

There is a perception that many school principals are afraid that by practicing negotiating skills in schools they will be lessening their powers. Educators also advanced issues such as inadequate knowledge and information in negotiation skills and the lack of identical professional training and no exposition to in-service training in negotiation skills (Theron, 1996:146) as reasons why many principals have a negative attitude towards the use of negotiation as a managerial tool in schools.

The school principals in turn (Theron, 1996:147) admit that a limited or faulty notion of how the school system functions and what their roles are in that system, uncertainty, complexity, a lack of administrative knowledge and inadequate leadership, attribute to their lack of success in implementing change in their schools: hence the wrong attitude towards negotiation.

From previous experience and as Anstey (1993:26) observes, negotiation was used cynically as a delaying tactic by other parties to benefit more than others hence the negative attitude towards it by school principals.

Auer (2002:1-3) contends that, in all negotiations, the most important issue is to have the right attitude. For the fact that the other party holds the solution to one's problems, one needs to be less than objective in analysing the other party's proposals, promises and provisions, while protecting your own and your company's interests.

The following "attitude adjustment" points could be useful in all negotiations (Auer, 2002:1-3):

- Negotiation begins when the first person in your organisation exchanges information with the other party. This is where the party gains or loses power with every succeeding interaction.
- Change your "needs" to "preferences". Needs are not negotiable but preferences

are.

- Have alternatives and set deadlines that are to the party's advantage.
- Never rely on the other party's promises unless they are fully documented.
- Negotiation are enhanced by thorough planning, knowledge, teamwork and

dedication to securing the best contract protection at the best price.

Thus, with the right attitude, frame of mind, alternatives, flexibility and thorough preparation and planning, any fears of facing negotiation can be alleviated.

## **2.10 EFFECTS OF NEGOTIATION ON SCHOOL PERFORMANCE**

As Schermerhorn (1996:381) observes, negotiation produces "wise" agreements that are truly satisfactory to all sides, since they are efficient and no more time consuming or costly than absolutely necessary.

A large body of research seems to agree that negotiation has mainly positive effects, except in situations where the parties involved show plain stubbornness and an unwillingness to reciprocate, which may call for arbitration or mediation.

Hough *et al.* (1990:2) as quoted by Fosu-Amoah (1999:40) stress that given the various options at conflict resolution, the options which promises maximum gain and minimum loss for all is negotiation, which has the effect of permanently dealing with violence, intimidation, vandalism and production of poor academic results in institutions of learning. Researchers like Keith and Girling (1991) are of the opinion that schools in which principals practice negotiation experience a significantly higher learner performance than those schools in which principals fear to negotiate or negotiate out of fear.

Negotiations establish a basis for co-operation, joint responsibility and joint problem-solving, which are fundamental for peace and smooth running of schools in a country (Fosu-Amoah, 1999:40).

As Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:1) observes, the only way to solve conflict and problems is through dedicated application of the principles of negotiation. It is in this mood that teachers,

managers of schools, departmental heads and education officials should start applying negotiation principles that will guide them in any negotiation situation, whether highly emotional or highly technical.

With negotiation bearing positive effects, the existing gap between all stakeholders in the school - managers and teachers, teachers and learners, learners and learners, the school and the community- will eventually close since everybody's interests will be shared to some degree and not opposed, thus strengthening the relationship in the process.

## **2.11 SUMMARY**

This chapter emphasises the nature of negotiation as it occurs in organisations and institutions of learning.

Firstly, based on a large body of theory and research, the chapter defined negotiation as a process, a social process and as conferring.

The chapter attempts to bring a distinction between concepts closely related to negotiation as persuasion, mediation, arbitration, conciliation, bargaining and lobbying, since they are usually confused with one another.

The significance of negotiation and its underlying principles has also been presented in an integrated, synthesised way.

Since the process of negotiation is an excessively interlaced issue it has been unbundled by means of an overview with this chapter. The different approaches to negotiation and the common mistakes that occur during the process are also highlighted.

The attitude, especially of school managers towards negotiation, and the effect it has on school performance has also received attention.

Difference of opinion and interests will always occur in organisations and institutions such as schools and this may lead to conflict. To avoid such unpleasant situations it is imperative for principals as managers of such institutions to equip themselves with the necessary negotiation skills that are needed for successful negotiation-which will form the basis of the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 3

### **THE CONTEXT AND SKILLS NEEDED IN SUCCESSFUL NEGOTIATIONS IN SCHOOLS.**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the preceding chapter some broad observations on the nature of negotiation in schools and some of its basic tenets are made. An attempt has been made to explain the nature of negotiation in its entirety and explore it in schools. This was necessary as it is a prerequisite for every principal who intends using negotiation with teachers as his or her managerial task to equip himself or herself with adequate knowledge of the nature of negotiations. Prior to learning and applying the necessary skills needed in successful negotiation the principal should acquaint himself or herself with the basics of the nature of negotiation and its process so as to acquire confidence in whatever he or she does.

During negotiations a different pattern of negotiation is sometimes needed calling for different skills. Because of a particular strategic situation, or because of the approach of the other party one should focus on building a distinct advantage for one's party.

With this chapter an endeavour is made to present the context of negotiation and the necessary skills for successful negotiations. The chapter is segmented into sections on context and skills allotment. In the section on context an explanation of successful negotiations, climate for negotiations, negotiating for common ground, characteristics of good agreement, elements of negotiation and legal aspects or basis of negotiation are prioritised. In the skills subdivision an overview of negotiation skills was presented. The chapter ends with a conclusion and a summary.

#### **3.2. CONTEXT**

There are certain conditions and circumstances that are in close relation to the skills needed for negotiation and have an influence on the outcome of negotiations. The climate under which negotiations occur, negotiating for common ground and the characteristics of what constitutes a good agreement, are contextual issues that bear influence on the skills needed for negotiations to be successful.

An explanation of successful negotiation will now be given.

### 3.2.1 Explanation of successful negotiation

The objective of most negotiations is to reach an agreement in which both parties move towards an outcome which is in their joint interest. While some negotiations reach their objective, others end in impasse.

According to Maslow negotiations always try to satisfy their own needs. For one to negotiate successfully, one must know the needs of the other party in the negotiation process (Marx *et al.*, 2002:96)

Fosu-Amoah (1999:45) in quoting Nieuwmeijer (1998) asserts that negotiation is successful when both parties are satisfied with the outcome of the negotiation and are prepared to implement the results happily to attain a desired end. Rees (1991:270) adds that successful negotiation needs to be judged against the achievement of overall objectives and not just by a relative comparison of how well the other side did. This may involve taking initiatives to ensure that there are things in a proposal which are of benefit to both sides rather than just trying to outwit the other side.

A large body of research has shown that negotiations do not end once an agreement has been reached. The process of negotiation continues until all the decisions have been implemented in their entirety by the two parties and the original reason for entering into negotiations ceases to exist (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:56; Theron, 2002:211). In other words the conflict had been eliminated or each of the parties had at least had some of its objectives realised.

The following are some of the possible situations that makes negotiations successful (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:57 and Theron, 2002:211):

- Both parties are satisfied because the conflict is over or each party has obtained some ideal outcome.
- Both parties are pleased that an agreement has been reached. Although an ideal situation has eluded them, at least the situation is better than it was before the negotiations began.
- Both parties accept that the negotiations fell short of expectations in several ways

but nevertheless regard it as better than all alternatives for negotiations (the so-called “Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement”).

- Both parties are satisfied that progress has been made, and although solutions have not been found sufficient advantages have accrued from the negotiations to have made it worthwhile.

In every negotiation there is an element of give and take. In negotiations both parties must walk away happy and satisfied from the negotiation process (Marx *et al.*, 2002:95). One must try to get everything he or she can but at the same time one must try to satisfy the needs of the other party. As Ilich (1996:3-4) correctly puts it, one must use negotiations to build relationships for the future, because one does not only do business for today but also for tomorrow - this is the key to continued success.

Thus, in negotiations there is no guarantee that one will be 100% successful but the agreement should always seek to increase a joint gain of both parties as a win/win outcome is the result everybody is hoping for. At the end of it all a mood of companionship and of mutual respect between the negotiators will emerge and form a base for future negotiations.

The climate in which negotiations are conducted plays a very predominant role and could determine the mood of the rest of the negotiations.

### 3.2.2 Negotiation climate

According to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996:47) it is during the emotional phase that the negotiation climate is established and parties make contact with each other through greetings. The manner in which the negotiators greet each other could determine the climate for the rest of the negotiations. Ilich (1996:33) asserts that a good first impression makes your opponent more receptive to your entire presentation and may take you one step closer to getting what you want.

A firm handshake followed by a warm sincere smile, even when one is nervous about the upcoming negotiation, sets the right climate for the negotiations (Marx *et al.*, 2002:101). The smile and the warm handshake say that one is prepared to approach the negotiation on an objective basis and signifies confidence on one's part. The behaviour of the parties could to a large extent influence the climate of the negotiations.

Negotiation venues and some external factors such as the form and size of the chairs, tables, size of the meeting room, the intensity of colours in the room, clothing, seating arrangements and table arrangements could all increase the likelihood of a good climate being established. The size of objects and space could have special meaning in Western society (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:53).

Thus, one should not rush into negotiations before having cultivated a positive climate because it might ruin one's chances of getting what one wants, even if one is negotiating from a solid position.

#### 3.2.2.1 Types of negotiation climate

The following five typical types of negotiation climate that occur in negotiations had been identified (Scott, 1988:27; Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:49-50; Fosu-Amoah 1999:46):

- Cordial climate - where a polite, sympathetic and friendly atmosphere exists.
- Cooperative climate - where the parties work together towards an agreement for their mutual benefit.
- Natural climate - where people accept the natural characteristics of each other and conduct negotiations in a very relaxed manner.
- Brisk climate - where parties move at a measured pace towards a settlement whilst neither wastes time nor rushes.
- Business-like climate - where the parties focus on key matters of importance to both sides to the exclusion of everything else.

In negotiations there are factors that, should they go undetected, could affect the climate established for successful negotiations.

#### 3.2.2.2 Factors that affect the climate during negotiations

The way negotiations are opened could have a crucial impact on its final outcome. As Marx *et al.* (2002:101) correctly remarks, one never gets a second chance to make a good first impression. Ilich (1996:33) reiterates then by saying that it is the right opening moves that sets the pattern for the

rest of the negotiating game.

There are, however, factors that can affect the climate of the negotiations. Factors such as the first impression, politeness of the parties during introductions, personalities of the negotiators, clothing, the way the other side expresses itself, seating arrangements, venue, size and lay-out of the first meeting, motivation and the needs of the other party - even events that occurred before the first meeting - are very important and could have a positive or a negative effect on the entire process of negotiations (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:50; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:47).

To the above list Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:75) add incidents like decorations and colour in the environment, background noise, voice tones and opening statements as some of the various factors that might have an effect on the negotiation climate.

Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996:50) observe that people base their actions and reactions on their perceptions and not on objective reality. As a result, they act on their own interpretation of the stimuli they receive. The authors are of the opinion that by virtue of the fact that people make and take decisions based on what they perceive to be reality, it is important that they understand the formation of perceptions. The initial stages of negotiations are crucial for the establishment of perceptions that may determine the conduct and outcome of the process (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:75).

Seeing that the right opening moves sets the tone for the rest of the negotiation process, it is vital to accord the others the necessary politeness and dignity, so that, regardless of the negotiation, they will earn their respect. It seems that with the establishment of the right climate, the stage will be set for the rest of the negotiation process. In the light of the above it seems that a number of factors, should they not taken into consideration, could either have a positive or a negative effect on the whole process of negotiations.

Viewed against this background, it may be concluded that factors that affect the climate during negotiations are:

- The manner in which the negotiators greet each other.
- First impressions.
- Politeness of the parties during introductions.
- Personalities of the negotiators.
- The way the other side expresses itself.

- Seating arrangements.
- Venue, size and layout of the first meeting.
- Decorations and colour in the environment.
- Background noise.
- Open statements.

The extent to which these factors that affect the climate during negotiations are used by school managers will be determined empirically in chapter 4.

The concept of common ground as one of the facets of negotiation will be discussed below.

### 3.2.3. Negotiation for common ground

Once a conducive climate for negotiations has been created, one should work actively and productively with the antagonistic party to define issues and help produce common ground.

#### 3.2.3.1 Explanation of the concept “common ground”

Common ground could be defined as those objectives that parties agree upon and that have relevance to the issue under consideration (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:76).

Stewart (1992:1) observes that from the common ground perspective the first objective is to understand how each party sees the situation, as each party, from its point of view, is reasonable in refusing what the other side is asking it to do. Johnson (1993:40-42) and Ilich (1996:22) are also of the opinion that before one can start negotiating one should learn much about the other party as it will put one in a better position of finding common ground and developing an understanding as well as influencing the opponent to come to an agreement.

Information regarding the other party should be obtained from the opponents themselves to be able to prepare thoroughly for the process of negotiation. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996:31) suggest that the opposing party should find out about the other party’s objectives, their needs and their personalities. A full diagnoses of the opponent might include their immediate and pressing problems, operating environment, their previous negotiating behaviour, their constituents, interests and motivators.

Information about the other party could be gathered and obtained by studying annual reports, by consulting publications of trading associations and by gathering information on the company on the

Internet. One other option is to sit down with the other party and simply ask questions (Marx *et al.*, 2002:97).

### 3.2.3.2 Common ground questions

To enable a group to reach agreement on common ground, remark Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:78), it is important that questions be asked of the other side about what all agree on. Once the two sides have exchanged substantive drafts of a declaration of principles (Djerejian, 1993) and objections or fears, they can be minuted and used as the basis for the rest of the talks (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:78). Common ground agreement will only be arrived at once both parties have had the opportunity to consider the questions and respond to them.

One of the most vital questions that could be asked, is “why are we here?” (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:91). Agreement can then be reached on critical aspects that are common and should then serve as a “guiding light” during talks.

Agreements both parties could make include (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:90-91; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:78-79; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:49-50):

- to consider alternative ways of working together in the future;
- to both choose systems for the future use and that will help them to work together;
- that there will be no losers;
- that both parties will be sensitive to each other’s feelings on the matter to be discussed; and
- that both parties will support each other in setting realistic goals.

Beneke (1993:78) asserts that complete and comprehensive information about the other party will enable one to set realistic goals, plan effective strategies and prepare convincing arguments. Marx *et al.* (2002:97) argues that if you are indifferent towards your opponent’s needs you may ruin your negotiation strategies because you are unconsciously threatening the needs your opponent would like to satisfy.

Viewed against the above, it seems as if common ground questions could:

- Serve as a “guiding light” during talks.
- Assist parties in planning effective strategies and prepare convincing arguments.
- Help parties in reaching agreements.

In the next section characteristics that determines a good agreement will be explained.

#### 3.2.4 Characteristics of good agreement

As stated earlier (Theron, 2002:211) negotiations do not end until agreements have been reached by both parties and the main reason for entering into negotiations has been terminated. However not all agreements are carried to the latter point since parties may disagree or manipulate certain issues that were previously agreed upon.

The following criteria for assessing the successful outcome of a negotiation (Anstey, 1994:123) should be considered. The outcome should:

- Meet the legitimate interest of all sides to the extent possible.
- Be durable.
- Not damage the relationship between the parties.
- Be workable for the parties to live by it.
- Be owned by the parties and not manipulated.
- Be unambiguous and complete.
- Be achieved within an acceptable time frame.
- Promote the use of the negotiation process.

Drawing on the works of Pottas and Nieuwmeijer (1992:91-92) Theron (2002:214), sums it up by stating that unilateral amendments and adjustments to the agreement are unacceptable and render the agreement null and void. In the event of a divergence to the original agreement the other party should be informed of it and where feasible, an opportunity be created for it to be ratified.

In education circles good managers should always give great attention to detail at the end of the negotiation. They should always consider the when, the who and the where of the agreement. Penalties in the event of non-performance should also be specified and negotiated. The agreement should in all instances be communicated and made transparent to all the parties involved, be it between the principal and teachers or the principal and learners.

The following section will focus closely on the elements of negotiation.

### 3.2.5 Elements of negotiation

The negotiation process as defined in Chapter two (see 2.2.1) is influenced by elements such as perception and power - which are often processes in their own right. These elements, according to Nieuwmeijer (1988:45) and Fosu-Amoah (1999:50), influence the negotiation process, are being influenced by the process and by each other.

Since perception and power cannot exist independently, these two elements will be discussed separately for the sake of completeness and clarity.

#### 3.2.5.1 Perception

In general people base their actions and reactions on their perceptions rather than on objective reality. Objective reality might be useful but it is ultimately the reality as seen by each side that constitutes the problem in a negotiation and opens the way to a solution (Fisher & Ury, 1981:23).

As literature has it people perceive things that promise to help satisfy their needs and which they have found rewarding in the past. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996:51) are of the opinion that people tend to ignore mildly disturbing things but will perceive very dangerous ones. Because of this difference in perception conflict would arise which must be solved through negotiation.

Drawing from the work of Fisher and Ury (1991:23) one of the most important negotiation skills a negotiator can possess is the ability to see the situation as the other side sees it. Because this is not always the case there is an excitement about the process of negotiation (Johnson, 1993:15-16).

Literature on the subject seems to indicate that the authors classify perception into three categories: as a process, as a way and as an act.

- Perception as a process: perception is an process through which people select, receive and ascribe meaning to information, resulting in decisions being made and actions taken during negotiations (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:45;Hargie, 1991:42; Uys in Kroon, 1995:525).
- Perception as a way: perception is a way in which people take information and process it to comprehend the world around them. Because each person gathers information differently, problems arise in the way in which each individual perceive people and things, thus calling for negotiations to resolve the problems (Bovee *et al.*, 1993:550; Puth, 1994:51; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:57).
- Perception as an act: perception is the act of receiving information through the senses: sound, sight, touch and smell (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:167; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:57).

These definitions indicate that perception seems to be the process by which people obtain, retrieve, evaluate and ascribe meaning to information also through the senses so as to understand the world around them. As people see and perceive things differently, they will always differ in opinion - as a result action needs to be taken during negotiation that will lead to amicable solutions.

- Factors which influence perception

Uys in Kroon (1995:526) and Fosu-Amoah (1999:59) outline three factors that can have an influence on perception during negotiations:

- Characteristics of the observer. A person's previous experiences, habits, personality, values and attitudes influence the process of perception. This, as well as other personality traits, will determine what a person will pay attention to in a given situation during negotiations and how these aspects would be interpreted as basis for action.

Characteristics of the observed. The physical appearance and behaviour of the other person in a particular situation during negotiations will also have an influence on the observation or perception of the situation.

- Characteristics of the situation. The physical, social and business circumstances of the events influence perceptions during negotiations. Hearing a female educator call a principal by a first name may be perceived differently when observed in an office hallway as opposed to an evening social reception.

#### 3.2.5.1.1 Common perceptual distortions

People base their actions and reactions on their perceptions and act on their interpretation of the stimuli they receive (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:51). Because they make decisions and take action based on what they perceive to be reality during negotiations, it is important for school principals to understand the formation of perceptions to enable themselves to determine what influences educators during everyday communications and negotiations.

The following five common perceptual distortions with regard to individuals have been observed (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:50; Uys in Kroon, 1995:526; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:59-60):

- Stereotypes

A basic strategy for coping with complexities of social interaction is to categorise or type the individuals we come into contact with. Thus, on the basis of certain observed characteristics, people are grouped into certain categories as Cluver, (1996:7-8) states. These types, continues Cluver (1996:8), enable people to predict the behaviour of these individuals and others similar to them to help one to determine one's own behaviour towards them during the process of negotiations.

Anstey (1991:54) observes that as hostilities between groups increase and communication decrease, it becomes easier to develop and maintain stereotypes. Such a group tends to see the worst aspects of the other party during negotiations and only the best of itself. Negative stereotypes tend to deny their weaknesses and the strengths of the other party in negotiations thus obstructing its capacity to assess objectively the situation, the problem, options and opportunities for settlement.

Stereotypes, reiterates Cluver (1996:19), are frequently formed on the basis of negative impressions that result from negative experiences with some members of a subgroup. These impressions are then expanded to include all members of the group.

Thus, stereotypes can have a negative impact on the school and during negotiations, rather than contributing towards its well-being, its development and problem-solving during the process of negotiations.

- The halo effect

This refers to judging a person, place or event on the basis of a single trait or experience (Puth, 1994:52). It is the tendency to perceive a person as consistently good or consistently bad on the basis of the first impression he makes (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:53).

This distortion can also impact negatively on negotiations. It is important that great care must be taken, especially in the initiation stages of negotiation, to create impressions that are conducive to the negotiations to follow.

- Selective perception

Perceptual selection (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:52) is the process whereby people filter out most stimuli so that they can deal with the most important ones during negotiations. This distortion can be disastrous to negotiations as it is mostly dependant on personal preferences and expectations and is based on previous experiences.

- Projection

According to Fosu-Amoah (1999:61) this is the transference of personal characteristics to other individuals. By projecting one's needs onto others individual differences are lost. Projection can be controlled through a high degree of self-awareness and by empathy, the ability to view a situation as others see it during negotiations (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:52).

- Expectations

It is the tendency to find in other people and situations precisely what you expected to find,

without them being there. Expectations can create a situation that inevitably evokes the expected behaviour from the other person (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:52; Uys in Kroon, 1995:528; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:61).

Perceptual distortions can have an adverse impact on negotiations as they are mainly based on individual choices. It is important, therefore, for perception checks to be made prior to negotiations in an effort at minimizing individual distortion of perception.

### 3.2.5.2 Power

Power is a concept that is complicated and difficult to define. Indeed literature has very little to say about its nature and its function (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:80).

The available literature makes a distinction between power and authority. Authority is regarded as the formal power that a person has because of the position that he or she holds in an organisation (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:108). Managers in authoritative positions, continues Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996:108) have legal authority over subordinates in lower positions and as a result their directives and orders must be followed. In this case, power is vested in a person's position, accepted by subordinates and used vertically in organisations.

- Power defined

In the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, power is defined as the ability to do, to obtain or to bring about something. Anstey (1994:114) defines power as the capacity to bring about desired outcomes, or to change the position or stance of another party. Perceptions relating to power, continues Anstey (1994:114), have a fundamental influence on the parties' choices regarding the use of tactics, even as to whether they utilise the negotiation process at all.

