

**A MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME TO ASSIST
DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING
WITH CHANGE**

MOKGALAKA JOHN MAILULA

B.A, B.ED., M.ED., STD

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree**

Philosophiae Doctor

in

Education Management

**NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
(VAAL TRIANGLE FACULTY)**

PROMOTER: Dr Elda de Waal

Vanderbijlpark

2006

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I hereby wish to extend my gratitude and appreciation to the following people:

- Dr Elda de Waal, my promoter, for her inspiration, professional guidance, support, encouragement and motivation throughout this study.
- Mrs Aldine Oosthuizen at the Statistical Consultation Services of the North West University for support with the analysis of the empirical data and adjustments in typing the research.
- Mrs Denise Kocks for language editing of the thesis.
- The educators, deputy principals and principals who served as study population for their enthusiastic participation.
- My wife, Motshidisi Agnes, for allowing me freedom of choice and sharing with me her experience and knowledge at times when it was really needed.
- My children, Lesego and Thabiso, for their sacrifice, understanding and support.
- My friend, Ngaka Phillip Motaung, for listening and motivating me throughout the more difficult times of this study.
- The staff of the library of the North-West University: Vaal Triangle Campus.

SUMMARY

A management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change in schools

The aims of this study were to investigate the competency of deputy principals in managing change at schools, to develop a management programme to assist them in dealing with change at schools, and to investigate the kind of support they received.

It has become clear from the literature that change is challenging because it needs people to adopt and adapt to a new way of doing and managing issues at school. This research was particularly aimed at developing a management programme to assist deputy principals to be able to handle change when it arises.

The aims of the research were to:

- Present an overview of the importance and effect of change at schools;
- investigate the leadership and management role of deputy principals while managing change;
- investigate the perceptions of educators and deputy principals regarding change management at school; and
- develop a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at school.

A literature study was undertaken to analyse change and determine methods to deal with change. A quantitative research method in the form of a questionnaire was used to determine the nature and the perception of educators and deputy principals regarding change.

The uniqueness of this study could be seen to be found in the developmental programme suggested in Chapter 6, aimed at providing support to deputy principals in dealing with change.

OPSOMMING

'n Bestuursprogram om adjunkhoofde te help met transformasie in skole

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die bekwaamheid van adjunkhoofde ten opsigte van transformasie in skole te bepaal, om 'n bestuursprogram saam te stel om hulle te help om transformasie te hanteer en ook om vas te stel watter hulp hulle ontvang.

Dit is duidelik vanuit die navorsing dat transformasie baie uitdagings bied, want dit verg aanvaarding en aanpassing by 'n nuwe manier op skool te hanteer.

Die doelwitte van die navorsing was om:

- vas te stel wat die beskouing van transformasie op skole is;
- die leierskap- en bestuursrol van adjunkhoofde tydens transformasie vas te stel;
- om die begrip van opvoeders en adjunkhoofde ten opsigte van transformasie bestuur vas te stel; en om
- 'n bestuursprogram op te stel wat adjunkhoofde kan help met die hantering van transformasie op die skole.

Die literatuur-studie is gedoen om transformasie te analiseer en metodes te identifiseer om transformasie te hanteer. Kwalitatiewe navorsing in vraelyste is gebruik om die aard en die persepsies van opvoeders en adjunkhoofde vas te stel ten opsigte van transformasie.

Die uniekheid van hierdie studie sou in die bestuursprogram, voorgestel in hoofstuk 6, gevind kon word, aangesien dit daarop fokus om adjunkhoofde wat transformasie moet hanteer, te ondersteun.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | II |
| SUMMARY | III |
| OPSOMMING | IV |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS | V |
| LIST OF TABLES | XIX |
| LIST OF FIGURES | XXI |
| CHAPTER ONE ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY..... | 1 |
| 1.1 INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| 1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM | 1 |
| 1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY | 4 |
| 1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY..... | 5 |
| 1.4.1 Literature research | 5 |
| 1.4.2 Empirical research..... | 5 |
| 1.4.3 Instrument chosen as research method | 5 |
| 1.4.4 Population and sampling | 6 |
| 1.4.5 Pilot study..... | 6 |
| 1.4.6 Statistical techniques..... | 7 |
| 1.5 FEASIBILITY OF THE STUDY | 7 |
| 1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION..... | 7 |
| 1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY | 7 |
| 1.8 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS..... | 7 |

| | | |
|---|---|----|
| 1.9 | SUMMARY | 8 |
| | | |
| CHAPTER TWO THE IMPORTANCE AND EFFECT OF CHANGE AT SCHOOLS 9 | | |
| 2.1 | INTRODUCTION | 9 |
| 2.2 | CHANGE MANAGEMENT AT SCHOOLS | 10 |
| 2.3 | DEFINING CHANGE | 13 |
| 2.3.1 | The general problem of the meaning of change | 15 |
| 2.3.2 | The subjective meaning of change..... | 16 |
| 2.4 | FACTORS THAT AFFECT CHANGE AT SCHOOL | 17 |
| 2.4.1 | The community and local movement..... | 18 |
| 2.4.2 | Support for the process of change..... | 18 |
| 2.4.3 | The role of the principal in managing change..... | 18 |
| 2.4.3.1 | Skills needed by the principal as an agent of change | 20 |
| 2.5 | FORMS OF CHANGE IN EDUCATION | 20 |
| 2.5.1 | Technocratic changes at schools | 21 |
| 2.5.2 | Social change at school..... | 21 |
| 2.5.3 | Interactive change at school | 21 |
| 2.5.4 | Competitive change at school..... | 21 |
| 2.6 | FORCES THAT BRING ABOUT CHANGE AT SCHOOLS | 22 |
| 2.7 | A TEMPORAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING CHANGE AT SCHOOLS | 23 |
| 2.7.1 | The conception of a need to change | 24 |

| | | |
|-------------|---|-----------|
| 2.7.1.1 | Unfreezing | 24 |
| 2.7.1.2 | Movement | 24 |
| 2.7.2 | The process of organisational change at schools..... | 25 |
| 2.8 | PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT AT SCHOOLS DURING A CHANGE PROCESS..... | 25 |
| 2.8.1 | Parents are primary educators | 25 |
| 2.8.2 | Parental involvement at macro-level..... | 27 |
| 2.9 | THE STRUCTURE OF CHANGE AT SCHOOLS..... | 28 |
| 2.9.1 | The nature of change at schools | 29 |
| 2.9.2 | The process of change at schools..... | 30 |
| 2.10 | CONDITIONS FOR A CHANGE PROCESS | 31 |
| 2.11 | DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS AT SCHOOL..... | 34 |
| 2.11.1 | Core duties and responsibilities of the deputy principal..... | 35 |
| 2.11.1.1 | General/ Administrative duties | 35 |
| 2.11.1.2 | Teaching..... | 36 |
| 2.11.1.3 | Extra and co-curricular duties | 36 |
| 2.11.1.4 | Personnel..... | 36 |
| 2.11.1.5 | Interaction with stakeholders | 37 |
| 2.12 | THE ROLE OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL IN MANAGING CURRICULUM CHANGE | 37 |
| 2.12.1 | National Curriculum..... | 37 |
| 2.12.2 | Meeting the needs of tomorrow's citizen | 38 |

| | | |
|-------------|--|-----------|
| 2.12.3 | Creating positive attitudes | 39 |
| 2.13 | UNDERSTANDING THE CHANGING ROLE OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL..... | 40 |
| 2.13.1 | Environmental changes | 41 |
| 2.13.2 | Deputy principals leading change at schools..... | 41 |
| 2.13.3 | Resistance to change at schools..... | 42 |
| 2.13.4 | Reasons educators resist change | 44 |
| 2.13.4.1 | Fear of failure or success | 44 |
| 2.13.4.2 | Creatures of habit | 45 |
| 2.13.4.3 | No obvious need | 46 |
| 2.13.4.4 | Loss of control..... | 46 |
| 2.13.4.5 | Concern about their support system | 46 |
| 2.13.4.6 | Closed mind..... | 47 |
| 2.13.4.7 | Unwilling to learn..... | 47 |
| 2.13.4.8 | Fear that the change may not be better | 47 |
| 2.13.4.9 | Fear of unknown | 47 |
| 2.13.4.10 | Fear of personal impact..... | 47 |
| 2.14 | GUIDELINES FOR MANAGING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE AT SCHOOLS..... | 48 |
| 2.15 | HOW EDUCATORS WILL RESPOND TO CHANGE AT SCHOOLS | 49 |
| 2.15.1 | Strategy based on sound management theory for deputy principals in dealing with change | 50 |

| | | |
|--------|--|----|
| 2.16 | STRATEGIC PLANNING FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE AT SCHOOLS..... | 52 |
| 2.17 | GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE | 55 |
| 2.17.1 | Involve educators as educators in the change process | 55 |
| 2.17.2 | Interview educators as employees | 55 |
| 2.17.3 | Get the informal leader involved | 55 |
| 2.18 | EDUCATORS COMMITMENT TO CHANGE AS A FOCUS FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS | 56 |
| 2.19 | KEY FACTORS IN EFFECTIVE CHANGE MANAGEMENT..... | 56 |
| 2.19.1 | Change is all-pervasive | 57 |
| 2.19.2 | Effective change needs active senior support | 57 |
| 2.19.3 | Change is a multi-disciplinary activity | 57 |
| 2.19.4 | Change is about people..... | 58 |
| 2.19.5 | Change is about success..... | 58 |
| 2.19.6 | Change is a perpetual process..... | 59 |
| 2.19.7 | Effective change requires competent change agents..... | 59 |
| 2.20 | BENCHMARKING AS A TOOL FOR CHANGE MANAGEMENT..... | 60 |
| 2.21 | ENSURING MANAGERIAL VALUE AND THE TRINITY | 62 |
| 2.22 | CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND RELATED PROBLEMS..... | 64 |
| 2.22.1 | Dilemma one: Commercialization..... | 65 |
| 2.22.2 | Dilemma two: School performance..... | 65 |
| 2.22.3 | Dilemma three: Educator performance..... | 66 |

| | | |
|---|--|-----------|
| 2.22.4 | Dilemma four: Unspoken issues | 66 |
| 2.23 | PRINCIPALS AND SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING: CONCEPTUALIZING CHALLENGES AS DILEMMAS | 68 |
| 2.23.1 | The change from centralized to autonomous leadership | 69 |
| 2.24 | STEPS FOR A SUCCESSFUL CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESS | 70 |
| 2.25 | SUMMARY | 71 |
| | | |
| CHAPTER THREE MANAGING CHANGE: THE ROLE OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL..... | | 72 |
| 3.1 | INTRODUCTION..... | 72 |
| 3.2 | THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT | 74 |
| 3.2.1 | Similarities between leadership and management | 75 |
| 3.2.2 | Definition of leadership | 76 |
| 3.2.2.1 | Leadership for managing change..... | 80 |
| 3.2.2.2 | Leadership skills to manage change..... | 84 |
| 3.3 | ATTRIBUTES OF LEADERSHIP | 85 |
| 3.4 | MODELS OF LEADERSHIP FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS | 88 |
| 3.4.1 | Instructional leadership of deputy principals..... | 88 |
| 3.4.1.1 | Instructional leadership model | 89 |
| 3.4.2 | Transformational leadership of the deputy principal | 90 |
| 3.4.2.1 | Providing individual support | 92 |
| 3.4.2.2 | Creating high performance | 94 |

| | | |
|------------|--|------------|
| 3.4.2.3 | Building a shared vision | 95 |
| 3.4.3 | Moral leadership of deputy principals | 97 |
| 3.4.4 | Participative leadership of deputy principals..... | 98 |
| 3.4.5 | Situational leadership of deputy principals | 100 |
| 3.4.6 | Transactional leadership of deputy principals..... | 101 |
| 3.4.7 | A comparison between transactional and transformational leadership..... | 102 |
| 3.4.8 | Ethics, change and paradigms | 103 |
| 3.4.8.1 | Collection of facts..... | 105 |
| 3.4.8.2 | Negotiations..... | 105 |
| 3.4.8.3 | Self-purification | 106 |
| 3.4.8.4 | Reflection..... | 107 |
| 3.4.9 | Managerial leadership | 109 |
| 3.4.10 | Contingent leadership..... | 110 |
| 3.5 | VITAL ASPECTS OF LEADERSHIP MODELS..... | 110 |
| 3.6 | CRITICAL ASPECTS OF COMPETENCY-BASED LEADERSHIP | 112 |
| 3.6.1 | Foundation skills..... | 112 |
| 3.6.2 | Reflective practice | 112 |
| 3.6.3 | Role-specific leadership | 114 |
| 3.6.4 | Deputy principals as facilitative leaders..... | 115 |
| 3.6.5 | Motivation by deputy principals..... | 117 |

| | | |
|-------------|--|------------|
| 3.6.6 | Delegation by deputy principals | 117 |
| 3.7 | BASIC MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPALS | 119 |
| 3.7.1 | Definition of management..... | 119 |
| 3.7.2 | Definition of planning | 121 |
| 3.7.3 | Selection as part of planning | 122 |
| 3.7.4 | Leading..... | 123 |
| 3.7.5 | Controlling | 123 |
| 3.8 | MANAGERIAL TASKS OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN HANDLING CHANGE..... | 124 |
| 3.9 | COMMUNICATION AS A WAY OF MANAGING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGE | 126 |
| 3.9.1 | Definition of communication..... | 127 |
| 3.10 | THE EMOTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN DEALING WITH CHANGE | 129 |
| 3.11 | SUMMARY | 130 |
| | CHAPTER FOUR RESEARCH DESIGN | 131 |
| 4.1 | INTRODUCTION..... | 131 |
| 4.2 | THE AIM OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH..... | 131 |
| 4.3 | QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH..... | 131 |
| 4.3.1 | The questionnaire as a research tool | 131 |
| 4.3.1.1 | The advantages of the questionnaire..... | 132 |
| 4.3.1.2 | Disadvantages of a questionnaire..... | 133 |

| | | |
|--|--|------------|
| 4.3.2 | The design of the questionnaire | 134 |
| 4.3.2.1 | Preparing the questionnaire..... | 134 |
| 4.3.2.2 | Construction of the questionnaire items..... | 135 |
| 4.3.2.3 | The questionnaire format..... | 136 |
| 4.3.2.4 | Pilot study | 137 |
| 4.3.2.5 | Questionnaire distribution | 138 |
| 4.4 | POPULATION AND SAMPLING | 138 |
| 4.4.1 | The response rate | 138 |
| 4.5 | STATISTICAL ANALYSIS..... | 139 |
| 4.5.1 | Data analysis | 139 |
| 4.6 | SUMMARY | 139 |
| CHAPTER FIVE ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA..... | | 140 |
| 5.1 | INTRODUCTION..... | 140 |
| 5.2 | BIOGRAPHICAL DATA | 140 |
| 5.2.1 | Biographical data of educators and deputy principals | 140 |
| 5.2.1.1 | Age | 141 |
| 5.2.1.2 | Gender..... | 142 |
| 5.2.1.3 | Position educators hold..... | 142 |
| 5.2.1.4 | Highest qualification..... | 142 |
| 5.2.1.5 | REQV..... | 142 |
| 5.2.1.6 | Home language..... | 143 |
| 5.3 | SECTION B: CHANGE MANAGEMENT SKILLS | 143 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----|
| 5.3.1 | Preparing for change | 143 |
| 5.3.1.1 | Identifies problems systematically..... | 146 |
| 5.3.1.2 | Remains calm under pressure | 147 |
| 5.3.1.3 | Involves others when appropriate | 147 |
| 5.3.1.4 | Builds on an open climate for decision-making | 147 |
| 5.3.1.5 | Sets objectives | 148 |
| 5.3.1.6 | Draws on the input of others..... | 148 |
| 5.3.1.7 | Checks for agreement..... | 148 |
| 5.3.1.8 | Reviews objectives carefully | 149 |
| 5.3.1.9 | Finds all information relevant to a decision | 149 |
| 5.3.1.10 | Prepares ideas effectively | 149 |
| 5.3.2 | Planning for change..... | 150 |
| 5.3.2.1 | Identifies opportunities and solutions..... | 151 |
| 5.3.2.2 | Evaluates options carefully | 151 |
| 5.3.2.3 | Communicates information and views clearly | 152 |
| 5.3.2.4 | Generates imaginative solutions to problems | 152 |
| 5.3.2.5 | Identifies problems concerning implementation of change | 152 |
| 5.3.3 | Implementing change | 153 |
| 5.3.3.1 | Identification of needs to achieve a plan for change | 154 |
| 5.3.3.2 | Meets deadline..... | 155 |
| 5.3.3.3 | Identifies the impact on people | 155 |

| | | |
|------------|---|------------|
| 5.3.3.4 | Deals with impact of pressure..... | 155 |
| 5.3.3.5 | Identifies the impact of stress on others..... | 156 |
| 5.3.3.6 | Allocates tasks sensibly..... | 156 |
| 5.3.3.7 | Co-ordinates plans and actions effectively..... | 156 |
| 5.3.4 | Sustaining change..... | 157 |
| 5.3.4.1 | Makes the time to review progress..... | 159 |
| 5.3.4.2 | Discusses problems openly..... | 159 |
| 5.3.4.3 | Provides relevant feedback..... | 159 |
| 5.3.4.4 | Identifies areas for improvement..... | 159 |
| 5.3.4.5 | Keeps motivation high..... | 160 |
| 5.3.4.6 | B4.6: Builds team work..... | 160 |
| 5.3.4.7 | Sets out to increase the use of resources..... | 160 |
| 5.3.4.8 | Allows enough time for change..... | 160 |
| 5.4 | SECTION C..... | 161 |
| 5.4.1 | Leadership (quantitative data)..... | 161 |
| 5.4.2 | Empowerment of deputy principal..... | 162 |
| 5.4.3 | The role of the school during a change process..... | 165 |
| 5.4.4 | Educators' commitment..... | 168 |
| 5.4.5 | Deputy principals' work experience..... | 169 |
| 5.5 | SECTION D..... | 172 |
| 5.5.1 | Competencies of the deputy principal..... | 172 |

| | | |
|--|---|------------|
| 5.5.1.1 | Management Programme: Governance..... | 172 |
| 5.5.2 | Management programme: Connectivity..... | 175 |
| 5.6 | SUMMARY | 176 |
| | | |
| CHAPTER SIX A MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME TO ASSIST DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE IN SCHOOLS..... | | |
| 6.1 | INTRODUCTION..... | 177 |
| 6.2 | THE CONCEPT MODEL | 178 |
| 6.2.1 | The background of a model..... | 178 |
| 6.2.2 | The qualities of a model | 178 |
| 6.3 | TERMINOLOGY | 179 |
| 6.4 | IN-SERVICE TRAINING | 179 |
| 6.5 | DEPUTY PRINCIPALS KEEP MOTIVATION AT SCHOOLS HIGH..... | 180 |
| 6.6 | A PROGRAMME TO EMPOWER DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE | 183 |
| 6.7 | MANAGING CHANGE AT SCHOOL..... | 184 |
| 6.7.1 | Communication skills..... | 184 |
| 6.7.2 | Recognising and managing the pressures and influences of communication during a change process | 185 |
| 6.8 | DRAWS ON THE INPUT OF OTHERS | 187 |
| 6.9 | IMPACT OF CHANGE ON PEOPLE..... | 191 |
| 6.10 | SUMMARY | 191 |

| | | |
|------------------------------|--|------------|
| CHAPTER SEVEN | SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND | |
| RECOMMENDATIONS | | 192 |
| 7.1 | INTRODUCTION | 192 |
| 7.2 | SUMMARY | 192 |
| 7.3 | FINDINGS | 194 |
| 7.3.1 | Findings with regard to the change management skills the deputy principals need to acquire in dealing with change at schools | 194 |
| 7.3.2 | Findings with regard to leadership as displayed by deputy principals during a change process at schools | 196 |
| 7.3.3 | Findings with regard to the role of the school during a change process..... | 196 |
| 7.3.4 | Findings with regard to educators' commitment | 196 |
| 7.3.5 | Findings with regard to deputy principals' work experience..... | 196 |
| 7.3.6 | Findings with regard to competencies of deputy principals in relation to governance | 197 |
| 7.3.7 | Findings with regard to competencies of deputy principals in relation to leverage | 197 |
| 7.3.8 | Findings with regard to competencies of the deputy principals in relation to connectivity | 197 |
| 7.4 | RECOMMENDATIONS | 197 |
| 7.4.1 | Recommendation 1 | 197 |
| 7.4.2 | Recommendation 2 | 198 |
| 7.4.3 | Recommendation 3 | 198 |

| | | |
|-------|--|------------|
| 7.4.4 | Recommendation 4 | 198 |
| 7.4.5 | Recommendation 5 | 199 |
| 7.4.6 | Recommendation 6 | 199 |
| 7.4.7 | Recommendation 7 | 199 |
| 7.4.8 | Recommendation 8 | 200 |
| 7.5 | RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY | 200 |
| 7.6 | LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY | 200 |
| 7.7 | CLOSING REMARKS..... | 201 |
| | REFERENCES | 202 |
| | APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE..... | 223 |
| | APPENDIX B LETTERS OF PERMISSION..... | 229 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | | |
|-------------|--|-----|
| Table 2.1: | Organizational variables associated with change (De Meillon, 2006:2)..... | 11 |
| Table 2.2: | A model for change management (De Meillon, 2006:4)..... | 12 |
| Table 2.3: | A model for managing resistance to change (Van der Westhuizen, 2003:236) | 49 |
| Table 2.4: | Strategic choices in managing resistance to change (Van der Westhuizen <i>et al.</i> , 2003:232) | 51 |
| Table 4.1: | Sample population | 138 |
| Table 5.1: | Biographical data of educators and deputy principals | 140 |
| Table 5.2: | Data on change management skills | 143 |
| Table 5.3: | The role of the deputy principal in planning for change..... | 150 |
| Table 5.4: | Implementation of change | 153 |
| Table 5.5: | Sustaining changes at school..... | 157 |
| Table 5.6: | Principal's commitment | 161 |
| Table 5.7: | Empowerment of deputy principal | 162 |
| Table 5.8: | The role of the school..... | 165 |
| Table 5.9: | Educators' commitment..... | 168 |
| Table 5.10: | Deputy principals' work experience..... | 169 |
| Table 5.11: | Governance..... | 172 |
| Table 5.12: | Management programme: Leverage | 173 |
| Table 5.13: | Connectivity..... | 175 |

| | | |
|------------|--|-----|
| Table 6.1: | Management structure to design a training programme for deputy principals | 189 |
|------------|--|-----|

LIST OF FIGURES

| | | |
|--------------|---|-----|
| Figure 2.1: | Changes in Management Goals (De Million, 2006:3)..... | 11 |
| Figure 2.2: | Internally and externally generated change (Cornell, 1996:24) | 17 |
| Figure 2.3: | Forces deputy principals have to deal with (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:219)..... | 23 |
| Figure 2.4: | Structure of change (Conner, 1992:67)..... | 29 |
| Figure 2.5: | Process of change (Conner, 1992:88) | 31 |
| Figure 2.6: | Curriculum force field (Everard & Morris, 1990: 199) | 40 |
| Figure 2.7: | Managing the change process systematically (Van der Westhuizen <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 232)..... | 52 |
| Figure 2.8: | Model of strategic management (Johnson & Scholes (1993:23)..... | 54 |
| Figure 2.9: | Key success factors for change (Clarke & Garside, 1997:55) | 61 |
| Figure 2.10: | The trinity (Beer & Eisenstat, 1990:32; Kotter, 1995:59)..... | 63 |
| Figure 3.1: | What leadership involves (Daft, 1999:6) | 77 |
| Figure 3.2: | A relational perspective on educational leadership (Calitz <i>et al.</i> , 2001:12. | 80 |
| Figure 3.3: | Five dimensions of leadership (Bain, 1995:18) | 86 |
| Figure 3.4: | Model for managerial leadership-the macro factors (Flanagan & Thompson, 1993:10)..... | 99 |
| Figure 3.5: | Experimental learning cycle (Osteerman & Koffkamp, in Maile, 2000:313)..... | 113 |

| | | |
|--------------|--|-----|
| Figure 3.6: | The management process (Griffin, 1990:9)..... | 121 |
| Figure 3.7: | The communication process (Griffin, 1993:447)..... | 128 |
| Figure 5.1: | Preparing for change..... | 146 |
| Figure 5.2: | Planning for change | 151 |
| Figure 5.3: | Implementation of change..... | 154 |
| Figure 5.4: | Sustaining changes at school..... | 158 |
| Figure 5.5: | Principal's commitment | 162 |
| Figure 5.6: | Empowerment of deputy principal..... | 164 |
| Figure 5.7: | The role of the school..... | 167 |
| Figure 5.8: | Educators' commitment..... | 169 |
| Figure 5.9: | Deputy Principals' work experience | 171 |
| Figure 5.10: | Governance..... | 173 |
| Figure 5.11: | Management programme: Leverage | 174 |
| Figure 5.12: | Management programme: Connectivity | 176 |
| Figure 6.1: | Basic components of motivation..... | 181 |
| Figure 6.2: | Motivation model for staff at school (Tampoe, 1993:155) .. | 182 |
| Figure 6.3: | A model of empowerment | 183 |
| Figure 6.4: | Managing change at school | 184 |
| Figure 6.5: | The influences on a subordinate (Lovell, 1994:115)..... | 186 |
| Figure 6.6: | The influences on a manager (Lovell, 1994:115). | 187 |
| Figure 6.9: | Quality Change Process Model (Acer-Hocevar: 199682)... | 190 |

CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Everything must change at one time or another or else a static society will evolve. According to Kimbrough and Burkett (1990:131), change is a deliberate effort to alter the *status quo* by influencing the functions, structure, technology and/or purpose of an organization. According to Strebel (1996:5), change may be a constant, but it is not always the same. One person claims that schools are being bombarded by change; another observes that there is nothing new under the sun. A policy-maker charges that educators are resistant to change; an educator complains that administrators introduce change for their own self-aggrandizement and that they neither know what is needed nor understand the classroom (Fullan, 2001:3).