Drawing from a large body of research power may be defined as the ability to influence negotiation results (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:51; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:81) and the ability to get things done the way you want them done (Gibson *et al.*, 1991:329; Van der Westhuizen, 2002:172-173; Stewart, 1994; Kroon, 1995:354).

Fosu-Amoah (1999:51) indicates that the definition of power may be divided into five activities which are closely related: power as an ability, power as capacity, power as capability,

power as opportunity and power as a relationship.

From this, it appears that power is an element that cannot be exercised in isolation but only in a relationship of other related activities.

- Sources of power

A large body of research (Hodgett, 1990; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991; Van der Westhuizen, 2002; Griffin, 1993) classified five sources of power in relationships that could be used by headmasters in their institutions and when negotiating with teachers. The five types of power identified are: reward-, coercive-, legitimate-, expert- and referent powers.

- Legitimate power

Legitimate power is derived from the ability to influence because of position and is similar to the concept of authority. Within the context of negotiation a person vested with such power would give directions for people with lower positions to follow.

- Reward power

This is the educational leader's power to give or withhold rewards such as promotions and monetary rewards for successfully completed tasks. Within the context of negotiations reward power could be used by educational leaders as an incentive to motivate and encourage good performance.

- Reward power, which is mostly effective in the longer term, is sometimes used together with coercive power and these could be concepts confused easily.

- Coercive power

This is the educational leader's power to force compliance by means of psychological or emotional threats for others to complete tasks. Within the context of negotiation this type of power could be used to enforce disciplinary measures.

- Referent power

This form of power is often regarded as one of the strongest in negotiation. Within the context of negotiation referent power refers to the educational leader's personal power based on physical attractiveness, dress, mannerisms, charisma etcetera. which others would like to emulate so as to be associated with the leader's actions.

- Expert power

This is the educational leader's power which results from his or her expertise shown in technical, administrative and personal matters, his or her competence or experience which is accepted by others.

Kroon (1995:354) is of the opinion that the principal's responsibility lies in the use of power in such a way that subordinates are motivated to work harder and to strive to achieve mutual objectives by using negotiation as a managerial task.

Fosu-Amoah (1999:53) mentions several of the principals sources: the formal power vested in him by the education department, the power for being in *loco parentis*, the power from professional training and the power that accrues from possessing a virtual monopoly over classroom resources. To add to the above, as a manager, he or she should be more informed ahead of the teachers under him or her, thus giving him or her information power.

Within the context of negotiation, expert power is the most common form of power in use, since it refers to the accumulation and presentation of information that will change the other's point of view on an issue.

### 3.2.5.3 Synthesis

It is unlikely for one party or individual to possess so much power, to negotiate in good faith and establish good relationships. The perception of power can cause many imbalances between parties and one may find it very difficult to find a solution to their problem. It seems that if the use of power does not re-establish a balance between the participants in negotiations the two parties will have to go back to the drawing board and start negotiating again.

The principal as the manager of the school should use these powers with greater care, without

teachers feeling intimidated by coercion, threats and unfair awarding of rewards - as these may hamper the building of trust and the establishment of a good relationship between him or her and the teaching staff.

### 3.3 SKILLS NEEDED IN SUCCESSFUL NEGOTIATIONS IN SCHOOLS

In any culture or society there are established rules about how interaction shall proceed in different situations, also between people in different relationships. School principals need a range of skills in order to get people committed and to establish rules and routines for the school to operate (Taylor, 1992:75).

The negotiating talent is a huge asset in a company, asserts Morgan (1994:31), so it is important that employees with such skills be identified to allow them to use their talent to the company's best advantage.

A manager's activities and working conditions require a sound knowledge of and an ability to apply the basic principles and skills of negotiation (Puth, 1994:7 & Fosu-Amoah, 1999:65). These skills could mean the difference between the success or the failure of the manager in his working environment.

Thus, the ability to negotiate successfully using the necessary skills is of vital importance for any ambitious manager.

#### 3.3.1 Skills: an explanation

A skill is a proficiency, an ability or dexterity that usually requires learning or training to master (Schmieder, 1996:xi-xii). It is therefore the ability to translate knowledge into action that results in the desired performance (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:45).

Skill is regarded as a generalised performed capability in any domain of human learning and endeavour. The quality of a product which is usually driven by the skill of those who make a system function as designed will not be achieved until there are people who have skills that are of high quality in thinking, in doing and in being together (Bellis, 1997:32).

The notion of skill has caused much confusion. When the concept is used interchangeably with competence, it causes much consternation. Competence, according to Schermerhorn *et al.*

(1991:10), is an internal force that stimulates and encourages people to work hard in order to produce results.

Bellis, on the other hand (1997:33), defines competence as a skill or cluster of skills executed within an indicated range and to specific standards of performance, intergrated knowledge or understanding.

While it is important to maintain competence as an administrator, teacher, negotiator or principal, the person's success is primarily dependent on the ability to possess and aquire certain personal qualities and skills. Negotiation skills are important for people, whether employer, subordinate or co-worker since research has shown that most managers and supervisors spend up to 50% of their time negotiating (McRae, 1998:2).

The following skills that managers need have been identified (Schermerhorn *et.al.*, 1991:46-48; Donnelly *et al.*, 1995:48-49; Fosu-Amoah,1999:65-66; Smit, 2002:114-15):

- **Human skills:** it is the ability to work with, to communicate with and understand others. Human skills include the ability to resolve interpersonal and performance problems, motivating subordinates to change or improve performance as well as overseeing the other activities involved in managing individual performance. These skills include the level of understanding at which people make contacts, be it on intellectual, emotional, physical or social level.
- **Technical skills:** it is the ability to use specific knowledge, techniques and resources effectively and successfully in a specific managerial area. Such skills also refer to how things could be done within an organisation.
- **Conceptual skills:** it is the ability to see the big picture, the complexities of the overall organisation and how the various parts fit together. Managers with conceptual skills understand the activities and interests of the organisation and how they interrelate. Managers with strong conceptual skills can work independently, autonomously and efficiently.

Negotiation may be seen as a mystic art which is only learned through practice (Fosu-Amoah, 1999:66). While perhaps there is no substitute for experience in negotiations, there are basic skills which can be identified for people to develop. McRae (1998:112) correctly points out that the mastery of skills depends on an accurate analysis and on dedicated practice, as neither of this is sufficient on its own.

All the skills in negotiations have to work together congruently and harmoniously, for if one of the negotiation skills is less than fully developed, one will not negotiate as well as one otherwise could (McRae, 1998:121).

Thus, a skill can be defined as a learnt proficiency which, if turned into action, can result in anticipated outcomes. A skill should not only describe the respect shown for high level standards of technical capability but should also reflect the whole spectrum of human performed capability.

The focus subsequently shifts to some basic skills that need to be mastered and applied during negotiation.

### **3.3.2 Listening skills**

Listening has never been one of man's greatest strengths, yet if practiced effectively, it can be a major benefit to improved relations, more effective communication, a better understanding of one another and, indeed, it can bring about significant material advantages (Carew, 1992:62).

Hearing is a physiological process that requires minimum effort. Sounds and words may be easily heard but to understand their real meaning and message demands mastery of the listening skill (Kruger, 1993:22). It is difficult to be successful in business or in life without developing one's listening skills (Munetsi, 1998:52).

To listen properly to a colleague or employee means paying careful attention to what the other party is saying, absorbing information, thinking about it and acting on it (Marx *et al.*, 2002:42). The art of listening is not a natural skill as it must be learned, and it requires effort and practice, ultimately becoming one of the most powerful weapons in negotiations.

Listening effectively means understanding both the content and the intent of what you hear. It means paying attention to the nuances of a conversation, registering not only the words said but also the manner in which they are resented (Munetsi, 1998:52). The main reason for listening, it seems, is to show understanding for what the other person is saying.

#### **3.3.2.1 Guidelines for developing listening skills**

There are four basic and important guidelines for developing listening skills (Carew, 1992:62;

Kruger, 1993:23):

- Prepare in advance: do research to learn anything you may need to know on the subject in order to ask knowledgeable questions and to avoid wasting the clients time. This will also help the persuader to comprehend and concentrate on the subject. The other party should be approached as an equal and be accepted with warmth and an expression of understanding.
- Understand non-verbal skills: maintain eye-contact, smile and register facial and body concern. A thoughtful facial and appropriate body posture reflects concern and congruence. One should always be aware of the message he or she is conveying along with his or her words.
- Avoid misunderstandings: a message may be adequately conveyed, but people sometimes listen selectively to what is said and interpret the messages according to their own particular frames of reference. The general assumption is that if you convey the message correctly, it will be unambiguously and clearly understood. It is important to receive the message clearly as this is the essence of listening.
- Show interest and ask questions: one cannot rightly listen unless one is prepared to be interested. If one's interests are genuine people will freely share their thoughts, experiences and feelings with one more readily. When the other party has finished speaking without interruption from one's side ask questions to clarify information that you did not understand, then summarise the message as you understand it and ask whether your understanding is correct.

#### 3.3.2.2.1 Types of listening

In literature a distinction of different types of listening is made which must be taken into consideration during negotiations (Carew, 1992:62; Redelinghuys *et al.*, 1994:125; Munetsi, 1998:521; Venter, 1999:54; Marx *et al.*, 2002:42).

- Critical listening: the speaker's message should be critically analysed and evaluated throughout the negotiations. The intention of the message, whether it is to motivate or to persuade, and the tone used to convey the message - be it polite, rational or insincere - should be established. One should ask questions throughout the negotiations to double-check understanding of what the speaker has said or to request additional information.

- Discriminative listening: during negotiations the listener must distinguish between the urgency or seriousness of the message. This implies that one should not listen to the verbal message alone but also be aware of non-verbal messages. This could assist the principal in determining if an educator is serious or joking.
- Attentive listening: during negotiations good listeners should try to listen for the speaker's main purpose or goal as soon as possible. One should find out what the central idea of the conversation is and convince oneself that what one is hearing is relevant and important. In this way one will automatically resist distractions, concentrate on the message and show genuine interest in the conversation.
- Appreciative listening: this is the key to effective and successful listening. Within the context of negotiations one should first try to see an idea or concept from the speaker's point of view. One should avoid being excited about the speaker's point of view before one is sure that he or she understands it properly. One should also avoid becoming impatient and interrupting the speaker before he or she has completed the message. One should not be distracted by differences of perception, personality, status or culture.
- Empathetic listening: within the context of negotiation, empathetic listening implies telling the other party that his or her needs and concerns are more important to the other party than the latter's very own. The party's message and emotional state is taken into consideration. In other words no evaluation, no judgement or criticism should take place. Instead there has to be an effort to understand each other. From a management perspective, this type of listening receives more attention than the others.

Empathetic listening can be reconciled with comprehensive listening, since the listener seeks to understand the contents as well as the underlying feelings behind the spoken words (Redelinguys, *et al.*, 1994:33).

To give expression to this it is necessary for the empathetic listener to apply reflecting listening skills as discussed by Redelinguys *et al.* (1994:33-34) and Venter (1999:72-74). These include paraphrasing, reflecting feelings, reflecting meanings and summative reflections.

It should be clear, therefore, that listening seems to be an important and useful skill in negotiation that needs to be learned. It seems to be an active process that demands empathy, attention, appreciation and critical evaluation of the other party's point of view.

### 3.3.2.3 Advantages of effective listening

Fosu-Amoah (1999:69), Venter (1999:44) and Marx *et al.* (2002:42) list some of the advantages of effective listening, which are:

- Achieving better interpersonal relationships.
- Saving time, money and energy.
- Avoiding mistakes and misunderstandings.
- Identifying problems and grievances before it is too late.
- Creating a working climate of openness and sensitivity.
- Improving your motivational and persuasive abilities.
- Ensuring that the real concerns of the presenter are expressed.
- Assisting the presenter with sorting out the confusion in his own mind through the process of articulating them.
- Promoting self-awareness.
- Contributing towards professional development and success.
- Increasing one's knowledge and experience.
- In the light of this list it is clear that effective listening can make a conversation flow smoothly and tip negotiations in one's favour.

### 3.3.2.4 Principles that will benefit the listener

The following are some of the principles that will benefit the listener by increasing an active involvement in the negotiations (Heusch, 1986:10-12; Ellis 1997:35; Fielding 1997:111-113 & Marx *et al.*, 2002:87-88). The listener should:

- Avoid prejudice against the persuader and the message as far as possible. First listen to the statements and arguments before judging the message. One should try not to criticise the personal appearance of the persuader or formulate silent counter-arguments, since this would hamper one's efficient assimilation of the information given.
- Not only listen to the facts. You should be prepared for other messages to be sent apart from the spoken word. Variations in tone of voice and body and other non-verbal signals should be observed. Show that you are listening by giving both verbal and non-verbal

acknowledgements and by inviting the other party to say more.

- Take notes to help you in case you need important information later. During the

feedback session, one should give clear and unambiguous feedback by starting sentences with reflective phrases.

It seems, therefore, that good listening principles, if learned by both parties, could contribute to a successful conclusion of the negotiations as they encourage both parties to be open to each other and develop trust. Parties, with these principles in mind, can easily adjust to the variables in the interaction.

#### 3.3.2.5 Barriers or obstacles to listening

Every person who is interested in communicating successfully should assume that there are factors which can disturb, confuse and distort the message. There are four categories of barriers that can affect listening (Rees, 1991:226; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:69; Venter, 1999:63-66; Marx *et al.*, 2002:31). They are:

- **Physical barriers:** a telephone ringing or traffic noise during negotiations can distract negotiators. The real danger of physical barriers is that the listener may use the barrier as an excuse for tuning the speaker out. Paying too much attention to distractions can break the listener's concentration.
- **Physiological barriers:** these include sitting on hard, uncomfortable seats for a long time during a session which can prevent negotiators from concentrating, or holding a session in a room that is too hot, which may make participants uneasy and falling asleep.
- **Psychological barriers:** these include barriers such as anger, depression, fear, nervousness, boredom or distrust which may hamper listening during negotiations.
- **Semantic barriers:** these are relevant to where meanings of words to communicate are misunderstood or when different meanings are attached to a specific word or expression. Factors that could lead to semantic barriers include different interpretations and vague wording, slang, jargon and accent.
- **Emotional barriers:** the listener's inattentiveness, indifference and impatience or prejudice against the speaker can prevent the listener from hearing the speaker out.

Thus, negotiators need to learn as much as possible about barriers or obstacles to listening, which if not curbed could derail the negotiation process. Negotiators need to use simple language, control their emotions and use a room that is comfortable and away from traffic noise.

#### 3.3.2.6 Synthesis

From the above, it seems that school managers need to acquire knowledge on basic skills and the ability to apply them in their everyday activities and negotiations with educators. Basic human, technical and conceptual skills are a necessity for school managers as they would assist in reflecting the whole human performed capabilities of educators within a school.

Because managers spend 50% of their time negotiating, it is important that they master skills in listening since these could be learned through practice to enhance improved relations and effective communications with educators. Research has shown that most school managers believe that they listen effectively while the educators' perception of their listening skills is the opposite.

The diversity of the communication situations which results from the interaction with various parties on different levels demand that the principal know the different types of listening as they would demand his or her attention, empathy, appreciation and critical evaluation of the other person's point of view. Barriers or obstacles that can hinder effective listening also need to be learned along with learning how to deal with them when negotiating with educators.

The following with regard to listening needs to be mastered and applied by school managers in order for them to be effective listeners during negotiation. They are:

- Guidelines to developing listening skills.
- Different types of listening.
- Principles that will benefit the listener by being actively involved in negotiations.
- Barriers that can affect listening.

The extent to which the last three of these four skills are used by the school managers when

negotiating with teachers will be tested in the empirical study and form the basis of the questionnaire as found in chapter 4.

### **3.3.3. Empathy**

Listening is generally regarded as an intellectual exercise and the emotional involvement that goes with it is neglected (Venter, 1999:49). In any negotiation situation the party should always try to understand the values and perspective of those with whom they are negotiating. One should always place oneself in the other party's shoes and try to determine what the other party needs and wants to know in order to reach a settlement (Theunissen, 1996:17). Parties, asserts Anstey (1994:229), must always show a desire to understand the feelings of each other and acknowledge that the other party's feelings are real (Venter, 1999:49).

Literature on the subject of empathy seems to indicate that authors agree that empathetic or active listening involves bearing in mind the speakers intentions, circumstances, his or her emotional state, underlying feelings as well as verbal and non-verbal behaviour. According to Ury (1993:99) the other party's points and authority should be acknowledged without polarising the situation. Great care must be taken not to argue with, judge or falsely reassure the speaker (Munetsi, 1998:52).

Fisher (1992:2) observes that usually parties assume that the other side is wrong, and that they are reacting rationally. When the latter stands in the other party's shoes and sees that the other party is reacting rationally as it appears to them they come to see that what is needed are different options on the table, that both sides might be able to agree to.

In his research Shapiro (1996:2) observes that people want four things when negotiating. They want to feel safe, they want to have control, they want to be included in the process and also to be heard, even if others disagree. Munetsi (1998:52) is of the opinion that when a person feels understood and accepted, he or she is likely to open up.

To ensure that one party has truly understood the other party's situation and interests they summarise their understanding by taking notes and reflecting back to them (Falkenberg, 1995:4). In all cases the party should seek confirmation that they have accurately represented the other party.

#### **3.3.3.1 An explanation on empathy**

Literature on the subject seems to indicate that the authors agree that empathy could be divided into three categories: as an ability, as the ability to be attuned to others and as a motivation.

- Empathy as an ability: A large body of research sees empathy as an ability to take the place of another person, to see things from another person's point of view and to sense how people feel about something (Hodgetts & Kuratko, 1991:381; Bertcher, 1994:75; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:80; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:70).
- Empathy as being attuned to: According to Authier in Hargie (1991:441) empathy means to be attuned to the way another person is feeling and conveying that understanding in a language he or she can understand. It is also understood to be a feeling of emotional understanding and unity with another such that an emotion felt by one person is experienced to some degree by another who is empathetic to them (Deaux & Wrightsman, 1988:344).

These definitions suggest that empathy is a skill that could be used to reduce aggression in interpersonal situations since it strives to understand the needs, feelings and emotions.

The following section will look at the importance of empathy.

#### 3.3.3.2 The importance of empathy

Negotiators who induce feelings of empathy causes the other party to lower the length of their verbal attacks. It is also important for gauging the effect one has on the other side and picking up the signals they are giving (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:203; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:72).

Empathy is also important in maintaining an effective flow of communication since it also motivates the party to reduce the distress of the person in need (Deaux & Wrightsman, 1988:344).

In a school situation it is vital that the school principal learns and practices this skill so that educators should also feel that they are taken seriously and are understood.

#### 3.3.3.3 Synthesis

Empathy seems to be the ability to see things from another's perspective and convey that understanding in the easiest way possible. Most importantly, it should take into cognisance the underlying

emotions as felt by another person and react by being empathetic to them. One should always place oneself in the shoes of the other person to understand what he or she is going through.

The acknowledgement which the principal gives to the speaker's feelings determines to a large extent the speaker's viewpoint of the principal as listener. This skill manifests itself in situations when a person discusses something very personal with the principal. If applied properly it can build trust and support between the principal and his staff.

The following seems to be the essence of empathy:

- Determining the needs and wants of the other party.
- Acknowledging the other party's concerns without polarising or judging the situation.
- Seeing things from another person's point of view and sensing how they feel.
- Maintaining an effective flow of communication and reducing the distress of the person in need.

The extent to which these empathetic skills are applied and used by school managers when executing their daily tasks, will be tested empirically in the questionnaire as found in chapter 4.

### **3.3.4 Space**

#### **3.3.4.1 Influence of space**

Various factors, especially area-, personal- and office space, impact on the controllable environment and the message communicated by it. Several characteristics of people and negotiation venues, external to the other parties, will increase the likelihood of a positive being established.

Personal space as needed by each individual is primarily determined by culture. The specific needs of the situation, upbringing and the intruder's relationship with the person in question also contributes to major differences between different cultures (Marx *et al.*, 2002:56). Jandt (1995:76) points out that the Indian culture has rules determining how closely members of different castes may stand to each other, and he adds that Arabs of the same gender stand closer to each other than North Americans do. In countries such as Japan, people are used to overpopulation and thus less space. In other countries where there is plenty of space people tend to keep a distance from one another (Marx *et al.*, 2002:75).

Although individual needs for space varies research has shown that there are marked similarities within one culture.

The size of objects and space has special meaning in Western culture (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:53). Larger space is associated with greater importance and status. This is always seen in organisations where senior staff is given larger offices and furniture than junior members. Seemingly the use of space is perceived to be equivalent to status and space appears to create the impression of confidence and leadership.

The arrangement of furniture in the office gives an indication of how communication should take place. According to Marx *et al.* (2002:78) research has shown that it is very difficult to communicate or to conduct negotiations with someone sitting behind a desk. The office should be arranged in such a way that, apart from one's desk, there is room enough for a few chairs for visitors. The strategic planning of people relative to each other could be one very influential way of procuring their cooperation (Pienaar & 1996:54; Fosu Amoah, 1999:85). The authors refer to the four basic positions relative to the other party in negotiation as follows:

- The corner position - which is normally taken by people who want to have a friendly informal conversation. From this position, body language can be observed with unlimited eye contact that can result in sharing of material.
- The cooperative position - which is normally taken by people sharing common interests, working together on the same project or thinking alike.
- The competitive/defensive position - which is normally taken by people who are in competition with one another or if the one is reprimanding the other. The table creates a defensive or competitive atmosphere, allowing parties to form and defend their own points of view, resulting in adversarial or superior/subordinate relationships.
- The independent position - which is normally taken when one party does not want to interact with the other party, showing a lack of interest and an unwillingness to interact with each other. This position must be avoided during a negotiation process (Marx *et al.*, 2002:78).

#### 3.3.4.2 Synthesis

It seems that a thorough knowledge of space and its influence can have a positive impact on negotiations and establish a good climate for negotiations. Different cultures should be taken into consideration when dealing with space, since nobody wants his or her space violated. Differences and similarities between cultures should be determined, as these could lead to friction between people of different cultures. People who have no knowledge of the needs of other cultures can sometimes ascribe dark motives to behaviour intended to be entirely innocent.

The arrangement of office furniture needs to be planned so as to stimulate communication with others in the office. Instead of communicating with a person behind a desk, one should emerge from behind the desk and sit as closely as possible to the other party so that he or she may experience him or her as an equal.

In the light of the above the influence that space has on the establishment of a good climate relies on the following:

- Knowledge of major cultural differences.
- Knowledge of similarities in culture.
- Proper arrangement of furniture in the office.

The extent to which the school managers use the influence of space to establish a good climate in their schools will be determined empirically by the questionnaire in chapter 4.

#### 3.3.5 Timing

Timing is a key element in negotiations yet it is probably one of the most underrated variables. The dimensions of power and planning are important in negotiations yet theorists agree implicitly that new frontiers of negotiations will mean dealing with time and timing (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:97).

Timing is important when an initial offer is made, when it is improved-when a final offer is made and how it is accepted by the other party (Fosu-Amoah, 1999:82). Timing involves a keen sense of when to make an offer to maximize that offer's acceptability to the party. According to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996:97) because many negotiation processes are not infinite but finite, timing of opening and

closing should be considered within definite parameters. The key question should always centre around when one's announcement will have the biggest impact and most strongly influence the other party to close the deal (Ilich, 1996:55-56).

Good timing is essential for success in negotiations. The following is considered to be the best times for negotiations (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1996:78; Fosu-Amoah, 1999:83):

- In the morning or in the afternoon. Morning appointments are preferred to the afternoon's as people are fresh and more intellectually active.
- In the middle of the month as most people could be very busy preparing and evaluating reports either at the beginning or at the end of the month.
- The best time of the year that should not coincide with the end of the financial year, examination periods etcetera.

The effort in timing is to stimulate and exploit the "brassing" mentality that one should seize a quickly vanishing opportunity (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:70). Timing is a way of getting the other side to react quickly and positively to a favourable situation that has a narrow window of accessibility in terms of time. On the other one side's unwillingness to accept a good offer may give the other side an opportunity to re-examine its position, to change its position at the next negotiation offer or attach unacceptable conditions to its first offer (Fosu-Amoah, 1999:83).

It is important for negotiators to know how to deal with time and timing especially the appropriate time to make an initial offer and the right time to close the deal in one's favour. One should enter negotiations with a clear mind of when to use the word power that would influence the other party to close the deal. However one should not always be too zealous in refusing offers as some might be too good to be repeated by the other party. It is clear from this that proper planning and timing of the process can lead to an advantageously timed agenda.

In all timing seem to be important in negotiations since it:

- Concerns itself with the opening offer and closing of the deal.
- Requires planning to know the best time for negotiating.

In the empirical study a questionnaire will be formulated to test the extent to which school managers use timing in schools to get the teachers to react quickly to a favourable situation.

### 3.3.6 Persuasion

Persuasion, as already defined (see 2.3.1), can be viewed as a process in which a source presents a message to a receiver via some communication channel in an attempt to affect either of the two behavioural changes: for the receiver to believe that the message is true or for the receiver to act upon that message (Swanepoel & Van Jaarsveld, 1993:129). Persuasion is a major element in negotiation as it is used to achieve specific goals. Whenever there is interpersonal contact, whether in business, or in a social or partnership context, persuasion is all-pervasive (Eales-White, 1997:7).

Persuasion, as some authors observed is indirectly coercive, since it depends heavily on the credibility of threats and extreme pressure to achieve its desired compliance (Swanepoel & Van Jaarsveld, 1993:129; Dillard & Pfau, 2002:4). The authors are also of the opinion that, apart from not being the most successful manner to influence an individual's behaviour, it is certainly the most human and courteous manner of social influence.

Persuasion can take place intentionally or unintentionally. When somebody, for example, wants to buy a certain book at a bookshop and overhears the owner telling another client that a revised edition will be published the following week, the buyer will rather wait for the revised edition than buy the current one.

For persuasion to be regarded as effective it has to take place under certain conditions.

#### 3.3.6.1 Conditions for effective persuasion

The following conditions for the persuasion-process to be effective have been identified (Swanepoel & Van Jaarsveld, 1993:130; Marx *et al.*, 2002:84-89):

- Careful planning of the message: before persuasion can take place, the persuader should collect as much information as possible on the topic and the other person or party and know against which arguments the receiver may protest and which will be convincing. The persuader must assure the other party of the existence of the problem and convince the receiver that the solution arrived at is the best by providing enough proof. The attention and the interest of the

other party must always be aroused.

- Mutual trust between the interlocuters: the persuader should know exactly what he or she is talking about. A persuader with experience and knowledge about an issue can persuade the receiver more easily than a persuader with little or no knowledge of the matter. Mutual trust in the persuasion process is very important and should include among others things credibility, expertise, reliability, sense of humour, warmth and charisma. The persuader must always be

sincere because lack of the above may lead to mistrust and misunderstanding. The persuader should also accept that the receiver is entitled to his or her opinion and criticism, since this will contribute towards mutual respect.

- Good listening skills: the persuader should be actively involved in the communication process by listening empathetically to the message, assimilating information and developing the ability to “listen between the lines”. The persuader should strive to hold the undivided attention of the receiver, influence him or her in such a way that he or she will consider the message favourably and be inspired to act in the way the persuader intended (Ellis, 1997:23-25).

There are certain principles that the persuader should adhere to that will benefit the receiver. These have already been discussed in this work (see 3.3.2.4). From the listener's point of view quality has a lot to do with listening habits.

- A positive self-image on the part of the persuader: this condition influences the persuader's credibility in interpersonal communication. Persuasion only becomes successful when the persuader comes across credibly. The persuader's approach to the receiver should project an image of expertise based on real knowledge of the subject under discussion, good technical presentation of the message, the employment of humour and other techniques to make the style of delivery interesting. The persuader must be friendly, appreciative, affectionate, active and lively towards the other party. Dress, physical appearance and posture also have a significant influence on the self-image of the persuader.
- Good use of language and voice: the persuasive message must be conveyed fluently. The persuader should try to avoid hesitations such as uh and ah which may distract attention from the message. The use of pompous language and complex sentence structures should be avoided. Language that is full of feeling, that is imaginative, clear and informative and that

complies with the standard of good speech must be encouraged. The language must be adjusted to the situation and the level of the audience. The persuader must also maintain a speech tempo that is neither too slow nor too fast.

- Courtesy and tact: during a persuasive conversation the persuader must act courteously towards the receiver and never be insulting, vulgar or offensive. Such transgressions cause an interruption in the normal run of the conversation and may lead to misunderstandings.

Tact, on the other hand, is sensing the correct way to behave in a certain situation, a quick prediction and understanding of other people's feelings. The persuader must know when and how to do the right thing when the receiver might be feeling angry, insulted or hurt.

In persuasive interaction power and authority should not play a role for if orders and threats are used from an authoritative position there will be no persuasion.

These conditions for effective persuasion therefore seem to pave the way for developing a relationship between the persuader and the receiver. Because of its mutual influence the development of this interaction seem eminent.

Since interpersonal communication utilises more than one channel and is not limited to verbal language the next section will focus on non-verbal communication in persuasion.

#### 3.3.6.2 Non-verbal communication in persuasion

In negotiation one does not only convey messages by what one is saying, but the tone, facial expressions, posture, gestures and eye contact all have a major role to play. Even when no words are exchanged, communication takes place when people are together. The words we speak have 10% of the total impact in face-to-face communication, the way we speak has 35% and non-verbal communication has a highly significant 55% of the total impact in face-to-face communication (Eales-White, 1997:102).

Research on non-verbal signals have shown that these signals may predispose parties to interact and be susceptible to influence even before the first word is uttered (Dillard & Pfau, 2002:449).

The following points should always be remembered when employing non-verbal communication (Marx *et al.*, 2002:27):

- Non-verbal communication is used unconsciously and involuntarily by the speaker most of the time. The speaker may be unaware that the way he or she is holding his or her head or shaking hands sends out certain messages.
- Non-verbal communication is often culture-specific. A certain body movement may mean nothing to some people but could be considered offensive in another culture.
- 
- Non-verbal communication can strengthen, contradict or be a substitute for a verbal message.
- Actions speak louder than words. People are more inclined to believe non-verbal messages than verbal messages when they are used simultaneously.

The following kinesics are regarded as important non-verbal signals (Eales-White, 1997:102-103; Marx *et al.*, 2002:90-91). They are:

- Facial expression: facial expression reveals emotion and reflects the feeling being expressed as sadness, happiness and or anger. If the persuader is not sincere, verbal and non-verbal messages will not correspond because the emotional expression that is operated by the central nervous system cannot be manipulated (Huebsch, 1986:6).
- Eye contact: direct eye contact is an important way to establish contact, to elicit involvement and positive receiver reaction. There should be fairly frequent eye contact, but never a glare nor a stare. This avoids looking out of the window and conveys the message that one is listening. Eye contact is both encoded and decoded as a sign of attraction and relational positivity and its absence is also a good indicator of relational distress (Dillard & Pfau, 2002:449).
- Gestures: these help the persuader to capture the attention of the receiver and to reinforce, explain or emphasise the message. Through the use of gestures the impact of the message conveyed is significantly enhanced. Gestures are for the speaker and not for the listener for if they come from the listener they act as a distraction - a form of non-verbal interruption. Gestures should always show confidence, vary and appear spontaneous or they might elicit resistance in the receiver (Finn, 1983:14). This aspect of communication is a cultural element and could lead to large-scale confusion between cultural groups (Marx *et al.*, 2002:57). Universal gestures like nodding the head in agreement or when greeting someone has different uses in different cultures.

- Posture: this skill may either complement or contradict the message. The persuader should always appear relaxed but alert and interested. In all situations an assertive posture should be used rather than an aggressive or submissive one. For instance, when seated, the persuader could take up an open position with neither legs nor arms folded, lean slightly forward with the head a little to one side and hands clasped loosely together, resting on the lap. Posture should present a positive image of credibility, maturity, intelligence, enthusiasm and confidence (Venter, 1999:11).

If a persuader listens empathetically, he or she will display the right non-verbal signals that will come naturally. It also seems that if these non-verbal signals are learned over time persuaders will become better listeners and conscious competence will lead to natural ability.

The persuader, in his or her attempt to succeed in persuading the others, must be cautious of the unethical aspects of persuasion that will be the focus of the next section.

### 3.3.6.3 The ethics of persuasion

The following are regarded as unethical aspects of persuasion (Swanepoel & Van Jaarsveld, 1993:132; Marx *et al.*, 2002:93). They are:

- Outright lying.
- Falsification or faking of evidence.
- Misrepresentation.
- Conscious use of misleading arguments.
- Misuse of emotional language to elicit a positive reaction from the receiver.
- Concealing facts to benefit from the concealment.

#### 3.3.6.4 Synthesis

In the light of the above persuasion seems to be an activity directed at influencing other people to change, not through coercive means, but through the power of verbal and non-verbal messages. Persuasion depends heavily on the credibility of threats, promises and pressure proffered by the persuader in order for messages to be effective. The pressure need not be direct or explicit but should be enough to make people comply in their actions. Persuasion as compared to blatant coercion seems to be the most ethical manner of influencing people to change their behaviour and/ or attitudes.

In order for persuasion to be effective there are prerequisites that are especially helpful in getting others to change their attitudes and/or behaviour. These, among others, are related to mutual trust between the interlocuters, careful planning of messages, image management on the part of the persuader, good use of language and voice, good listening skills, tact and courtesy. If persuasion can take place under these conditions then a credible, reliable and friendly atmosphere will be created that will be susceptible to influence.

Another form of persuasion that is often overlooked is so called “hidden persuasion”, which is nevertheless a potent non-verbal means of influence. If applied correctly facial expression, eye-contact, gestures and posture can predispose parties to interact and to have a better understanding of each other.

In order for interlocuters to build mutual trust and respect among themselves, the ethics of persuasion as mentioned (see 3.3.2.5.3) should always be taken into consideration.

The following aspects cannot be ignored when persuading people to change their attitudes and or behaviour:

- Conditions for effective persuasion.
- Non-verbal communication signals.
- Ethics of communication.

The extent to which school managers use persuasion when negotiating will be determined empirically by the questionnaire as found in chapter 4.

### **3.4 SUMMARY**

This chapter mainly focusses on the relevant skills that school managers need in order to negotiate effectively and successfully with teachers at schools.

Contextual issues which bear influence on the skills needed for successful negotiation are addressed and these include the climate under which negotiation should occur as well as parties seeking common ground to move from.

The main emphasis is on the skills needed in successful negotiations in schools. It becomes apparent that in order for school managers to fulfil their tasks successfully as educational leaders they need to equip themselves and have a thorough knowledge of a variety of negotiable skills and, most importantly, they must be able to apply them in their day to day activities. It also becomes evident that the mastery of skills depends highly on an accurate analysis and on dedicated practice that will ultimately improve relations and create an understanding of one another.

This chapter exposes some skills needed for successful negotiation in schools. These include listening and how it can be developed; empathy and its importance; space and its influence; timing; effective persuasion and its conditions.

The empirical research which was undertaken to determine the extent to which the status quo with regard to negotiation with teachers as a managerial task of school principals has been upheld will be discussed in chapter 4.

## CHAPTER 4

### EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 2 and 3 focussed on the theoretical framework of the nature of negotiations as well as the context and skills needed for successful negotiations in schools. These aspects have been discussed by means of a literature study.

With this chapter the method of the empirical research is outlined, explaining the rationale behind the method used, the way the research was conducted and the steps taken to ensure the success of the study.

The focus with this chapter is to determine to what extent the principal use negotiation skills in schools when negotiating with educators as part of their management task. In this chapter, the design of the research for collection of data, administrative procedures for sending questionnaires, how the population and sample was drawn and the interpretation of data are discussed.

#### 4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

##### 4.2.1 Questionnaire as a measuring instrument

From a host of data-collecting instruments that a researcher working from a quantitative approach can use, the questionnaire was chosen as it is probably the most generally used instrument of all (Delpont, 2002:171).

After the different data collection methods had been weighed against each other the questionnaire was chosen as the most suitable survey technique for the purpose of this study.

A mail questionnaire was chosen since it is cost-effective in terms of travelling expenses and time

(Delport, 2002:172). Another reason sighted for this survey was that information could be obtained from a large number of respondents within a brief period of time.

In addition, the questionnaire was selected because it satisfied the three assumptions made when questionnaires are used (Wolf, 1997:422):

- That the respondents can read and understand the questions – in this study the respondents are principals.
- The respondents possess the information to answer questions.
- The respondents are willing to answer questions honestly. (A doubt is still cast over this last assumption.)

A questionnaire as a research instrument is a self-report instrument mainly used by a researcher for compiling various sets of relevant information through a list of questions or items that should be completed by the respondents (Wolf, 1997:478). The questionnaire, which is extensively used in educational research, is used to inquire about the feelings, motivations, attitudes, accomplishments and experiences of individuals (Gall *et al.*, 1996:288; Neuman, 1997:33). The basic objective of such a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on the particular issue (Delport, 2002:172).

The questionnaire can contain open questions that are unstructured or closed questions that are structured. For the purpose of this research it was decided to use the closed questionnaire that consists of a number of short questions, since it is easier and quicker for respondents to answer (Neuman, 1997:241; Delport, 2002:172).

When a structured questionnaire is to be used the researcher must decide about what precisely it is he or she needs to find out (Bell, 2002:159). If a researcher fails to determine what it is he or she needs to find out it may result in the selection of an instrument which might produce useless responses.

The mailed questionnaire has its advantages and limitations that will now be discussed.

#### **4.2.2 Advantages of the mailed questionnaire**

A questionnaire as a research tool has advantages that can be illustrated as follows (Gall *et al.*, 1996:289; Neuman, 1997:251; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:197; Delport, 2002:172):

- It saves the researcher travel expenses.
- Postage is cheaper than a long distance telephone call.
- The information can be obtained from a large number of respondents within a brief period of time.
- The respondents enjoy a high degree of freedom in completing the questionnaire.
- The same stimuli are offered to all respondents.
- It offers anonymity and avoids interviewer bias.
- Respondents can respond more truthfully to controversial issues because their anonymity is assured.
- The possible “contaminatory” influence of a field worker is eliminated.

#### **4.2.3 Limitations of the mailed questionnaire**

The following drawbacks of the mailed questionnaire have been identified:

- The non-response rate may be high with regard to long and unclear questions.
- Complex questionnaires requiring in-depth thought will show a low response rate.
- Some questions are left unanswered or are wrongly interpreted.
- There is no control that the right person completes the questionnaire.

- Application of the questionnaire is limited to those who are literate.
- No one is present to clarify questions or visually observe the respondent's reaction to questions.

#### 4.2.4 Construction of the questionnaire

Constructing a questionnaire requires skill, practice, patience and creativity (Neuman, 1997:233). A well-constructed questionnaire should encourage respondents to be cooperative and yield responses that a researcher can use and interpret. According to Gall *et al.*, (1996:290) questionnaires should meet the same standards of validity and reliability that apply to other data-collection measures.

The following basic principles must be taken into consideration when a questionnaire is formulated (Gall *et al.*, 1996:294; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:202; Bell, 2002:160-161; Delport, 2002:176):

- Use simple, clear and unambiguous language.
- Keep the questionnaire as short as possible.
- Avoid double-barrelled items.
- Avoid leading and presuming questions.
- Avoid negatively stated items.
- The questionnaire should be organized in a logical sequence by grouping items with the same content.

With reference to the literature study of chapter 2 and 3 and existing questionnaires that were used for researching negotiation with learners as a management task of the school principal (Fosu-Amoah, 1999) a questionnaire was constructed.

In preparing the questionnaire the following objectives were used:

- To determine to what extent the skills needed for successful negotiations are used.

- To determine to what extent do principals use negotiation skills in solving problems with educators (see 2.3).

The questionnaire consists of two sections. The focus of each section is as follows:

**SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION.**

(Questions 1-10; see Appendix A).

The purpose of this section was to gather biographical and demographic data about the respondents and their schools.

**SECTION B: THE EXTENT TO WHICH PRINCIPALS USE NEGOTIATION SKILLS.**

The questions in this section were asked to determine the skills of negotiation used by principals as their managerial task and the extent to which those skills were used. The following sub-sections were used to test the frequency of use in the management task of the principal.

**11. Steps in the negotiation process (Questions 11.1-11.18):**

These questions covered the steps used in the negotiation process and the practices during the three phases (see 2.6).

**12. Listening**

Questions 12.1-12.9: different types of listening (see 3.3.2.2).

Questions 12.10-12.14: principles that benefit the principal by being actively involved in negotiations (see 3.3.2.4).

Questions 12.15-12.20: the barriers or obstacles to listening, which may prevent the school principal to concentrate fully (see 3.3.2.5).

**13 Empathy**

(Questions 13.1-13.8): these questions covered the emotional involvement by the principal (see 3.3.3).

#### 14 Space

(Questions 14.1-14.6): these questions covered matters relating to personal and office space, the arrangement of furniture and the strategic positions relative to parties (see 3.3.4).

#### 15 Timing

(Questions 15.1-15.4): these questions were asked because a principal who does not time his or her meetings, negotiations or when to make announcements will not succeed in influencing the educators to accept offers made to them (see 3.3.5).

#### 16 Persuasion

(Questions 16.1-16.13): these questions covered the aspects of persuasion (see 3.3.6). These questions were raised to find out if principals used this skill when negotiating with educators to achieve intended goals.

The key for the four points scale to be used in Section B is as follows:

1= Not at all

2= To a lesser extent

3= To an extent

4= To a larger extent

#### 4.2.5 Pilot study

The main purpose with the pilot study was to eliminate and clear all ambiguities and indistinction pertaining to the questionnaire and to ensure that errors of whatever nature were immediately rectified (Delpont, 2002:177).

The questionnaire was pre-tested by using a group of respondents who were part of the intended population that would not be part of the sample. The questionnaire was pre-tested in Potchefstroom secondary schools to a sample of secondary school principals (n=2). A space was left on the questionnaire for comments or evaluation by the respondents for improving the questionnaire (Gall *et al.*, 1996; 298; Delpont, 2002:177).

#### **4.2.6 Final questionnaire**

After receiving comments and criticisms from the respondents the questionnaire was revised and computerized to construct a final one.

#### **4.2.7 Covering letter**

A covering letter explaining the purpose of the study was written. (See Appendix B.) It gave direction on how the questionnaire should be returned and also assured the respondents of the confidentiality of their replies. A self-addressed envelope was enclosed with the questionnaire for the convenience of the respondents (Gall *et al.*, 1996:300).

#### **4.2.8 Administrative procedures**

A written request for the names and addresses of all the secondary schools in the North-West Province was forwarded to the statistical services at the Potchefstroom district office. A list dividing the schools in five regions was made available.

The researcher wrote letters to the two Regional Managers of the 109 (n=109) secondary schools requesting permission to conduct research at the secondary schools in their regions. A positive response to both letters was received on the 07 and 21 July respectively allowing the researcher to mail questionnaires to the school (see Appendix A). On the 23 July 2003 the first questionnaires to all 109 schools were mailed.

#### **4.2.9 Population and Sample**

The purpose of this study was to determine to which extent principals use negotiation skill as part of their managerial task. The North-West Province consisting of 396 secondary schools is divided into

five Regions, of which two were selected.

The first step was to find the number of principals in the North-West Province. Data collected indicated a target population of 396 (n=396) secondary school principals in the province.

Based on non-probability sample reasons, chosen from a multistage sampling of areas a sample location selection technique was used (Leedy & Omrod, 2001:219). This implies that each of the selected areas (n=2) was divided into smaller sections ("sample locations"), such as specific towns.

The second step was to determine a sample of secondary school principals that would be representative of the target population. The size of the sample had to be reasonably small for reasons of time and cost while it had to be large enough to ensure that it was representative enough of the overall population (Vermeulen, 1998:52; Leedy & Omrod, 2001:219).

In this research, the two selected regions consisted of 109 (n=109) principals of secondary schools. The data collected indicated that there were 60 (n=60) secondary school principals in the Southern region and 49 (n=49) secondary school principals in the Northern region. All of these school principals were used as part of the study population. This implies that conclusions findings and deductions could only be made for this specific population and not for all the principals in the North-West Province.