Alvin Toffler (in Richards, 1999:133) asks why some men hunger, even rage, for change, doing everything in their power to create it, while others flee from it. However, according to Paton and McCalman (2000:5), change will not disappear or dissipate. Technology, civilization and creative thought will maintain their ever accelerating drive onwards. Managers and the enterprises they serve, be they public or private, service or manufacturing, will continue to be judged upon their ability to effectively and efficiently manage change.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The pace of change has increased dramatically. The world may not be spinning faster, but mankind certainly is. Business and managers are now faced with highly dynamic and ever more complex operating environments. Technology and products, along with the institutions/industries they support and serve, are converging (Paton & McCalman, 2000:5).

Designing, evaluating and implementing successful change strategies largely depend upon the quality of the management team, in particular the team's

ability to facilitate the change process in a responsive and progressive manner (Paton & McCalman, 2000:6).

The issue would thus be how the deputy principals manage change in such a fast moving environment, without losing control of the schools and existing core competencies?

The post of deputy principalship is regarded as a training ground for principalship. Deputy Principal assists the principal in school administration and other routine duties that cannot be performed by non-professional personnel (Free State Department of Education, 1997:15). The task of the principals and deputy principals or any education leader has become increasingly complex and constrained. Principals and deputy principals find themselves locked in with less room to manoeuvre. They have become extremely dependent on context (Loock, Campher, Du Preez, Grobler & Shaba, 2003: 49). Principals and deputy principals are in the least favourable position to provide pro-active leadership. They need a new mindset and guidelines to break through the bonds of dependency that have entrapped those who want to make a difference (Loock *et al.*, 2003:49).

FDE (1997:15) defines the duties and responsibilities of the deputy principals as being in charge of:

- school administration, such as the duty roster, subject streaming, admission of learners and the school calendar;
- school curriculum and pedagogy, such as coordinating the work of school committees, INSET and developmental programmes, arranging teaching practice;
- school finances and maintenance of service and building, such as planning and control of expenditure, allocation of funds/resources; and
- participating in departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses in order to contribute to and/or update the professional standards.

Deputy principals must accept greater responsibility for their role as leaders. Their contribution to leadership at the school should be increased. They should emerge as efficient members of the administrative team in all aspects of the school. Their role encompasses much more than supporting principals, educators and learners.

Organizations and managers must recognize that change, in itself, is not necessarily a problem. The problem often lies in the ability to manage change effectively. Not only can the adopted process be wrong, but the conceptual framework may also lack vision and understanding. Possibly, the problem may be traced to the managers' growing inability to appropriately develop and reinforce their role and purpose within complex, dynamic and challenging organizations. Change is a way of life in organizations and more importantly, their managers must recognize their need to adopt strategic approaches when facing transformation situations (Burnes, in Paton & McCalman, 2000:36).

Deputy principals in schools need to be trained so as to strive to develop sustainable advantage in both volatile and competitive operating environments. Paton and McCalman (2000:36) state that people manage change, and well-managed people manage change more effectively. The ability to handle change, in turn, creates an increasing demand for the development of associated competencies, which should be a management programme to train deputy principals in dealing with change.

A management programme therefore needs to be established to assist the second-in-command to handle change at school as the one who liaises with all stakeholders, such as government officials, parents, business, learners and unions. Deputy principals need to be empowered to enable them to deal with change.

Lagana (1998:52) is of the opinion that empowerment is a controlled process whereby persons are given the opportunity and necessary resources to enable them to believe and feel that they understand their world and have the power to change it. However, Carl (1994:3) warns that empowerment does not mean a total free-reign situation where everybody hopes for the best. Carl

(1994:3) further maintains that empowerment is a process of personal development and growth that eventually enables an individual to take independent decisions and act in such a way that will impact on a specific environment in a positive way.

This view is also shared by Karina and Tanaka (1991:115) when they describe empowerment as the extent to which educators practice autonomous behaviour while maintaining collegial interaction, accepting collective responsibility and accountability for client outcomes, sharing a common body of knowledge, and adhering to agreed upon educational standards.

The envisaged programme will be designed to assist deputy principals to prepare for change and to be able to identify problems and causes systematically. It will help them to build an open climate for decision-making and be able to identify opportunities and solutions during change.

Following from the above-mentioned information, the following questions need to be addressed:

- What are the importance and effect of change at schools?
- What does the management and leadership role of deputy principals look like while managing change?
- What are the perceptions of deputy principals and educators regarding change management at schools?
- Can a management programme be suggested to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools?

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of this research will be operationalized in the following manner:

- by presenting an overview of the importance and effect of change at schools;

- by doing empirical research with deputy principals and educators regarding their perceptions on change management at school level;
- by determining the management and leadership role of deputy principals; and
- by suggesting a management programme that will assist deputy principals in dealing with change.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Literature research

An intensive study of the literature dealing with change and the role of the deputy principals was carried out to serve as a general background to this research.

1.4.2 Empirical research

The empirical survey was used for collecting data for the sake of designing a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change in primary and secondary schools in the Sedibeng-West (D8).

1.4.3 Instrument chosen as research method

An instrument refers to an appropriate research method used for gathering information from the deputy principals and educators about the variables of interest to the researcher in order to achieve the aims of the study (Cohen & Manion, 1994:92).

To gain insight into the theoretical background of this study, a questionnaire was designed as an instrument of survey (*cf.* 4.3.4.2) and distributed to 320 deputy principals and 180 educators. These respondents were selected randomly from primary and secondary schools in the Sedibeng-West (D8).

The questionnaire was compiled in the following manner:

Section A: Personal and general information

Section B: Change management skills of deputy principals

Section C: Work experience of deputy principals

Section D: Competencies of deputy principals

On the basis of the information acquired from the respondents, the data was analysed and interpreted with the view of designing a management programme to assist deputy principals to deal with change at schools.

1.4.4 Population and sampling

A homogeneous population was determined, which encompassed educators and deputy principals who were already in the system of the education department and who had experience in the traditional approach to teaching and learning. The population was made up out of permanent and temporary educators and 143 primary and secondary schools in the Sedibeng-West (D8).

By means of a stratified sampling technique, the researcher randomly selected a representative sample of 50 primary schools and 44 secondary schools in Sedibeng-West (D8) from a total of 143 schools. A total number of 6 questionnaires were delivered to each selected school ($n=94$) to be completed by 2 deputy principals and 4 educators. This totalled 564 questionnaires handed out (*cf.* 4.4.1).

The total number of respondents was 188 deputy principals and 376 educators from both selected primary and secondary schools in the district.

1.4.5 Pilot study

The preliminary questionnaire was evaluated in a pilot study with a group of thirty principals from both primary and secondary schools. The aim of the pilot study was to determine the appropriateness and quality of the data collected and to adapt the questionnaire for the purpose of clarity.

1.4.6 Statistical techniques

To process, analyse and interpret data, descriptive statistics were used (frequencies and Cronbach alpha for reliability), and this was done by means of the Statistica computer package.

1.5 FEASIBILITY OF THE STUDY

The study was feasible in that sufficient literature resources were available on the research topic and the study was conducted in the area where the researcher resides. Deputy principals and educators were also easy to reach.

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Permission to conduct the study in D8 was obtained from the Gauteng Department of Education. Confidentiality was maintained throughout the study and no information was made available to an unauthorized person.

1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The deputy principal as immediate subordinate or second-in-command should assist the principal in managing change at a school. It is therefore a prerequisite for deputy principals to acquire the necessary skills and techniques to be able to deal with change at the school. An intervention programme is needed to develop deputy principals at schools to be able to deal with new practices. The study therefore aims at suggesting a management programme that will assist deputy principals to respond to change at schools in Sedibeng-West (D8).

1.8 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

This research will be reported according to the following chapters:

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

CHAPTER 2: The importance and effect of change

CHAPTER 3: Managing change: the role of the deputy principals

CHAPTER 4: Empirical research

CHAPTER 5: Data analysis and interpretation

CHAPTER 6: The suggested management programme

CHAPTER 7: Summary, findings and recommendations

1.9 SUMMARY

In this study an overview of what it entails was elucidated. The research problem and the aims of the research were formulated. The research methodology that was used for the development of a management programme was outlined. Finally, a preview of the division of chapters of this thesis was listed.

The next chapter will probe into the development of a management programme to deal with change at schools.

CHAPTER TWO

THE IMPORTANCE AND EFFECT OF CHANGE AT SCHOOLS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The implementation of change at schools requires a transformation process resulting in radical changes of the system. Another effective way to change behaviour is to put people into a new context which imposes new roles, responsibility and relationship on them. While this change requires a change in people's behaviour, it does not necessarily advocate structural change to the educational organization. Berry (1997:61) asserts that in a large enterprise like school education, structural change could be difficult to achieve and even be counterproductive as a strategy for change and improvement.

De Meillon (2006:1) argues that one of the greatest challenges facing organizations today will remain that of dealing with an ever more complex and turbulent institutional environment. At a relentless pace, unpredictability and interdependence create uncertainties. Changes confronting institutions at all levels are an environmental feature that does not fall into any pattern and defies all logic. Change can dramatically alter the design of work roles, work processes, working relationships, institutional structures, culture and individual competencies and skills. Change management optimises acceptance, maximizes readiness and empowers leaders and those involved in change (De Meillon, 2006).

This chapter will focus on defining change, factors that affect change in education, forms of change in education, a temporal framework for analysing transition at schools, the structure of change, conditions of change, understanding the changing role of deputy principals, parent involvement in schools during a change process, how educators respond to change in schools, guidelines for managing resistance to change at schools, educator commitment to change as a focus for deputy principals, key factors in effective

change management, ensuring managerial value and change management and related problems.

While in this chapter the focus might be on the role of the principal, it should be remembered that the deputy principal is the person who stands in for the principal when the situation arises.

2.2 CHANGE MANAGEMENT AT SCHOOLS

Change management requires an understanding and a way of thinking about change (De Meillon, 2006:1):

- in a systematic perspective;
- in the context of organizational dynamics and transformation; and
- as a movement from the current state of affairs to a desired future state.

Change management is about managing risk. It is a set of activities that mobilises commitment of people to a change initiative. It develops change capacity skills in employees and leaders. It creates processes to generate and sustain change through an organization (De Meillon, 2006:2).

Lastly, change management may be defined as "systematically and deliberately influencing the human and organizational variables associated with a complex change to achieve desired results", and can be explained as influencing human and organisational variables within an organization that are associated with complex change systematically and on purpose, in order to accomplish the desired results (De Meillon, 2006:2).

The same author (*Ibid.*) describes key concepts in the above statement as follows:

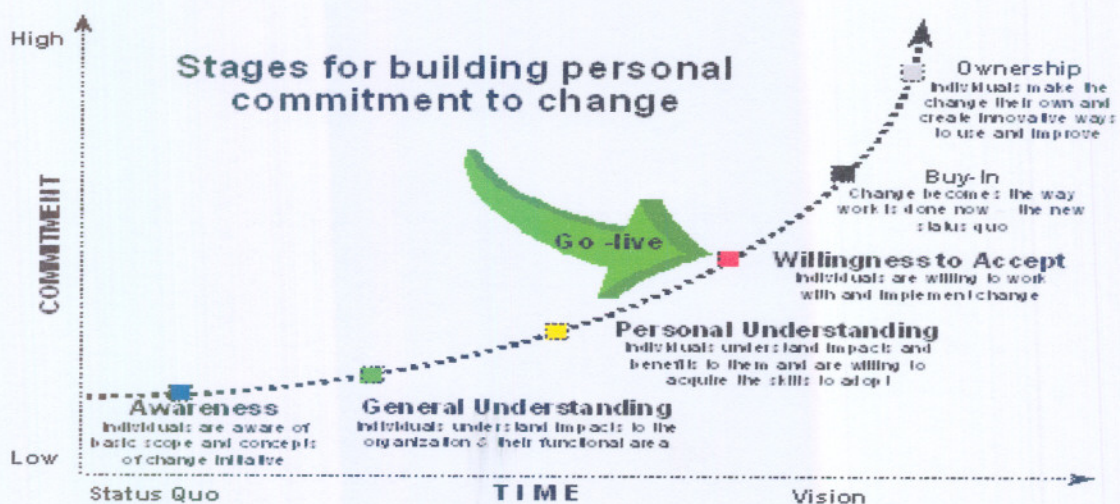
Table 2.1: Organizational variables associated with change (De Meillon, 2006:2)

| | |
|-----------------------|---|
| <i>Human</i> | skills, mindsets, styles, cultures, norms |
| <i>Organizational</i> | strategy, processes, structure, technology measurements, incentives, HR levers |
| <i>Change</i> | multiple stakeholders, focused on strategic business processes crossing multiple functional domains |
| <i>Systematically</i> | a holistic, proven process for change |
| <i>On purpose</i> | premeditated and planned |
| <i>Results</i> | Improvement to choice, quality, costs, responsiveness (customer-focused measurements) |

Table 2.1 therefore presents vital organizational variables that affect the change process and which need to be understood (*cf.* 2.7.2).

In Figure 2.1 a visual representation is given of the time it takes to adopt to the effects of change.

Figure 2.1: Changes in Management Goals (De Million, 2006:3)



This model serves as a guideline to change practitioners when addressing organization specific challenges. The model was specifically designed to ensure close integration with system implementation of change.

Table 2.2 below signifies the role of the deputy principal in leading change. It denotes the current, transition and improved state in sustaining and monitoring change at school. Change management involves change readiness assessment, change management planning and skills transfer planning (De Meillion, 2006:4)

Table 2.2: A model for change management (De Meillon, 2006:4)

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| Leading Change | | Change Readiness Assessment | | | |
| | | Change Management Planning | | | |
| | | Skills Transfer Planning | | | |
| Current State | | Transition State | | Improved State | |
| Defining needs and expectations | Building a vision | Creating and maintaining commitment | Sustaining change | Monitoring progress | |
| Leaders | Agreement on expectations | | Leading the way | | Sustained commitment |
| Teams | Team launch | Ensuring optimal teams | Change acceptance | Change agents | |
| Individuals | Communication Planning | | Communication Execution | | |
| | | | New Job Skills Identification | | New Job Skills Implementation |
| Changing Systems and Structures | | Management Structures and Practices | | | |
| | | HR Structures and Practices | | | |
| | | Other Structures and Practices | | | |

According to Nichols (2004:1), there are two meanings to change management. One meaning refers to the changes in a planned and managed or systematic fashion. The aim is implement new methods and systems in ongoing organizations. The changes to be managed lie within and are controlled by the organization, even though these changes may be triggered by events originating outside the organization, in what is usually termed environment.

The second meaning of change management is the response to changes over which the organization exercises little or no control (e.g legislation, social and political upheavals, the activities of competitors, shifting economic tides and currents).

Change management is also seen as an area of professional practice. This is the context or subject matter of change management. It consists of the models, methods and techniques, tools, skills and other forms of knowledge that go into making up any practice (Nickols, 2004:20).

According to Chapman (2001:4), there are rules for change management which the deputy principals should apply when managing institutional change. Change management entails thoughtful planning and sensitive implementation and, above all, consultation with and involvement of the people affected by the changes. In dealing with change, the deputy principals need to have a clear understanding of what they want to achieve with the change, why and how they will know that the change has been achieved, who are affected by this change and how they will react to it.

2.3 DEFINING CHANGE

Change is a complex and dynamic process which should not be solidified or treated as a series of linear events (Dawson, 1994:3). Fullan (2001:29) argues that people have become so accustomed to the presence of change that they rarely stop to think what it really means, as they are experiencing it at a personal level.

Fullan (2001:29) contends that the crux of change is how individuals come to grips with this reality. In an organization, change can refer to any alteration in activities or tasks (Kanter, 1991:154). Its implementation involves change in practice which occurs at any levels, for example those of an educator, the school and the school district.

Change at schools involves implementing a new programme or policy, the possible use of new or revised materials (instructional resources such as curriculum materials or techniques), the possible use of new teaching approaches (new teaching strategies or activities) and the possible alteration of beliefs, pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programme (Fullan, 2001:39).

According to Newton and Tarrant (1992:6), change of some kind is a fundamental part of existence. People grow and develop, they age and die. Some aspects of human existence seem to have extraordinary stability. Humans also settle into habits which can be limiting and store up long-term problems and contradictions. People like their routines, but if they stick to them closely over a period of time, they can become dissatisfied and bored.

Organizations and people need to address the issue of change to avoid setting into patterns of behaviour which may be comfortable and effective at short-term, but may prove to be limiting and unhelpful over a longer time scale. In the educational circle, there is a belief that what is needed are usually more resources, if change is to occur successfully (Newton & Tarrant, 1992:6).

According to Newton and Tarrant (1992:6), in any change situation there is a need for systematic, formal methods to ensure that people are really changing, developing or growing and can show real progress which can be backed by resource changes.

If the change process is to be addressed effectively, it is a matter of concentrating on behavioural change. The process of change and reasons for and against changes are activities that are fascinating and never completed.

Fullan (2001:29) has indicated four parts of change:

- the general problem of the meaning of individual change in society at large;
- the subjective meaning of change for individuals in education;
- the description of the objective meaning of change in an attempt to make sense of the components of educational change; and
- the critically related issues of shared meaning and programme coherence.

Change involves alteration of an outcome because of the change in time, resources, skills, knowledge and attitude that a person has in a certain context. In the changing era, people are forced to improve their initial ideas, due to the prevailing circumstances.

2.3.1 The general problem of the meaning of change

According to Marris (as quoted by Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991:30), while there is a difference between voluntary and imposed change, all real change involves loss, anxiety and struggle. Failure to recognize this phenomenon as natural and inevitable has meant that we tend to ignore important aspects of change and misinterpret others. As Marris states, once the anxieties of loss are understood, both the tenacity of conservatism and the ambivalence of transitional institutions become clear.

According to Marris (as quoted by Fullan, 2001:30), whether the change is sought or resisted, and happens by chance or design, whether educators look at it from the standpoint of reformers or those they manipulate as individuals or institutions, the response is characteristically ambivalent. New experiences are always initially reacted to in the context of some familiar reliable construction of reality in which people must be able to attach personal meaning to the experiences regardless of how meaningful they might be to others. This seeks to consolidate skills and attachment, which provides the assurance to master something new.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991:31) state that change may come about either because it is imposed on people by natural events or deliberate reform or because they voluntarily participate in or even initiate change when they find dissatisfaction, inconsistency or intolerability in their current situation. In either case, the meaning of change will rarely be clear at the outset and ambivalence will pervade the transition.

Schon (as quoted by Fullan, 2001: 31-32) argues that all real change involves passing through the zones of uncertainty, similar to the situation of being at sea, of being lost.

2.3.2 The subjective meaning of change

In the education system, in terms of change, educators are uncertain about how to influence students and even about whether they have an influence. They experience students as individuals in specific circumstances who are being influenced by multiple and differing forces for which generalizations are not possible (Huberman, quoted by Fullan, 2001:33).

Teaching discussions are often made up of pragmatic trial- and-error grounds, with little chance for reflection. Educators must deal with constant daily disruptions, both within the classroom (such as managing discipline and interpersonal conflicts) or outside the classroom (such as dealing with parents, central office staff and covering curriculum). Huberman as quoted (in Fullan, 2001:33) argues that educators are engaged in interchanges which are spontaneous and require action.

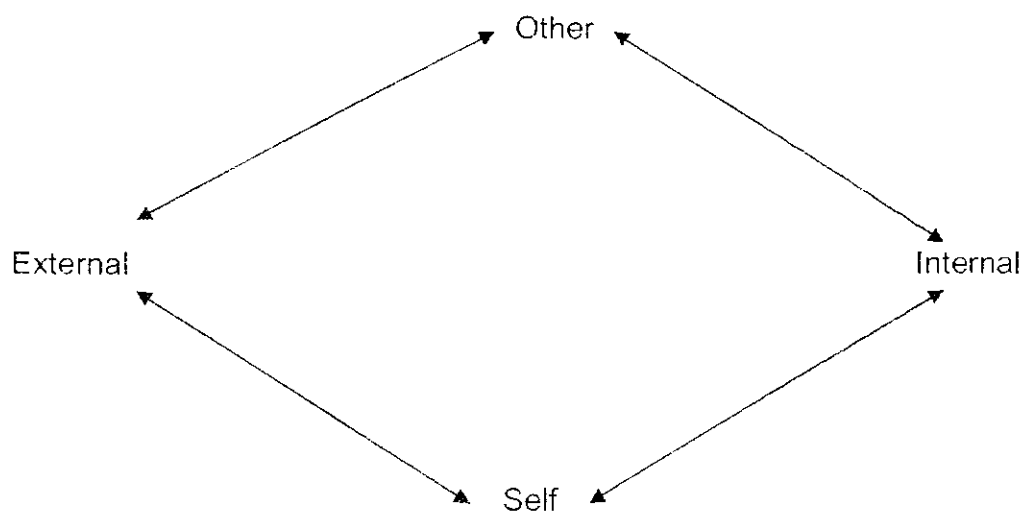
Educators carry out a range of operations simultaneously, provide materials, interact with one learner and monitor the others, assess progress, attend to needs and behaviour. Educators are pressed to adapt to ever-changing conditions. Schools are reactive, partly because they must deal with unstable input, classes have different personalities from year to year, a well-planned lesson may fall flat, what works with one child is ineffective for another or what works one day, may not work the next.