In choosing this non-probability sampling technique for this research the following criteria was taken into consideration ( Gall *et al.*, 1996:227-228; Leedy & Omrod, 2001:218-219) :

- The sample was located at or near where the researcher works.
- The schools were reachable in terms of distance.
- The researcher was familiar with the administrator who would need to approve data collection.
- The researcher, being a principal himself, was acquainted to most of the principals in the Southern Region.
- Time and money was saved.

This sample of the targeted population was deemed to be representative of the target population in the North-West Province.

#### 4.2.10 Follow –ups

As a result of the low response rate of unreturned mail from non-respondents, follow-up letters were written and sent. The tone of the follow-up letter acknowledged the difficulty the respondents might have had in complying with the request (Bennet *et al.*, 1994:265) but also emphasized the importance of every single questionnaire and the value of every individual's contribution (Gall *et al.*, 1996:302).

On 20 August 2003 a follow up letter with another copy of a questionnaire and a self-addressed envelope was sent to the non-respondents.

A few weeks later more questionnaires were received. A record was kept of all the received questionnaires and telephone follow-ups were made to principals of the schools who had not responded.

Within a period of about four months 71,6% of the questionnaires were received. After numerous follow-ups and telephone calls it was clear that some questionnaires never reached their destination as some were returned back to the researcher. Some principals did not return or fill in the questionnaires. The reasons for this negative response could be attributed to the fact that they were too busy to fill in the questionnaire and /or were not willing because they were not compensated or simply did not want to fill it in.

#### 4.2.11 Reliability of factors

It was necessary to analyse the different factors using instruments that would accurately measure them. In this study interrelated items were summed up to obtain an overall score for each factor. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to estimate the reliability of this scale by determining internal consistency of the average correlation of items within the test (Cronbach, 1951).

**Table 4.1: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha**

Rank	Factor	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
1	Empathy	0,84
2	Listening	0,83
3	Process of negotiation	0,80

4	Persuasion	0,79
5	Space	0,76
6	Timing	0,59

According to this instrument the larger the overall Alpha Coefficient the more those items contribute to a reliable scale. Nunnally (1978) suggests 0,70% as an acceptable reliability coefficient and a smaller coefficient as inadequate.

From table 4.1, empathy (0.84), listening (0.83), the process of negotiation (0.80), persuasion (0.79) and space (0.76) are reliable measuring instruments, while timing (0.59) can be considered as having an acceptable reliability coefficient.

#### 4.2.12 Response rate

109 questionnaires were sent out to all principals of secondary schools of the Southern and Northern regions in the North-West Province. Table 4.1 below shows the response rate from each sample population.

**Table 4.2 Distribution of questionnaires**

SAMPLE LOCATION	SENT OUT	RECEIVED BACK	% OF THE TOTAL
<b>Southern region</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>46,8</b>
<b>Northern region</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>24,8</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>71,6</b>

From table 4.2 it emerges that 78 of the questionnaires (71,6%) were returned. According to Landman (1980:112) a return rate of more than 70% is enough to make a meaningful deduction of the study population.

#### 4.2.13 Statistical techniques

After the questionnaires were received back the results of the research were processed using the

SAS programme. Frequencies were determined by the FREQ Procedure. The mean score, percentages and standard deviations were determined through the MEANS Procedure of the SAS Programme (SAS Institute Inc., 1985:403). Cronbach's Coefficient Alfa was also used to sum up and to obtain an overall score for each skill. As had been mentioned before (see 4.2.10) this instrument was used to determine the internal consistency of the average correlation of items within the test.

The frequencies were calculated in order to obtain an idea of the extent to which negotiations skills are used and to gauge how critical the skills needed are.

Use was also made of the calculation of the practical significance (effect size-d-value) which is discussed in more detail in par. 4.4.1.

### **4.3 INTERPRETATION OF DATA**

#### **4.3.1 General information**

The aim of these questions (see Questions 1-10, Appendix A) was to determine the personal background of the principals as well as the demographic information of their schools. Biographical details of the principals included sex, age, experience, position held before, training in educational management and highest academic and professional qualifications.

The demographic details included the physical location of the school, grading and the type of the school.

Frequencies and percentages were used to discuss the general information of the principals and their schools.

General information as received from the respondents is summarized in table 4.3.

**Table 4.3: General information of principals and their schools**

Item	Biographical data		RESPONSE	
			f=	%
1.	Sex	Female	12	15,4
		Male	66	84,6
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
2.	Age	Below 30	0	0,0
		31-40	17	21,8
		41-50	33	42,3
		51+	28	35,9
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
3.	Position held before	Educator	5	6,4
		HOD	18	23,1
		Deputy Principal	49	62,8
		No response	6	7,7
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
4.	Experience as principal	0-5	22	28,2
		6-10	35	44,9
		11+	20	25,6
		No response	1	1,3
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
5.	Training in educational Management	Formal training	20	25,6
		Informal training	13	16,7
		B. Ed	38	48,7
		No response	1	9,0
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
6.	Highest academic Qualification	Grade 12	9	11,5
		B.A	23	29,5
		B. Ed	37	47,4
		M. Degree	8	10,3
		D. Degree	0	00,0
		No response	1	1,3
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
7.	Highest professional qualification	REQV 11	1	1,3
		REQV 12	1	1,3
		REQV 13	7	9,0
		REQV 14	18	23,1
		REQV 15	24	30,7
		REQV +16	26	33,3
		No response	1	1,3
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>

8.	Physical location of school	Country	14	17,9
		Urban	19	24,4
		Township	25	57,7
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
9.	Type of school	Boys only	0	0,0
		Girls only	0	0,0
		Boys and girls	78	100,0
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>
10.	Grading of school	S3	26	33,3
		S4	51	65,4
		No response	1	1,3
		<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>100,0</b>

- **Question 1: Sex**

From this table, it seems that the majority of the principals respondents 66 (84,6%) are male while 12 (15,4%) are female. This data highlights the under-representation of female principals in our schools compared to their male counterparts.

- **Question 2: Age**

From the above table it appears that the majority of principal respondents 33 (42,3%) fall between the ages 41-50, followed by 28 (35,9%) who are above 51 years of age. A small minority of 17 (21,8%) are between the ages of 31-40 and none are below 30 years.

- **Question 3: Position held before**

Table 4.2 indicates that 49 (62,8%) of the respondents were deputy principals, 18 (23,1%) were heads of department while 5 (6,4%) were educators prior to becoming principals of schools. For question 3, six (7,7%) principals did not respond to this question, offering no reasons.

- **Question 4: Experience as principal**

From this table one further infers that the principals who responded to the questionnaire have less than 10 years of experience. It seems that 57 (73,1%) of the respondents have experience of 10 years and below, while 20 (25,6%) have experience of 11 years and above. One (1,3) principal did not respond to this question.

experience of 10 years and below, while 20 (25,6%) have experience of 11 years and above. One (1,3) principal did not respond to this question.

- **Question 5: Training in Educational Management**

In table 4.2 it is indicated that 38 (48,7%) of the principals who responded holds a B. Ed. degree in educational management, 20 (25,6%) underwent formal training and 13 (16,7%) had informal training. One principal, for unknown reasons, did not respond to this question.

- **Question 6: Highest academic qualification**

The vast majority of respondents as indicated by table 4.2 have proper qualifications for the post of the principal. From the data collected, 60 (76,9%) of the respondents have obtained B. Degrees and above, while 8 (10,3%) are in possession of a Master's Degree. Only 9 (11,5%) of the principals who responded are in possession of a grade 12 Qualification.

- **Question 7: Highest professional qualification**

The response to this question alludes to the fact mentioned earlier that principals are overly qualified for the work they are doing. Table 4.3 indicates that 50 (64%) of the respondents have a Relative Education Qualification Value (REQV) of 15 and above a system which is primarily based on the number of recognized prescribed full-time professional academic years of study at an approved university, technikon or college of education and taking into account the level of school education attained. 18 (23,1%) of the principals have an REQV of 14 and 7 (9,0%) an REQV of 13. Only 2 (2,6%) have an REQV of 12 and below.

- **Question 8: Physical location of the school**

Considering table 4.3, it seems that the majority of principals 45 (57,7%) who responded were from township schools followed by those in urban schools 19 (24,4%) and 14 (17,9%) from country schools.

- **Question 9: Type of school**

The respondents were requested to indicate whether the schools accommodated boys only, girls only or both. Table 4.3 indicates that all the principals who responded 78 (100%) are

from secondary schools that accommodate both boys and girls.

- **Question 10: Grading of school**

Table 2.4 indicates that 26 (33,3%) secondary schools that responded have 500 and less students (S3) while 51 (65,4%) of the secondary schools have more than 500 students (S4). According to Weeto (1997:73) most principals have a difficult task in managing their schools since schools with a large learner population in general poses more disciplinary problems and conflict situations to handle than schools with a small learner population.

### **Conclusion**

The table shows under the sex category that 84,6% of the respondents are male compared to 15,4% of their female counterparts. In the age group category the majority of principal namely 64% fall between the 31 - 50 age bracket, while 35,9% are 51 years on age and above. The table further reveals that 85,9% of the principals were either deputy principals or heads of department prior to occupying the principal's posts. The respondents are mainly experienced as 70,5 % of them have 6-11 years of experience as principals. 87,2% of the respondents hold B. Degrees and above, with a Relative Education Qualification Value of 14-16. 57,7% of the schools are from the townships with a learner population of more than 500 learners each and the rest, 42,3% comes from either the country and urban schools. The table indicates that the latter has a population of 500 or less learners each.

The interpretation of data to determine the extent to which principals use negotiation skills is dealt with in the following section.

### **4.3.2 Methodology**

In structuring the report the mean score was calculated and it came out that seventeen out of eighteen items scored three and above, an indication that the majority of the respondents were conversant with the steps of the negotiation process. The percentages were then calculated and they ranged between 70% and 94% indicating that most of the respondents had no problem following negotiation steps. As these calculations did not serve the purpose of this research, it was decided to calculate the frequency and percentages of each item on the four points scale used in the questionnaire.

groupings: the *not at all* and *to a lesser extent* response are grouped together to form a negative response while the *to an extent* and *to a larger extent* response are combined to form a positive response.

#### **4.3.3 The process of negotiation**

The aim of these items (questions 11.1 - 11.18) were to elicit information from the respondents as to whether they are acquainted with the steps to follow during the process of negotiation as well as the practices during the three phases of the process. The response on these items is summarised and depicted in table 4.4.

An overwhelming majority of respondents, ranging between 88.3% - 100%, seem to be well-conversant with the process of negotiation. This explains the high mean score from 3.79 - 3.01. If the data in table 4.4 is analysed in detail, it is clear that information obtained in confidence is protected (item 11.3 - 100%) that each party is granted an opportunity to present its case in full without interruptions (item 11.7 - 100%) and that all agreements are recorded in writing (item 11.9 - 92.2%). The responses are also indicative of the fact that the prelude, duration and termination phases are followed in a logical order (item 11.17 - 93.6%) and that negotiation objectives are outlined (item 11.1 - 93.3%). All the above findings are in line with the literature study (see 2.6) and confirm the theoretical section to a large extent.

**Table 4.4: The process of negotiation**

Rank	Item	Message	Mean	%	Std. dev.	RESPONSES							
						1		2		3		4	
						f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.	11.3	Information obtained in confidence is protected.	3.79	94.8	0.40	0	0.0	0	0.0	16	20.5	62	79.5
2.	11.7	Each party is granted an opportunity to present its case in full without interruptions.	3.71	92.8	0.45	0	0.0	0	0.0	22	28.2	56	71.8
3.	11.13	Parties should implement agreements in good faith.	3.61	90.3	0.56	0	0.0	3	3.8	24	30.8	51	65.4
4.	11.16	I rely on the cooperation of educators to reach our objectives.	3.59	89.8	0.56	0	0.0	3	3.9	2.5	32.5	49	63.6
5.	11.18	Good relationships are built for future negotiations.	3.58	89.5	0.52	0	0.0	1	1.3	30	39.0	46	59.7
6.	11.14	Time frames for implementation should be strictly observed.	3.57	89.3	0.61	0	0.0	5	6.5	23	29.9	49	63.6
7.	11.4	Time is an important factor of the process.	3.54	88.5	0.61	0	0.0	5	6.5	25	32.5	47	61.0
8.	11.9	All agreements are recorded in writing.	3.49	87.3	0.64	0	0.0	6	7.79	27	35.1	44	57.1
9.	11.12	Once a settlement is reached, the process is terminated.	3.48	87.	0.77	2	2.6	7	9.1	20	26	48	62.3
10.	11.1	Negotiations objectives are outlined.	3.44	86.	0.67	1	1.3	5	6.4	30	38.5	42	53.8
10.	11.2	Once the subject is known, I consult relevant sources.	3.44	86.	0.65	1	1.3	4	5.1	32	41.0	41	52.3
12.	11.5	Venue is also an important factor of the process.	3.43	85.8	0.63	0	0.0	6	7.7	32	41.0	40	51.3
13.	11.11	Final agreements are signed in the presence of all.	3.39	84.8	0.84	2	2.3	12	15.4	17	21.8	47	60.3
14.	11.17	The prelude, duration and termination phases are followed in a logical order.	3.34	83.5	0.59	0	0.0	5	6.4	41	52.6	32	41.0
15.	11.10	If a settlement is not reached in time agreed, negotiations are rescheduled to a given time and venue.	3.23	80.8	0.75	1	1.3	12	15.4	33	42.3	32	41.0
16.	11.15	If an agreement is reached, no changes will be accepted.	3.11	77.8	0.70	3	3.9	6	7.8	47	61.0	21	27.3
17.	11.8	Sanctions are used when all attempts at reaching a settlement had failed.	3.01	75.3	0.89	7	9.1	9	11.7	37	48.0	24	31.2
18.	11.6	The expected duration of the negotiation is specified.	2.80	70.	0.93	8	10.4	18	23.4	32	41.6	19	24.7

1=Not at all                      2=To a lesser extent                      3=To an extent                      4=To a larger extent

The reasons for this overwhelmingly positive response to this question might be attributed to the following:

Looking at the frequencies and percentages pertaining to educational training in management (see table 4.3: Question 5), principals who attended educational management training with a B. Ed. degree amounted to 38 (48.7%), those who underwent formal training came to 20 (25.6%) and those who underwent informal training came to 13 (16.7) with one null response. These figures attribute to the fact that all in all, the vast majority of respondents 70 (91%) have attended educational training in different forms, either by diploma, degree, workshops and/ or in-service training. Thus it seems that principal respondents have been exposed to some form of management training which might include negotiation training and if so, these will build good relationships between themselves and the educators and strengthen mutual trust between them (see 2.6.3.1).

The percentages and frequencies on experience (see table 4.3: Question 4) indicate that 55 (70.5%) of the respondents have six years experience and more as principals, a fact that adds to the overwhelmingly positive response to this question.

As far as age is concerned (see table 4.2: Question 2) 61 (78.2%) of the respondents fall within the combined age group of 41-51 years. This confirms the point made above that because of experience and since they are adults, could have affected the way they responded to this question. These principals by virtue of their experience and age could have learned the process of negotiation with time.

In table 4.3 it was also indicated that 85.9% of the respondents were either heads of department or deputy principals prior to their appointments as principals. The positions they held before also built on their experience on negotiations hence the positive response to the question.

In table 4.3, it can be seen that some principals responded differently to some of the items in table 4.4 and these will be discussed briefly.

- *Rank no. 13 (Item 11.11 – mean 3.39): Final agreements are signed in the presence of all.*

It seems from the analyses of percentages that some respondents do not apply this skill at all or to a lesser extent (17.7%). This could be attributed to the facts that these principals might not have attended formal training in educational management and/or their schools could be

situated far from urban or township areas where trainings normally take place. As a result such principals will always lack identical professional training with no exposition to in-service training in negotiation skills (see 2.9). Literature comes out very clear on this point, that final agreements should be signed jointly (see 2.6.2.1). It further states that after the final document has been checked for accuracy should be signed by all parties in the presence of one another.

- *Rank no. 15 (Item 11.10 – mean 3.23): If a settlement is not reached in time agreed, negotiations are rescheduled to a given time and venue.*
- *Rank no. 18 (Item 11.6 – mean 2.80): The expected duration of the negotiation is specified.*

From the analyses based on percentages it seems that some principals responded to using these two skills which are closely linked to a lesser extent (16.7% and 33.8%). Because negotiations do not necessarily offer quick solutions and sometimes drag on for too long before an agreement is reached, some principals may deem it as time-consuming and a waste of time to reschedule for another time and place (see 2.6.2.1). Other reasons that can explain this response could be good management practice, good time management practice and making time for other activities (see 3.3.5). If the process is to be followed to the letter when parties are not able to reach a settlement in time agreed, an agreement can be made to meet again at a given time, place and venue. This gives the parties enough time to regroup and think of other strategies or options to the issues under discussion. As stated earlier (see 2.6.1.1) time limits should again be specified.

- *Rank no. 17 (Item 11.8 – mean 3.01): Sanctions are used when all attempts at reaching a settlement had failed.*

The analyses of percentages shows that this item appears to be still bordering on the mindsets of some principals (20.8%) who do not want to shift from the way they used to do things, always electing to impose their needs on others instead of negotiating issues with them. Literature on this matter (see 2.6) categorically states that sanctions should not be used to force a solution since they may create an antagonistic climate and may force the other party to take defensive measures. If ever sanctions have to be used they should serve as a last resort (see 2.6.2.1). If this type of attitude is not curbed, it could impact negatively on the school, especially on staff development.

Taken together the above responses supports the literature study (see 2.10) in the sense that negotiations establish a basis of co-operation, joint responsibility and joint problem-solving which are fundamental for the smooth running of the school. It further seems that the main factors that are taken into consideration when negotiating are:

- Protecting information obtained in confidence (94.8%).
- Granting each party an opportunity to present its case in full without interruptions (92.8%).
- Implementing agreements in good faith (90.3%).

The lack of administrative knowledge and negotiation skills also seems to be the main reasons why some principals have a negative attitude towards the process of negotiation.

For the process of negotiation to succeed one should be able to pay careful attention by listening to what the other party is saying. This skill is explored in the next section.

#### **4.3.4 Listening**

The aim of these items (questions 12.1 - 12.20) intended to find out if principals use listening skills when interacting with educators as part of their managerial task (see 3.3.2.1). The response to these items is depicted in table 4.5. It seems that this skill also obtained a high mean score of between 3.70 to 3.01). If the different mean scores are analysed in more detail it seems that the majority of responses, range between 84.4% - 100%. Thus it seems to suggest that the majority of respondents are using the guidelines for developing listening skills to an extent up to a larger extent. Guidelines for listening are widely used as a skill since principals show interest in the conversation (item 12.4 -100%) by inviting educators to say more (item 12.12 – 88.5%) and resisting any distractions to concentrate on the message (item 12.5 - 90%). It seems that the principals analyse the message (item 12.1 - 97.4%) since they check for their understanding by asking questions (item 12.3 -96.1%). It further seems that the majority of principals evaluate the message (item 12.2 -96.2%) to avoid being excited before the message is said (item 12.19 - 94.8%). The respondents also seem to conceal their prejudice in order to hear the whole message (item 12.14 - 94.7%) remaining always unbiased (item 12.7 - 96.1%) and impartial to whom they are listening to. During

feedback simple language is used in order to be understood (item 12.18 - 98.7%) starting with reflective phrases (item 12.17 - 91%). Using listening as a skill seems to be working for principals as it expands their knowledge and experience (item 12.20 - 97.4%) and assists in achieving interpersonal relationships with educators (item 12.13 - 98.8%).

The above responses confirms what is entailed in the literature study (see 3.3.2) which suggests that the majority of principals use listening as a skill when performing their tasks, indicating that the mastering of skills in listening can improve relations and effective communications with educators (see 3.3.2.6).

The reasons to this overwhelming response could be that the majority of principals had undergone formal or informal training in educational management (91%) and have built experience through the years (70.5%), as they have six and more years as principals. These facts are informed by the frequencies and percentages as depicted in table 4.3.

Some responses, however, were negative as can be seen from table 4.4 which will be discussed next.

- *Rank no. 17 (Item 12.11 – mean 3.06): I take notes.*

In the analyses from the percentages some respondents (20.5%) seem not to apply this skill at all and others do so to a lesser extent. This is an important skill as it would assist the principals to record in writing and check the wording of the agreement with the other party. Notes should be taken to help the principal in case he needs the information later (see 3.3.2.4.).

The reason for such a negative response could be that the respondents regard the taking of notes as a waste of time as they have to listen and write at the same time. It is necessary to be selective as everything cannot be noted down (see 2.6.2.1).

- *Rank no. 18 (Item 12.10 – mean 3.01): I am aware of the non-verbal messages.*

The analyses of the percentages show that this item is indicative of the fact that 17 (22.1%) of the respondents are not at all and to a lesser extent not aware of the non-verbal messages. This can be attributed to inadequate knowledge and information in the negotiation skills on

the part of these school managers (see 2.9). Literature on the subject categorically states that non-verbal skills should be understood as they reflect concern and congruence (see 3.3.2.1).