2.4 FACTORS THAT AFFECT CHANGE AT SCHOOL

According to Cornell (1996:23), change is all around, in every aspect of life. It is unavoidable and increasing at an ever rapid rate. This rapidity of change causes not only conflicts and disruption for schools, but also considerable stress for educators involved. Educators need to understand which factors influence change, how to respond and how to initiate it (Cornell, 1996:23).

One useful perspective for considering change is whether it is initiated by oneself, i.e. internally generated, or does it come from elsewhere, i.e. externally generated. These changes are applied either to oneself or to outside others or schools (Cornell, 1996:23). Relating this situation to the working environment, it is possible to construct a pyramid model to illustrate some of the many factors which are either initiators of change or reactions to it.

Figure 2.2: Internally and externally generated change (Cornell, 1996:24)



In Figure 2.2, the work structures, systems, technology, goals and culture are considered to be part of the total effect of the school on the individual and then the model is extended to consider the influence of the environment outside of the school. The assumption is that, in order for schools to function satisfactorily, there is an equilibrium or balance between these related factors.

Change disrupts this balance and affects the efficiency and effectiveness of the schools and increases stress and uncertainty in the workforce (Cornell, 1996:23).

According to Taylor (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:186), there are identifiable factors that determine the process and success of institutional change in education. The most important factors are outlined below:

2.4.1 The community and local movement

Education is located in the area of social contestation, and as such is also always political. This political ethos has influence on education at national, provincial and local level (Taylor, as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:186):

- The content of the envisaged change depends primarily on the form the change takes and the advantages flowing from the change.
- Education change is affected by the system of educational provision, the organization of schools and educators. This provision includes physical elements such as the learning programme and content of courses

A consideration of the school sees change affecting the structure, culture and the climate of the school. Educators are also considered to fulfil a key role in the process of change by determining what happens in the classroom.

2.4.2 Support for the process of change

According to Taylor (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:186), one of the most important indicators of successful change is the nature and intensity of support given by those involved in the change to those implementing it.

2.4.3 The role of the principal in managing change

The principal is regarded as the change agent who has to accept the entire responsibility for managing change at a school (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990:130; Bester, 1994:21). The principal is expected to initiate change, to facilitate and to implement it. Politicians, parents and the business sector all

expect that schools will accept responsibility of changing existing practices in the interest of progress (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990:130).

According to Dull (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:196), these expectations place pressure on the principal to manage change and to accept the following responsibilities:

- Determining the objectives of the proposed change
- Determining the procedures and methods for implementing change
- Scrutinizing the literature relevant to the proposed change
- Contacting other principals who have already had experience of the proposed change.

According to Brown (1990:244), the school is the primary unit of educational decision-making. Decisions concerning expenditure, curricula and personnel are made by the principal and staff with the participation of parents, students, and members of the community. Brown (1990:244) continues to say that the principal in an educational system becomes the key player. The principal has to attend to a larger set of managerial tasks tied to the delivery of educational services, including programme planning, development and evaluation and budget management. The principal is further burdened by the increased time committed to collaborative decision-making, where staff, parents, students and the community needs to be involved (Brown, 1990:245).

In exercising leadership principals have to decide to what degree they will involve educators in dealing with change. Educator involvement is thought to promote commitment to decisions and to increase motivation to carry them out (Conley, 1991:225). According to Conley (1991:226), educators' expectations and desires vary substantially among educators and across decision domains. Educators tend to express greater expectations for and desire to participate in decisions relating to change in the classroom instruction, but less desire to participate in administrative and management decisions.

Smylie (1992:63) explored the organizational and psychological antecedents to educators' willingness to participate in personnel, curriculum and instruction, staff development and general administrative duties. Smylie (1992:63) found that educators' willingness to participate was influenced primarily by their relationship with the principal. They were more willing to participate if their relationship with their principal was more open, collaborative and supportive. They were much less willing to participate if their relationship was closed, exclusionary and controlling.

According to Calvert (1990:29) the degree of staff involvement in change is contingent on the principal. Davies (1992:17) argues that little change is evident in management style. The degree of delegated decision-making at the school is dependent on the previous operant norms. Besides having to accept these responsibilities, the principal also has to have the necessary skills to manage change effectively (Van de Westhuizen, 2003:198).

2.4.3.1 Skills needed by the principal as an agent of change

Carnall (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:198) emphasizes that the principal needs certain skills in order to initiate and manage change successfully. Vision and creativity are regarded as prerequisites for the systematic planning required for solving new problems. The principal has to be able to respond intuitively when new decisions have to be made. Guinness (1990:184) sees intuitive decision-making as being based on wide experience and knowledgeable handling of brainstorming sessions where contributions from outsiders are welcomed. Huddle (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:198) is of the opinion that the personal vision, involvement, dedication and visible support of the principal are the crucial factors in successful implementation of change.

2.5 FORMS OF CHANGE IN EDUCATION

Kimbrough and Burkett (1990:131) state that there are two forms of organisational change, namely, unplanned and planned change. Planned change implies a deliberate alteration in the *status quo*. Planned change occurs according to specified goals and objectives. Change takes on forms

whether planned or unplanned. The following forms of change can be identified (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990:131):

2.5.1 Technocratic changes at schools

Changes and improvement in technology make educational adaptations necessary to accommodate changes (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990:131).

2.5.2 Social change at school

This type of change is generated by a variety of aspects, namely:

- changes in the relationships between parents and children, and between educators and the children;
- a change in role, such as the reformation of educators' tasks; and
- change in philosophy, such as a new perception or belief which informs a programme or policy (Lipham & Hoeh in Van der Westhuizen, 2002:187).

2.5.3 Interactive change at school

- Interactive change occurs at schools when a group of people or a school community decide on change to improve matters.
- It occurs also when there are changes in the classroom, in the programmes and structures of a school and in the educational system (Lipham & Hoeh in Van der Westhuizen, 2002:187).

2.5.4 Competitive change at school

This form of change is brought on by competition and the desire to be better than other schools. This could be the introduction of training in the new programme at school (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990:131).

According to Herman and Herman (1994:3), there are three forms of organisational change at schools that bring about competition:

- Optional change: This is when key groups of educators as employees initiate the change, rather than having the change mandated by the education department or the school principals.
- Incremental change: It occurs when schools are operating well, but the stakeholders agree that minor changes will improve current operations further.
- Transformational change: It is a rational change to be made when a school is working poorly, or when external or internal forces insist on radical changes in instruction or support services. This method changes the entire culture of the school, which includes, among others, the curriculum renewal of a system of equal opportunities for all.

All these changes mentioned, as outlined by Kimbrough and Burkett and Herman and Herman, require deputy principals at schools to handle them as they arise.

2.6 FORCES THAT BRING ABOUT CHANGE AT SCHOOLS

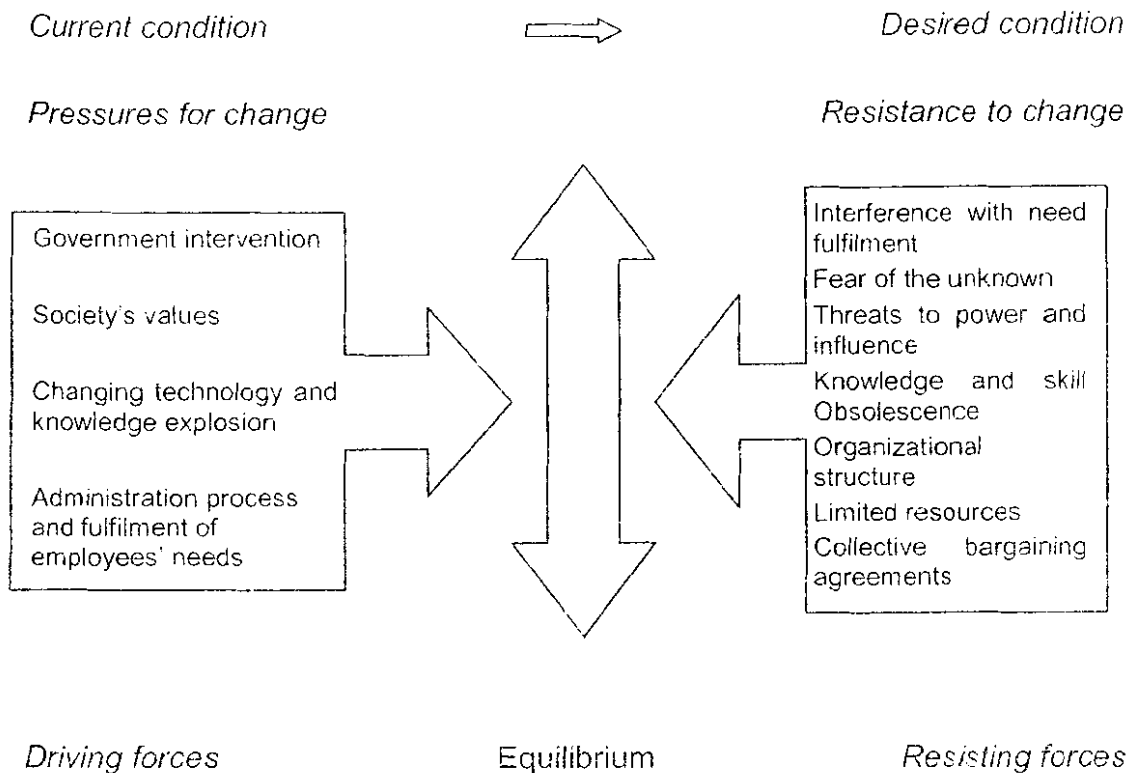
According to Lewin (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:188), changes in an organization should not be seen as static, but as a dynamic balance of opposing forces active within the school. Any situation of change contains driving forces or alters factors that tend to alter existing circumstances (pressure to change) and forces of resistance or factors that tend to oppose or undermine the change.

According to Walker and Vogt (as quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2003:189), deputy principals have an active role in initiating change and in defusing resistance. The principal who desires change has to assess the potential for change within the school, he has to bring about a realignment of the forces of change so that progress is made in the direction of the desired change.

There are three ways in which the motion of the forces of change can be altered, namely to increase these forces, to reduce the resisting forces or to create new forces. Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991:219) point out that

increasing the forces of change without reducing resistance to them will result in tension and conflict. Reducing the resisting forces will result in a reduction of tension and conflict.

Figure 2.3: Forces deputy principals have to deal with (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:219)



A change thus occurs as soon as an imbalance exists between these forces. When a principal becomes aware of the pressure to change, for instance when there is pressure from the external environment of the school on its internal environment, he should initiate the process of change.

2.7 A TEMPORAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING CHANGE AT SCHOOLS

There is a need to develop a framework for understanding the process and context of change as it unfolds within an organization (Laughlin, 1991: 213-222). As Pettigrew (1990:269) has pointed out, an organization change is a-historical, aprocessual and acontextual in character. Pettigrew (1990:269-270) argues that for the encouragement of more detailed contextual and temporal

analyses which are not misdirected by the biases in social science research towards the development of illusory grand theories of change, there are remarkably few studies of change that actually allow the change process to reveal itself in any kind of substantially temporal or contextual manner.

2.7.1 The conception of a need to change

The initial awareness of a need to change may either be in response to external or internal pressures for change (reactive), or through a belief in the need for change to meet future competitive demands (proactive) (Dawson, 1994:36).

Lewin (quoted in Van der Westhuizen, 2002:190) identifies three steps that have to be followed for change to take place, but only two steps (unfreezing and movement) are seen to be relevant to this study. They will be discussed in the next few paragraphs.

2.7.1.1 Unfreezing

Unfreezing is seen as the replacement of ideas and practices by new ones within the school. This is recognition that existing practices have to be altered. In order to ascertain whether there are deficiencies in the existing practices or system regarding the value system, attitudes and dispositions, information will have to be gathered by deputy principals to rectify any deficiencies. The occurrence of the change at a school is an indication that there are problems and that unfreezing is necessary for change to take place (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:220).

2.7.1.2 Movement

Movement means that a process is set in motion that changes the established practices in favour of new procedures and behaviours. During this phase, the new ideas or practices that are to be implemented are subjected to close scrutiny, developed and then applied in practice by deputy principals (Davies & Newstrom in Van der Westhuizen, 2002:190).

2.7.2 The process of organisational change at schools

Once a need for change has been identified, a process of managing it commences. This period comprises a number of different tasks, activities and decisions for individuals and groups both within and outside the organization (Dawson, 1994:36; *cf.* Table 2.1).

In-service training specifically for deputy principals would be relevant to manage these tasks, activities and decisions when dealing with change.

2.8 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT AT SCHOOLS DURING A CHANGE PROCESS

Parents have been entrusted with the right (by the legislation as stated in the South African Schools Act of 1996) over the education of their children at school (DoE, 1996). They have the right to participate in the education of their children. Their participation in school activities will help to deal with issues pertaining to change in curriculum, structure, and financial matters. Van Wyk (1991:11) argues that parental involvement in school activities is vital because they are intimately attached to their children who are affected by change at schools. Kritzinger (as quoted by Weeto, 1997:5) contends that parents' educational task with regard to their children is to make sure that they are well equipped for life.

2.8.1 Parents are primary educators

A family is a primary educational institution which can assist in effecting change at school. Cheung, Chen and Tam (1996:3) affirm this notion by stating that parents, as primary educators, have the obligation of helping a child to develop into a whole person. They maintain that parents' influence on a child's cognitive, affective and social development can determine his/her performance in school activities and also in changes effected at school. This will assist in enhancing changes at school, because according to Postma (1998:93), an educator at school is a secondary educator who cannot be held accountable for the tasks that are home-oriented. Nojaja (2003:22) supports

the notion by saying that a child wishes to feel wanted and loved within the family which cannot be realised by an educator.

According to Dekker (1993:30), parental involvement usually implies parents volunteering their activities to participate in school activities and taking an active part in their children's learning, which makes it easier for the deputy principal to deal with changes that might emerge as a form of educational transformation. Parents, as the primary educators of the learner, and educators, as the secondary educators, should collaborate in all possible ways as allies or partners to deal with change in education (Davies, 1991:379).

When change is eminent at schools, educators and principals need to reach out to parents and the community. Henry (1996: 132) says that educators have to go out into their communities with empathy and interact meaningfully with their constituents. This involves shifts in power and influence. Sarason (1996:53) argues that to seek power is to raise and begin to answer the question: "to seek power to change what? This is all about mobilising more people and resources in the service of educating all students. Educators cannot address this issue alone; parents and community members are crucial and largely untapped resources who have assets and expertise that are essential to the partnership. Parents have knowledge of their children that is not available to anyone else. They have a vested and committed interest in their children's success, and they also have valuable knowledge and skills to contribute springing from their interests, hobbies, occupation and place in the community (Sarason, 1996:53).

According to Coleman (1998:11), learner commitment to schooling or engagement in learning is primarily shaped by parents through the curriculum of the home, but this parent involvement is an alterable variable which can be influenced by school and educator practices. Educators can facilitate and encourage parent collaboration through some simple practices, all well-known, but not implemented consistently in schools.

Parental participation in dealing with change at school is an important issue in school accountability. Kam-Cheung and Kai-Ming (1995:97) identify parents' participation as the basic mode of consumerist accountability which runs parallel to managerial and professional accountability. This takes several forms; one of these is parents' direct participation in school affairs, where parents select educators for their children (Wan, 1992:15).

Parent involvement is defined as the active and willing participation of parents in a wide range of school-based and home-based activities. It extends from supporting and upholding the school ethos (Squelch & Lemmer, 1993:93). According to Van Wyk (1991:10), parental involvement refers to the realization of a parent's joint responsibility for education, but in a more undefined manner and taking place in various areas and at various levels to assist in change. Dekker (1993:155) describes the concept of parent involvement as a process of helping parents to discover their strengths, possibilities and talents and to use them for the benefit of the school. According to Weeto (1997:35) it encompasses a broad range of parenting behaviour, ranging from discussion with learners about the change in school work to attendance of parent-organization meetings where issues regarding change can be discussed.

With reference to parental involvement, the deputy principal is seen to be responsible for communicating with parents (*cf.* 2.11.1.6) and this is also one of the core duties and responsibilities of deputy principals (*cf.* 2.11).

2.8.2 Parental involvement at macro-level

According to Weeto (1997:40), parental involvement is made up of representative parent bodies at school. These bodies may be statutory or non-statutory by nature. The commonly known structure that operates at school in South Africa is the School Governing Body. This body is made up by either parents or educators only at primary schools or parents, educators and learners at secondary schools.

The White Paper on Education in South Africa 1996 stipulates that schools will be controlled by a well-representative governing body that will look into, among others, the interests of parents as the main stakeholders in education.

Nzimande (1996:15) mentions that the involvement of the State in education will be minimal, thus giving parents a greater say.

Regulation 692 of 1990 prescribes that parents can only feature in matters such as the handling of educator complaints (misconduct), decide on uniforms, school regulations or appointments of educators, but may not interfere with the professional work of staff in the performance of their duty. According to Van Schalkwyk (1991:67), parents can organize themselves to negotiate their needs and interests. According to the School Education Bill (North-West Province) and the Free State Education Act 1996, the Minister has to consult with the teacher and parent organizations to discuss:

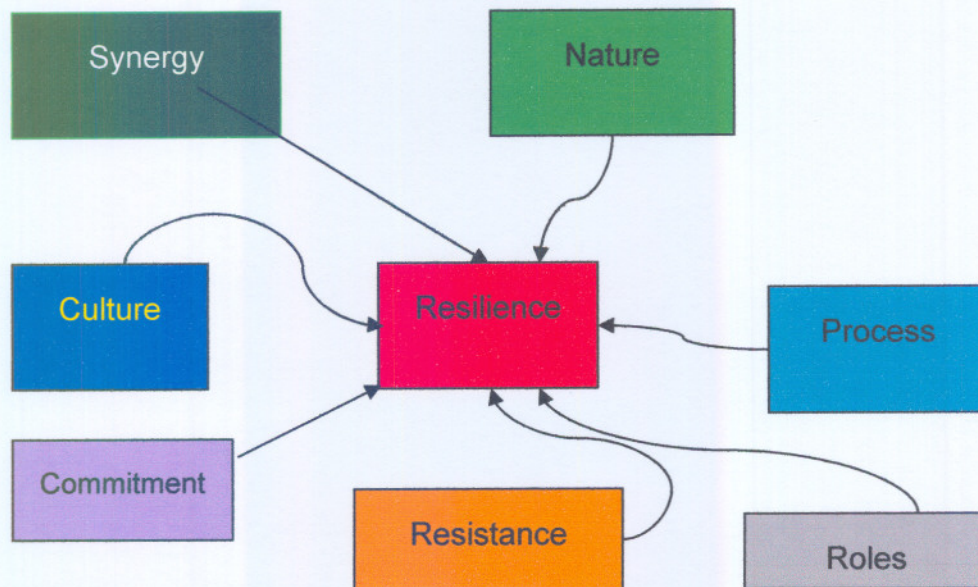
- equal education and access to State schools;
- the medium of instruction at schools;
- the right to religion-oriented education;
- provision of parental involvement in education;
- teacher and personal salaries; and
- standards and norms of examination and the curriculum

Keyter (1995:14) maintains that the State policy should ensure that greater involvement in school activities be realised.

2.9 THE STRUCTURE OF CHANGE AT SCHOOLS

There are various patterns of change. The resilience pattern is the most critical to successful change. It is regarded as central to increasing our tolerance to future shock. This primary pattern is the cornerstone of the human capacity to absorb change. The diagram below as a support pattern addresses the nature of change, the process of change, roles of change, resisting change, committing to change, how culture influences change and the importance of synergistic teamwork (Conner, 1992:67).

Figure 2.4: Structure of change (Conner, 1992:67)



Each support pattern can serve as a source for strengthening the primary pattern by the application of its respective resilience principles. When these linking principles are understood and used in conjunction with the elements from the resilience pattern itself, it is possible to increase your capacity to assimilate change greatly with minimal dysfunctional behaviour (Conner, 1992:68).

2.9.1 The nature of change at schools

The nature of change is the first of the support patterns. A great deal of life is spent marching the capabilities against the challenges faced. The challenges people confront in life consist of the changes they see and the opportunities they acknowledge (Conner, 1992:69).

When the challenges people encounter are matched equally with their capabilities, they are usually able to predict what the outcome of a situation will be. When they are greater than their capabilities, this balance is upset and people are usually not able to anticipate accurately what will happen. When their equilibrium disintegrates, expectations are disrupted (Conner, 1992: 69).

In view of Conner's statement, Everard and Morris (1990:229) assert that the training of educators as employees has been aimed at helping managers to

manage the *status quo* more efficiently, but as the environment becomes more turbulent, so it becomes more important to develop skills to cope with change. Schmuck *et al.* (in Everard & Morris, 1990:229) developed an approach called "Organisation Development (OD)". Fullan (in Everard & Morris, 1990:229) defined OD in a school district as a coherent, systematic, planned, sustained effort at system self-study and improvement, focusing explicitly on change in formal and informal procedures, processes, norms or structures, using behavioural science concepts. The goals of OD include improving both the quality of life of individuals, as well as organizational functioning and performance with a direct or indirect focus on educational issues.

According to Everard and Morris (1990: 230), change at schools would mean the following:

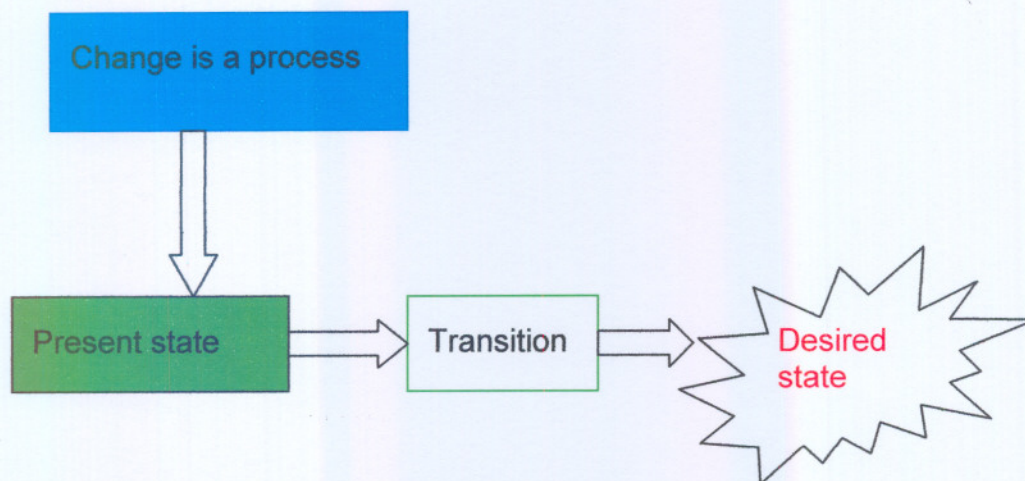
- Improving the quality of school management or leadership
- Setting and implementing educational objectives for the school
- Developing a whole-school policy
- Introducing a formal system of staff appraisal and development
- Building closer links with the community.

2.9.2 The process of change at schools

This support pattern outlines the mechanisms of human transitions. The way people relate to change in their lives reveals a great deal about why some of them succeed and others fail to sustain major change. Conner (1992:86) argues that those people who view change as something that either happens or does not happen seem to be vulnerable to future shock.

Conner (1992:87) classifies the change process in three phases, the present state, the transition state and the desired state in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.5: Process of change (Conner, 1992:88)



The present state is the *status quo*, an established equilibrium that continues indefinitely until a force disrupts it. The transition state is the phase during which we disengage from the status quo. During this period, deputy principals develop new attitudes or behaviours that lead to the desired state.

During the change process, people are neither what they were (transition state), nor are they yet what they will become (Conner, 1992: 89). Because of the nebulous and often chaotic nature of this phase, people will often attempt to regain their equilibrium by reverting back to the way things were. Many change projects are never completed because the people involved could not tolerate the sense of ambiguity and lack of control inherent to the transition phase (Conner, 1992:89).

2.10 CONDITIONS FOR A CHANGE PROCESS

Ely (1990:300) suggests that the environment in which the innovation is to be introduced can play an equally important role in determining a change effort's success. The author identifies eight of these conditions and validates them across educational and cultural settings (Ely, 1990:300-303):

- There must be dissatisfaction with the status quo.
- The people who will ultimately implement any innovation must possess sufficient knowledge and skills to do the job.

- The things that are needed to make the innovation work should be easily accessible.
- Implementers must have time to learn, adapt, integrate and reflect on what they are doing.
- Rewards or incentives must exist for participants.
- Participation in the change process must be expected and encouraged.
- An unqualified go-ahead and vocal support for the innovation by key players and other stakeholders is necessary.
- Leadership must be evident.

Below follow the descriptions of the individual conditions:

The first and the most obvious, is dissatisfaction with the *status quo*. Change is uncomfortable. For change to be voluntarily embraced, participants must perceive the *status quo* to be even less comfortable. Ely considers this issue on a deeper level, noting a wide range of possible causes for this dissatisfaction (Ely, 1990:300). From a marketing perspective, understanding sources and levels of dissatisfaction can help the change agent's efforts to position the innovation to be more compatible with what Rogers (1995:228) calls "felt needs".

The second condition recognises that people who will ultimately implement any innovation must possess sufficient knowledge and skills to do the job. People may believe that changes are in order, but without the specific knowledge and skills to bring about the change the individual is helpless (Ely, 1990: 300).

The third condition requires that resources be available. This certainly covers big items such as computers, classroom remodelling and staff training. It also covers small things that may be overlooked or seen as inconsequential. Ely (1990:300) states that resources are broadly defined as those tools and other relevant materials that are accessible to assist learners to acquire learning

objectives. If those resources are unavailable, acquisition of those learning objectives will be significantly impeded.

The fourth condition requires that time be available, that implementers must have time to learn, adapt, integrate and reflect on what they are doing. Change, by definition, requires development of new competencies to support the new product, procedure or principle being introduced. Those expected to adopt the innovation will need time for this, and also for developing or redeveloping supporting materials. Employees may be more likely to resist or reject the innovation if they believe that adoption will require an investment of time for which they will not be compensated (Ely, 1990:300).

The fifth condition requires that rewards or incentives exist for participants (Ely, 1990:301). This requirement is clearly related to Rogers' relative advantage, but more explicitly acknowledges the possibility that such rewards may be entirely contrived. Relative advantage generated by innovation use as noted by Rogers, is more cost-effective in creating lasting change than an incentive paid to promote adoption, because the latter may need to be repeated indefinitely to prevent discontinuance (Rogers, 1995:221). Regardless of whether the reward is intrinsic or extrinsic, or whether it is seen as the result of the cause of innovation use, it should be there in some form (Ely, 1990:301)

The sixth condition is that participation is expected and encouraged. This means shared decision-making, communication among all parties involved, and representation where individual participation is difficult. At the very least, such a policy helps ensure that each person feels that he has an opportunity to comment on innovations that will directly affect his work (Ely, 1990:301). Buying in to the process with one's own time, effort and ideas, in this way contributes to a sense of ownership in the innovation. This makes it difficult for participants to advocate rejection, since doing so would essentially render their own investment wasted. Another important implication of this condition is that recognised leaders, both formal and informal, in the environment must communicate explicitly that general participation in the innovation is expected (Rogers, 1995:222).

The seventh condition highlights the importance of commitment by those who are involved. This acknowledges that an unqualified go-ahead and vocal support for the innovation by key players and other stakeholders is necessary for successful change (Ely, 1990: 301). This takes the expectation and encouragement of the preceding condition to another important level. Educators are well acquainted with the flavour of the month or *panacea du jour phenomena*, where a given innovation is the institution's most important initiative. Change requires effort. Potential adopters, who are being asked to commit time and effort to the innovation's success, will be looking to their leaders for evidence of long term backing. As Ely observes, educators are not looking for blind commitment, but firm and visible evidence that there is endorsement and continuing support for implementation (Ely, 1990:302). Such support must also be reinforced at all levels of leadership, since an innovation supported by just one individual can fall into disuse as soon as he leaves the organization (Ellsworth, 1998:131).

The final condition in Ely's model (Ely, 1990:302) requires that leadership be evident. Focus rests more heavily on a subtle implication. Leaders are expected to provide those around them with inspiration and encouragement throughout all phases of implementation. They are available for consultation when discouragement or failure occurs; and they continually communicate their enthusiasm for the work at hand. Availability of affective support throughout this process is a key factor in avoiding discontinuance and achieving institutionalization.

In the light of what has been discussed regarding the conditions for a change process (*cf.* 2.10), the focus now turns to deputy principals' duties and responsibilities since these aspects could have an impact on managing change.

2.11 DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS AT SCHOOL

The ability of our education system to compete in an increasingly global economy depends on our ability to prepare both learners and educators for

new or changing environments. This is in line with the corporate plan of the Department of Education to ensure that all South Africans receive flexible life-long learning education and training of high quality (Department of Education, 2003:63).

Management in education should be able to draw on the professional competencies of educators, build a sense of unity of purpose and reinforce their belief that they can make a difference. Below follow core duties and responsibilities:

2.11.1 Core duties and responsibilities of the deputy principal

The aims of the job are (Doe, 2003:66):

- to assist the Principal in managing the school and promoting the education of learners in a proper manner: and
- to maintain a total awareness of the administrative procedures across the total range of school activities and functions(DoE: 2003: 66).

The duties and responsibilities of the job are individual and varied, depending on the approaches and needs of the particular school and include, but are not limited to, the following:

2.11.1.1 General/ Administrative duties

- To assist the Principal in his/her duties and to deputize for the Principal during his/her absence from school.
- To assist the Principal or if instructed, to be responsible for:
 - school administration, e.g. duty roster, arrangements to cover absent staff, internal and external evaluation and assessment, school calendar, admission of new learners, class streaming, school functions; and/or
 - school finance and maintenance of service and buildings, e.g. planning and control of expenditure, allocation of funds/resources,

the general cleanliness and state of repairs of the school and its furniture and equipment, supervising annual stock-taking exercises(DoE, 2003:66).

2.11.1.2 Teaching

- To engage in class teaching as per workload of the relevant post level and needs of the school.
- To assess and to record the attainment of learners taught.

2.11.1.3 Extra and co-curricular duties

- To be responsible for school curriculum and pedagogy, e.g. choice of textbooks, co-ordinating the work of subject committees and groups, timetabling, "INSET" and developmental programmes, and arranging teaching practice.
- To assist the Principal in overseeing learner counselling and guidance, careers, discipline, compulsory attendance and the general welfare of all learners.
- To assist the Principal to play an active role in promoting extra and co-curricular activities at school and its participation in sport and cultural activities organized by the community bodies.
- To participate in departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses in order to contribute to and/or update one's professional views/standards (DoE, 2003:67).

2.11.1.4 Personnel

- To guide and supervise the work and performance of staff and, where necessary, discuss and write or countersign reports.
- To participate in agreed school/educator appraisal processes in order to review their professional practice regularly with the aim of improving teaching, learning and management.

2.11.1.5 Interaction with stakeholders

- To supervise/advise the Representative Council of Learners.

2.11.1.6 Communication

- To meet with parents concerning learners' progress and conduct
- To liaise on behalf of the Principal with relevant government departments
- To maintain contact with sporting, social, cultural and community organizations
- To assist the Principal in liaison work with all organisations, structures, committees, groups, etc. crucial to the school (DoE, 2003:68).
- To meet the Government Department of Health & Welfare or Public Works, as required.
- To participate in departmental and professional committees, seminars and courses in order to contribute to and/or update professional standards.
- To maintain contacts with sport, social, cultural and community organizations (DoE, 2003:68).

2.12 THE ROLE OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL IN MANAGING CURRICULUM CHANGE

Among the practices deputy principals should manage at schools is the National Curriculum which has been changing from the old system of education to the new outcomes-based education. It is also the tasks also of deputy principals to manage this paradigm shift in education to assist those who are affected.

2.12.1 National Curriculum

The National Curriculum of South Africa represents a major change in the approach to education. This major change in South Africa is similar to the major shift in curriculum that occurred in the United Kingdom. While the

“core” and “foundation” subjects prescribed by the 1988 Education Reform Act are not substantially different from those set out in the 1904 regulations, the biggest change is that manual work is replaced by technology, the introduction of key stages, attainment targets, programmes of study and standard assessment tasks, ensuring a common structure that schools in the United Kingdom have never previously known. To many educators and principals, the National Curriculum in South Africa appears as yet another unwarranted restriction of professional freedom, and resistance to the changes is understandably heightened by inadequate preparation for the introduction of such radical reform. Others point to the potential for greater ease of transfer between schools and the creation of standards against which parents, pupils and educators can measure and agree to progress (Everard & Morris, 1990:190).

According to Everard and Morris (1990:190-191), whether or not educators basically welcome the National Curriculum, the danger exists that, in complying with the requirements, educators and principals lose sight of the fundamental purpose of education. The curriculum for a maintained school satisfies the requirements if it is a balanced and broadly-based curriculum which:

- promotes the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of learners at the school and of society, and
- prepares pupils for the opportunities, responsibilities and experience of adult life.

It will be a tragedy if ever schools lose sight of these aims through the pursuit of the details of the National Curriculum.

2.12.2 Meeting the needs of tomorrow's citizen

One of the more certain things about the world in which today's learners will spend their lives is that the pace of change is likely to continue or even increase. Expectations would therefore be the following (Everard & Morris, 1990:191):

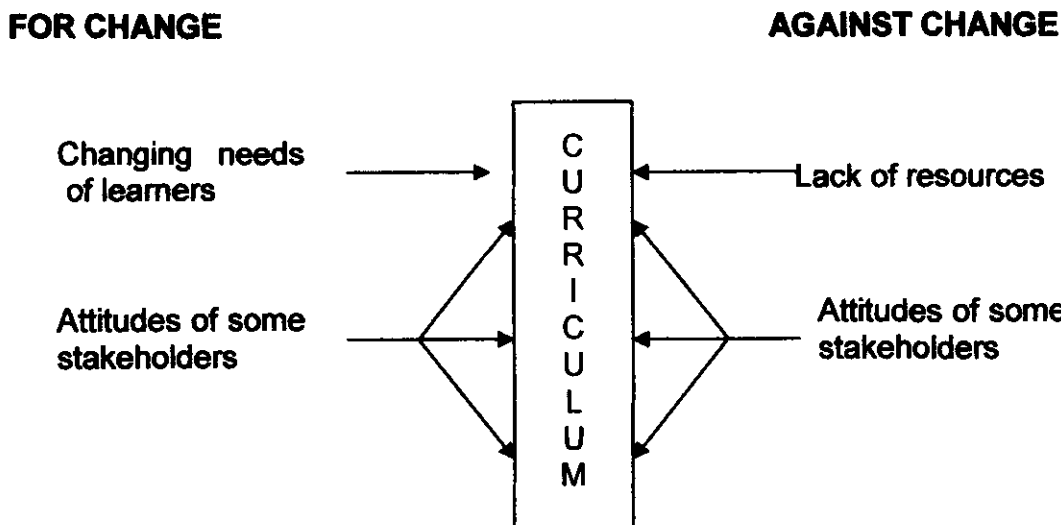
- Any vocational knowledge and skills acquired may well be out of date by the time the learner seeks a job.
- The future for children holds fewer “careers” of a structured kind. Those who are to succeed will have to jump from raft to raft as their existing skills and knowledge becomes redundant.

It follows that the most essential needs of tomorrow’s citizens will be those skills which are of general application, together with positive and flexible attitudes. Above all, they will need the ability to learn. Industry has often been accused of being reactionary in the demands it makes of education.

2.12.3 Creating positive attitudes

The positive manager, whether a principal, deputy principal or head of department, will recognise that his role is to steer his/her school on a positive course through the sea of change. He/she will need the support of the stakeholders: parents, potential employers, local authority and learners (Everard & Morris, 1990:199).

Figure 2.6: Curriculum force field (Everard & Morris, 1990: 199)



2.13 UNDERSTANDING THE CHANGING ROLE OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

Dressler (as quoted by Stark & Flaherty, 1999:1) contends that predicting the future is easy. It is trying to figure out what is going on now, that is hard. In institutions, some deputy principals as leaders have been truly inspirational, others admitted the need for improvement and still others were in a state of denial, believing any and all problems were caused by someone else. Some deputy principals as leaders agree that the roles of managers and new skills requiring getting the job done today, are significantly different from the role of the manager in the past years.

Deputy principals in South African schools will have to continue running schools as effectively and efficiently as possible, and at the same time change the system. This implies developing a vision and having a proper understanding of the internal and external forces which are likely to create serious threats or offer new opportunities. Change implies mobilizing the entire organization to bring about change and to build new competencies and resources required for the future (Grobler, 1996:8).

2.13.1 Environmental changes

One of the best ways to determine how the role of the deputy principals has changed is to study how schools are being impacted by changes in the environment. The most notable shift in our school environment has been from information-based society to service-based society (Stark & Flaherty, 1999:2):

- The rapid increase in information flow is causing jobs to become obsolete. In the past, learners were taught to memorize bits of information which has now changed to a learner-centred approach.
- Global competition is changing the way we do things.
- Environment consciousness and practices are required. It is virtually impossible to ignore the strong emphasis being placed on environmental consciousness. Institutions must comply with new policies regulating education.
- Technological advances are coming faster than ever before. Technology is advancing so rapidly that it is difficult even for experts to keep up.
- Policies have changed considerably. Organizations are struggling to interpret the intent and impact of laws governing them.

2.13.2 Deputy principals leading change at schools

According to Glasgow (as quoted by Stark & Flaherty, 1999:31), the trouble with the future is that it usually arrives before we are ready for it. Being a deputy principal at a school during the turbulent past decade has been challenging and, at times, has perhaps seemed like an overwhelming task. Institutions are experiencing rapid growth, greater competition and advanced technological demands. All indicators are that organizations will continue facing challenges created by sharp economic swings, keen competition pressures, globalization of the marketplace and the reshaping of business worldwide. Change is the reality today and those organizations and people, who will not change, will not survive (Stark & Flaherty, 1999:31).

According to Stark and Flaherty (1999:31), organizational changes result in deputy principals having to implement those changes. It is also critical that we understand our roles as leaders or change agents during these rapidly changing times. When change is introduced to an organization, employees will respond in one of three ways (Stark & Flaherty, 1999:31):

- Some of the employees will fight organizational change, even when deep down inside they recognise that the change is in the best interest of the organization.
- Other employees take a “let’s wait and watch” approach to change. They will not fight change because they may think it will not affect them.
- The other group of employees are the ones who are able to assess the future accurately and possess the flexibility to adapt accordingly.

2.13.3 Resistance to change at schools

Resistance to change is acknowledged as being a fundamental block to change and a prime reason why change does not succeed or is not implemented (*cf.* 2.15.1). Resistance to change is often encountered in nature. It is an expression of reservation that normally arises as a response or reaction to change (Grobler, 2003:40).

According to Mabin, Forgeson and Green (2001:170), a number of factors cause resistance. Some of them are:

- Individual factors: a high need for control, locus of control and a need for achievement. Attitudes based on previous experiences of change also come into the play here.
- Group factors: group cohesiveness, social norms and participation in decision-making.
- Organizational factors: threats presented by the unknown, challenges to the *status quo* and workload consequences.

There are many reasons why educators inside educational systems resist change. If deputy principals do not carry out the preparations for change correctly, it is possible for the entire system that the organization represents to be resistant to change (Grobler, 2003:40).

According to Mabin *et al.*, (2001:170), a person should not see resistance in a negative light as it can have many advantages such as:

- It is better than apathy.
- It avoids group thinking
- It provides alternative ideas for consideration.
- A wider set of people involved in the evaluation of alternatives may overcome the problem of managers failing to consider or evaluate alternatives properly enough.

Resistance also indicates that it is a fallacy to consider change itself as being inherently good. Educators can only evaluate change by its consequences and we cannot know these with any certainty until we have completed the change effort and sufficient time has passed (Waddel & Sohal, 1998:544).

The dialectical nature of change should also be considered. If people feel that the new demands for more innovations, improved morale, more collaboration or increased decentralization are unreasonable or impossible, inertia is the most likely outcome. A dialectical view of change asserts that this kind of paradox is inevitable. It reflects the struggle of the opposites and the fact that any system development always contains elements of a counter development, because each position tends to generate its opposite (Morgan, 1997:293).

Furthermore, curriculum implementation is the most complex of the curriculum processes as it involves complex change. The main problem in public education is not resistance to change, but the presence of too many curriculum changes that have been implemented uncritically or superficially (Fullan, 1993a:23). To maximize these internal and external forces that drive change, Goldstein (1994:89-103) suggests that organizations should

deliberately strive to create far-from-equilibrium conditions as this stimulates an environment that is conducive to change.

Resistance should be seen as a constructive tool to manage change at schools, and often draws attention to aspects of curriculum change that may be inappropriate or upon which we have not thoroughly reflected. Resistance can provide the energy or motivation that is necessary when complex change processes are attempted. Resistance to change is also a critical source of innovation as it causes educators to consider and evaluate more possibilities (Grobler, 2003:46).

2.13.4 Reasons educators resist change

Given that change is here to stay and has a direct impact on the way people do things within our organization, why do some people seem to dig in their heels and need to be dragged along, resisting changes in their behaviour and attitude at all cost? According to Kimbrough and Burkett (1990:127), change becomes most meaningful when there is resistance to it. The following ten reasons best describe why some people have a tough time changing their mindsets and behaviour (Stark & Flaherty, 1999: 33)

2.13.4.1 Fear of failure or success

For some people resistance to change is rooted in fear. During periods of change, an employee may feel the need to cling to the past because it was a more secure, predictable time. If what they did in the past worked well for them, they may resist changing their behaviour out of fear that they will not achieve as much in the future. Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk (1994:108-117) argue that staff members are not prepared for the demands made to them by renewal and change. Staff members often suffer from tension, accompanied by related symptoms, such as frustration.

According to Pettinger (1997:356), failure is a barrier to change where a given state of affairs has been allowed to persist for some time. The view is often taken by both organization and staff concerned, that this is a necessary part of being involved in a given set of activities. Resistance occurs when someone

determines to do something about it, again upsetting an overly comfortable and orderly *status quo*.

According to Pettinger (1997:356), if the organization is known or perceived to be successful in its current ways of doing things, then there is a resistance based on "why change something that works?" Again, if there is a long history of stability and prosperity, it is often very difficult in these circumstances to get the necessary workforce and the products themselves are coming to the end of their useful life.

2.13.4.2 Creatures of habit

Doing things in the same routine predictable manner is comfortable. Asking people to change the way they operate or think requires them to move outside their comfort zone (Everard & Morris, 1990:232). In some cases, change means that educators are required to experience something beyond their normal method of operation. Individual educators involved in a change process will start with different feelings about the desirability of the change, some seeing it as a threat or a source of insecurity and concern about personal exposure and possible weakness (Everard & Morris, 1990:232). The change may involve them having to learn new skills and attitudes and unlearning old ones. It will not be clear at the beginning how things will look when the change has been implemented: there will be many unknowns and fear of the unknown. Even the few people around with a clear vision may find themselves confronted by a number of different visions and fantasies among their colleagues. There will be a number of internal consequences of the change, which will impinge on various systems and interests inside the school. The school in which change occurs is not isolated. The change itself may stem from and the results impinge on aspect, such as the local education authority. There are a number of obstacles to the change: some are obvious, others latent. Examples are organizational impediments like status, demarcation, authority, lack of support or commitment or resources, the psychological or legal control between the educator and the school and all kinds of personal motives (Everard & Morris, 1990:232).

Everard and Morris (1990:233) assert that principals, deputy principals and senior staff who want to implement change, therefore have a sizeable educational task on their hands: they have to help everyone concerned to discover and conceptualize the true nature of change and how it impinges upon all. Change will affect beliefs, assumptions and values, and be affected by them. It will alter the way educators are expected to do things, and also things they need to do them with. Conceptualizing change involves both helping educators to understand change and helping them to apprehend the nature of the particular change being introduced (Everard & Morris, 1990:233).

2.13.4.3 No obvious need

If it has been working all this times and working well, why a need to change? If it ain't broke, why fix it? Educators within an organisation may only see a change from the perspective of the impact it has on them and their particular jobs. Not seeing the big picture, they may resist change because they fail to recognise the positive impact of the change on the organisation as a whole. They find the talk about change disruptive and totally unnecessary (Everard & Morris, 1990:233)

2.13.4.4 Loss of control

Employees working in familiar routines develop a sense of control over their work environment. They know what works and what doesn't. They are confident about their contribution to the organization and asking them to change the way they operate, creates a feeling of being powerless and confused during the change process (Everard & Morris, 1990:234).

2.13.4.5 Concern about their support system

Employees operating within predictable routines know their support system will back them up during challenging times. When system and structures are changed, some employees may resist because they lack confidence in their support system. Feeling insecure about their support system, they are

hesitant or resistant to change because they fear that if they try and then fail, there will be no one to support them (Everard & Morris, 1990:234).

2.13.4.6 Closed mind

For a variety of reasons, some educators seem to approach all changes from an attitude of not being confused by further facts or supporting documentation about the proposed or required change. These educators approach the change process with their minds firmly made up (Everard & Morris, 1990:234).

2.13.4.7 Unwilling to learn

Some educators are hesitant about trying new routines or approaches so they express their resistance by being unwilling to learn anything new. Such educators who refuse change and are reluctant to learn, impede the organization's growth and adaptation to change, and this also affects personal growth and development (Everard & Morris, 1990:234).

2.13.4.8 Fear that the change may not be better

If things have been going well, some educators resist change because they fear that change will not result in improvement. Focusing only on their part of the operation, they may fail to realise that change is needed in order for the organisation to stay competitive.

2.13.4.9 Fear of unknown

Educators may resist change because it is something unfamiliar. Not knowing much about the specifics of the change, they think about a worst-case scenario, which can be very scary. Rather than find out more, they let fear of the unknown become their rationale for not giving the change a chance (Everard & Morris, 1990:235).

2.13.4.10 Fear of personal impact

Viewing change from a personal standpoint, some employees may respond by asking how the change will benefit them directly (Everard & Morris, 1990:235).

It is obvious that such a variety of fears invariably increases the resistance to change. Firm guidelines are therefore essential to counteract such resistance so that the change can be implemented effectively.

2.14 GUIDELINES FOR MANAGING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE AT SCHOOLS

According to Van der Westhuizen (2003:235), there are prerequisites to be complied with when managing resistance to change. In managing resistance to change the choice of the strategy and methods are of utmost important. The deputy principals need exceptional skills in order to manage resistance to change effectively.

The following guidelines need to be followed if the envisaged change is to succeed and the resistance to change simultaneously decreases (Van der Westhuizen, 2003:235):

- Analyse the school in respect of the present situation, problems and the forces that could be responsible for the problems, the importance and the urgency of the problems, and the type of change to be made.
- Identify and analyse the factors that may play a role in the envisaged change.
- Decide on a strategy based on the preceding analysis and the tempo of the change, and consider the amount of planning, degree of involvement of other individuals and methods to be utilized to manage the various individuals and groups.
- Monitor the change process and evaluate the success of managing resistance. Even though the strategy and methods are painstakingly selected, there can still be unforeseen circumstances during the implementation of the change that can only be dealt with by means of careful monitoring and management. Table 2.3 below summarises the situation.