Table 4.5: Listening

Rank	Item	Message	Mean	%	Std. dev.	RESPONSES							
						1		2		3		4	
						F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.	12.4	I show interest in the conversation.	3.70	92.5	0.45	0	0.0	0	0.0	23	29.5	55	70.5
2.	12.18	During feedback, I use simple language to be understood.	3.67	91.8	0.49	0	0.0	1	1.3	23	29.5	54	69.2
3.	12.1	I analyse the message.	3.66	91.5	0.52	0	0.0	2	2.3	22	28.2	54	69.2
4.	12.3	I ask questions to check my understanding.	3.65	91.3	0.55	0	0.0	3	3.4	21	26.9	54	69.2
5.	12.2	I evaluate the message.	3.56	89.	0.57	0	0.0	3	3.9	28	35.9	47	60.3
6.	12.20	I expand my knowledge and experience.	3.52	88.	0.55	0	0.0	2	2.6	33	42.3	43	55.1
7.	12.5	I resist distractions to concentrate on the message.	3.47	86.8	0.65	0	0.0	7	9.0	27	34.6	44	56.4
8.	12.14	I conceal my prejudice to hear the whole message.	3.43	85.8	0.63	1	1.3	3	4.0	34	44.7	38	50.0
9.	12.19	I avoid being excited before I hear the whole message.	3.42	85.5	0.63	1	1.3	3	3.9	36	46.1	38	48.7
10.	12.7	I am always unbiased to who ever I am listening to.	3.41	85.3	0.61	1	1.3	2	2.6	38	49.3	36	46.8
11.	12.13	I achieve interpersonal relationship with educators.	3.37	84.3	0.51	0	0.0	1	1.3	47	60.3	30	38.5
12.	12.12	Invite the educators to say more.	3.30	82.5	0.70	1	1.3	8	10.3	35	44.9	34	43.6
12.	12.17	I give clear feedback by starting with reflective phrases.	3.30	82.5	0.63	0	0.0	7	9.0	40	51.3	31	39.7
14.	12.6	I am always impartial to who I am listening to.	3.25	81.3	0.69	1	1.3	8	10.5	38	50.0	29	38.2
15.	12.8	I do not judge the other person.	3.24	81.	0.79	4	5.2	5	6.5	36	46.7	32	41.6
16.	12.15	I remain calm even when my patience is stretched.	3.20	80.	0.68	0	0.0	12	15.6	37	48.0	28	36.4
17.	12.11	I take notes.	3.06	76.5	0.82	4	5.1	12	15.4	37	47.4	25	32.0
18.	12.10	I am aware of the non-verbal messages.	3.01	75.3	0.75	2	2.6	15	19.5	40	51.9	20	26.0
19.	12.16	I pretend to be interested even if I am bored.	2.48	62.	0.87	13	16.7	21	26.9	37	47.4	7	9.0
20.	12.9	I become impatient if an educator is not sure of what he/she is saying.	2.14	53.5	0.91	22	28.6	27	35.1	23	29.9	5	6.5

1=Not at all

2=To a lesser extent

3=To an extent

4=To a larger extent

- *Rank no. 19 (Item 12.16 – mean 2.48): I pretend to be interested even if I am bored.*

As found in table 4.5 in the analyses of the percentages, it is indicated that 34 (43.6%) of the respondents answered in the negative as they did not or to a lesser extent use this item. This implies that these managers show their lack of interest when they become bored. This response also suggests that these managers are not aware of the psychological barriers to listening (see 3.3.2.5) and because of a lack of this knowledge could break the listener's concentration and hamper his or her listening during negotiations.

- *Rank no. 20 (Item 12.9 – mean 2.14): I become impatient if an educator is not sure of what he/she is saying.*

An analyses of percentages of this item shows that 49 (63.7%) of the respondents become impatient not at all or to a lesser extent with the listener. Literature study guards against such behaviour (see 3.3.2.5) because it is such emotional barriers that can prevent the listener from hearing the speaker out.

In a nutshell the above responses to these items are in agreement with literature (see 3.3.2.1; 3.3.2.4; 3.3.2.5) that the listener must show genuine interest in the conversation (92.5%), that simple language must be used during feedback in order to be understood (91.8%), that messages should always be analysed (91.5%) and questions asked to check one's understanding (91.3%). It can also be added that a few items were lowly prioritized by the respondents, which could be attributed to either a lack of knowledge and information regarding negotiation skills or a lack of identical professional training in negotiation skills (see 2.9).

Another important skill that needs to be mastered in negotiations is empathy, which will be discussed next.

#### **4.3.5 Empathy**

The aim with these items on empathy as a skill (questions 13.1 – 13.8) was to find out how often principals used this skill as part of their management task. The questions were asked in such a way to find out if principals imagined themselves to be in the situation of educators and if they shared and understood their feelings. The responses to these items are portrayed

and summarized in table 4.6.

All the items received a high mean score (between 3.69 and 3.29). If the percentages are analysed in detail it seems that the response to these items was overwhelming. The respondents, ranging between 88.5% - 99.9% responded positively to these items. The response suggests that the respondents understand the values and perspective of those with whom they negotiate (see 3.3.3). From table 4.6 it is clear that the educators' emotions are taken into consideration (item 13.4 – 98.7%) as the managers imagine what it would be like to be in their shoes (item 13.8 – 94.7%), they are made to feel understood (item 13.5 – 99.9%) as efforts are made to lower their verbal attacks (item 13.1 – 88.5%) and distress (item 13.2 – 90.9%). It is further apparent from table 4.5 that trust is ultimately built between the parties (item 13.6 – 98.7%) paving the way for effective flow of communication (item 13.4 – 98.7%), resulting in attaining successful outcomes (item 13.3 – 98.7%).

The reasons for this overwhelmingly positive response could be attributed to the training principals underwent in educational management and the qualifications they attained in the field of education (see table 4.3).

**Table 4.6: Empathy**

Rank	Item	Message	Mean	%	Std. Dev	RESPONSES							
						1		2		3		4	
						f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.	13.6	To build trust between us.	3.69	92.3	0.49	0	0.0	1	1.3	22	28.2	55	70.5
2.	13.5	To make them feel understood.	3.67	91.8	0.46	0	0.0	0	0.0	25	32.0	53	67.9
3.	13.3	To reach successful outcomes.	3.65	91.3	0.50	0	0.0	1	1.3	25	32.0	52	66.7
4.	13.4	To maintain effective flow of communication.	3.62	90.5	0.51	0	0.0	1	1.3	27	35.1	49	63.6
5.	13.7	When negotiating with educators, their emotions are taken into consideration.	3.47	86.8	0.55	0	0.0	2	2.6	36	47.4	38	50.0
6.	13.8	I imagine what it would be like to be in their shoes.	3.40	85.	0.59	0	0.0	4	5.3	37	48.7	35	46.0
7.	13.1	To lower the other party's verbal attacks.	3.37	84.3	0.79	3	3.8	6	7.7	28	35.9	41	52.6
8.	13.2	To lower the other party's distress.	3.29	82.3	0.70	2	2.6	5	6.5	38	49.3	32	41.6

**1=Not at all**

**2=To a lesser extent**

**3=To an extent**

**4=To a larger extent**

The responses as shown in this table support literature study (see 3.3.3) and also confirm the theoretical section that trust needs to be built between the parties (92.3%), that parties must always show a desire to understand the feelings of each other (91.8%) in order to reach successful outcomes (91.3%). The overwhelming response to this skill indicates that the managers view empathy in a serious light as they try to understand the values and perspective of those with whom they are negotiating.

The next important negotiation skill is space which will be discussed in the following section.

#### 4.3.6 Space

The aim with these items (questions 14.1 – 14.6) was to find out if space, the size of objects and the arrangement of furniture had a significant importance when negotiating with educators. The responses to these items are captured and summarized in table 4.7.

This category did not receive the same high mean score (between 2.78 and 2.00) as the previous categories. If this response is analysed in more detail it seems in general that the response to these items was lowly prioritised, as indicated in table 4.7. Ranging between 33.4% - 69.3%, this suggests that these skills were overlooked by managers when negotiating. The items will now be briefly discussed.

- Rank no.1 (Item 14.2 – mean 2.78): *It stimulates communication with others in the room.*
- Rank no.2 (Item 14.4 – mean 2.67): *When negotiating I sit as close as possible to the other party.*
- Rank no.4 (Item 14.5 – 2.37): *When negotiating, I avoid sitting behind a desk.*

The responses to these items are closely linked. The responses suggests that managers do not apply these skills at all or if they do, they do it to a lesser extent (item 14.2=33.4%; item 14.4=37.7%; item 14.5=56.4%). The reason for this response is the false perception that by practicing negotiating skills managers would be lessening their powers as managers (see 2.9). It can also be attributed to cultural upbringing: whilst white people are more task orientated, blacks are more human related. Literature in this regard is supportive of these statements; that if the furniture in the office is planned properly it would stimulate communication with others in the room (see 3.3.4.2).

If these items are not applied during negotiations the managers would always be seen as superiors sitting behind their desks and educators as subordinates not as equals in negotiations - As a result communication will be difficult (see 3.3.4.1).

- *Rank no. 3 (Item 14.1 – mean 2.44): A large office creates an impression of leadership.*

Based on the analyses from the percentage it seems that the response to this item is almost equally divided between those who responded positively and those who responded negatively (47.5%), since there is only a difference of 5%. This suggests that the size of objects and space have special meaning in the Western culture. Literature in this regard associates larger spaces with greater importance and status and creates the impression of confidence and leadership (see 3.3.4). How much space one needs, is determined by his or her cultural background (Marx *et al.*, 2002:56).

In township- and rural schools which are mainly managed by black principals, small offices with inadequate furniture are used for purposes of administration and interviews whereas in urban schools that are mostly managed by white principals' larger offices with more and larger furniture are used for the same purposes. This atrocity was brought about by the laws of the apartheid regime with its unequal allocation of funds, facilities, budgets etcetera to white and black schools.

Table 4.7: Space

Rank	Item	Message	Mean	%	Std. dev.	RESPONSES							
						1		2		3		4	
						f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.	14.2	It stimulates communication with others in the room.	2.78	69.5	0.90	8	10.3	18	23.1	35	44.9	17	21.8
2.	14.4	When negotiating, I sit as close as possible to the other Party.	2.67	66.8	0.95	11	14.3	18	23.4	33	42.9	15	19.5
3.	14.1	A large office creates the impression of leadership.	2.44	61.	1.04	19	24.4	18	23.1	28	35.9	13	16.7
4.	14.5	When negotiating, I avoid sitting behind a desk.	2.37	59.3	0.88	13	16.7	31	39.7	26	33.3	8	10.3
5.	14.6	I only use defensive position when I reprimand educators.	2.12	53.	0.92	22	28.6	29	37.6	20	26.0	6	7.8
6.	14.3	I use the corner position during friendly conversations.	2.00	50.	0.91	27	36.0	25	33.3	19	25.3	4	5.3

1=Not at all

2=To a lesser extent

3=To an extent

4=To a larger extent

This reason could be linked to cultural upbringing because black people, just like the Japanese, are used to overpopulation, thus less space (see. 3.3.4.1), whilst in the other countries where there is plenty of space, people tend to keep a distance from one another.

- *Rank no. 5 (14.6 – mean 2.12): I only use defensive position when I reprimand educators.*

The percentage analyses seem to indicate that managers do not use this skill at all or to lesser extent (66.2%) due to lack of space in their small offices. The skill demands that a table be used to create a defensive or competitive atmosphere for the parties to form and defend their own points of view (see 3.3.4.1) but with 75.6% of principals in township and rural schools (see table 4.2: question 8) occupying smaller offices this seems to be impossible. This is a skill that managers can use especially when reprimanding educators since it allows each party to form and defend their own points of view (see 3.3.4.1).

- *Rank no 6 (Item 14.3 – mean 2.00): I use the corner position during friendly conversations.*

Percentages analysis shows that the response to this item also indicates that this skill is not used at all or to a lesser extent by some of the managers (69.3%) with reasons as cited above. A manager needs to have a large office with room enough for a few chairs for such a meeting to take place (see 3.3.4.1) where people can have a friendly or informal conversation. This is an important skill that is normally taken by people who want to have a friendly conversation (see 3.3.4.1). As managers should not always be seen as adversaries they should practice this skill more often to build sound relationships with their subordinates.

The response to these items could be mainly attributed to cultural differences (see 3.3.4) and reasons already alluded to above. As personal space is primarily determined by culture and so is the size of objects like larger offices and furniture which have special meaning to different people of different cultures.

These recognitions confirm what is entailed in the literature study (see 3.3.4) that several characteristics of people and negotiation venues will increase the likelihood of a positive mood being established, taking cultural differences into consideration.

Judging by the response to these items it seems as if this skill is not practiced to an extent since it requires enough space, large offices and enough furniture for a positive mood to be created and to

enable communication to take place.

The following section will focus on timing as an important skill for negotiation.

#### 4.3.7 Timing

The aim with these items (questions 15.1 – 15.5) was to elicit information from the respondents to determine to what extent they use timing when planning for negotiations with educators. The response to these items are depicted and summarized in table 4.8.

This skill received a mean score from 3.66 to 2.80. If the mean scores are analysed in more detail it seems from the percentages that an overwhelming majority (92.2%) of respondents believe that good timing is essential for success in negotiations. It is clear from this response that proper planning and timing of the process can lead to an advantageously timed agenda (see 3.3.5). It is further indicated in table 4.7 that 88.4% of the respondents use timing to get the other side to react positively and quickly to a favourable situation that has a narrow window of accessibility in terms of time. As literature has it (see 3.3.5) the effort in timing is to stimulate and exploit the mentality that one should seize a quickly vanishing opportunity.

As it is indicated in table 4.8 the last three items were answered negatively (not at all or to a lesser extent) by the respondents: These are subsequently discussed.

- Rank no 3 (Item 15.1 – mean 2.85): *I negotiate when educators are not busy with exams.*

Based on the analyses of percentages the response to this item seems to suggest that some of the managers (29.9%) prefer to negotiate even when the educators are busy with exams since they do not know how to deal with timing. This could be attributed to reasons alluded to earlier in this chapter (see 4.3.3), based on inadequate knowledge and information as far as negotiation skills are concerned. Some logistical reasons can also trigger this response such as meetings and workshops that managers have to attend during school hours, their workloads, classes they have to teach and books they have to mark. As a result they have to use every opportunity they have to negotiate with educators. Literature in this regard states that negotiations should be timed in order to be successful. For negotiations to be a success, they should be timed in such way that they do not coincide with examination periods (see 3.3.5).

- *Rank no 4 (Item 15.4 – mean 2.81): I prefer morning rather afternoon appointments.*

From the analyses of percentages the response to this item, which is closely linked with item 15.1 above, seems to indicate that the respondents (39.4%) are negative towards this item, because of the same reasons given above (see *Rank no.3*). Some managers, as literature suggests, prefer morning appointments to the afternoon's, since people are fresh and more intellectually active (see 3.3.5).

- *Rank no 5 (Item 15.3 – mean 2.80): I use timing to make unpopular announcements.*

Analyses of percentages indicate that 29.9% of the respondents do not use this skill at all or only to a lesser extent, since they lack knowledge of how to use timing when making an offer in order to maximize that offers acceptability to the other party (see 3.3.5). Literature further states that one should time when his/her announcement will have the biggest impact so as to strongly influence the other party to close the deal (see 3.3.5).

**Table 4.8: Timing**

Rank	Item	Message	Mean	%	Std. dev.	RESPONSES							
						1		2		3		4	
						f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.	15.5	Good timing is essential for success in negotiations.	3.66	91.5	0.62	0	0.0	6	7.8	14	18.2	57	74.0
2.	15.2	I use timing to get the other side to react positively.	3.16	79.0	0.72	3	3.9	6	7.7	44	56.4	25	32.0
3.	15.1	I negotiate when educators are not busy with exams.	2.85	71.3	0.92	8	10.3	15	19.2	35	44.9	20	25.6
4.	15.4	I prefer morning rather than afternoon appointments.	2.81	70.3	1.02	9	11.8	21	27.6	21	27.6	25	32.9
5.	15.3	I use timing to make unpopular announcements.	2.80	70.0	1.07	15	19.5	8	10.4	31	40.3	23	29.9

**1=Not at all**

**2=To a lesser extent**

**3=To an extent**

**4=To a larger extent**

The reason that could explain such a low response to the last three items is that timing, is probably one of the most underrated variables in negotiations (see 3.3.5).

While some of the above responses ground what is contained in literature study (see 3.3.) that timing requires planning to know the best time for negotiating, in order for negotiations to be successful, some responses indicate that although timing is a key element in negotiations, it is also underrated (see 3.3.5). Lack of knowledge and information in this regard could be the cause of such response.

Another important skill in negotiations is persuasion, which will be briefly discussed in the next section.

#### **4.3.8 Persuasion**

These items (questions 16.1 – 16.13) purported to find out if the respondents used this skill when negotiating with educators since it is used to achieve specific goals and since it is the most courteous manner of social influence (see 3.3.6). The response to these items are portrayed and summarized in table 4.9.

This skill also received a high mean score (between 3.75 and 2.97). If the mean score is analysed in more detail it seems that an overwhelming majority of respondents, ranging between 89.6% - 100% responded positively to these items indicating that persuasion is used to an extent and even to a larger extent by managers.

This overwhelming response suggests that managers are always sincere so as to build trust (98.7%) and believe that lying and providing false evidence is unprofessional (94.8%). It further shows that the school managers plan their messages well (100%) when persuading the other party, since they provide proof to convince the educators that the solution arrived at is the best (97.4%) and as a result, projecting an image of reliability (97.4%). The table also indicates that the managers (98.7%) are positive in their approach since they anticipate to achieve intended goals without concealing facts as it is unethical (92.2%). Table 4.8 also shows that the managers try not to offend educators when negotiating with them (91.1%), use direct eye contact to elicit involvement (89.6%) and accept it when their opinions are criticized (97.4%). The managers use this skill since they regard it as a polite manner of

influencing people to act upon a message (91%).

The respondents answered negatively to some items. These are discussed next.

- *Rank no 12 (Item 16.7 – mean 3.08): I use gestures to emphasise a point.*

From an analyses of percentages only a small percentage of respondents (18%) did not use this skill at all or to a lesser extent. The reason for such a response could still be assigned to lack of knowledge and adequate information relating to negotiation skills on the part of the managers (see 2.9) coupled with (item 12.10).

Another reason for such a response could involve cultural element that could lead to a large-scale confusion between cultural groups (Van Staden, 2002:57). Universal gestures like nodding a head in agreement or when greeting someone have different uses in different cultures (see 3.3.6.2). Just as a certain body movement might mean nothing to some people it could be considered offensive in another culture.

This response does not augur well for negotiations since negotiators do not only convey messages through what is said but also by tone, facial expressions, posture, gestures and eye contact – and they all have a role to play (see 3.3.6.2). It is also true that actions speak louder than words that people are more inclined to believe non-verbal messages than verbal messages when they are used simultaneously (Erasmus-Kritzinger, 2002:27). Literature on the subject emphasises that non-verbal signals may predispose parties to interact and be susceptible to influence even before the first word is uttered (see 3.3.6.2).

- *Rank no 13 (Item 16.4 – Mean 2.97): I do not use my powers as principal.*

Analyses of percentages indicate that 25.6% of the respondents did not at all or to a lesser extent believe in exercising their powers as principals when negotiating or interacting with their staff members. The reason for this negative response could be attributed to the fact that, persuasion as some authors observed (see 3.3.6) is indirectly coercive since it depends heavily on the credibility of threats and extreme pressure to achieve its desired compliance. Hence some managers are still clinging to power when persuading educators. This is regrettable because literature consulted on the matter suggests that in persuasive interaction, power and authority should not play a role for if orders and threats are used from an

authoritative position there will be no persuasion (see 3.3.6.1).

The above responses are well in line with the literature study (see 3.3.6). The managers support the fact that in order for persuasion to be successful the prerequisites they alluded to above is especially helpful in getting others to change their attitudes or behaviour.

Judging by the response it seems that the following are the skills mostly used by the respondents:

- Being sincere as to build trust (93.8%).
- Being honest and providing true evidence (93.3%).
- Planning messages well (91.3%).
- Projecting an image of reliability (91,3%).

Thus, managers seem to be well versed with conditions under which persuasion should take place in order for it to be effective.

Table 4.9: Persuasion

Rank	Item	Message	Mean	%	Std. dev.	RESPONSES							
						1		2		3		4	
						f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%
1.	16.2	I am always sincere so as to build trust.	3.75	93.8	0.46	0	0.0	1	1.28	17	21.8	60	76.9
2.	16.13	Lying and providing false evidence is unprofessional.	3.73	93.3	0.71	4	5.1	0	0.0	9	11.5	65	83.3
3.	16.1	I plan my message well.	3.65	91.3	0.47	0	0.0	0	0.0	27	34.6	51	65.4
4.	16.5	I project an image of reliability.	3.62	90.5	0.53	0	0.0	2	2.6	25	32.5	50	64.9
5.	16.8	I provide proof to convince the educator that the solution arrived at is the best.	3.53	88.3	0.55	0	0.0	2	2.6	32	41.0	44	56.4
6.	16.10	I anticipate to achieve intended goals.	3.50	87.5	0.52	0	0.0	1	1.3	37	47.4	40	51.3
7.	16.12	Concealing facts to benefit from the concealment is Unethical.	3.48	87.	0.75	3	3.9	3	3.9	25	32.5	46	59.7
8.	16.6	I use direct eye contact to elicit involvement.	3.46	86.5	0.71	1	1.3	7	9.1	24	31.2	45	58.4
9.	16.3	I try not to offend educators.	3.44	86.	0.64	0	0.0	6	7.9	30	39.5	40	52.6
10.	16.9	I accept when my opinion is criticized.	3.43	85.8	0.54	0	0.0	2	2.6	40	51.3	36	46.1
11.	16.11	Persuasion is a polite manner of influencing people to act upon a message.	3.20	80.	0.67	2	2.3	5	6.4	46	59.0	25	32.0
12.	16.7	I use gestures to emphasise a point.	3.08	77.	0.87	6	7.7	8	10.3	37	47.4	27	34.6
13.	16.4	I do not use my powers as a principal.	2.97	74.3	0.89	6	7.7	14	17.9	34	43.6	24	30.8

1=Not at all

2=To a lesser extent

3=To an extent

4=To a larger extent

### 4.3.9 COMPARISON OF FACTORS BY RANK ORDER AND MEANS PROCEDURE

The analysis of responses pertaining to managerial skills indicates differences in responses among school managers. This section reveals how respondents compare the prioritization of factors. In table 4.10 the rank order of the factors according to their means usage by respondents is illustrated.

**Table 4.10: Factors and means by rank order**

RANK	FACTOR	N	MEAN	STD.DEV	MIN.	MAX.
1	Empathy	78	3.52	0.39	2.63	4.0
2	Persuasion	78	3.45	0.34	2.70	4.0
3	Process of negotiation	78	3.42	0.32	0.41	4.0
4	Listening	78	3.30	0.34	2.5	3.9
5	Timing	78	2.91	2.63	1.5	4.0
6	Space	78	2.40	0.63	1.0	3.67

As table 4.10 indicates empathy was ranked first as being the most important factor for school managers according to the means (3.52). This could be attributed to the fact that respondents understand the values and perspective of those with whom they negotiate (see 3.3.3), and that the emotions with who they negotiate are taken into consideration. It could also be because the managers imagine what it could be like to be in the shoes of those they negotiate with (see 4.3.5).