Table 2.3: A model for managing resistance to change (Van der Westhuizen, 2003:236)

| Management phase | Management variables |
|---|---|
| Phase 1 Determine the necessity for and the readiness of the school to change. | Consider the organisation's culture, climate and previous efforts to change. |
| Phase 2 Identify the sources of the resistance to change. | Sources can be individuals or groups |
| Phase 3 Determine the nature of the resistance to change. | The resistance can be passive, active or aggressive. |
| Phase 4 Diagnose the reasons for the resistance to change. | Reasons can be found in the individual or school system or external environment. |
| Phase 5 Select, develop and implement specific strategies and methods to manage resistance. | Consider the strategic continuum, Methods include participation, involvement, cooperation, manipulation and force |
| Phase 6 Evaluate the success of the management of resistance to change. | Successful: continue. Unsuccessful: return to Phase 1. |

2.15 HOW EDUCATORS WILL RESPOND TO CHANGE AT SCHOOLS

Leading change creates a paradox for effective school administrators. School administrators can make educators change their behaviour when they are present, but they cannot make educators sustain that change (Calabrese, 2002:7). The following are ways in which educators would respond to change (Calabrese, 2002:7):

- When educators are asked to do a different job or change the way they currently teach or do a particular job, they respond out of denial.

- When change is effected, educators' first response will be "What's in it for me?" upon learning about a proposed institutional change. They feel insecure about their jobs.
- Anger: Some educators become frustrated and angry. Their anger may be repressed, causing an increase in stress or overt, resulting in emotional outbursts.
- Gossip: Gossip about change often escalates during periods of organizational change. Educators as employees who respond to institutional change with frustration, anger and disbelief and often resort to vicious gossip or back-stabbing.
- Who is in charge here? During an organizational restructuring, it is natural for educators/employees to question leadership (Calabrese, 2002:7).

According to Van der Westhuizen (2003:192), educators are of the opinion that changes fail because deputy principals have inadequate knowledge and information about the change. They think deputy principals were not exposed to in-service training relevant to handling change at schools.

According to Leithwood and Montgomery (quoted in Van der Westhuizen, 2003:192), lack of resources is the one issue which causes anger among educators when change is effected. There is also uncertainty in educators because of unclear expectations and conflicts about areas of responsibility.

2.15.1 Strategy based on sound management theory for deputy principals in dealing with change

Any change that occurs is subject to resistance. There are several factors that give rise to resistance to change, and varying degrees in which this resistance occurs. However, resistance to change needs to be managed effectively, so that it should lead to positive results (*cf.* 2.13.3). There are key variables of strategic choice to be considered, namely the amount and type of resistance to be expected. The position of the school principal in relation to that of educators offering resistance, the locus of relevant data for crisis, the result of

resistance and change that does not occur (Van der Westhuizen, De Bruyn, Erasmus, Mentz, Steyn & Theron, 2003:231).

In any situation where change takes place at the school, principals need to make explicit and implicit strategic choices in respect of the tempo of change, the amount of planning required and the involvement of the interested parties. Successful change takes place when resistance is limited to a minimum and deputy principals and principals utilize a strategy that relates to certain key situation variables (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2003:231).

Table 2.4: Strategic choices in managing resistance to change (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2003:232)

| QUICKLY | SLOWLY |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Clear action plan | No clear action plan |
| Little involvement of others | A great deal of involvement of others |
| Ignore all resistance | Try to diminish resistance |

From the above table, at the left end of the continuum the strategy of change comprises swift implementation, clear action, little involvement of interested parties and disregard for any form of resistance. The method of bringing about change using specific strategy is therefore coercion. At the right of the continuum, the change will occur more slowly, the initial plan of action will not be so clear and several people beside the principal will be involved. This type of strategy is designed to keep resistance to the minimum. Methods used to implement the change will be based on participation and involvement (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2003:232).

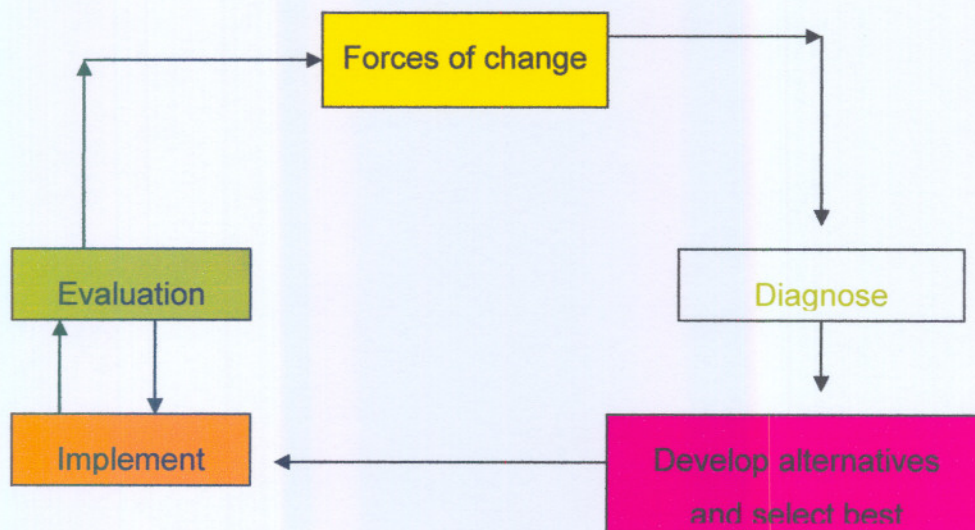
Strategic change on the continuum will depend on four factors:

- The degree and type of resistance that could possibly occur. The greater the expected resistance, the more difficult it will be to ignore it. Thus school principals will have to move to the right of the continuum to decrease resistance.

- The position of the principal compared with resistance offered in respect of authority. Therefore, the less authority the school principal has, the further right he will move on the continuum. The stronger the position of authority, the further he can move to the left.
- Educators with relevant data for planning the change, as well as expertise to implement it. The more information and contribution the school principal requires from the educators to implement changes, the further right he will move on the continuum.
- The greater the short-term risk potential of organizational efficiency and survival as change occurs, the further left the school principal has to move on the continuum (Van der Wetshuizen *et al.*, 2003:232).

The following is the systematic management of the change process:

Figure 2.7: Managing the change process systematically (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2003: 232)

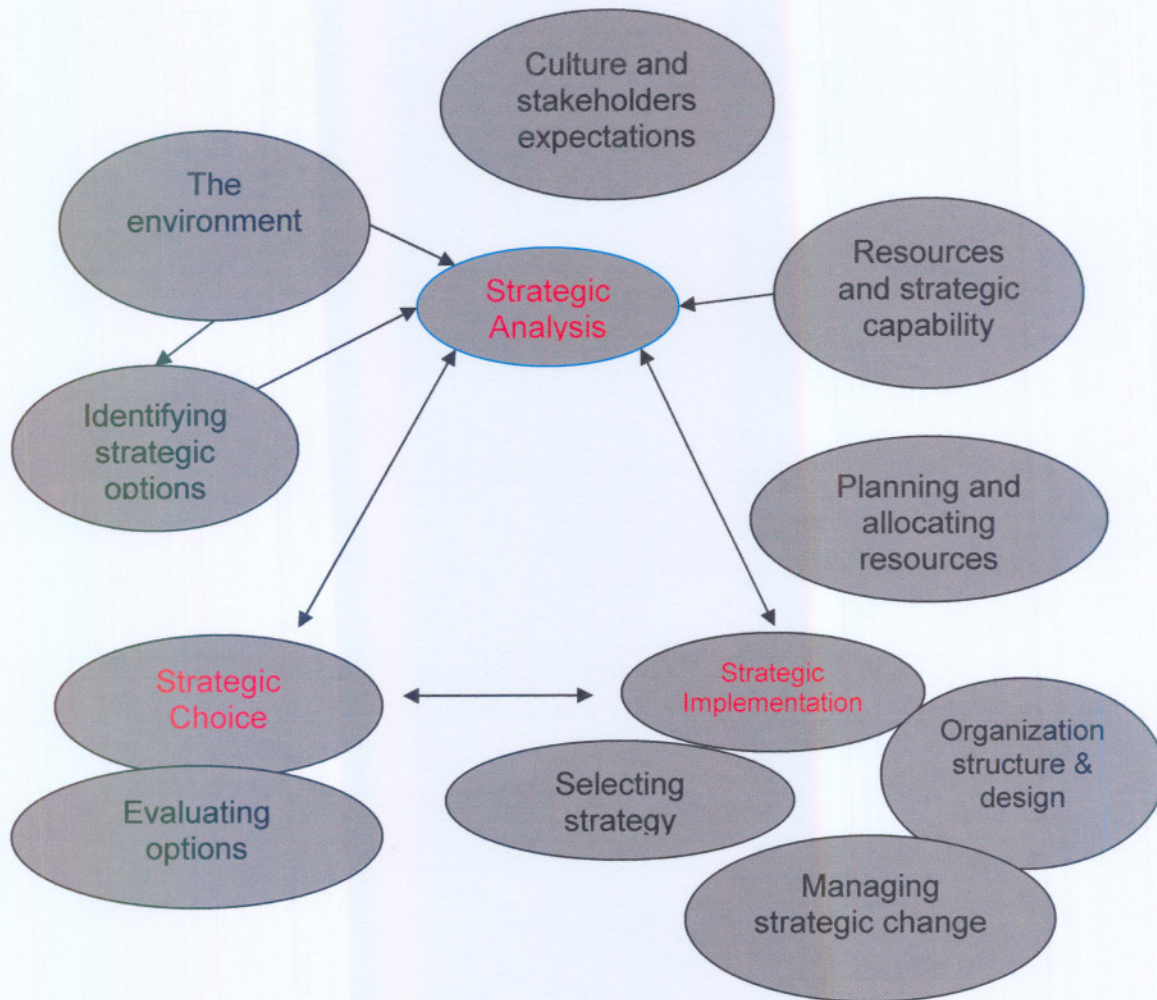


2.16 STRATEGIC PLANNING FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE AT SCHOOLS.

For change to be implemented successfully at schools, deputy principals will need to plan strategically. Strategic management, according to Middlewood (1998:10), is much more than strategic planning. Strategic planning is critically

important as a means of integrating strategy and its implementation. West-Burnham (1994:82) describes strategic planning as essentially a matter of bridge building or mapping the route between the perceived present situation and the desired future situation. Fidler (1996:51-52) contends that schools, now more than ever, will be in a position where they will be largely responsible for their own destiny. Deputy principals should, in relation to the change, apply strategic planning to ensure the success of schools in times of change. Strategy involves examining the possibilities and choosing which is the most likely to succeed, given current and predicted future circumstances. The Johnson and Scholes (1993) model, represented diagrammatically in figure 2.9, illustrates one approach to the strategic planning process. The model comprises three stages: strategic analysis, choice and implementation, and each of these, in turn, have three major elements.

Figure 2.8: Model of strategic management (Johnson & Scholes (1993:23))



The model can be summarized as follows:

- The analysis stage: This relates to the perceived present and involves taking stock systematically. The environment is scanned, and current resources and their deployment are assessed, as are the culture and values of the school (Johnson & Stoles, 1993:23).
- The choice stage: This relates to the identification and the assessment of alternative courses of action, and adopting one or more of these as the strategy for the school.
- The implementation stage: This relates to the allocation of resources available for the chosen courses of action and putting into effect changes

which might be required in the organizational structure of the school (roles and responsibilities, decision-making structures, etc.). Fundamentally, this stage involves consideration of the actual process of managing change (Johnson & Stoles, 1993: 24).

2.17 GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

According to Stark and Flaherty (1999:40), the following are guidelines for organizational change:

2.17.1 Involve educators as educators in the change process

Educators as employees are not so much against change as they are against to be changed. Anytime managers are going to implement organizational change, there is always a lag between the time the change has been discussed at management level and the time the change is going to be implemented. Deputy principals should involve educators in the process of change because a formal communication channel will be more effective at implementing change than a negative informal one (Stark & Flaherty, 1990:40).

2.17.2 Interview educators as employees

It is critical that deputy principals understand what educators are feeling regarding the change. It is only when you accurately understand their feelings that you know what issues need to be addressed. Implementing change requires the ability to sell, and it is difficult to sell effectively without understanding your buyers' needs, concerns and fears (Stark & Flaherty, 1990:40).

2.17.3 Get the informal leader involved

Most managers get the positive informal leaders involved in helping to implement change. The mistake many make is not involving those who are negative in the beginning stages of the change process. When they are left out of any change efforts and ignored, they lack commitment and may even try to sabotage the change (Guinness, 1990:185).

Raise expectations: Deputy principals as managers should start asking more from their educators, which will raise levels of performance (Guinness, 1990:185).

Over-communicate: Deputy Principals should give educators an opportunity to make inputs, and these managers should also strive to be specific (Guinness, 1990:185).

2.18 EDUCATORS COMMITMENT TO CHANGE AS A FOCUS FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

Deputy principals as leaders at schools are obliged to assist educators to be committed to change. They should practise their leadership skills to foster commitment of educators. Fullan (1992:113) describes this as evolution which begins with a narrow preoccupation with the implementation of single innovations, moves through a brief period of concern for how multiple innovations could be managed and on to questions about how the basic capacity to deal with change can be developed. This contemporary interest in capacity building acknowledges the continuous nature of demands for school change.

MacDonald (1991:3) says that it is the quality of the educators themselves and the nature of their commitment to change that determines the quality of teaching and the quality of school improvement. Kushman (1992:5) indicates that educator commitment is a function, in part, of factors that are hard to change, for example, in age; gender; length of teaching experience. On the other hand, there are those alterable factors that influence significantly educators' commitment, including educators' decision-making power as the school, parental involvement at the school and the school climate (Smylie, 1990:150)

2.19 KEY FACTORS IN EFFECTIVE CHANGE MANAGEMENT

According to Paton and McCalman (2000:265), there are ten factors that affect changing management in organizations. Seven of these factors are discussed in this research.

2.19.1 Change is all-pervasive

Any process of change is likely to have an impact greater than the sum of its parts. A holistic view must be taken to ensure that the full environment impact is understood. Paton and McCalman (2000:265) argue that when making change in an organization, we should look at change in terms of its impact on the organization as a whole.

2.19.2 Effective change needs active senior support

When change is effected in an organization, there is a need and desire for senior management to be seen to support the change process. Without senior management support, three things will be missing. Firstly, the change will lack vision. Those that can look forward should supply vision. In most organizations, it is senior managers' responsibility to look forward, examine change in the environment and determine the future state of the business (Paton & McCalman, 2000:266).

Secondly, there is a need for effective allies. Senior management backing for the change process is crucial in recruiting the desired level of support to instigate change at all levels. Senior management support for the change process will assist in conveying the awareness of this change to other members.

Thirdly, there is a lack of power. When the visible problem owner or change agent talks it is senior management that is really speaking out to ensure stability. Senior management support guarantees that the change agent speaks quietly, but carries a big stick. Working on achieving senior management support, talking out ideas for change and the sooner there is senior management awareness of the need and the desirability, the sooner things will begin to change (Paton & McCalman, 2000:266).

2.19.3 Change is a multi-disciplinary activity

Most successful change projects accomplish their objectives via the project team. No one person is a change island. Recognition of the multi-disciplinary

nature of change goes a long way in beginning the sequence of realizing the transformation. Change agents are recruited because of their expertise in facilitating change through its various stages. Their expertise may be based on people skills, technological know-how or their experience of systems analysis. When placed in charge of a change project, or when contemplating change in organizations, there is a need for a team. The successful management of change which is all-pervasive will require a multi-disciplinary approach. None of us has the ability to deal with all the aspects of change management that are likely to occur over the lifetime of a project (Paton & McCalman, 2000:265).

2.19.4 Change is about people

The human element is the key ingredient in the need to design organizations in a way that creates effective performance. People want and need to grow, and personal growth is the engine that drives organizational performance (Paton & McCalman, 2000:267). When contemplating change, people must be involved in the process from the outset. Through active participation, two things can be accomplished: commitment and ownership of the change process by all can be gained; those experiencing the change will not be pushed, but will begin to drive change themselves. Change in management is about people management. When managing change, people are managed by considering:

- Openness
- Communication
- Involvement (Paton & McCalman, 2000: 267).

2.19.5 Change is about success

Faced with competitive environments which are growing in terms of both magnitude and ferocity, organizations must be flexible enough to rise to the challenges of today and tomorrow. Creating organizational culture which is

receptive to change should provide a competitive edge that will stand the test of time (Paton & McCalman, 2000:267).

2.19.6 Change is a perpetual process

Change is about identifying triggers, seeking vision, recruiting converts to the vision, and maintaining and renewing the need for change on an ongoing basis. The effective management of change demands management action on all these fronts. Identification of what is triggering change is important and should be expressed and clarified and communicated throughout the organization to gain understanding. There is also a need for some vision of how the triggers will affect the future of the organization. In this sense, there is a need to define what the future is, in terms of the challenges being faced and the future make-up of the organization. Having set a vision, there is a need to manage change through converting people to that vision. Most successful change programmes work on the basis of persuading people that this is the right way to go, by detailing the structure. Perpetual change is what it says: you never get to the end; something else always comes along to impact the business in a new way (Paton & McCalman, 2000:268).

2.19.7 Effective change requires competent change agents

According to Paton and McCalman (2000:268), a change management project has a certain number of needs that must be satisfied. One of these needs relates to the required skills, knowledge and position of change agents. Analysis of the change situation will determine the appropriate management team in terms of their attributes. Change agents must have certain capabilities over and above their functional skills and knowledge in order to be fully effective. These competencies of change agents relate to being able to communicate with, on behalf of and through people involved in the change situation. Change agents need to feel comfortable in dealing with interpersonal relationships, coping with conflict and ambiguity and different emotions that humans display as a result of the change process itself.

Change can upset people. They can also become overjoyed, be over-enthusiastic or indeed shy away from it. A change agent has to be able to

facilitate those involved through this process by taking their feelings and emotions into account, getting them to address how these emotions relate to change itself, and steering the organization forward (Paton & McCalman, 2000:268)

Many organizations address the management of change within their own organizations as a perpetual process. The competencies of the change agents are being directly dealt with by instigating training programmes to provide them with the necessary staff skilled in the techniques associated with development (Paton & McCalman, 2000:268).

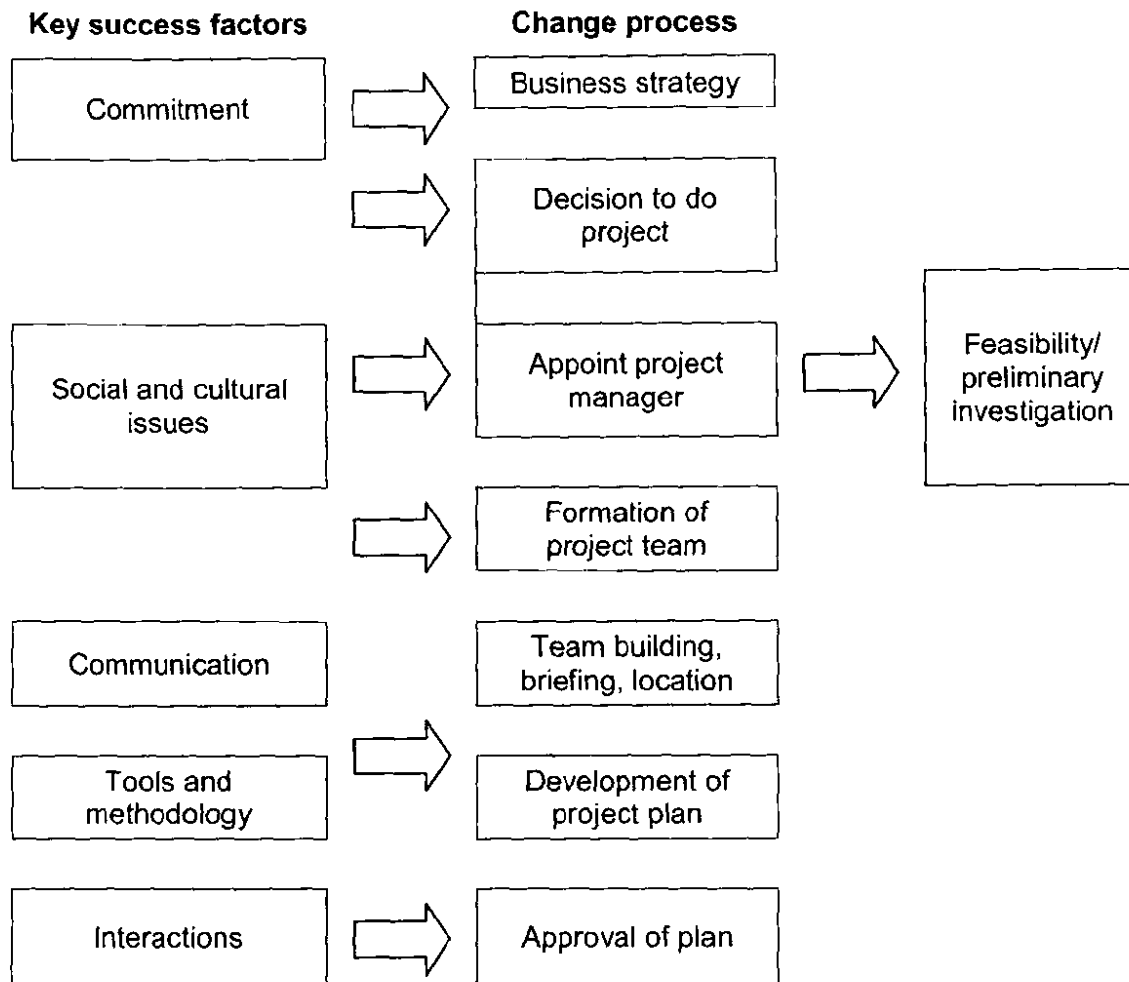
In other words, people need to explore methods for improving school performance.

2.20 BENCHMARKING AS A TOOL FOR CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Many tools and methodologies for measuring and improving schools' performance have been developed over the last decade. One such method, widely regarded as one of the most powerful, is benchmarking. Its techniques have evolved over time from single-function, cost-focused competitive benchmarking, through cross-functional, value-oriented benchmarking (Hewitt, Robinson & Bennett, 1996:55). It has been used to improve processes with astounding results (Houlder, 1994:61).

The best practice model for change is versatile. It can be used at a number of levels within an organization in contrast to other tools, which are more useful at either a strategic level or an operational level within the schools. Furthermore, the model provides a practical, experienced-based framework extracted from the actual practice, methods and actions of schools that have successfully managed change. A two-dimensional matrix combining key success factors with the change process forms the basis of the tool. They are a collation of practices, activities and methods regarded as critical enablers of successful change (Clarke, 1995:75). These key success factors should receive priority attention because they strongly drive performance (Keck & Lollet, 1995:25).

Figure 2.9: Key success factors for change (Clarke & Garside, 1997:55)



The change process depicted in figure 2.10 above is typical of that adopted by many organizations involved in change (Clarke & Garside, 1997:55). These key success factors are:

- **Commitment:** includes recognising change as an integral part of the strategy and strength of ownership throughout the school, but particularly at f senior management level, including the provision of adequate resources to allow the change to run effectively and the involvement of people at all levels in the school at all stages throughout the change's lifetime.
- **Social and cultural:** mainly concerned with the "people" element of change, e.g. issues involving behaviour, perceptions and attitudes towards all aspects of change.

- **Communication:** covers all issues associated with internal and external communication. This includes timing, methods for communication and the content of the message.
- **Tools and methodology:** concerned with the use of change management, benchmarking, performance and process measurement. It also covers the underlying knowledge requirements which ensure that changes take place effectively and the use of external input and training to facilitate it.
- **Interactions:** looks at the methods in place for dealing with interactions within the school, such as managing the balance between normal operations and other changes which may be happening at the school (Clarke & Garside, 1997:55).

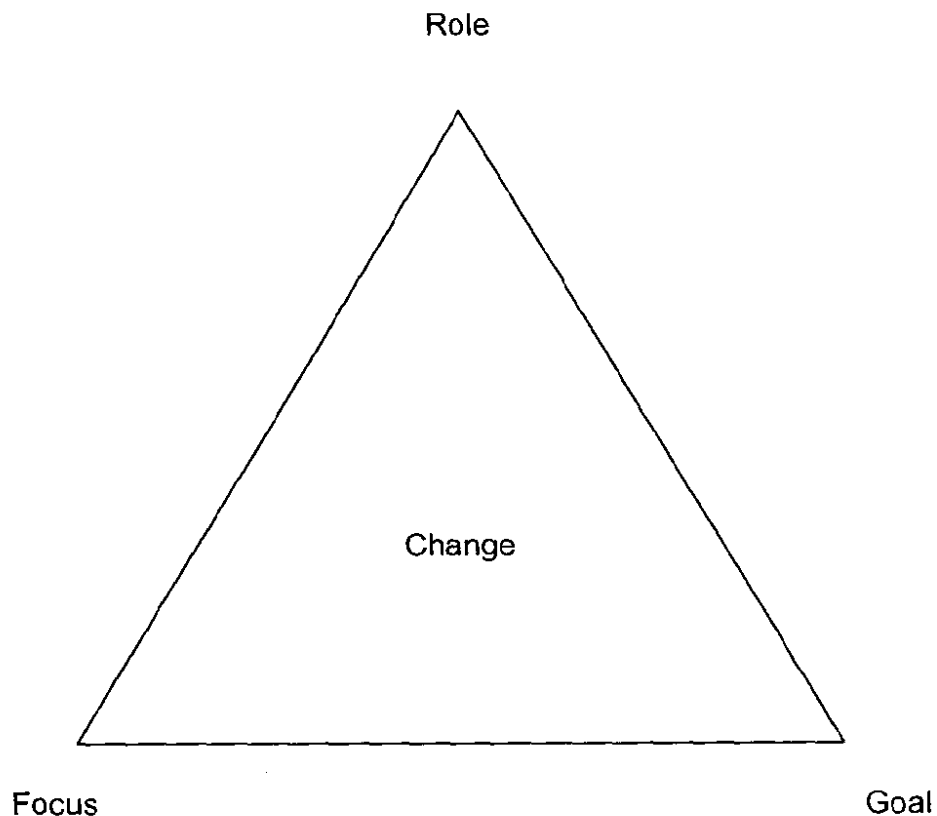
The effective management of change must be ensured, so this calls for investigation.

2.21 ENSURING MANAGERIAL VALUE AND THE TRINITY

Value is added, in a managerial context, by ensuring that all organization systems, both tangible and intangible, are obliged with market requirements and capable of being appropriately developed. In today's highly competitive environment, adding value is about ensuring the effective and sustainable management of change. Successful change requires adherence to three key managerial rules (Beer & Eisenstat, 1990:32; Kotter, 1995:59).

Beer and Eisenstat (1990:32; Kotter, 1995:59) use the religious metaphor, trinity, just to convey the importance of adhering to these three rules. They argue that if leaders do not approach their tasks with commitment, apathy and discord will result. The figure below represents the trinity:

Figure 2.10: The trinity (Beer & Eisenstat, 1990:32; Kotter, 1995:59)



All too easily the process or the activities associated with a change, assume importance than the change itself.

The first rule of the trinity, "maintain your focus", is designed to highlight the question: *Why change and what is expected in turn?* It takes effort to maintain the focus in a dynamic managerial and business environment. Attention and commitment will diminish as time elapses. Interest can be maintained by forcing the pace; organizing special interest events; recognizing the core management team; employing creative communications devices; and above all else, ensuring continued senior management support (Beer & Eisenstat, 1990:32; Kotter, 1995:59). No less important than maintaining focus within the Trinity is the second rule of "role awareness". Understanding the nature of the term "value added", assists not only in clarifying managerial roles but also in maintaining the focus. The third rule, "maintain your goal" may seem obvious, but it is often overlooked. The effective development and achievement of business strategies depend upon successful implementation, which in turn is

dependent upon the effective management of the resulting change (Beer & Eisenstat, 1990:32; Kotter, 1995: 59).

2.22 CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND RELATED PROBLEMS

Louis, Toole and Hargreaves (1999:251-276) identify a number of problems that persist in the study of change and that provide a context. These are:

- What are the changes that potential deputy principals, as leaders in school improvement, seek at schools?
- How do potential deputy principals, as leaders, know if improvement has occurred?
- How do potential deputy principal, as leaders, decide how to get there and what their role should be?
- How do potential deputy principals as leaders manage a highly turbulent political and social environment in which change must be enacted?
- How do potential deputy principals, as leaders, manage the effects of a turbulent environment on the dynamics of an individual school, the locus of change?

In view of these problems, we hear challenges to the notion that change can be managed by focusing resources. Planned change approaches are criticized for their confidence in a linear improvement process and the manageability of organizations (Louis, 1994:2-24).

Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990:158) formulated the problem as: "Why change programme do not produce change". Based on this, an individual's direct leverage over work results and by extension, a school's ability to influence a change process and outcomes are very limited. As such, the wicked nature of the problems, environments and solutions involved in school improvement requires new and more generative conceptualizations of both the change problem and of school improvement paradigms.

Voogt, Lagerweij and Louis (1999:237) outline alternative paradigms for the school change process. According to Voogt *et al.*, (1999:238), school development is the result of three influences:

- Autonomous development processes that cover natural processes such as ageing and replacement of staff, cultural changes in response to internal evolution, and changes in technology or other core components of organizational functioning.
- Planned efforts to bring about educational and organisational changes.
- Major abnormalities, and minor unanticipated events, both positive and negative, that must be factored into the organizational learning process.

These three incorporate both the small proportion of improvement outcomes that can be directly affected by deliberate efforts to improve and the much larger proportion that is not directly subjected to planned intervention

In managing change, there are dilemmas and heresies that could impede on the successful implementation of change at schools. Riley and Louis (2000:15) identify some dilemmas and heresies as follows:

2.22.1 Dilemma one: Commercialization

With devolution of management to the individual school site, school leaders found themselves having to be much more astute financial managers. They not only had to balance the books, but that also in doing so, to generate income and however, much against the grain of their values and political affiliation, seek sponsorship from private sector companies. These educators have to link up with these companies so as to sell or market their products in this competitive marketplace, which is a major problem to educators because they are not trained in this field (Dempster & Mahony, 1998:130).

2.22.2 Dilemma two: School performance

During 1994 there was a shift in policy focus from measuring inputs to measuring outcomes, an approach which drew on methodology and indicators

from school effectiveness research. Outcomes (equated with attainment on tests and examinations and aggregated measures of student achievement) became critical yardsticks by which government, parents and the wider public were encouraged to make judgements about the performance, quality and standards of schools. This public focus on school performance has created dilemmas for principals (Dempster & Mahony, 1998:131).

2.22.3 Dilemma three: Educator performance

According to Riley and Louis, 200:16), the formal appraisal of staff by principals and deputy principals is increasingly a matter of policy. Teaching remains a closed-door issue, both in a conceptual and a literal sense. There is a deeply held view that educators are professionals who should carry out their work unsupervised. In such a climate, it can be difficult for a school leader to gain a first hand view of the practice of their educators. The classroom is the educator's professional domain. New legislation, however, requires the school leader to take a more interventionist role than in the past. When monitored, educators feel that someone is spying on them.

The emphasis on achievement and competition among schools has also exposed weaker educators and put pressure on school leaders to deal with underachieving and ineffective educators. Complaints about educators come to schools from another direction. Principals and deputy principals find themselves having to respond to letters, phone calls or impromptu visits from aggrieved parents. Such complaints have to be dealt with quickly but with regard to due process, i.e. formal procedures which, if not properly followed, could lead to legal action supported by educator unions and associations. As such, leaders found themselves caught between the ethics of treating people badly and the ethics of allowing children's education to suffer. Difficulties are compounded when the issues are not clear-cut, but lie in that shadow domain of professional competence (Riley & Louis, 2000:16).

2.22.4 Dilemma four: Unspoken issues

There are many problems whose origins do not lie within schools, but are uncomfortable when they come to light within the school context and also a

source of immense disquiet to parents. Sex, AIDS and drug education are perennially controversial but the threat of an exposure in local or national newspapers may tempt principals and deputy principals into prevarication and cover up (Riley & Mahony, 2000:17)

Besides the dilemmas leaders face, there are heresies which they also need to consider, since they do not fit neatly into competencies frameworks and checklists of effectiveness in leadership. There is a tendency to break the rule, because they find it difficult to stay within the boundaries of national or local guidelines. These leaders may sometimes be expected to be creative problem-solvers in their relationships with those to whom they are accountable at central office and government. Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993:7) argue that leaders must constantly seek the creative exceptions to the rules, saying that the integrity of an enterprise, its value to stakeholders, must depend on how well universalism is reconciled with particularism. It is in the particularism (special exceptions) that leaders face their dilemmas, testing the universal rules and often finding that a new principle has to be forged.

Riley and Louis (2000:19) argue that the true leader is an excellent follower. The issue of principals seeing schools as theirs "my school and my staff" is the expression of how they see themselves in relation to the school. School leaders or principals also bring to the role their own conceptions of leadership, shaped by conventional notions which place the leader in front or on top. Murphy (1994:47) contends that leaders do not lead from the apex of the pyramid, but from the centre of the web of human relationships. Hopkins (1992:70) suggests that good schools are sailed rather than driven. They are steered from the stern, tacking and changing with a reading of wind and current. Senge (1990:352) supports the statement by saying that in learning organizations leaders may start by pursuing their own vision, but as they listen carefully to others' vision, they begin to see that their own personal vision is part of something larger. These leaders find that as school leaders become more secure in their role, it becomes easier for them to extend the boundaries of their comfort zone. They are able to explore other ways of developing the

vision and of establishing their authority. Covey (1994:30) suggests that one should seek first to understand before seeking to be understood. Paul (1997:65), agrees with Covey that a passionate drive for clarity, fair-mindedness, a fervour for getting to the bottom of things, for listening sympathetically to opposing points of view, a compelling drive to seek out evidence, indicate a devotion to truth, as against self-interest. A good leader is in fact the one who listens to others' view.

It now becomes important to explore the role of the actual leader at school, the principal, in restructuring the school.

2.23 PRINCIPALS AND SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING: CONCEPTUALIZING CHALLENGES AS DILEMMAS

According to Caldwell and Spinks, 1992:87; Leithwood, 1992:8; Murphy, 1993:1), efforts to restructure schools are now part of the internationalization and globalization of education. Never before have such comprehensive measures and initiatives been taken to reshape, in fundamental ways, the design, management, organization and delivery of school work. Restructuring policies aimed at promoting school-based management, greater parental involvement in decision-making, new conceptions of teaching and learning, increased accountability for performance and outcomes, and the systematic redesign of the school curriculum depend fundamentally on school principals for their success. This is because principals are positioned strategically both at the head of the school organization, which is assuming more responsibility, and at the linkage points between their schools, the community and system with which they are expected to interface. Expressed simply, changes integral to restructuring threaten traditional practices, roles and relationship within schools and between schools and their environments.

The challenges presented to school principals by restructuring are perceived as being far from easily managed. Both the policies and the strategies by which they are introduced are generally perceived by principals as being problematic. For some principals and school-site administrators, particularly those whose earlier careers were forged under more centralized management

systems, the changes ushered in under restructuring are perceived as threatening. For others, they are seen as unwelcome (Hallinger & Murphy, 1991:514). These principals now face decisions as to which roles, relations and practices to retain, forge or discard (Goldring & Rallis, 1993:231). Nor are conditions necessarily any easier for recently-appointed school principals, who, with relatively little experience to call on, strive for effectiveness in fast changing and unpredictable educational environments.

Many school principals, even in widely different cultures, tend to make sense of their work environment by conceptualising their experiences and challenges in terms of dilemmas (Dimmock, 1996:135; Walker & Dimmock, 1999:15).

Fact is: principals now have greater involvement in restructuring because schools have been given autonomy as will be seen below.

2.23.1 The change from centralized to autonomous leadership

The scope and nature of educational management has changed radically in a wide range of countries as schools are given more autonomy and responsibility passes from local and regional authorities to the individual school. The extent to which this occurs varies. However, Caldwell and Spinks (1992:55) show that self-management is an international phenomenon, underpinned by the following assumptions:

- Managers will be more responsive to their clients (such as teachers) and communities if they are able to determine, to a greater extent than before, the nature and quality of education offered at their establishments.
- Managers will be able to determine the precise mix of resources (teachers, support staff, material and equipment) in order to achieve the school's specific objectives.
- Staff will have the incentive to maximize efficiency in the use of resources because the ensuring savings will be available to the school or college to enhance educational quality further.

- Standards will rise as clients, and parents as surrogate clients, articulate their requirements and schools respond to these needs or risk losing students to rival establishments.

Although power largely remains vested in central and regional authorities, some changes are occurring at schools in South Africa. According to Smith, Thurlow and Foster (1997:127) one of the key features of the South African Schools Act (SASA of 1996) is “the focus on the school”, with responsibility for governance lodged with the governing body and responsibility for the professional management of the school lying with the principal, acting under the authority of the head of the provincial education department.

The principal is therefore in need of a strategy to pave the way for successful restructuring.

2.24 STEPS FOR A SUCCESSFUL CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

- Change agents facilitate the unfreezing phase by gathering, interpreting and presenting information so as to be able to diagnose the problem accurately.
- The education manager therefore determines which alternative is most likely to produce the desired outcomes, whether that outcome is an improvement in skills, attitude, behaviour or structure.
- Implementation of change implies that new structures are created, new rules and regulations stipulated, new outcomes set and intensive training provided. Change may be implemented throughout the school or it may be phased into school, department by department.
- Evaluation phase indicates the degree of success of the change process and the change itself. This must enable the principal to ascertain the success of change or serve as a point of departure for the other changes (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:46-47).

According to Van der Westhuizen (1992:650-651), there are yet other strategies for organizational renewal to change. He emphasizes that the

school principal should be aware of resistance to change and renewal. Therefore change should be implemented in such a way that those involved should be given opportunities to internalize it, understand the necessity and participate in planning of its introduction.

2.25 SUMMARY

Chapter 2 has put more emphasis on the importance and effect of change at schools. This chapter has dealt with issues like the general problem of the meaning of change, factors that bring about change at school which are unavoidable and increase rapidly. It is elucidated that these factors can cause conflicts and disruption at schools. Deputy principals will need to understand these factors because they influence change and the possible reasons why educators may resist change in schools was also discussed.

Chapter 3 will concentrate on the leadership and management task of the deputy principal as the second-in-command at schools, which is the issue at stake in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

MANAGING CHANGE: THE ROLE OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The post of a deputy principal is regarded as a training ground for a principals' post. The Free State Department of Education (1997:15) defines the duties of the deputy principal as being administrative, which encompasses much more than supporting principals, educators and learners. The duties are one of helping the principal, of sharing his/her workload so as to free him/her to discharge his/her responsibilities as the instructional leader of the school.

A deputy principal, who is regarded as both an administrator and a manager at a school, should carry the responsibility of directing and guiding the learners, educators and parents during a change process. The deputy principal liaises with the other stakeholders, e.g. the District Officials, NGOs and the community in order to implement and lead change in schools (FDE: 1997:15).

Educators need not only support but clear guidance during a change process. Tampoe (1998:45) sees a leader as being the front person of the school and coming up with certain broad ideas that are then managed so as to deal with change at schools. The deputy principals as leaders should be ruthless in their establishment of high expectations, aware of the need to think strategically so that they can position their schools to one step ahead of emerging changes.

Changes are externally imposed so that the principal and then the deputy principal as the second-in-command must interpret incoming documents before they can inform the educators. The speed with which those changes have to be introduced means that they have had little time to motivate educators and they are finding it increasingly difficult to justify imposing more

demands for change (Tampoe, 1998:53). The internal imperatives on the other hand, were a complex mixture of school based factors, e.g. the given needs of a particular school, which would exist irrespective of the type of leadership approach adopted; the level of educator competence and motivation; the culture of the school and the current level of learner achievement and the leadership approaches of the principals as they tried to establish a particular vision, values framework or school ethos (Tampoe, 1998:53).

A deputy principal is also a manager who has been entrusted with the responsibility to guide the school during internal and external changes. Management of externally imposed change creates tensions concerning how best to introduce change within a school. If, in trying to tailor an imposed change to fit a school, the principal over-prescribes what is to happen they can be accused of presenting educators with a *fait accompli* or rail-roading them (Tampoe, 1998:54). On the other hand, if the principal under-prepares staff for change, he/she can be seen as being too reactive, rushing things through too quickly. The challenges of adapting and customizing external imperatives to the needs of a school then becomes a leadership dilemma when he/she can no longer justify such changes in terms of the needs of his/her school

This chapter will focus on the leadership and management tasks as carried out by the deputy principal at a school, detailing the difference between leadership and management, definition of leadership, attributes of leadership, models of leadership for deputy principals, critical aspects of competency-based leadership and basic management tasks of the deputy principals. It also entails the leadership and management task of the deputy principal at a school, defining in detail how to lead and manage schools in times of change. It details the subsequent change in performance of stakeholders in education, schools' commitment and culture, putting emphasis on how deputy principals as managers influence performance at schools and management of human resources.

3.2 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Leadership relates to mission, direction and inspiration. Management involves designing and carrying out plans, getting things done and working effectively with people. Leaders do the right thing, managers do things right. Management is associated in many people's minds with words like efficiency, planning, paperwork, procedures, regulations, control and consistency. Leadership is more associated with words like risk-taking, dynamics, creativity, change and vision (Burnes, 1996:52).

According to Bolman and Deal (1997: xii), leading and managing are different, but both are important. When schools as organisations are over-managed, but under-led, they eventually lose any sense of purpose. Poorly managed schools with strong charismatic leaders may soar briefly, only to crash shortly thereafter. According to Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford (2000:38), leadership and management must coincide, leadership makes sure that the school change gets to the right place; management makes sure the educators and learners are well managed. Leadership is about getting across to the staff where we are now and where we are going. Leadership is also about knowing what to do and being able to raise the morale of the staff, while management is about the mechanisms by which a vision is achieved (Day *et al.*, 2000:38).

Without managers, the vision of leaders remains a dream. Leaders need managers to convert visions into realities. For continuous success, organizations need both managers and leaders. However, as most seem to be over-managed and over-led, deputy principals need to find ways of having both at the same time (Bain, 1995:15).

According to Louis and Miles (1990:50), leadership aspects involve:

- articulating a vision;
- getting shared ownership; and
- evolving planning.

The management functions concern (Dakin & Hamilton, 1990:32):

- negotiating demands and resource issues with the environment: and
- coordinated and persistent problem-coping.

The manager plans, organizes, directs and controls, on proprietors' or his/her behalf, an industrial, commercial or other undertaking, establishment or organization, and coordinates the work of departmental managers or other immediate subordinates (Dakin & Hamilton, 1990:32).

The difference between leadership and management elucidated above necessitate a closer look at the possible similarities.

3.2.1 Similarities between leadership and management

According to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (1997:92) there are several key challenges similar to leadership and management with regard to establishing an effective learning environment for all learners. Both educational leader and a manager should:

- be sensitive to internal and external forces creating barriers to learning and development and facilitate appropriate decision making among all the learning centre's members;
- develop personal and interpersonal skills to deal with the barriers to learning and development;
- be able to balance the need to be task-orientated with the need to maintain good relationships and care for all the members of the centre of learning; and
- Use appropriate styles of leadership and management when dealing with the barriers to learning and development.

After exploring the differences and similarities between leadership and management, people need to focus on leadership per se.

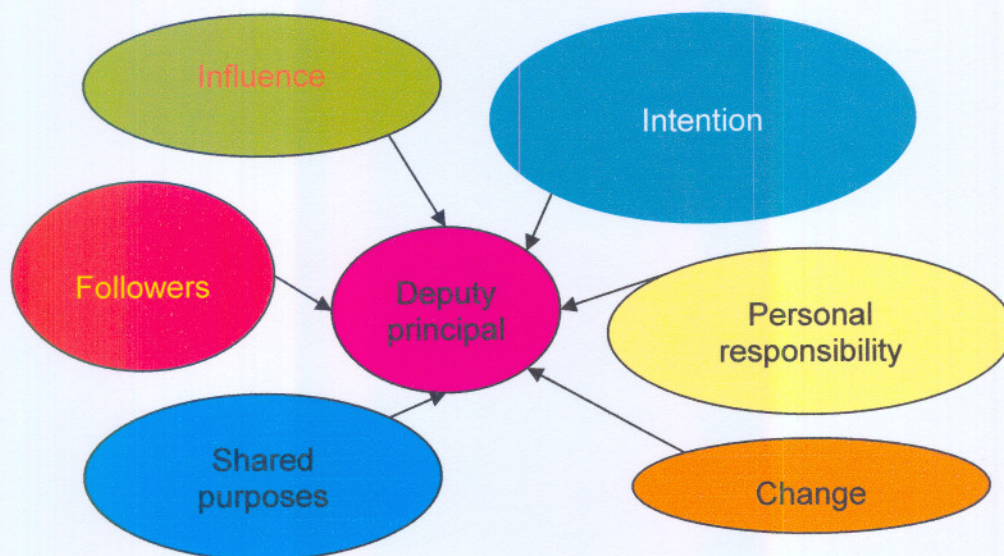
3.2.2 Definition of leadership

Yukl (1994:4-5) argues that there is no correct definition of leadership. Clark and Clark (1990:20) say that cannot talk about leaders with anyone until you agree on what you are talking about, and that requires a definition of leadership and a criterion for leadership acts that can be agreed on. Rost (1991:6) begins his analysis of leadership and leadership literature in no-school organizations by arguing that lack of attention to definition has been one of the main impediments to progress in the field. Indeed, many authors who have written on leadership did not define leadership in their works.

According to Daft (1999:5), leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend change to reflect their shared purposes. Leadership involves influence, it occurs among people, those people intentionally desire significant changes and the changes reflect purpose shared by leaders and followers. Smith (1991:207) asserts that leadership is about relative influence, in that a leader is someone who has more influence over others than they have over him or her. Influence, in this definition, means that the relationship among people is not passive, but inherent and multidirectional and non-coercive.

Leadership is reciprocal. Deputy principals at schools influence educators as subordinates and educators also influence their seniors. The people involved in the relationship want substantive changes. Leadership involves creating changes which are not dictated by leaders but reflect purposes shared by leaders and followers (Daft, 1999:5), below follows the structure which indicates the responsibilities of the deputy principals as leaders:

Figure 3.1: What leadership involves (Daft, 1999:6)



Leadership, as argued by Fowler, Van Brummelen and Van Dyk (1990: 157), is a guiding which involves gentleness, an easy way of nudging someone in a certain direction. Leading effectively demands an active life view and a fixed knowledge of the destination of the organization/institution. According to Fowler *et al.*, (1990:159), effective, clear and realistic aims, together with a specific future vision, can be seen as closely linked with the primary tasks of the educational manager. Beruldsen and Buchanan (1995:12) argue that the constant changes confronting creative educational leader and organizations necessitate creative problem-solving. A creative leader can be described as a person who responds to the demands made with directed strategies ensuring success. Change always implies risk and uncertainty which necessitate a specific framework to direct and support the necessary adaptation.

Such a framework can be subdivided into the following components: planning, decision-taking, role responsibility, communication, evaluation, conflict handling and motivation (Beruldsen & Buchanan, 1995:12) Thom (1996:6) concurs, saying that the educational leader should keep abreast of educational developments if he wants to ensure effective management and leadership on a continuous basis, while still adhering to the basic values and fundamental life principles.