Persuasion was ranked second as the skill most used by school managers (3.45). The reasons for this response could be of sincerity on the side of managers to build trust between them and educators, and the planning of their messages when persuading the other party (see 4.3.8).

The process of negotiation was also highly ranked by the respondents (3.42). This indicates that the vast majority of respondents have attended management training which might have included training in negotiation (see 4.3.3). It is also clear that the school managers by virtue of their experience and age (see table 4.2) could have learned the process of negotiation in the process.

Listening was also ranked among the highest according to the mean use by school managers (3.29). This response confirms what is entailed in the literature study (see 3.3.2) that the majority of school managers use listening as a skill when performing their tasks, indicating that the mastering of skills in listening can improve relations with educators (see 4.3.4).

An interesting and somewhat disturbing observation relates to the ranking of timing (2.91) and space (2.40). From table 4.10 it appears that both these skills were ranked the lowest. The former is ranked fifth while the latter is ranked sixth by school managers. The implication hereof is that these skills do not rate highly for school managers.

With regard to timing this low rating could be due to a lack of knowledge on how to use timing on the side of the school managers or meetings and workshops that they have to attend during school hours and heavy workloads that prevent them from using timing correctly (see 4.3.7).

The low ranking of space could be attributed to cultural differences (see 3.3.4) and uneven allocation of resources and budgets by the pre-1994 government. The other reason could be linked to cultural upbringing, since black people are used to overpopulation and less space (see 3.3.4) while in countries where there is plenty of space people tend to keep a distance from one another (see 4.3.6).

#### **4.4 PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE (EFFECT SIZE) FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS**

It is necessary to analyse the respondents' prioritization of management skills in order to determine if differences were significant or not. For this purpose the d-value was computed to determine the effect size of the significant differences.

##### **4.4.1 The d-value (effect size)**

The effect size is independent of sample size and is a measure of practical significance. According to Ellis and Steyn (2003:51) it can be understood as a large enough effect to be important in practice and is described for differences in means.

The effect size assesses the magnitude of a difference between means, i.e. it takes into account the size of the difference between means regardless of whether it is statistically significant or not. In this regard practical significance determines if the difference is large enough to have an effect in practice (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51). For the purpose of this study the effect size for the difference between means will be used.

A natural way to comment on practical significance is to use the standardized difference between the means of two populations and in this case it will be for differences in responses between factors. Table 4.11 gives the effect size for this situation.

**Table 4.11: Effect sizes for means**

Conditions	Effect size (d)
Take $s_{\max}$ = maximum of $s_1$ and $s_2$ , the sample SD's.	$d = \frac{ \bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 }{s_{\max}}$

Where  $|\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2|$  is the difference between  $\bar{x}_1$  and  $\bar{x}_2$  without taking the sign into consideration. When no control group exist, the division by  $s_{\max}$  in the formula above gives rise to a conservative effect size in the sense that a practically significant result will not be concluded too easily (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:52).

The interpretation of the effect size was done on the basis of the following guidelines provided by Cohen (1988:26) and Vockel and Asher (1995:357):

- d = 0,2 (small effect) =\*
- d = 0,5 (medium effect) =\*\*
- d = 0,8 (large effect) =\*\*\*

For the purpose of this study data with  $d \geq 0.8$  will be considered as practically significant since it is the result of a difference having a large effect.

**4.4.2 Practical significance of differences between sex and the different negotiation factors / skills**

The aim of this calculation was to determine if there are any practical significance to differences between males and females and the different negotiation factors. The data is summarized in table 4.12

**Table 4.12: Effect of factors between sexes - A1**

Rank	Factor	Females		Males		Effect size	
		Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	d	
1	Empathy	3.45	0.37	3.54	0.40	0.23	
2	Persuasion	3.37	0.32	3.47	0.35	0.27	
3	Process of neg.	3.45	0.28	3.42	0.33	-0.10	
4	Listening	3.28	0.28	3.30	0.35	0.07	
5	Timing	3.15	0.52	2.87	0.65	-0.44	
6	Space	2.68	0.47	2.35	0.64	-0.52	**

**0.2=small effect (\*)    0.5=medium effect (\*\*)    0.8=large effect (\*\*\*)**

As table 4.12 indicates there were no practical significant differences between females and males with regard to empathy, persuasion, the process of negotiation, listening and timing. Data gathered in this regard can therefore be accepted as applying to both females and males in the study sample.

- *Practical significance between sexes and space (d = 0.52)*

There might be practically significant differences pertaining to space between males and females as differences of medium effect size were observed between them. The females scored a higher mean (2.68) to 2.35 of their male counterparts, indicating that the females might be practically significantly higher than the males.

This medium effect could be ascribed to differences between different sexes. Various factors like area, personal space and office space, impact on the controllable environment and the message communicated by it (see 3.3.4.1). Another reason that could explain this medium effect could be the under-representation of female principals (15.4%) in our schools compared to their male counterparts (84.6%) implying that the principals' positions and vacancies are occupied by male principals rather than female principals (see table 4.3: Question 4.3).

#### **4.4.3 Practical significance of differences in age and the different negotiation factors / skills**

The aim with this calculation was to determine if there are any practical significance of differences

in the age groups and the different negotiation factors. The data is summarized in table 4.13.

The ages were divided between four groups (see Appendix A). Since no response was received in the below 30 years category, the category of 31-40 years was regarded as group 1, of 41-50 as group 2 and of 51+ as group 3. The effect sizes of the groups were calculated for groups 1 and 2 (31-40years and 41-50 years), group 1 and 3 (31-40 years and 51+ years) and group 2 and 3 (41-50 years and 51+ years).

**Table 4.13: Effect of factors between age groups - A2.**

Factor	Group 1 31-40yrs		Group 2 41-50yrs		Group 3 51+		Effect sizes between groups		
	Mean	Std. dev.	Mean	Std. dev.	Mean	Std. dev.	1 and 2	1 and 3	2 and 3
Empathy	3.56	0.40	3.58	0.35	3.44	0.43	0.05	-0.27	-0.33
Persuasion	3.51	0.35	3.52	0.27	3.34	0.40	0.05	-0.43	<b>-0.47**</b>
Negotiation	3.39	0.34	3.46	0.26	3.40	0.38	0.20	0.01	0.17
Listening	3.30	0.33	3.33	0.38	3.26	0.31	0.09	-0.11	-0.19
Timing	2.88	0.71	3.04	0.65	2.78	0.56	0.22	-0.14	-0.39
Space	2.55	0.62	2.53	0.59	2.17	0.62	-0.03	<b>-0.61**</b>	<b>-0.58**</b>

0.2=small effect (\*)                      0.5=medium effect (\*\*)

0.8=large effect (\*\*\*)

As table 4.13 indicates there were no practically significant differences pertaining to age regarding empathy, the process of negotiation, listening and timing. None of these differences were large enough to indicate that the factors differ in practice according to age.

- *Practical significance of difference between age and persuasion ( $d = 0.47$ ) – group 2 and 3.*

For persuasion an effect of medium size might indicate that age group 3 (51+ years) with a lower mean score of 3.34 has less persuasion than age group 2 (31-40 years). These will be analysed in detail below.

As table 4.13 indicates age category 3 (51+ years) might be practically significantly smaller for persuasion than category 2 (41-50 years). The reason for this medium effect size could be attributed to power and authority used by respondents in this group (51+) to achieve their desired compliance (Dillard & Pfau, 2002:4). Lack of knowledge with regard to conditions for

effective persuasion could also be the reason for this medium effect size. Looking at the age category in this group threats used from an authoritative position instead of tact, courtesy and good listening skills could be linked to this effect size (see. 3.3.6). Literature on the subject warns that if threats, promises and pressure are to be used in order for persuasion to be effective, they should just be enough to make people comply in their actions (see 3.3.6.4), if not, there will be no persuasion.

- *Practical significance of difference between age and space ( $d = 0.61$ ) - group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.58$ ) - group 2 and 3).*

For space also groups 1 and 3 (31-40 years and 51+ years) have a medium effect size indicating that age group 3 (51+years) with a lower mean score of 2.17 might be practically significantly smaller for space than group 1 (31-40 years).

Groups 2 and 3 (41-50 years and 51+) also have a medium effect size indicating that age category 3 again with a lower mean score of 2.17 compared to the mean score of group 2 (2.55) might be practically significantly smaller for space than group 2. This indicates that differences pertaining to space for age group 3 (51+) might be significant in practice.

As table 4.13 indicates age group 3 (51+) might be practically significantly smaller than groups 1 and 2 (31-40 years and 41-50 years). This effect size could be attributed to different ages as the size of objects and space has special meaning to different people of different ages (see 3.3.4). The age of respondents in this group could suggest that younger principals prefer larger offices and larger furniture since they are associated with status and leadership while their older counterparts, especially in black schools, are used to smaller offices. Lack of thorough knowledge about space and its influence could also be ascribed to this group and will always have a negative impact on negotiations, rather than establishing a good climate for negotiations (see 3.3.4.2).

#### **4.4.4 Practical significance of differences between positions held before and the different negotiation factors / skills**

The aim with this calculation was to determine if there are practical significance to differences between positions held before and the different negotiation factors. The data is represented in table 4.14.

**Table 4.14: Effect of factors on positions held before – A3**

Factor	Group 1 Educator		Group 2 HOD		Group 3 Deputy Principal		Effect sizes between groups		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	1 and 2	1 and 3	2 and 3
Empathy	3.38	0.48	3.52	0.42	3.54	0.38	0.31	0.35	0.05
Persuasion	3.40	0.31	3.32	0.33	3.52	0.36	-0.25	0.32	<b>0.55 **</b>
Process of neg.	3.33	0.27	3.31	0.34	3.47	0.31	-0.08	<b>0.46 **</b>	<b>0.49 **</b>
Listening	3.20	0.21	3.17	0.38	3.36	0.33	-0.07	<b>0.49 **</b>	<b>0.50 **</b>
Timing	2.55	0.37	2.82	0.55	2.95	0.66	<b>0.50 **</b>	<b>0.60 **</b>	0.18
Space	2.44	0.50	2.34	0.64	2.41	0.67	-0.16	0.04	0.12

**0.2 =small effect (\*)**

**0.5 = medium effect (\*\*)**

**0.8 = large effect (\*\*\*)**

As Table 4.14 indicates there were no practically significant differences pertaining to positions held before regarding empathy and space. None of these effects were large enough to indicate that these factors differed in use according to positions held before.

- *Practical significance of difference between position held before and persuasion ( $d = 0.55$ ) – group 2 and 3.*

Practically significant differences of medium effect were observed for persuasion between groups 2 and 3 (head of department and deputy principal). Group 3 (deputy principal) has higher mean scores than group 2 (head of department) indicating that group 3 (deputy principal) might be significantly higher than group 2 in practice.

As table 4.14 indicates, position 2 and 3 those of the head of department and deputy principal might be practically significantly smaller than group 1(educator). The result of this calculation could be attributed to the fact that respondents in this group believe in exercising their powers when negotiating or interacting with staff members (see table 4.9) without taking persuasive measures into account. As has been mentioned earlier persuasion can be indirectly coercive as it depends on the credibility of threats and extreme pressure. Literature on the matter suggests that in persuasive interaction power and authority should be used to a minimum, because there will be no negotiation if orders and threats are used from an authoritative position (see 4.3.8).

Another reason as has already been alluded to (see 4.3.8) could be the element of universal gestures. Heads of department and deputy principals could use body movements that might mean nothing to some people but are considered offensive by other people like educators. The use of gestures in negotiation is important, since messages are not only conveyed by what is said, but also by facial expressions, posture and eye contacts (see 3.3.6.2).

- *Practical significance of differences between position held before and the process of negotiation ( $d = 0.46$ ) – group 1 and 3, ( $d = 0.49$ ) – group 2 and 3.*

Practically significant differences of medium effect were also observed for the process of negotiation between groups 2 and 3 (head of department and deputy principal). Group 3 (deputy principal) has higher mean scores than group 2 (head of department) indicating that group 3 (deputy principal) might be significantly higher than group 2 to in practice.

Table 4.14 further shows practically significant differences of medium effect size for the process of negotiation between groups 1 and 3 (educator and deputy principal). Group 3 has a higher mean score than group 1 indicating that group 3 might be significantly higher than group 1 in practice.

As Table 4.14 further indicates groups 1 and 3 and 2 and 3, indicate that age group 3 might be significantly higher in practice pertaining to the process of negotiation. The reason for this result could be linked to lack of formal training in educational management. As has already been explained (see 2.9) principals always lack identical professional training in negotiation skills if formal training is not attended.

Another reason could be that the deputy principals did not follow the process of negotiation as it is time consuming and does not offer quick solutions.

Literature consulted states that the steps of the process of negotiation should be followed to the letter and if a settlement is not reached in time, the negotiation should be re-scheduled to another given time, place and venue (see 4.3.3).

- *Practical significance of difference between position held before and listening ( $d = 0.49$ ) – group 1 and 3; ( $d = 0.50$ ) – group 2 and 3).*

Practically significant differences of medium effect were also observed for listening between groups 2 and 3 (head of department and deputy principal). Group 3 (deputy principal) has higher mean scores than group 2 (head of department) indicating that group 3 (deputy principal) might be significantly higher than group 2 in practice.

Table 4.14 further shows practically significant differences of medium effect size for listening between groups 1 and 3 (educator and deputy principal). Group 3 has a higher mean score than group 1 indicating that group 3 might be significantly higher than group 1 in practice.

From Table 4.14 it is clear that groups 1 and 3 (educator and deputy principal) and 2 and 3 (head of department and deputy principal) indicate that age group 3 might be significantly higher in practice than group 1 and 2. This could be attributed to the fact that the deputy principals appear not to be recording in writing the agreement with the other party (see 4.3.4). Literature consulted on the subject emphasizes that notes should be taken during negotiations to help the

principal with information that might be needed later (see 3.3.2.4). The respondents might regard the taking of notes as a waste of time, but literature is clear on the matter that it is necessary and important to select what you write as you cannot write down everything (see 2.6.2.1).

Another reason could be ascribed to the fact that non-verbal messages are used to a lesser extent by respondents in this group. This could be due to inadequate knowledge pertaining to negotiation skills on the part of the managers. As mentioned earlier (see 4.3.4) non-verbal skills should be understood as they reflect concern and congruence (see 3.3.2.1).

The respondents seem to lose interest and become impatient when an educator is not sure of what he or she is saying. It could be that managers are not aware of the psychological barriers to listening (see 3.3.2.5) and as a result break the listener's concentration and hamper his or her listening during negotiations. Literature study guards against such behaviour (see 3.3.2.5) as it can prevent the listener from hearing the speaker out. The difference in this group displayed a medium effect size thus it is of medium practical significance.

- *Practical significance of difference between position held before and timing ( $d = 0.50$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.60$ ) – group 1 and 3.*

Table 4.14 further shows practically significant difference of medium effect size for timing between groups 1 and 3 (educator and deputy principal). Group 3 has a higher mean score than group 1 indicating that group 3 might be significantly higher than group 1 in practice.

As Table 4.14 further indicates practically significant differences of medium effect were again observed for timing in groups 1 and 2 (educator and head of department) indicating that group 1 (educator) with a low mean score (2.55) might be practically significantly smaller for timing than group 2 (head of department). This medium effect size will be analysed in detail next.

As Table 4.14 indicates groups 1 and 2 (educator and head of department) and 1 and 3 (educator and deputy principal) show that age group 3 might be practically significantly higher to have an effect in practice pertaining to timing. The reason for such a calculation could be linked to the fact that managers negotiate even when the educators are busy with examinations since they do not know how to deal with timing. This could be linked to reasons already mentioned earlier in this chapter (see 4.3.3). Literature in this regard states that negotiations should be timed not to

coincide with examinations in order to be successful (see 3.3.5).

Another reason could be that the managers make unpopular announcements without timing them well when making offers. Such a step minimizes that offer's acceptability to the other party. Literature consulted states that timed announcements will have the biggest impact in influencing the other party (see 4.3.7). The differences in this group also displayed a medium effect size, thus it is of medium practical significance.

#### **4.4.5 Practical significance of differences between experience as principal and the different negotiation factors / skills**

The aim with this calculation was to determine if there are practically significant differences between the experience of respondents as principals and the different negotiation factors. The data is summarized in table 4.15.

**Table 4.15: Effect on factors based on experience as Principal – A4**

Factor	Group 1 0-5 years		Group 2 6-10 yrs		Group 3 11+ years		Effect sizes between groups		
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	1 and 2	1 and 3	2 and 3
Empathy	3.61	0.37	3.44	0.41	3.59	0.38	0.43	0.07	0.37
Persuasion	3.54	0.31	3.37	0.35	3.50	0.36	<b>0.47**</b>	0.11	0.36
Process of negotiation.	3.46	0.24	3.36	0.34	3.49	0.36	0.30	0.09	0.38
Listening	3.34	0.30	3.23	0.32	3.35	0.41	0.34	0.02	0.29
Timing	3.02	0.67	2.90	0.60	2.83	0.69	0.19	0.29	0.10
Space	2.57	0.66	2.36	0.63	2.33	0.58	0.31	0.36	0.05

0.2 = small effect (\*)

0.5 = medium effect (\*\*)

0.8 = large effect (\*\*\*)

As Table 4.15 indicates there were no practically significant differences in timing when it comes to experience as a principal.

- *Practical significance of differences between experience as principal and empathy ( $d = 0.64$ ) – group 1 and 2.*

However significant differences of medium effect size were observed for empathy in group 1 and 2 (0-5 years and 6-10 years) indicating that, although they have both high mean scores group 2, with a lower mean score (3.44), might be practically significantly smaller for empathy than group 1. This could be attributed to a lack of experience on the side of principals with 0-5 years of experience, who seem not to see things from another person's perspective and convey that understanding in the easiest way possible (see 3.3.2.3). Literature consulted on the subject requires a manager to take the place of the other person by seeing things from another person's point of view (see 3.3.3.1). In so doing aggression in interpersonal situations will be reduced paving the way to understanding the needs of others. Another reason could be that principals with experience tend to be more autocratic when doing things than principals with less experience who try to be democratic, by trying to put themselves in the shoes of the other party.

- *Practical significance of differences between experience as principal and listening ( $d = 0.67$ ) – group 1 and 3.*

For listening also practically significant differences of medium effect were noticed in group 1 and 3 (0-5 years and 11+ years). Of the two groups group 1 (0-5 years) scored a lower mean than than group 3 (11+) indicating that it might be practically significantly smaller for persuasion than group 3. It must be noted, though, that the difference between the two means of the two groups was very small (3.34; 3.35). This indicates that the differences pertaining to experience as principal for group 3 might be significant in practice suggesting that principals with more years of experience listen better than those with less years of experience. This could be linked to the same reasons articulated earlier in this chapter (see 4.3.4; 4.4.4).

- *Practically significant differences between experience as principal and persuasion ( $d = 0.76$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.47$ ) – group 2 and 3).*

For persuasion practical differences of large and medium effect were noticed in groups 1 and 2

(0-5 years and 6-10 years) and 2 and 3 (6-10 years and 11+ years) respectively. In all three groups with high mean scores group 2 (6-10 years) scored the lowest mean (3.37) indicating that it might be practically significantly smaller for persuasion than groups 1 and 3. This indicates that differences pertaining to persuasion for group 2 are practically significant in practice.

This could be attributed to lack a of experience in persuasive skills, inadequate information pertaining to persuasion and a lack of experience in the practice of consultation. These reasons have already been dealt with in the previous chapters (see. 2.9).

- *Practically significant differences between experience as principal and space ( $d = 0.85$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.47$ ) – group 2 and 3.*

Practically significant differences of both large and medium effect were also observed for space between groups 1 and 2 (0-5 years and 6-10 years) and 1 and 3 (0-5 years and 11+ years) respectively. All three groups recorded low mean scores with group 1 recording a slightly higher mean (2.57) than group 2 and 3 indicating that it is practically significantly higher for space and as such, significant in practice.

Judging by the number of years of experience as principals reflected in group 1 (0-5 years) a lack of experience regarding space and inadequate knowledge in dealing with space could explain these effects. Literature on this subject suggests that thorough knowledge of space and its influence can have a positive impact on negotiations and establish a good climate for negotiations (see 3.3.4.2). Cultural upbringing and Western culture are some of the reasons that could be attributed to these effect sizes, since they have already been alluded to in this work (see 4.3.6; 3.3.4.2; 4.4.2; 4.4.3).

- *Practical significance of difference between experience as principal and the process of negotiation*  
( $d = -1.34$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = -1.23$ ) – group 1 and 3.

Practically significant differences of both large effects were observed for the process of negotiation in groups 1 and 2 (0-5 years and 6-10 years) and 1 and 3 (0-5 years and 11+ years). Of groups 1 and 2, group 2 recorded the lower mean score (3.36) and of groups 1 and 3 (0-5 years and 11+ years) group 1 recorded a lower mean score (3.46) indicating that groups 1 and 2 are practically significantly higher for the process of negotiation than group 3 and are thus of

practical significance for the process of negotiation. These large effects will be analysed in this chapter.

As has been mentioned practically significant differences of large effect size were noticed for the process of negotiation in groups 1 and 2 (0-5 years and 6-10 years) and 1 and 3 (0-5 years and 11+ years) indicating that these differences are of significance in practice. The reason for this outcome could be the training in educational management that the majority of the respondents attended (see table 4.3: Question 5) either by diploma, degree courses, workshops and/ or in-service training (see 4.3.3). The fact that 70.5% of the respondents (see table 4.3: Question 4) fall in group 2 (6-10 years) indicates that such principals have gained enough experience to outline objectives, consult relevant sources, protect information obtained in confidence, implementing agreements in good faith and granting each party an opportunity to present its case in full without interruptions. A large body of research seems to agree that negotiations in general have mainly positive effects (see 2.10) than negative outcomes.

#### **4.4.6 Practical significance of difference between training in educational management and the different negotiation factors / skills.**

The aim of this calculation was to determine if there are differences of practical significance between training in educational management and the different negotiation factors. The data is summarised in table 4.16.