According to Murphy (1995:13-20), a creative leader is prepared to place himself in the following roles: servant of society, architect of organizational structures, social architect and moral architect. McPherson (1996:3) says that a true educational leader leads subordinates to think critically about the quality of knowledge they use daily.

Murphy (1995:27-30) provides the following leadership guidelines for successful educational managers:

- Develop a relevant, challenging school vision.
- Provide sufficient resources to support the vision.
- Develop a communication network to encourage good human relations in the school context.
- Provide the necessary information to educators to advance effective decision-making.
- Provide in-service training programmes to develop educators professionally.

Murphy (1995:23) states that deputy principals as leaders should apply more participative managerial principles and delegate responsibilities. Today, there is a considerable need for leaders at top level who truly understand democracy and attach value to it. They also need to know how to balance authority and freedom within a specific organizational culture.

Deputy principals as educational leaders should, according to Thom (1996:7) advance reformation and restructuring with the necessary enthusiasm, energy and expertise in a constantly changing society. Educational leaders in Thom's view should be knowledgeable about theoretical trends on which practice is based. Expertise about the nature of these trends gives the educational leader the necessary equipment to anticipate the impact of change.

According to Bain (1995:16), being appointed a manager makes one a boss but it does not make anyone a leader. Good management on its own is not

sufficient for a manager to succeed in this fast-changing world. In leadership there is a need for vision, strategy and enthusiasm, ability to motivate others, a thirst for knowledge and continuous improvement and the setting of demanding goals.

Leadership is increasingly recognised as the factor most crucial to success in general management, yet it is pretty difficult to define it in an operational sense. Leadership qualities are perhaps the most significant factor influencing a general manager's success. It provides a capacity throughout an organization that welds together a team that can respond to changes positively or indeed induce change for the institution's benefit (Bain, 1996:16).

Further, leadership is perceived as a process in which both the formal leaders and the people are participating. The focus is therefore on the cooperation between the actors in the organization, the cultural context of their actions, the dialogue they develop, and how they choose to negotiate and act when confronted with the various dilemmas of daily practice. A pedagogical leader is thus a person who initiates and promotes processes of change organization, and works for development both on the individual, group and whole school level (Calitz, Fuglestad & Lillejord, 2001:10).

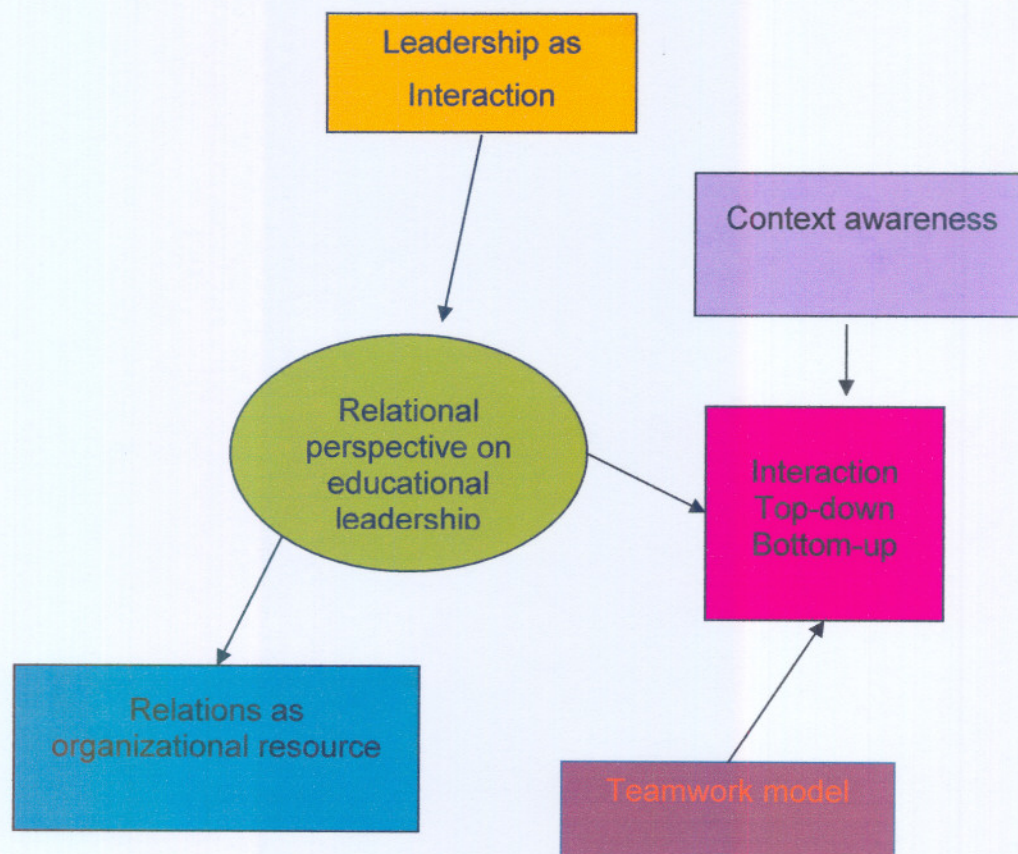
Leadership is not a fixed and static ability, but an unpredictable and ever-changing process. The need for creativity and problem-solving abilities will constantly be there.

While leadership is an unpredictable phenomenon that requires creativity and initiative, the management part is securing stability and predictability in the organization through administrative routines and sound structures. The concept of leadership is therefore closely related to the ongoing process of working with and strengthening organizational culture. A successful execution of leadership takes into account the particularities of situations and the culture of that specific organisation. It is important to know about traditions and specific ways of thinking and acting (Calitz *et al.*, 2001:11).

According to Calitz *et al.*, (2001:12), leadership is a relational process always exercised in an interpersonal context and through interaction with other

and learners, educators and parents, learners and learners. Leadership in education is not a one-man task, performed by a principal of a school or an educator in the classroom. It requires the participation and cooperation of all parties: school authorities on all levels, colleagues, learners, parents and local community (Calitz *et al.*, 2001:12). Leadership is a team activity. These notions can be visualized through Figure 3.2 (Calitz *et al.*, 2001:12) which the deputy principal can apply to deal with change facing his/her school:

Figure 3.2: A relational perspective on educational leadership (Calitz *et al.*, 2001:12).



Next are the qualities of total quality management leadership calls for scrutiny.

3.2.2.1 Leadership for managing change

According to Van der Westhuizen (2002:311), quality cannot be dictated; it must be led and managed from the top of the organization. Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:68-69) agree about the crucial role of leaders and list the following characteristics of total quality management (TQM) leadership:

- It is about imagination, enabling and empowering the ordinary worker, not about status.
- The role of the leader is to activate, coach, guide, mentor, educate, assist and support colleagues so that they focus on a shared vision, strategy and set of intended outcomes.
- Leaders with vision realise that it is cost-effective to empower those nearest to a process to manage that process themselves.
- Leaders concentrate on the whole picture and keep it at the forefront of people's thinking.
- They attend to small details that can make a crucial difference.
- They believe that challenge and fun go together, laughter is healing. Bongstingl (1995:8) views real leadership as healing, meaning that it helps people to understand their own feelings and optimize pleasure in their lives.

The need for leadership is also emphasized by the fact that TQM has probably generated more failures than successes, caused largely by the reluctance of people to change. This is why leadership is so important in the implementation of change. Carlson (1994:16) contends that South Africa's most urgent educational need is for people with leadership and management skills in line with TQM principles.

School principals and deputy principals must focus on establishing the context and creating the environment in which learners can best achieve their potential. Quality improvement therefore starts with a real commitment on the part of school principals and deputy principals to the quality process. Rappaport (1993:19) cites from literature, which confirms that principals and deputy principals must embrace and espouse the quality philosophy for it to be successfully implemented. Commitment is measured in terms of tangible and visible things, not rhetoric.

This means that an individual educator could apply the quality process in the classroom, but would need the support and commitment of the school system's principals and deputy principals to introduce a viable quality improvement process. Unless the staff see a genuine commitment to quality in the behaviour of the top team, improvement is unlikely to be implemented from below (Middlehurst & Gordon, 1995:278). The most frequent cause of failure in quality improvement efforts is the lack of involvement or sense of indifference on the part of management. The critical role of leadership is stressed by studies carried out in 1988 and 1990 of well-performing Canadian public sector organisations. The authors note the following key ingredients of these organizations (Middlehurst & Gordon, 1995:278-279):

- The emphasis is on people in terms of challenge, encouragement and development
- Participative leadership: this is described as guiding by creativity, by detecting patterns, by articulating purpose and mission, and by fostering commitment to the goals of the organization.
- Innovative work style: this involves people reflecting on their performance, learning from experience and being innovative, creative and flexible. Strong control systems are used, but only as tools. The organization controls itself, rather than depending on control from the authority.
- Client orientation: the focus is on customer needs and preferences, where staff satisfaction derives from serving the customer.

Leaders can initiate change and can create the condition for continued support of change. However, for the process of continuous improvement to become embedded in the culture of the organization, leadership has to be seen as a shared function, rather than as emanating from a single powerful person. Educational leaders must therefore lead the transformation effort to ensure success.

Steyn (1996:131-132) suggests two ways in which principals could take responsibility for quality at their schools:

- The job description for principals should be changed. Principals should not be expected to be simply efficient managers of processes. They must see themselves as accountable for producing learning. Principals can be sure of success if educators are committed to quality learning. They must therefore manage educators' commitment, which stems primarily from educators' involvement in the processes of problem-solving and decision-making.
- The system of supervision that operates at most schools is not healthy. Schools need to change the way staff members are treated. Principals should establish a norm of striving for increased personal competence. Coupled with openness, cooperation and peer coaching, this will result in substantial instructional improvement.

Leadership skills are therefore a very important aspect of TQM. Educational managers should be the driving force in employing TQM. They should provide communicative vision, optimism and purposiveness to their staff. They should empower staff and have a high level of tolerance for ambiguity, patience and integrity. Leaders also need the skill of sightedness: of looking beyond current circumstances to the medium and long term, and enabling their staff to do the same (Steyn, 1996:132).

Leadership for change must integrate the drive of moral purpose with the creation of social capital as evidenced in the civic capacities of educational leaders and educators at all levels. Much change in education has had a reform element about it. In all this, there seems to be reluctance to grasp the essential fact that the world is different, that it was, and is changing fast. For an educational system to be in tune with change, it needs to be flexible, adaptable and responsive to constantly changing circumstances and needs. If schools cannot be trusted to change themselves, then intermittent flurries will become more necessary and more insistent, and sadly, increasingly dysfunctional (Whitaker, 1993:6).

It obvious that managing change therefore, necessitates very definite leadership skills.

3.2.2.2 Leadership skills to manage change

When surrounded by reform or change, deputy principals and principals develop a new set of skills, some of them quite radically different from traditional ones. They usually engage in three distinct levels of behavioural change (Calitz *et al.*, 2001:18):

- Intervention: to return the system to equilibrium
- Restructuring work: to improve system performance
- Major reorganization: in response to serious internal work flow defects or new external problems.

According to Senge (1990:345) on restructuring of schools environment, deputy principals need to:

- Create dissonance: New leaders constantly remind staff and others of the gap between the vision they have for their learners and their current accomplishment
- Prepare for and create opportunities: They pursue opportunities that will move their schools closer to the accomplishment of their mission and ignore those that do not.
- Forge connections and create interdependencies: They create new roles and relationships, seeking to connect teachers within and across disciplines and to connect people inside and outside of the school community to one another.
- Employ change strategies: leaders put together the right mix of strategies and tactics to keep reform on track through all stages. As change strategies, they recognize the dynamics of their organizations and determine their potential for change.

- Provide stability in change: Leaders of restructuring organisations build a fortress within which change can take place. They provide order and direction in an ambiguous environment.
- Make staff development a priority: leaders help staff move, in their thinking and behaviour, beyond the limits of their own experience. They invest heavily in staff development.

Senge (1990:345) probably has the best overall description of the new work of educators as designers, as stewards and as educators.

By now, it has become clear that leaders such as deputy principals need very specific attributes.

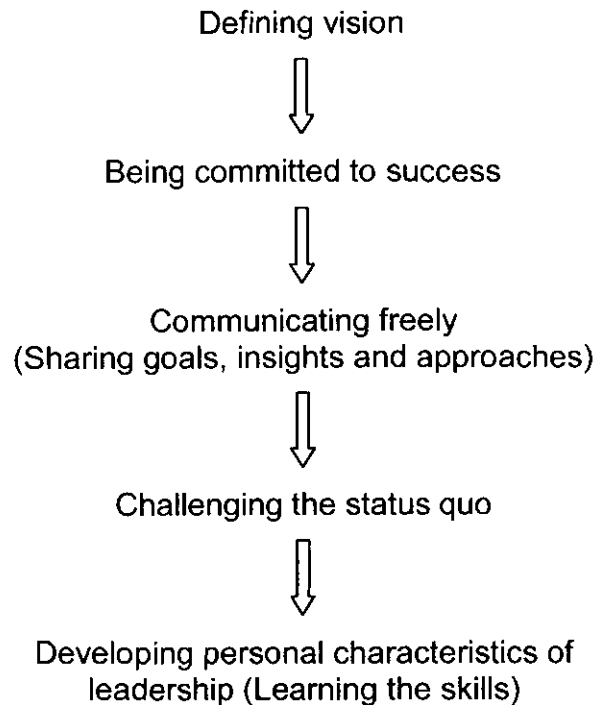
3.3 ATTRIBUTES OF LEADERSHIP

Strong leadership is needed by deputy principals to deal with change. Where some deputy principals are proactive decision-makers, others display an authoritarian, yet efficient managerial approach (Edupol, 1995:24).

The aim of leadership attributes is to provide greater awareness of practical measures that help deputy principals to understand leadership more deeply. Deputy principals should be able to define the vision of the school in order to deal with change. This will help the school to perform to the common goal. While educators within the school and analysts outside the school will make inputs, it is the task of the deputy principals to be committed and own the vision of the school (Drucker, 1990:45).

On this issue, Bain (1995:18) has grouped the leadership dimensions into five main categories which deputy principals have to display in managing change:

Figure 3.3: Five dimensions of leadership (Bain, 1995:18)



Defining a vision is the initial stage which is absolutely essential if the teams are to perform to the common goal. While the input will arise from members of the team, from outside analytical help and from a careful scanning of trends, the commitment and ownership of the vision must be the leaders (Bain, 1995:18). The best leaders are capable of thinking the unthinkable and of picking up innovation even though the initial ideas may not have originated with them. They will have a high curiosity level and will be well-informed from their own network of contacts and wide reading. They are not afraid of change, but rather view this as an environmental factor that can give the initiative to their own organization (Bain 1995:18).

Once the vision has been defined, the means to its realization must be provided. These include the right team with the appropriate variety of skills, and an organization in which they can put these skills to use. The people must be empowered through ensuring that they have the appropriate skills base and also by ensuring that the organization structure is appropriate (Bain, 1995:18).

The second attribute of leadership is a commitment to success. The leader typically has high energy and drive. The commitment to success is not just about enthusiasm, drive and the will to win, it is also about the hard work of preparation (Bain, 1995:18).

The third attribute, is the need to communicate freely and openly. There is a requirement to share information on the goals, any adjustment to the pathway towards the goals or any new initiatives that are compatible with them. The leader, too often, may well have changed direction without proper communication, to find his troops marching forward to the precipice that he would like to avoid. Communication is of course two-way and will be styled to have appropriate impact (Bain, 1995:18).

The fourth attribute, challenging the *status quo* is the attribute that strikes at the root of many areas where leadership is required, and the fifth, is the development of personal characteristics of leadership. The personal characteristics most frequently highlighted in successful leaders are (Bain, 1995:19):

- Flexibility;
- Ability to inspire;
- Enthusiasm;
- Ability to build relationships;
- Ability to inspire trust;
- Ability to communicate;
- Ability to delegate;
- Willingness to experiment;
- Frankness; and
- Integrity.

A leader also needs to have both intellect and the conceptual capacity to deal with the scope of his job.

By now it should be clear that leadership is such an all-encompassing vocation that it would be advisable to present the deputy principal with models of leadership that may be encubated.

3.4 MODELS OF LEADERSHIP FOR DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

There are approaches to leadership that deputy principals may use to deal with change in schools, and these approaches are dealt with below:

3.4.1 Instructional leadership of deputy principals

This assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviour of educators as they engage in activities affecting the growth of students. This led Sheppard (1996:325) to distinguish between narrow and broad view of instructional leadership

According to Sheppard (1996:325) most conceptions of instructional leadership allocate authority and influence to formal administrative roles (usually the principals), assuming, as well, considerable influence through expert knowledge on the part of those occupying such roles. This narrow model of leadership is described along multiple dimensions, which incorporates a number of practices. The broad model consists of three broad categories of leadership practice: defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and promoting school climate (Sheppard, 1996:325).

Leithwood *et al.*, (1999:8) contend that there is a lack of explicit descriptions of instructional leadership. Geltner and Shelton (1991:338) modified the term, referring to strategic instructional leadership, even though there was no notion of what non-strategic instructional leadership might mean. Stalhammar (1994:14) used the term pedagogical leadership and Kleine-Kracht (1993:187) differentiated between direct and indirect instructional leadership, noting that principals alone cannot fulfil all a school's needs for instructional leadership. Original beliefs concerning the principal as the primary or most important

instructional leader required rethinking. Davidson (1992:208) argued for the value of educators serving as instructional leaders. Achilles (1992:59) challenged the idea that instructional leadership or any form of leadership was necessarily a substitute for capable management.

3.4.1.1 Instructional leadership model

- Instructional leadership focuses predominantly on the role of the school principal on coordinating, controlling, supervising and developing curriculum and instruction in the school.
- Instructional leaders lead from a combination of expertise and charisma. They are hands-on principals, “hip-deep” in curriculum and instruction, and unafraid of working with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning.
- They are goal-oriented, focusing on the improvement of student academic outcomes. Given the dire straits in which they find their schools, these principals focus on a narrower mission than many of their peers.
- Instructional leaders are viewed as culture builders. They seek to create an academic press that fosters high expectations and standards for students, as well as for teachers (Mortimore, 1993:75).

Hallinger (1992:35) developed an instructional leadership model which proposes three dimensions: defining the school's mission, managing the instructional programme and promoting a positive school-learning climate. These dimensions are further delineated into ten instructional leadership functions. Two functions, framing and communicating the school's goals, comprise the dimension, defining the school's mission. These functions concern the principal's role in working with staff to ensure that the school has clear, measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of its students. It is the principal's responsibility to ensure that these goals are widely known and supported throughout the school community. While this dimension does not assume that only the principal defines the school's mission, it does assume that the principal's responsibility is to ensure that the

school has a clear academic mission and to communicate it to the staff (Hallinger, 1992; 36).

The second dimension, managing the instructional programme, focuses on the coordination and control of instruction and curriculum. This dimension incorporates three leadership functions: supervising and evaluating instruction, co-ordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress. These functions, more so than functions in the other two dimensions, require the leader to be deeply engaged in the school's instructional development (Hallinger, 2003:332).

The third dimension, promoting a positive school learning climate, includes several functions: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, providing incentives for learning. This dimension is broader in scope and intent. It conforms to the notion that effective schools create an academic press through the development of high standards and expectations and a culture of continuous improvement. It is the responsibility of the instructional leadership to align the school's standards and practices with this mission and to create a climate that supports teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2003:332).

3.4.2 Transformational leadership of the deputy principal

Transformational leadership signifies an appropriate type of leadership for schools taking up the challenges of restructuring (Leithwood, 1992:8). This model of transformational leadership in schools has been developed by Leithwood *et al.*, (1998:8). It conceptualizes such leadership along seven dimensions: building school vision; establishing school goals; providing intellectual stimulation; offering individual support; modelling best practices and important expectations; creating a productive school culture; and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions (Leithwood, 1994:498). Grobler (1996:12) supports the statement that leaders, who can follow a transformational approach by building a shared responsibility team, continuously develop the skills of individual subordinates and determines, and build a common vision, creating superior performance.

This form of leadership assumes that the central focus of leadership ought to be the commitment and capacities of organizational members (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999: 9). High levels of personal commitment to organizational goals and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity. Authority and influence of the deputy principals are not necessarily allocated to those occupying formal administrative positions, rather: power is attributed by school members to whoever is able to inspire their commitments to collective mastery of the capacities needed to manage change (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:9). Kowalski and Oates (1993:380) argue that transformational leadership represents the transcendence of self-interest by both the deputy principal as a leader and by those who are being led.

According to Bass (1990:25), to achieve follower performance at a school as organization beyond ordinary limits, leadership of deputy principals must be transformational. Educators' attitudes, beliefs, motives and confidence need to be transformed from a lower to a higher plane of arousal and maturity, and as a transformational leader, a deputy principal inspires educators to exceed expectations. Deputy principals as transformational leaders provide vision and a sense of mission; instil pride, gain respect and trust. According to Bass (1990:27), transformational leader asks followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization and to consider their long-term needs to develop themselves, rather than their needs of the moment. The transformational leader is one person in an organisation who is the most helpful in bringing about the necessary change. He/She transforms schools, and hence people, by inspiring them to change their own motives, beliefs and values in order to follow a vision that reaches beyond their own immediate self-interest (Bass, 1990:27; Judge & Bono, 2000:751). Deputy principals as transformational leaders are more productive leaders (Bass, 1990:30; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996:385), although according to Van Staden, Scheepers & Rieger, 2000:8) such leaders can and should also use some of the contingency leading behaviours.

Dillard (1995:560) defines transformative leadership of the deputy principal as the ability of a person to reach the souls of others in a fashion which raises human consciousness, builds meaning and inspires human intent that is the source of power. Leithwood (1994:498) then uses another modification of Burns, in which transactional and transformational leadership represent opposite ends of the leadership continuum.

Gronn (1996:8) notes a close relationship between views of transformational and charismatic leadership. Leithwood (1994:498) identifies seven factors that make up transformational and transactional leadership. These factors are then reduced to five in the analysis of the relationship between leadership behaviour and educator efficacy.

However, the transformational leadership of the deputy principal involves only the following three aspects:

3.4.2.1 Providing individual support

This dimension of transformational leadership encompasses behaviour indicating that a deputy principal as the leader should respect followers and should also be concerned about their personal feelings and needs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990:112).

The individualized support by the deputy principals may be motivational in assuring educators that the problem they are likely to encounter while changing their practices will be taken seriously, and efforts will be made to help them through those problems. This dimension of leadership closely parallels the central role of their colleagues' aspirations and feelings, in their style approaches to leadership: the extent to which deputy principals as leaders promote camaraderie, mutual trust, liking and respect in their relationship between themselves and their subordinates (Bryman, 1992:5).

In providing individual support, Leithwood, Tomlinson and Genge (1996:10) identify one facet, involving the equitable, humane and considerable treatment of one's colleagues, which the deputy principal has to carry and which includes the following practices:

- treating everyone equally; not showing favouritism towards individuals or groups;
- having an open-door policy;
- being appropriate, accessible and welcoming;
- protecting teachers from excessive intrusions into their classroom work;
- giving personal attention to colleagues who seem neglected by others; and
- being thoughtful about the personal needs of staff.

The Second facet of individualized support identified by Leithwood *et al.*, (1996:10) is the provision of support for the personal, professional development of staff. This includes such practices as:

- encouraging staff members to try new practices consistent with their interests;
- as often as possible, responding positively to staff members' initiatives for change;
- as often as possible, providing money for professional development and other needed resources in support of changes agreed on by staff; and
- providing coaching for those staff members who need it.