**Table 4.16: Effect on factors based on training in educational management – A5**

Factor	Group 1 Formal		Group 2 Informal		Group 3 B.Ed.		Effect sizes between groups		
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	1 and 2	1 and 3	2 and 3
Empathy	3.44	0.40	3.50	0.39	3.61	0.35	0.15	0.43	0.30
Persuasion	3.40	0.32	3.49	0.39	3.47	0.34	0.22	0.20	0.05
Negotiation	3.48	0.29	3.40	0.26	3.38	0.37	-0.27	-0.26	-0.06
Listening	3.29	0.38	3.29	0.34	3.29	0.32	0.00	0.00	0.00
Timing	2.70	0.73	3.12	0.58	2.85	0.56	<b>0.58 **</b>	0.21	<b>0.47 **</b>
Space	2.14	0.55	2.54	0.72	2.51	0.62	<b>0.56 **</b>	<b>0.60 **</b>	0.04

**0.2 = small effect (\*)**

**0.5 = medium effect (\*\*)**

**0.8 = large effect (\*\*\*)**

As indicated on table 4.16 there are no practically significant differences large enough when it comes to empathy, persuasion, the process of negotiation and listening based on training in educational management to indicate that these factors did not differ in practice.

- *Practically significant differences between training in educational management and timing ( $d = 0.58$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.47$ ) – group 2 and 3.*

Practically significant differences of medium effect size were noticed for timing between groups 1 and 2 (formal and informal) and 2 and 3 (informal and B. Ed). This indicates that group 2 (informal) with a higher mean score (3.12) compared to group 1 (2.70) might be practically significantly bigger with regard to timing.

As table 4.16 indicates group 2 (informal) might be practically significantly higher with regard to timing. These could be ascribed to the fact that these managers had not received formal training, as a result lack adequate knowledge and information as far as timing is concerned (cf. 4.3.3). Some of the reasons that could be attributed to this medium effect size have already been dealt with earlier in this work (cf. 4.3.7; 3.3.5).

- *Practical significant differences between training in educational management and space ( $d = 0.60$ ) – group 1 and 3.*

For space also practically significant differences of medium effect size were observed between group 1 and 2 (formal and informal). Of the two groups, group 2 again had a higher mean score (2.54) than group 1 (2.14) indicating that group 2 might be practically significantly higher with a view to space. Of groups 1 and 3 (formal and B. ed.), group 3 had a higher mean score (2.51) compared to group 1 (2.14) indicating that group 3 might be practically significantly higher with regard to space.

As table 4.16 indicates group 1 might be practically significantly higher with regard to space. The reason that could be linked to this medium effect size could be to cultural elements that have already been explained earlier in this work (see 3.3.4.1; 4.3.6). Literature on the matter states that several characteristics of people, including their cultural differences and negotiation venues, can increase the likelihood of a positive mood being established (see 3.3.4). Although there are differences in culture research has also shown that there are marked similarities among cultures and these, too, need to be understood (see 3.3.4).

#### **4.4.7 Practically significant differences between the highest academic qualification and the different negotiation factors / skills.**

The aim of this calculation was to determine if there are practically significant differences between the highest academic qualification obtained and the different negotiation factors. The data is summarized in table 4.17.

**Table 4.17: Effect on factors based on highest Academic Qualification – A6**

Factor	Group 1 Grade 12		Group 2 BA		Group 3 B. Ed		Group 4 M. Degree		Effect sizes between groups (d)					
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	1 and 2	1 and 3	1 and 4	2 and 3	2 and 4	3 and 4
Empathy	3.64	0.20	3.42	0.45	3.58	0.39	3.44	0.40	0.50 **	-0.15	-0.51 **	0.37	0.05	-0.36
Persuasion	3.55	0.28	3.44	0.38	3.44	0.35	3.47	0.35	-0.29	-0.32	-0.22	-0.00	0.09	0.10
Negotiation	3.56	0.15	3.43	0.28	3.39	0.38	3.35	0.31	-0.46 **	-0.44	-0.68 **	-0.11	-0.26	-0.10
Listening	3.42	0.28	3.27	0.37	3.30	0.32	3.26	0.42	-0.41	-0.39	-0.38	0.08	-0.01	-0.08
Timing	2.94	0.33	2.74	0.78	2.98	0.60	2.97	0.56	-0.26	0.05	0.04	0.30	0.29	-0.01
Space	2.48	0.68	2.21	0.57	2.46	0.61	2.56	0.82	-0.40	-0.03	0.10	0.41	0.43	0.12

0.2 = small effect (\*)

0.5 = medium effect (\*\*)

0.8 = large effect (\*\*\*)

Since there was no response received for group 5 (D. degree) effect size was not calculated as it would not have been possible to compare it with other groups. The effect size was thus calculated among the other four groups as can be seen in table 4.17.

Table 4.17 shows that none of the effect sizes for persuasion, listening, timing and space were large enough to indicate that these factors did not differ in practice according to the highest academic qualification obtained.

The reasons for factors with medium effect sizes that might be of practical significance will be analysed in detail below.

- *Practical significance of differences between the highest academic qualification and the process of negotiation ( $d = 0.46$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.68$ ) – group 1 and 4).*

For the process of negotiation, however, a medium effect size of practical significance was observed for groups 1 and 2 (grade 12 and BA) and 1 and 4 (grade 12 and M. Ed). In both groups, group 1 (grade 12) had a higher mean score (3.56) than group 2 (BA) and group 4 (M. degree) indicating that group 1 might be practically significantly higher with regard to the highest academic qualification.

As has been stated earlier group 1 (grade 12) might be practically higher than group 4 (M. degree) for the highest academic qualification. As has been noticed (table 4.3: Question 6) 11,5% of the managers in groups 1 possess grade 12 as their highest academic qualification. As has been mentioned earlier some of the rural schools that are managed by such managers are scattered, some comprising of one, two or three educators, making it impossible for the process of negotiation to be applied. As a result such principals will always lag behind as far as the process of negotiation is concerned. Literature on the subject derived from a large body of research states that thorough planning and preparation should always precede all negotiation principles in order for negotiations to be successful (see 2.5.1).

- *Practical significance of differences between the highest academic qualification and empathy ( $d = 0.50$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = -0.51$ ) – group 1 and 4.*

For empathy, also, differences of practical significance of medium effect were observed between groups 1 and 2 (grade 12 and BA) and 1 and 4 (grade 12 and M. degree). Of all the groups,

group 1 (grade 12) recorded the highest mean score (3.64) indicating that it might be practically significantly higher for the highest academic qualification.

As table 4.17 indicates group 1 (grade 12) might be practically significantly higher than group 4 (M. degree) for the highest academic qualification. This medium effect size could be attributed to managers not showing a desire to understand the feelings of other the party and not acknowledging that the feelings of the other party are real (see 3.3.3). This could also be due to the lack of knowledge regarding empathy as some of the managers in this group might not have attended formal training on the matter. Literature on the subject emphasizes the importance of empathy as it lowers the other party's verbal attacks, maintaining an effective flow of communication and reducing the distress of the other party (see 3.3.3).

#### **4.4.8 Practical significance of differences between the highest professional qualification and the different negotiation factors / skills.**

The aim of this calculation was to determine if there are any practically significant differences between the highest professional qualification obtained and the different negotiation factors. The data is summarized in table 4.18.

**Table 4.18: Effect on factors based on highest Professional Qualification – A7**

Factor	Group 1 REQV 13		Group 2 REQV 14		Group 3 REQV 15		Group 4 REQV 16		Effect sizes on groups (d)					
	Mean	Standard deviation	1 and 2	1 and 3	1 and 4	2 and 3	2 and 4	3 and 4						
Empathy	3.40	0.47	3.55	0.31	3.47	0.47	3.59	0.35	0.30	0.15	0.41	-0.15	0.14	0.25
Persuasion	3.29	0.45	3.47	0.29	3.41	0.38	3.53	0.30	0.40	0.25	0.53 **	-0.17	0.20	0.33
Negotiation	3.36	0.37	3.57	0.19	3.35	0.35	3.41	0.34	0.55 **	-0.04	0.11	-0.63 **	-0.47 **	0.16
Listening	3.11	0.42	3.41	0.30	3.27	0.33	3.31	0.34	0.70 **	0.37	0.47 **	-0.42	-0.29	0.12
Timing	2.69	0.61	2.97	0.65	2.74	0.60	3.07	0.63	0.43	0.08	0.60 **	-0.35	0.15	0.52 **
Space	2.43	0.81	2.47	0.73	2.40	0.58	2.34	0.56	0.06	-0.03	-0.11	-0.10	-0.18	-0.11

**0.2 = small effect (\*)**

**0.5 = medium effect (\*\*)**

**0.8 = large effect (\*\*\*)**

As it is indicated in table 4.18 the first two categories that received one response each (see table 4.3), REQV 11 and REQV 12, were not included in the comparison. Category 3 was then classified as group 1, category 4 as group 2, category 5 as group 3 and category 6 as group 4.

In table 4.18 it is indicated that there were no practically significant differences for the highest qualification on empathy and space.

There might be significant differences for persuasion, the process of negotiation, listening and timing based on the highest professional qualification and these will be analysed in detail below.

- *Practical significance of differences between the highest professional qualification and the process of negotiation ( $d = 0.55$ ) – group 1 and 2; ( $d = 0.63$ ) – group 2 and 3); ( $d = 0.47$ ) – group 2 and 4.*

Practical significance of medium effect was also noticed for the process of negotiation in groups 1 and 2 (REQV 13 and REQV 14), group 2 and 3 (REQV 14 and REQV 15) and group 2 and 4 (REQV 14 and REQV 16). In groups 1 and 2, group 2 had a higher mean (3.57) to that of group 1 (3.36), indicating that group 2 might be practically significantly higher for the process of negotiation than group 1. Groups 2 and 3 (REQV 14 and REQV 15) group 2 again recorded a higher mean to group 3 (3.35) indicating that group 2 might be practically significantly higher than group 3 with regard to the process of negotiation. For groups 2 and 4 (REQV 14 and REQV 16) it is the same indicating that group 2 of all the groups might be practically significantly higher with regard to the process of negotiation on the whole.

As indicated in table 4.18 it can be observed that group 2 of all three groups seems to be the group that might be practically higher for the process of negotiation on the whole. Seeing that the REQV 13 and REQV 14 are qualifications mainly possessed by first time educators the reason for this effect size could be linked to the fact that some managers had not yet attended formal training in educational management and a lack identical professional training (see 4.3.3). Another reason that can be linked to this effect size, has already been mentioned earlier in this work (see 2.6.2.1; 3.3.4; 3.3.5). Literature on the subject stresses the importance of following the three phrases on negotiation in a logical order to ensure the smooth running of the process (see 2.6.3.1).

- *Practical significance of differences between the highest professional qualification and*

*listening ( $d = 0.70$ ) – group 1 and 2); ( $d = 0.47$ ) – group 1 and 4.*

For listening, also, practical significance of medium effect was observed in groups 1 and 2 (REQV 13 and REQV 14) and 1 and 4 (REQV 13 and REQV 16). Group 1 of all the groups has a smaller mean (3.11) indicating that it might be practically significantly smaller with regard to listening than other groups.

As indicated in table 4.18 group 1 (REQV 13) might be significantly smaller with regard to listening than group 2 (REQV 14) and group 1 and 4 (REQV 13 and REQV 16). As has been stated earlier this group consists mainly of first time educators who, due to a lack of experience and no exposition to formal and in-service training, could be the reason for this medium effect size (see 4.3.3). Another reason could be linked to managers not showing interest in the other party especially when they become bored. Such behaviour suggests that through a lack of knowledge the managers are not aware of the psychological barriers to listening (see 3.3.2.5) that may hamper his or her listening.

Literature guards against such behaviour since it can prevent the listener from hearing the speaker out (see 3.3.2.5).

- *Practical significance of differences between the highest professional qualification and persuasion ( $d = 0.53$ ) – group 1 and 4.*

With regard to persuasion practically significant differences of medium effect is noticeable in groups 1 and 4 (REQV 13 and REQV 16). Of the two groups, group 1 has a smaller mean score (3.29) compared to group 4 (3.53) indicating that group 1 might be practically smaller with reference to persuasion and this might be of significance in practice.

As table 4.18 shows the reason for this calculation could be linked to cultural differences that lead to a large scale of confusion between cultural groups (Van Staden, 2002:57). Another reason could be that managers cling to the use of power as principals (see 3.3.6). Literature as already alluded to (see 3.3.6) guards against such behaviour since persuasion will not succeed if it is continued.

- *Practical significance of differences between the highest professional qualification and timing ( $d = 0.60$ ) – group 1 and 4; ( $d = 0.52$ ) group 3 and 4.*

As for timing practically significant differences of medium effect are also noticed in group 1 and 2; 1 and 4 and 3 and 4. Of all the groups mentioned group 1 has the lowest mean (2.69) and group 4 the highest (3.07) indicating that group 4 might be practically significantly larger with respect to timing than the other groups. These will now be analysed.

Of all the mentioned groups, group 4 (REQV 16) recorded a higher mean score (3.07) indicating that it might be practically significantly higher with regard to timing which might be practically significant. The reason for this effect size might be that the managers use timing to get the other side to react positively and to make unpopular announcements (see 3.3.5). From literature in this regard it seems that timing requires planning to know the best time for negotiating (see 3.3.5).

#### **4.4.9 Practical significance of differences between physical location of schools and the different negotiation factors / skills.**

The aim of this calculation was to determine if there are practically significant differences between the physical location of schools and the different negotiation skills. The data is summarized in table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Effects on factors based on physical location of schools – A8

Factor	Group 1 Rural		Group 2 Urban		Group 3 Township		Effect sizes on groups (d)		
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	1 and 2	1 and 3	2 and 4
Empathy	3.48	0.38	3.49	0.46	3.55	0.38	0.02	0.18	0.13
Persuasion	3.43	0.34	3.40	0.44	3.48	0.31	-0.07	0.16	0.19
Negotiation	3.55	0.25	3.30	0.35	3.43	0.32	-0.72 **	-0.37	0.37
Listening	3.27	0.45	3.28	0.30	3.32	0.33	0.01	0.10	0.12
Timing	2.64	0.59	3.05	0.55	2.92	0.66	0.68 **	0.42	-0.18
Space	2.46	0.63	2.43	0.70	2.37	0.61	-0.05	-0.15	-0.08

0.2 = small effect (\*)

0.5 = medium effect (\*\*)

0.8 = large effect (\*\*\*)

In table 4.19 none of the differences for empathy, persuasion, listening and space are large enough to indicate that these factors differ in practice according to the physical location of schools.

- *Practical significance of difference between the physical location of schools and the process of negotiation ( $d = 0.70$ ) – group 1 and 2.*

With respect to the process of negotiation, practically significant differences of medium effect are observed in groups 1 and 2 (rural and urban). Of the two groups, group 1 (rural) has a higher mean (3.55) than group 2 (urban) indicating that schools in rural areas might be practically significantly higher than urban schools when it comes to the physical location of schools with regard to the process of negotiation. This could be of significance in practice.

Table 4.19 shows that group 1 (rural) might be practically significantly higher with regard to the process of negotiation. The reason for this effect size could be linked to the small schools in rural areas where the process of negotiation cannot be applied at all or effectively because of a severe shortage of staff. Another reason that has been mentioned in this chapter, is a lack of training in negotiation skills since such schools could be situated far from urban or township schools where formal and or informal and in-service training normally takes place. Seeing that some of the schools in the rural areas are sparsely situated with very limited resources and lack of transport it is likely that managers will always lack identical professional training in matters of negotiation (see 2.9).

- *Practical significance of differences between the physical location of schools and timing ( $d = 0.68$ ) – group 1 and 2.*

With respect to timing, also, there might be practically significant differences since a medium size effect is observed in groups 1 and 2. Group 1, in this regard, has the smallest mean (2.64), smaller than group 2 (3.05) indicating that group 1 could be practically significantly smaller with regard to timing than group 2, to be of practical significance.

As table 4.19 indicates group 1(rural) might be practically smaller with respect to timing than group 2 (urban). The reasons that could explain this effect size could be logistical, like meetings and workshops that managers have to attend during school hours, their workloads, classes they have to attend and books that they have to mark. Reasons referred to earlier pertaining to

transport and a lack of resources could also add to a lack of timing on the side of managers. Another reason could be a lack of adequate knowledge and information on timing (see 4.3.3). Literature states that negotiations should be timed and planned for success (see 3.3).

#### **4.4.10 Practical significance of differences between the type of schools and the different negotiation factors / skills.**

The aim with this calculation was to determine if there are any practically significant differences between schools accommodating boys only, girls only or both and the different negotiation factors. The results of the survey indicate nil response for boys- only and girls- only schools indicating that all responses received came from schools accommodating both boys and girls. The data shows no differences of practical significance indicating that in practice, no difference of practical significance was observed between the type of schools and the different negotiation factors.

#### **4.4.11 Practical significance of differences between grading of schools and the different negotiation factors / skills**

The aim with this calculation was to determine if there are any differences of practical significance between S3 and S4 schools and the different negotiation factors. The data shows that there are no practically significant differences for empathy, persuasion, the process of negotiation, listening, timing and space pertaining to the grading of schools. This implies that data regarding these factors based on the grading of schools did not differ for the S3 and S4 schools.

### **4.7 SUMMARY**

The aim with this chapter is to determine to what extent managers use negotiation skills during their interactions with educators. Working with a quantitative approach the mail questionnaire was chosen as a measuring instrument as it was seen to be cost-effective. The questionnaires were sent out to school managers to complete and return.

The population and sample and statistical techniques were briefly outlined (see 2.2.9 – 2.2.13) as well as the general information of principal and their schools (see table 4.2). The data was analysed and interpreted.

When it comes to the interpretation of statistical data regarding the negotiation skills as discussed in

chapter 3 of this study it seems that managers use empathy skill the most followed by persuasion, listening and the process of negotiation. Timing and space seem to be the least of the negotiation skills that are used by managers when negotiating with educators.

Practical significance (effect size) between biographical data and the different negotiation factors was done the aim being to determine if there are differences of practical significance large enough to have an effect in practice. There seems to be practically significant differences of medium effect that might indicate that some groups were significantly smaller or higher than others for different negotiation factors to be significant in practice.

The next chapter will give a summary of the previous chapters and include findings with regard to space and recommendations based on the responses discussed in this chapter.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 5, a summary of important research aspects regarding the orientation and statement of the problem (chapter 1), the nature of negotiation in schools (chapter 2), the context and skills needed in successful negotiation in schools (chapter 3) and the empirical research to determine the extent to which principals use negotiation skills when negotiating with educators (chapter 4) is given. This is followed by the overall findings of both the literature study and the empirical research, recommendations for the improvement and implementation of negotiation skills by principals and a conclusion.

#### 5.2 SUMMARY

In chapter 1 the background to the study is delineated as well as the statement of the problem. The aims with the research are expounded from the theoretical and empirical perspectives. The methods of research of achieving these aims are given as well as the arrangement of chapters.

In chapter 2 the nature of negotiation as a whole and particularly negotiation in schools are outlined. This includes the definition of concepts closely related to negotiation with the aim of arriving at a more suitable definition of negotiation in schools. The chapter also covers the significance of negotiation, the principles underlying negotiation and the process of negotiation, explaining the three important phases and their practices. Approaches to negotiation are also explained. Mistakes that commonly occur during negotiation that can lead to the intervention by a mediator are discussed. The attitude towards the use of negotiation from both the educators' and the principals' perspective was determined. The effects that negotiation has on the performance of the schools are also addressed.

Chapter 3 focuses mainly on the context and skills needed in order for negotiation to be successful in schools. These are reviewed and analysed from a managerial perspective. A brief explanation of

“skills” is done. The basic skills that need to be mastered and applied during negotiation are briefly outlined and discussed. These skills include listening, empathy, space, timing, the process of negotiation and persuasion.

In chapter 4 the empirical aspects of the study to determine to what extent principals use negotiation skills in solving problems with educators are presented. The chapter covers the design of the research, the questionnaire as a measuring instrument including its advantages, limitations and its construction. The biographical as well as the demographic data about the respondents are discussed. The format and contents of the questionnaire, the pilot study, final questionnaire, covering letter, administrative procedures, population and sample as well as follow-ups are all discussed in this chapter.

In determining the reliability of factors Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha was used as an accurate instrument to analyse the different factors/skills. The response rate was tabulated. The statistical techniques used in analyzing the data are explained. The interpretation of data is also covered. The responses to each question item are presented in the form of tables indicating frequencies and percentages. Practical significance (effect size) for the difference between means was done to determine if differences were significant or not. Practical significance between sex, age, position held before, experience as a principal, training in educational management, highest academic qualification, the physical location of the school, the type of school and the different negotiation factors/skills were done with data summarized in tables. Only practically significant differences of medium to large effect have been discussed in detail.

In chapter 5 a summary of chapters, findings of research aims, recommendations as well as concluding remarks are provided.

## **5.3 FINDINGS**

### **5.3.1 Findings with regard to research aim 1.**

With regard to research aim 1 (see 1.3) namely to determine the nature of negotiation in its entirety and in schools in particular the following findings are made:

- Negotiation is a social process that can be used to confer with others with the goal of reaching an amicable agreement between parties involved (see 2.2.4).

- Persuasion, mediation, arbitration, conciliation, bargaining, collective bargaining and lobbying, are concepts that are closely related but different to negotiation (see 2.3).
- Negotiation is significant in the sense that it is a daily occurrence, occurring in employment, in social- and domestic contexts. It is through face-to-face interactions that parties with different agendas or beliefs can gain a better understanding of each other and join work jointly towards building and reaching a consensus. Relationships will also be strengthened through developments of a new sense of mutual trust (see 2.4).
- Planning and preparation should precede all negotiation principles in order for negotiation to be successful since it represents 80% of the success factor in negotiations. Negotiation principles include reaction control, an opening offer, exploring common ground, re-framing and building relationships based on trust are part of the negotiating game and should not embody attempts to wound or overpower the other party (see 2.5).
- An intergrated approach is achieved by the win more-win more model since both parties attempt to achieve the greatest gain with the smallest possible loss (see 2.7.1) whereas the distributive approach is achieved by a win-lose model since both parties go into the negotiation with the objective to win for themselves regardless of what happens to the other side (see 2.7.2). The basic objective of each negotiating team will be to bring the other party as closely as possible to its own desired outcome (see 2.7).
- Poor listening skills, poor questioning skills, poor replies to questions, the use of irritating tactics, too much aggression and putting the other party on the defence are some of the mistakes that occur during negotiations. For negotiation to be successful, these mistakes should be reviewed and avoided, since they impede progress towards the whole process of reaching an amicable settlement (see 2.8).
- Many school principals are afraid that by practicing in negotiation in schools their powers will be lessened, hence their negative attitude. If negotiations are entered into with the right attitude, frame of mind, alternatives, flexibility and thorough preparation and planning any fears of facing negotiation can be alleviated (see 2.9).
- With negotiation bearing positive effects the existing gap between all stakeholders in the

school – managers and teachers, teachers and learners, learners and learners, the school and the community- will eventually close since everybody's interests will be shared to some degree and not opposed thus strengthening mutual relationships in the process (see 2.10).

### **5.3.2 Findings with regard to research aim 2**

With regard to research aim 2 (see 1.3) namely to determine the skills needed for successful negotiation the following findings have been derived from literature:

- Principals need to know the different types of listening skills as negotiations would demand their attention, empathy, appreciation and critical evaluation of the other person's point of view (see 3.3.2.2). Barriers that can hinder effective listening and how to deal with them when negotiating with educators need to be learned (see 3.3.2.5).
- Empathy seems to be the ability to see things from another person's perspective and convey that understanding in the easiest way possible. Most importantly it should take into cognizance the underlying emotions as felt by another person and react by being empathetic to them. One should always place oneself in the shoes of the other person to understand what he or she is going through (see 3.3.3.3).
- Empathy is also important in maintaining the flow of communication as it motivates the party to reduce the distress of the person in need and lower the length of their verbal attacks (see 3.3.3.2).
- There are four basic positions relative to the other party in negotiations (see 3.3.4.1) which are:

The corner position for friendly and informal conversations.

The co-operative position for people who are sharing common interest.

The competitive/defensive position for people who are in competition with one another.

The independent position for people who do not want to interact with the other party.

- The arrangement of furniture in the office should be planned since it gives an indication of how communication should take place and also stimulates communication with others (see 3.3.4.2).
- Timing is a way of getting the other side to react quickly and positively to a favourable situation that has a narrow window of accessibility in terms of time (see 3.3.5).
- The best time for negotiation are in the morning as people are fresh and more intellectually active and in the middle of the month when people are not very busy with evaluation of reports and when educators are not busy with examinations.
- Conditions for effective persuasion, non-verbal communication signals and ethics of communication are the key aspects that cannot be ignored when persuading people to change their attitudes and/ or their behaviour (see 3.3.6.1; 3.3.6.2; 3.3.6.3).

### **5.3.3 Findings with regard to research aim 3.**

With regard to research aim 3 (see 1.3) namely to determine empirically to what extent principals use negotiation skills in solving problems with educators the following has been found:

- An overwhelming majority of principals included in the study population are well conversant with the process of negotiation, since they use it to an extent or up to a larger extent (see 4.3.3). The response from the principals indicate that the prelude, duration and the termination phases are followed in a logical order.
- The majority of principals use listening as a skill to an extent or up to a larger extent when performing their tasks by showing interest in the conversation, inviting educators to say more and resisting any distractions in order to concentrate on the message (see 4.3.4). It is also found that this skill assists principals in expanding their knowledge and experience in achieving interpersonal relationship (see 3.3.2.3).
- All the items on empathy were answered positively by the respondents indicating that this skill is used to an extent or up to a larger extent by principals, since they imagine themselves to be in the situation of educators, sharing and understanding their feelings (see 4.3.5).

- The space factor does not receive high mean scores similar to the other factors indicating that it was not taken into consideration by most of the respondents since they did not use it at all, or if they did, then did so to a lesser extent (see 4.3.6). It is also found that in township and rural schools small offices with inadequate furniture are used for the purpose of administration and interviews whereas in urban schools larger offices with more and bigger furniture are used for the same purpose (see 4.3.6).
- An overwhelming majority of principals used timing to an extent or up to a larger extent since they believe that good timing and planning of the process of negotiation can lead to an advantageously timed agenda (see 3.3.5). It was also found that the principals used timing to get the other side to react positively and quickly to a favourable situation (see 3.3.5; 4.3.7).
- The majority of principals used the skill of persuasion extensively and to a larger extent indicating that managers plan their messages well when persuading the other party since they provide proof to convince the educators that the solution arrived at is the best and, as a result, they project an image of reliability (see 3.3.6; 4.3.8).

The following table (table 5.1) shows the 16 negotiation skills (90% +) most frequently used by principals as part of their managerial task in their schools.

**Table 5.1: Negotiation skills most frequently used by principals**

RANK	ITEM NO.	ITEM	%	MEAN
1.	11.3	Information obtained in confidence is protected.	94.8	3.79
2.	16.2	I am always sincere so as to build trust.	93.8	3.75
3.	16.13	Lying and providing false evidence is unprofessional.	93.3	3.73
4.	11.7	Each party is granted an opportunity to present its case In full without interruptions.	92.8	3.71
5.	12.4	I show interest in the conversation	92.5	3.70
6.	13.6	To build trust between us.	92.3	3.69
7.	12.18	During feedback, I use simple language in order to be understood.	91.8	3.67
7.	13.5	To make them feel understood.	91.8	3.67
9.	15.5	Good timings essential for success in negotiation.	91.5	3.66

9.	12.1	I analyse the message.	91.5	3.66
11.	12.3	I ask questions to check my understanding.	91.3	3.65
11	13.3	To reach successful outcomes.	91.3	3.65
11.	16.1	I plan my message well.	91.3	3.65
14.	13.4	To maintain effective flow of communication.	90.5	3.62
14.	16.5	I project an image of reliability.	90.5	3.62
16.	11.13	Parties should implement agreements in good faith.	90.3	3.61

## 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.4.1 Recommendation 1

Research has revealed that of all the negotiation skills that principals used space was lowly prioritized. The department of education should build bigger offices in township and rural schools that have enough room for a few chairs for visitors, with furniture arranged in such a manner as to indicate how communication should take place.

#### **Motivation**

The offices built for principals in township and (if any) rural schools are so small that even a large table cannot fit into them. In some instances these office areas are used for multiple purposes: as the principal's office, as an interviewing room and as the administration clerk's office.

Literature in this regard states the importance of the four basic positions relative in negotiations but because of a lack of space in the offices only one position is possible – the competitive/defensive position, which is used for all circumstances, be it for friendly conversation, working on a project of common interest, reprimanding the other party and/ or when having no interest to interact with the other party. Research has shown that it is very difficult to communicate or to conduct negotiation with someone sitting behind a desk but in (some) schools in the township it is not a matter of choice but the only existing position or arrangement in the office. As space is perceived to be equivalent to status and since it creates the impression of leadership and confidence the principal's office should be bigger and better than all the other offices in the school.

### 5.4.2 Recommendation 2

The use of negotiation skills should be a compulsory course in teacher training institutions and

education management departments in universities.

### **Motivation**

One of the biggest problems why (some) principals do not apply negotiation skills correctly is inadequate knowledge and information in these skills as a result of a lack of identical professional training and in some cases like in rural areas, no exposition to in-service training in negotiation skills. If principals are equipped with skills on how to negotiate every conflicting situation with educators sound relationships will be created and even stress levels will drop. If both the principals and the educators can know the skills of how to negotiate most of the problems that cause conflicts in schools will be solved amicably.

#### **5.4.3 Recommendation 3**

The department of education should conduct workshops and or in-service training on the use of negotiation skills as a problem solving mechanism.

### **Motivation**

It should not only be the responsibility of the universities to offer courses on negotiation skills but also of the department of education to conduct workshops and in-service training to school managers. Today most of the problems are solved through negotiations so principals as managers in their institutions should also be seen as role models and leaders in their communities: they should therefore be equipped with negotiation skills to solve problems before they arise. Since not all of the managers are furthering their studies in management, information on negotiations should also reach them through such means.

#### **5.4.4 Recommendation 4**

Establishment of principals' forums for the professional development on principals as negotiators.

### **Motivation**

Principals should meet more frequently to share ideas and solve common problems using the skill of negotiation. Schools that seem to be functioning well with less disciplinary problems involving

educators should be requested to share and assist those with serious conflicting situations.

#### **5.4.5 Recommendation 5**

Workshops and or in-service training in labour union matters should be conducted for principals on a regular basis.

#### **Motivation**

Most of the problems in schools are caused by a lack of knowledge and information on labour-related issues. Educators perform some atrocities in the name of labour unions. If training for school managers can be supplied in this regard most of the problems will be curbed as the principals will be more informed as to what labour has to say regarding certain issues.

#### **5.5 CONCLUSION**

In general, based on the findings of the study, it seems that negotiation is *a sine qua non* in a diverse society like South Africa of people from different cultures and backgrounds. This study comes up with a solution to all forms of conflicts the principal can encounter with educators – be it interpersonal or on an intra or inter-group in a school. With the *audi alteram partem* calling for all parties to be given a fair hearing in all conflicting situations the use of negotiation skills as a management task of the school principal cannot be over emphasized.

This study shows that principals use negotiation skills extensively or up to a large extent except the space factor, which has not been used at all, or if it has been used, it was used to a lesser extent, especially in the township and rural schools. Further research is recommended in this to investigate the practical need and use of space in schools as a managerial task of the school principal.

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**APPENDIX A**

**Inquiries :SA SEBETLELE**  
**TEL :018-2931313 (H)**  
**TEL+FAX :018-2950227 (W)**  
**CELL :0827248072**

**PO Box 40035**  
**IKAGENG**  
**2525**  
**16 July 2003**

**THE REGIONAL DIRECTOR – BOJANALA WEST**  
**PRIVATE BAG X82110**  
**RUSTENBURG**

**RE: REQUEST TO GAIN ACCESS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

Dear Sir

I hereby kindly request your permission to carry out an empirical investigation through field work in the secondary schools in the North West Province, particularly in the Bojanala Region, as from the 21 July 2003.

I am a MA Degree student in the educational management at the Potchefstroom University. The empirical part of my dissertation under the topic “**Negotiation with teachers as a managerial task of the school principal**” will be done through questionnaires to secondary schools in the NW Province.

It is for this reason that I humbly request your permission to distribute the questionnaires to principals during the third term.

Thanking you in advance for your understanding.

Yours faithfully

**SA SEBETLELE (MR)**  
**Student number 10572686**



**Department of Education  
Lefapha la Thuto  
Departement van Onderwys**

Private Bag X 919  
Potchefstroom, 2520  
Tel (018) 2998295  
Fax (018) 2977439  
E-mail:  
[mmweli@mopq.org.za](mailto:mmweli@mopq.org.za)

NORTH WEST PROVINCE

**SOUTHERN REGION**

M Mweli (Executive Manager)

Enquiries: M Mweli  
Telephone: 018-2998295  
E-mail: [mmweli@mopq.org.za](mailto:mmweli@mopq.org.za)

7 July 2003

Mr SA Sebetlele  
P O Box 40035  
IKAGENG  
2525

**RESEARCH ON MANAGEMENT TASK OF SCHOOL PRINCIPAL**

Your letter dated 1 July 2003 refers.

Permission is granted to conduct research as requested.

Arrangements in connection with activities to be undertaken at schools must be agreed upon between yourself and principals according to their programmes.

The understanding is that this project will not interfere with normal school activities and the learning process.

Yours sincerely

**D BOSMAN  
ACTING REGIONAL MANAGER**

*DBosman/mvdm*





NORTH WEST PROVINCE

**Department of Education**  
**Lefapha la Thuto**  
**Departement van Onderwys**



121 Beethovens Street  
Rustenburg  
0300

Private Bag X 82110  
Rustenburg  
0300

Tel: 014-5978800  
Fax: 014-5973399  
education@nw.gov.za

**OFFICE OF THE REGIONAL CHIEF DIRECTOR**  
**BOJANALA WEST REGION**

**TO** : Mr S.A. Sebetele  
P.O. Box 40035  
Ikageng  
2525

**FROM** : Mr E.R. Gradwell  
Regional Chief Director

**DATE** : Monday, 21 July 2003

**SUBJECT** : REQUEST TO GAIN ACCESS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Dear Mr Sebetele

Receipt of your letter dated 16/07/2003 is hereby acknowledged.

I hereby grant approval in principle provided that:

- > Your work and the outcome thereof will be treated with confidentiality
- > That in the event of you publishing any of your work, the North West Department of Education will be duly consulted
- > That, if necessary the Department of Education will be furnished with the outcome of the research.

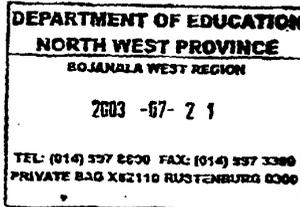
I trust that you will find this in order.

Thanking you.

With kind regards.

Yours sincerely

*pp*  
*Mr E.R. Gradwell*  
**MR E.R. GRADWELL**  
**REGIONAL CHIEF DIRECTOR**



Re a Sema Caticang - Re a dim mo dicitang - One work in one school - We are working in our schools  
• Re a sebata efitleng - Sinyabane efitleng - Na thina eswilelwani - Re a shuma zwetleng  
• Sya sebata efitleng - Sinyabane efitleng - Sya bereng efitleng



**APPENDIX C**

**INQUIRIES: SA SEBETLELE**  
**TEL : 018-2931313 (H)**  
**TEL +FAX : 018-2950227 (W)**  
**CELL : 0827248072**

PO Box 40035  
IKAGENG  
2525  
23 JULY 2003

Dear principal

I am a graduate student at the University of Potchefstroom studying for my Masters degree. The purpose of the above questionnaire is to determine to what extent you use negotiation skills in your school as part of your management task.

The results of this study will assist in providing a criteria to be used for developing better negotiation skills for principals in order to improve their working relationship with educators.

As part of this study, your name has been randomly selected as one of the representative sample of principals to complete the questionnaire. I can assure you that all information received will be held in strictest confidence, and your participation will remain anonymous. The code on the questionnaire is for control purposes only.

I am particularly eager of obtaining your honest response, because your experience as principal will contribute significantly towards using negotiation in our schools when interrelating with educators.

I only request 10 minutes of your time to answer all questions as accurately as possible. It will be mostly appreciated if you will complete and return the questionnaire on or before the 08 August 2003 in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed envelope.

I shall be pleased to send you a summary of the survey results if you so aspire. Thank you once more for your valued cooperation.

Permission to sent you this questionnaire has been obtained from your Regional Director and the original letter is with the researcher.

Yours truly

**SA SEBETLELE (MR)**

**APPENDIX C**

**SECTION A**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPALS**

**CONFIDENTIAL:**

Questionnaire no: 

1	2	3
---	---	---

*Indicate your answer with an 'X' in the appropriate space.*

1 Sex	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>Female</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>Male</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> </table>	Female	1	Male	2	4								
Female	1													
Male	2													
2 Age	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>Below 30</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>31-40</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> <tr><td>41-50</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr> <tr><td>51+</td><td style="text-align: center;">4</td></tr> </table>	Below 30	1	31-40	2	41-50	3	51+	4	5				
Below 30	1													
31-40	2													
41-50	3													
51+	4													
3 Position held before	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>Educator</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>HOD</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> <tr><td>Deputy Principal</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr> </table>	Educator	1	HOD	2	Deputy Principal	3	6						
Educator	1													
HOD	2													
Deputy Principal	3													
4 Experience as principal	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>0-5</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>6 to 10</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> <tr><td>11+</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr> </table>	0-5	1	6 to 10	2	11+	3	7						
0-5	1													
6 to 10	2													
11+	3													
5 Training in educational management	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>Formal training</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>Informal training</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> <tr><td>B.Ed</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr> </table>	Formal training	1	Informal training	2	B.Ed	3	8						
Formal training	1													
Informal training	2													
B.Ed	3													
6 Highest academic qualification (Indicate only one)	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>Grade 12</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>B.A</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> <tr><td>B.Ed</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr> <tr><td>M.degree</td><td style="text-align: center;">4</td></tr> <tr><td>D.Degree</td><td style="text-align: center;">5</td></tr> </table>	Grade 12	1	B.A	2	B.Ed	3	M.degree	4	D.Degree	5	9		
Grade 12	1													
B.A	2													
B.Ed	3													
M.degree	4													
D.Degree	5													
7 Highest professional qualification	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td>REQV 11</td><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr> <tr><td>REQV 12</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr> <tr><td>REQV 13</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr> <tr><td>REQV 14</td><td style="text-align: center;">4</td></tr> <tr><td>REQV 15</td><td style="text-align: center;">5</td></tr> <tr><td>REQV 16+</td><td style="text-align: center;">6</td></tr> </table>	REQV 11	1	REQV 12	2	REQV 13	3	REQV 14	4	REQV 15	5	REQV 16+	6	10
REQV 11	1													
REQV 12	2													
REQV 13	3													
REQV 14	4													
REQV 15	5													
REQV 16+	6													

8 Physical location of school	Country	1	11
	Urban	2	
	Township	3	
9 Type of school	Boys only	1	12
	Girls only	2	
	boys and girls	3	
10 Grading of school	S3	1	13
	S4	2	

## SECTION B

**INSTRUCTIONS:** Please indicate to what extent you have used each of the following skills as part of your management task, and cross out the number of your choice with

<b>SCALE:</b>		1=Not at all	2=To a lesser extent		
		3=To an extent	4=To a larger extent		
<b>STATEMENTS</b>					
<b>11</b>	<b>During the process of negotiation:</b>				
11.1	Negotiation objectives are outlined	1	2	3	4
11.2	Once the subject is known, I consult relevant sources	1	2	3	4
11.3	Information obtained in confidence is protected.	1	2	3	4
11.4	Time is an important factor of the process.	1	2	3	4
11.5	Venue is also an important factor of the process.	1	2	3	4
11.6	The expected duration of the negotiation is specified	1	2	3	4
11.7	Each party is granted an opportunity to present its case in full without interruptions.	1	2	3	4
11.8	Sanctions are used when all attempts at reaching a settlement had failed.	1	2	3	4
11.9	All agreements are recorded in writing.	1	2	3	4
11.10	If a settlement is not reached in time agreed, negotiations are rescheduled to a given time and venue.	1	2	3	4
11.11	Final agreements are signed in the presence of all.	1	2	3	4
11.12	Once a settlement is reached, the process is terminated	1	2	3	4
11.13	Parties should implement agreements in good faith.	1	2	3	4
11.14	Time frames for implementation should be strictly observed	1	2	3	4
11.15	If an agreement is reached, no changes will be accepted	1	2	3	4
11.16	I rely on the cooperation of educators to reach our objectives	1	2	3	4
11.17	The prelude, duration and termination phases are followed in a logical order.	1	2	3	4
11.18	Good relationships are built for future negotiations.	1	2	3	4
<b>12</b>	<b>When listening:</b>				
12.1	I analyse the message.	1	2	3	4
12.2	I evaluate the message.	1	2	3	4
12.3	I ask questions to check my understanding.	1	2	3	4
12.4	I show interest in the conversation.	1	2	3	4

12.5	I resist distractions to concentrate on the message.	1	2	3	4
12.6	I am always impartial to who I am listening to.	1	2	3	4
12.7	I am always unbiased to whoever I am listening to.	1	2	3	4
12.8	I do not judge the other person.	1	2	3	4
12.9	I become impatient if an educator is not sure of what he/she is saying.	1	2	3	4
12.10	I am aware of the non-verbal messages.	1	2	3	4
12.11	I take notes.	1	2	3	4
12.12	I invite the educators to say more.	1	2	3	4
12.13	I achieve interpersonal relationship with educators.	1	2	3	4
12.14	I conceal my prejudice to hear the whole message	1	2	3	4
12.15	I remain calm even when my patience is stretched.	1	2	3	4
12.16	I pretend to be interested even if I am bored.	1	2	3	4
12.17	I give clear feedback by starting with reflective phra	1	2	3	4
12.18	During feedback, I use simple language to be under	1	2	3	4
12.19	I avoid being excited before I hear the whole messa	1	2	3	4
12.20	I expand my knowledge and experience.	1	2	3	4

**13** I empathise with educators to:

13.1	To lower the other party's verbal attacks.	1	2	3	4
13.2	To reduce the other party's distress.	1	2	3	4
13.3	To reach successful outcomes.	1	2	3	4
13.4	To maintain effective flow of communication.	1	2	3	4
13.5	To make them feel understood.	1	2	3	4
13.6	To build trust between us.	1	2	3	4
13.7	When negotiating with educators, their emotions are taken into consideration.	1	2	3	4
13.8	I imagine what it would be like to be in their shoes.	1	2	3	4

**14** Space

14.1	A large office creates the impression of leadership.	1	2	3	4
14.2	It stimulates communication with others in the room.	1	2	3	4
14.3	I use the corner position during friendly conversatio	1	2	3	4
14.4	When negotiating, I sit as close as possible to the other party.	1	2	3	4
14.5	When negotiating, I avoid sitting behind a desk.	1	2	3	4
14.6	I only use defensive position when I reprimand educ	1	2	3	4

**15** Timing

15.1	I negotiate when educators are not busy with exams	1	2	3	4
15.2	I use timing to get the other side to react positively.	1	2	3	4
15.3	I use timing to make unpopular announcements.	1	2	3	4

15.4	I prefer morning rather than afternoon appointments	1	2	3	4
15.5	Good timing is essential for success in negotiations	1	2	3	4

**16** When persuading educators:

16.1	I plan my message well.	1	2	3	4
16.2	I am always sincere so as to build trust.	1	2	3	4
16.3	I try not to offend educators.	1	2	3	4
16.4	I do not use my powers as a principal.	1	2	3	4
16.5	I project an image of reliability.	1	2	3	4
16.6	I use direct eye contact to elicit involvement.	1	2	3	4
16.7	I use gestures to emphasise a point.	1	2	3	4
16.8	I provide proof to convince the educators that the solution arrived at is the best.	1	2	3	4
16.9	I accept when my opinion is criticised.	1	2	3	4
16.10	I anticipate to achieve intended goals.	1	2	3	4
16.11	Persuasion is a polite manner of influencing people to act upon a message.	1	2	3	4
16.12	Concealing facts to benefit from the concealment is unethical.	1	2	3	4
16.13	Lying and providing false evidence is unprofessional	1	2	3	4

**THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.  
PLEASE RETURN ON OR BEFORE THE 05 SEPTEMBER**

**2003**