According to Leithwood *et al.*, (1996:11), individualized support also requires deputy principals as leaders to develop close knowledge of their individual colleagues. This suggests that deputy principals must:

- get to know individual educators well enough to understand their problems and to be aware of their particular skills and interest; listening carefully to staff's ideas;
- have a finger on the pulse of the school and building concerning the individual interests of educators, often as the starting point for school

change, and expressed support through recognition of good work and effort (Leithwood *et al.*, 1996:10):

- provide recognition for staff work in the form of individual praise or pats on the back;
- be specific about what is being praised as good work;
- offer personal encouragement to individuals for good performance; and
- demonstrate confidence in colleagues' ability to perform at their best.

Individualized support is reflected in transformational deputy principals' approaches to change (Leithwood *et al.*, 1996:12). These deputy principals:

- follow through on decisions made jointly with educators;
- explicitly share educators' legitimate cautions about proceeding quickly toward implementing new practices, thus demonstrating sensitivity to the real problems of implementation faced by educators;
- take individual educators' opinion into consideration when initiating actions that may affect their work; and
- instil, in staff, a sense of belonging to the school.

3.4.2.2 Creating high performance

Encouraging high performance expectations entails practices that demonstrate the deputy principals' expectations for excellence, quality and/or high performance on the part of colleagues (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990:112). Expectations of this sort by deputy principals will be motivational as they help educators to see the challenging nature of the goals being pursued at their schools. Such expectations may also sharpen educators' perceptions of the gap between what the school aspires to and what is presently being accomplished.

House and Mitchell (in Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:69) argue that leadership practices that help to create high performance expectations among educators are also consistent with what they term achievement-oriented leadership.

According to Leithwood *et al.*, (1996:70), there are six specific practices entailed in transformational school leadership:

- expecting staff to be innovative, hard working and professional; (qualities included among the criteria used in hiring staff);
- demonstrating an unflagging commitment to the welfare of students;
- often espousing norms of excellence and quality of service;
- not accepting second-rate performance from anyone;
- establishing flexible boundaries for what people do, thus permitting freedom of judgement and action within the context of overall school goals and plans; and
- being clear about one's own views of what is right and good;

3.4.2.3 Building a shared vision

It is the responsibility of the deputy principal as second-in-command at school to observe a principle of shared vision. A vision, according to Nanus (1992:8), is a realistic, credible, attractive future for your school. Included among those leadership practices relevant to developing such a vision are not only practices aimed explicitly and directly at building a shared vision, but also practices giving rise to educators' inspiration and attributions of charisma.

Deputy principals who assist colleagues in identifying and articulating a vision, whether or not credited with charisma, engage in behaviour aimed at identifying new opportunities for the school and developing, articulating and inspiring others with a vision of the future (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990:112). Nanus (1992:3) argues that there is no more powerful engine driving a school as organization toward excellence and long-range success than an attractive, worthwhile and achievable vision of the future.

Leadership practices associated with vision building are identified by Leithwood *et al.*, (1996:15) as:

- helping to provide colleagues with an overall sense of purpose;
- initiating processes that engage staff in the collective development of a shared vision;
- espousing a vision for the school, but not in a way that pre-empts others from expressing their vision;
- exciting colleagues with a vision of what they may be able to accomplish if they work together to change their practices;
- helping to clarify the meaning of the school's vision in terms of its practical implications for programmes and instruction;
- assisting staff in understanding the relationship between external initiatives for change and the school's vision;
- assisting staff in understanding the larger social mission of which their vision of the school is a part, a social mission that may include such important end values as equality, justice and integrity; and
- using all available opportunities to communicate the school's vision to staff, students, parents and other members of the school community.

Leithwood *et al.*, (1996:16) identify further vision-building behaviours which the deputy principals may adopt to deal with change at schools. These include;

- developing a district mission statement and constantly using it with staff in communication and decision-making;
- creating a shared vision for the district in which most district members believe;
- using research in decision-making and planning;

- being sensitive to the views of the community, parents, board and staff about directions for the district;
- being willing to take risks in order to bring about change; and
- Incorporating considerations of the district's past and present in developing plans for the future.

Apart from the abovementioned functions of the deputy principals, the following four aspects of leadership: moral, participative, situational and transactional need careful consideration.

3.4.3 Moral leadership of deputy principals

Moral leadership includes normative, political/democratic and symbolic concepts of leadership. Hodgkinson (1991:11) argues that values constitute the essential problem of leadership. If there are no value conflicts then there is no need for leadership. Moral leadership assumes that the critical focus of leadership ought to be on the values and ethics of leaders themselves.

Duignan and McPherson (1993:10) argue that leadership should be concerned with right or wrong, and not with attitudes, styles or behaviours. Greenfield (1995:61) maintains that leadership entails five role demands or situational imperatives, including the moral, institutional, political, managerial and social/interpersonal. Lees (1995:225) argues that leadership in a democratic society entails a moral imperative to promote democracy, empowerment and social justice.

Leithwood *et al.*, (1999:11) contend that moral leadership focuses on the nature of the relationship among those within the organization, and the distribution of power between stakeholders both inside and outside the organization.

This perspective assumes that even though the formal organization may clearly specify power relationship, lines of communication and procedures for carrying out the organization's work the informal organization may be quite different and may in fact provide a more authentic explanation for

organisational activity. Forms of leadership referred to as democratic or political can equally well be placed in either moral or participative categories of leadership.

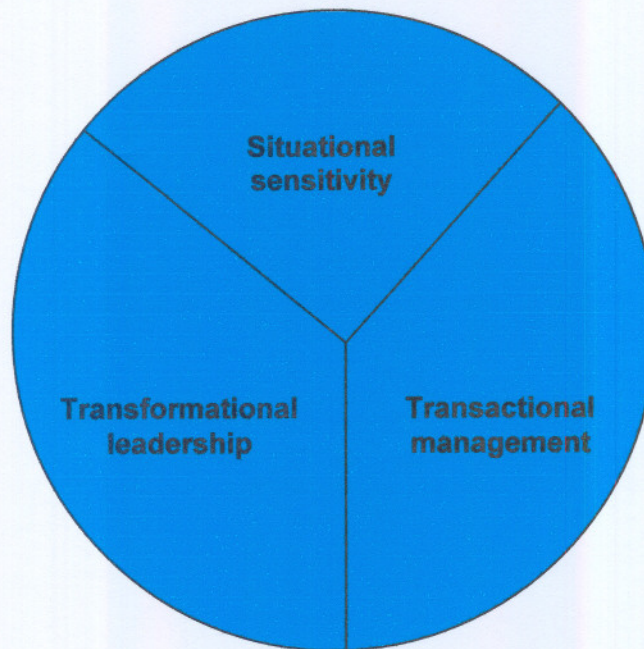
Ward (1994:8) contends that school administration is normative in orientation, embracing rather than ignoring the application of values in public policy, and holds an active role in policy-making.

3.4.4 Participative leadership of deputy principals

The term participative leadership encompasses group, shared and teacher leadership (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:12). Participative leadership assumes that the decision-making process of the group ought to be the central focus for leaders. In participative leadership, authority and influence are available potentially to any legitimate stakeholders at the school, based on their expert knowledge, their democratic right to choose and/or their critical role in implementing decisions.

Leithwood *et al.*, (1999:12) associate participative leadership with enhanced organizational effectiveness. According to Johnson and Pickersgill (1992:239), substantially increased demands placed on school leaders by changing contexts and expectations could best be met by moving towards forms of shared or team leadership. According to Murphy and Hallinger (1992:77-88), school leaders will need to adopt more participatory forms of leadership, forms of leadership that are more consultative, open and democratic, involving educators and parents much more in the decision-making.

**Figure 3.4: Model for managerial leadership-the macro factors
(Flanagan & Thompson, 1993:10)**



The above figure is a managerial leadership model which is an aid to help management diagnose their school situation and deploy the appropriate leadership response, that is, the right combination of transformational and transactional leadership is required (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk, 1998: 283).

The principal who practices transformational leadership is not reliant on his /her personal charisma, but is attempting to empower staff and share leadership functions which is based on an exchange of service (from a teacher, for example) for various kinds of rewards (salary, recognition and intrinsic rewards) that the leader controls, at least in part (Leithwood, 1992:69).

The introduction of change, as in school improvement, cannot be guaranteed by such leadership. Transformational leadership, ensuring the commitment of followers, is required: leaders and followers are united in pursuit of higher-level goals common to both. Both want to become the best, both want to shape the school in a new direction (Sergiovanni, 1990:24).

Leaders exhibit different styles and aspects of leadership depending on the specific context within which they are operating. However, those leaders who display what is termed "an optimal leadership profile" exhibit transformational and transactional leadership and back up their transactional leadership with positive reinforcement and reward, rather than with correction. Bass and Avolio (1994:5-6) state that many research studies have been completed in business and industry, government, the military, educational institutions and non-profit organizations, all of them showing that transformational leaders were more effective and satisfying as leaders than transactional leaders, although the best of leaders frequently do some of the latter, but more of the former.

Leithwood (1992:69-70) indicated that transformational leaders appear to be in a continuous pursuit of three fundamental goals:

- helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative school culture;
- fostering teacher development; and
- helping them solve problems together more effectively.

Having looked at the participative leadership of deputy principals, with the emphasis on consultation and openness, situational leadership changes the focus to four actions that a deputy principal performs when dealing with change.

3.4.5 Situational leadership of deputy principals

This is the leadership skill which the deputy principal can use in dealing with change at school. Situational leadership, according to Gerber *et al.*, (1998:302) is described as follows:

Telling: This is a high task behaviour combined with low relationship behaviour which is a one-way communication. The leader explains by means of task behaviour to his/her subordinates what to do, how, where and when. Such a leader describes his/her subordinates' tasks thoroughly, without

explaining to them why a task has to be done or why certain procedures are to be followed (Boldman & Deal, 1997:302; Fiedler, 1997:40).

Selling: High task behaviour with high relationship behaviour is characterized by a high level of guidance from the leader. The leader tries by means of two-way communication and socio-emotional support to influence his/her subordinates to accept decisions (Gerber *et al.*, 1998:303; Boldman & Deal, 1997:302; Heifetz, 1994:348).

Participating: This style is characterized by high relationship behaviour with low task behaviour, which means that the deputy principal as the leader and subordinates make decisions together by means of two-way communication. Subordinates can participate in decision-making because they have the required abilities and are encouraged to participate by means of relationship behaviour by means of high relationship (Boldman & Deal, 1997:303; Van Maurik, 2001:2-3).

Delegating: This is characterized by low relationship behaviour with low task behaviour, which implies that the deputy principal allows educators as subordinates to make completely independent decisions by delegating authority to them. Therefore supervision is of a general nature, which means that subordinates' work is not checked continuously, as they are fully capable of executing their tasks, they have the necessary confidence and are willing to do so (Boldman & Deal, 1997:303; Doyle & Smith, 2001:10).

3.4.6 Transactional leadership of deputy principals

Transactional leadership is a type of leadership where a leader influences others by appealing to self-interest, primarily through exchange of rewards and services. The relationship between the leader and the follower is seen as a series of rational exchange that enables each to reach his/her own goals (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997:19).

According to Wright (1996:213), the transactional leader recognises what it is that followers want to get from work and tries to ensure that they get it if the performance merits it. Transactional leadership is responsive to immediate

self-interests if followers can be met by getting the work done. A transactional leader supplies all the ideas and uses rewards as his/her primary source of power. Followers comply with the leader when it is in their own interest, and this relationship continues as long as the reward is desirable to the follower, and both the leader and the follower see the exchange as a way of achieving their own ends (Bass, 1990:19; Chen & Fahr, 2001:309).

According to Bass (1999:9), the transactional leader emphasises what your school or institution can do for you. Transactional leading entails leading by giving and withholding rewards and dealing out punishment (Bass, 1990:22; Bass, 1997:21; Chen & Fahr, 2001:310).

3.4.7 A comparison between transactional and transformational leadership

Contemporary leaders often act in transactional leadership roles. Their primary goal is to move the organization through a continuous series of negotiated steps. When a crisis occurs, the school administrator intervenes and negotiates a settlement. The school, temporarily stalled, again moves forward. Educators complain about the schedule; the school administrator negotiates a compromise; and the school again moves forward. Each day the school administrator negotiates a series of transactions with super-ordinates, peers, or subordinates to move the school forward. There is little, if any, transforming leadership. The school administrator cannot create readiness for change as a transactional school administrator. The school administrator needs to act as transformational leader to create conditions for change (Calabrese, 2003:8). Burns (as quoted in Calabrese, 2003:8) states that transforming leadership is elevating. It is moral, but not moralistic. Leaders engage with followers, but from higher levels of morality; in the enmeshing of goals and values, both leaders and followers are raised to more principled levels of judgement. Much of this kind of elevating leadership asks sacrifices from followers, rather than merely promising those goods (Burns as quoted by Calabrese, 2003:8).

According to Calabrese (2003:8), the transactional school administrator has no direction other than to move from point to point; the transforming school leader has a moral compass and seeks to lift followers, raising them to higher levels of purpose and achievement.

It is therefore important to consider the ethical paradigm which is focused on beneficial change.

3.4.8 Ethics, change and paradigms

A simple ethical heuristic is to do the right thing, because it is the right thing to do. Deputy principals in leadership positions who do not have a well-founded set of values will never discover the right thing to do because the right thing to do changes with their context and is always self-serving. Deputy principals as leaders cannot operate from this sense of ethical relativism, where one path is as good as another path. Transforming school leadership is value driven (Gorman, 1993:66).

They understand that ignoring ethical principles degrades each member in the school. When one educator, for example, abuses a student, all educators suffer. When the school leader ignores fairness in the application of discipline, the entire organization suffers. In effect, ignoring the ethical foundations inherent in all paradigms creates a transactional not a transformational organization. Many schools, as organizations, are beginning to recognise that school ethical actions and success work synergistically. A paradigm that embraces this principle is the Japanese concept of *Kyosei*. Gorman (1993:66) states that "*Kyosei*, originally a biological term, translates literally as symbiosis, the living together of two dissimilar organisms in a mutually beneficial relationship". School leadership can adapt the *Kyosei* philosophy to a dynamic ethical-driven paradigm focused on continuous beneficial change by applying the following five stages:

- The educational organization focuses on academic achievement and establishes itself as a model for other schools.

- The principal and educators make a commitment to work together by recognising that they are both vital to the school's success.
- The principal and educators extend their sense of cooperation to reach out to the school's constituents: the students and their parents.
- The *Kyosei*-driven school community reaches out to other schools in its district, serving as a model and mentor to elevate district-wide effectiveness.
- The *Kyosei*-driven school serves as a regional and national model for ethical-driven change (Kaku, 1997:55).

Kyosei is a moral imperative that seeks to form a synergistic relationship firstly within the organization to develop a sense of internal harmony. It then seeks to act in harmony with the rest of its environment. This means that effective organizations change to act as a seamless web with their environment by embracing members as well as anyone affected by the organisation's actions (Kaku, 1997:56).

According to Calabrese (2003:9), the whole notion of change is an ethical issue. Why change if change does not better the organization? Why refrain from change if the change betters the organization? Carter (1996:40) states that the first step, and it is a hard one, is to do the difficult work of discerning what the right thing to do is really. The second step is to do that right thing even at some personal cost. And the third step is to be willing to be open about it. To say: "I'm doing what I believe is right".

School management teams take a series of actions to create a sense of readiness among the members of their schools. They choose to be transforming school administrators. They know when change is necessary to bring benefit to all members of the school community. They are willing to act on their belief that the considered change is the right thing to do (Calabrese, 2003:9).

There is a four-step model, identified by Martin Luther King, Jr, that the transformational leader uses to create a readiness for change (Calabrese, 2003:10):

- collection of the facts to determine whether injustices exist;
- negotiations;
- self-purification; and
- direct action.

These four steps can be adopted by the deputy principals to create a readiness state for change at schools.

3.4.8.1 Collection of facts

Transformational principals and deputy principals change their focus regarding facts. They focus on a rationale for change and the benefits and consequences of change. On the one hand, they want to maximize the benefits to affect all members of the school community positively. On the other hand, they are cognizant of the consequences of change on each member of the school community. They ask if some members benefit more from the change than others do. They ask if some members are hurt by the change. They ask if the change benefits the organization and the organization's stakeholders (Calabrese, 2003:10).

3.4.8.2 Negotiations

According to Calabrese, (2003:10), transformational leaders are unwilling to compromise on any ethical issue. They use negotiations to provide reticent faculty the opportunity to reflect on the consequences of their obstruction to change. The negotiation's process allows school leaders to bring the old paradigm from the shadows into the light of current conditions. They do not allow the old paradigm to exist on the glories associated with its past. They acknowledge its past, but ask how this paradigm addresses the current context. The negotiation process is cooperative in nature. Gerard Nierenberg

(1968) (as quoted in Calabrese, 2003:10) states that one should think of negotiation as a cooperative enterprise. If both parties cooperate, there is a likelihood that they will be persuaded to strive for similar goals.

According to Calabrese (2003:10), negotiating is a cooperative venture where the negotiating process discovers the true interests of those opposed to the change. It takes patience to achieve this goal, but unless school leaders achieve this goal, they will not reconcile the forces aligned with the old paradigm to their ethical imperative to change.

Further, negotiation is seen by many authors as a tool which will assist principals to align the school with changes. According to Pottas and Nieuwmeijer (1992:8), negotiation is a reality in a communication process where various parties try to reach consensus or an agreement by following mutually perspective tactics. Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:13) contend that in the South African school situation with its diverse society, any good principal or deputy principal will have to be a good negotiator.

Negotiation as a tool during change at schools will encourage deputy principals to be engaged in face-to-face communication or direct discussions with stakeholders in order to strive to convince one another to obtain the best possible solutions (Potter & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:9; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:29).

3.4.8.3 Self-purification

Self-purification is a term used in the civil rights struggle by Martin Luther King, Jr to symbolize the purification of one's motives before acting. It includes three steps: reflection, personal review and consultation. Self-purification takes place in reflective silence. School leaders adapt this notion as preparation for escalating the conflict. Personal silence allows them to discover true motivation through reflection (Gerth & Mills, 1991:51).

3.4.8.4 Reflection

School leaders reflect on the situation. They use reflection to assess their motives. They uncover hidden motives that indicate any self-interest motivating their change plans. During reflection, school management examine the potential consequences of their potential actions. In the end, they know that a transformational leader is concerned about doing the right thing and will have no other choice but to pursue change. The reflective process assures them that the primary beneficiaries of the intended change are all members of the school community, including those opposed to change (Van Maurik, 2001:248).

Personal view

The next phase is to review the history of the issue, examining all that was done to work towards resolution and consider if anything else can be done before moving to direct action. The personal review is a preparation for action. School principals and deputy principals thoroughly consider each detail left out of the previous steps. If school management identify an action that they should have taken that could ameliorate the situation, they respond immediately and appropriately. This embraces mutuality and builds solidarity among the school community (Heifetz, 1994:350; Van Maurik, 2001: 249).

Consultation

Consultation is the final phase of the self-purification process. School leaders consult with a detached expert, one who advises them on a course of action. The expert is a trusted person who provides objectivity. This consultant uses questions to understand the school management's motives, often challenging them to the expected outcomes. It is through the consultant's objectivity that they know they have personally examined their motives and actions (Saddler, 1997:157).

Direct action

Direct action is the school principals' response to the unwillingness of opponents of change constructively. School management teams' response demonstrates patience, understanding, and a willingness to reconcile differences between those who want change and those who resist change. The school management team acts constructively. Direct action is not a massive attack on the enemy's positions. Transformational leaders do not view those in opposition to the change as enemies. They understand their fear, their inability to move from a fixed archaic paradigm, and their reluctance to give up something they have known for many years for something new. They know that their actions provide hope to those desperately seeking change. Transformational leaders are decisive, and their decisiveness comes from confidence and lack of fear and anxiety over potential consequences (Doyle & Smith, 2001:5). A three-step procedure can be used by deputy principals in dealing with change:

Choose an achievable goal: Transformational leaders choose a straightforward, achievable goal for action. This goal may be little more than a public announcement of intention to the faculty. It may be writing a memorandum to the superintendent requesting an item to be placed on the school board's agenda. It may be confronting a marginal teacher. The goal is the intention. It is something that school leaders know they can accomplish in a relatively short time (Doyle & Smith, 2001:8).

Proportionality: Transformational leaders act in proportion to the context and people. The action has to have a sense of proportionality. The school leader, for example, who chooses to confront the marginal teacher, acts with a sense of proportionality when requesting to meet with the teacher and initiates a discussion regarding the improvement of performance (Doyle & Smith, 2001:8).

Sustained action: The transformational leader uses the initial act as a catalyst for further actions. Each act is part of a finely woven web to produce sustainability and contribute to change momentum. The transformational

leader modifies action to sustain movement setting one eye to the future, one eye to the past and two feet in the present moment. Deputy principals as leaders know what they want, why they want it, how to communicate what they want to effect change and how to achieve their goals for successful change (Bennis, 1998:3) This deputy principal understands that any action needs monitoring. From ethical perspective, the deputy principal modifies actions as the process unfolds. Direct action unexpectedly catches those who adamantly resist change off-guard by forcing resisters to respond. They may more actively resist the direct action, grudgingly give in to the change or have an enlightening experience and embrace the change. School management, however, cannot ignore resistance to change. They must act to confront faculty resistance and direct actions at the problem and not act the person.

3.4.9 Managerial leadership

Managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks or behaviour and that if these functions are carried out competently, the work of others in the organization will be facilitated (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:14).

According to Rossmiller (1992:143), there are two broad functions of managerial leadership: buffering the technical core curriculum and instruction of the school from excessive distractions and interruptions and smoothing input or output transitions.

Myers and Murphy (in Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:15) included six organizational control mechanisms: supervision; input controls; behaviour controls; output controls; selection/socializations; and environmental controls.

Cadwell (1992:16-17) argues that leaders of self-managing schools should engage in a cyclical process of goal-setting, needs identification, priority setting, planning, budgeting, implementing and evaluating in a manner which provides for the appropriate involvement of staff and community.

3.4.10 Contingent leadership

This approach assumes that what is important is how deputy principals as leaders respond to the unique organizational circumstances or problems that they face as a consequence, for example, of the nature and preference of co-workers, conditions of work and tasks to be undertaken. According to Fiedler (1997:15), effective leadership was dependent on a mix of factors. Fiedler (1997:15) argues that effectiveness depends on two interacting factors: leadership style and the degree to which the situation gives the deputy principals as the leader control and influence. This approach to leadership also assumes that there are wide variations in the contexts for leadership and that, to be effective, these concepts require different leadership responses. It further assumes that individuals providing leadership, typically those in formal positions of authority, are capable of mastering a large repertoire of leadership practices, thus, their influence will depend, in large measure, on such mastery (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:15)

3.5 VITAL ASPECTS OF LEADERSHIP MODELS

Bain (1995:23) talks about two forms of leadership being inspirational and perspirational. Inspirational or charismatic leadership refers to the visionary and motivational aspect, while perspirational (technocratic) leadership is about the basis for achievement.

Inspirational leadership: This imparts vision and defines strategies to achieve it. Some features of an inspirational leader are as follows (Bain, 1995:23):

- The leader practises management by walking around, because leaders need to be visible and use opportunities through questions and statements, to reinforce the culture and objectives.
- The leader is a role model for other leaders and is transparent in decision-making and uses symbolic behaviour.
- The leader is a living ethical standard, aware that his/her actions are always under public scrutiny.

- The leader is an agent provocateur, a non-conformist and an agent for change.
- Every leader needs apostles who are equally energized and committed to the same cause. The leader needs feedback.
- The leader recognizes the importance of excellent communication inside as well as outside the organization. This requires a heavy allocation of time.
- The leader is able to fight bureaucracy without destroying essentials.

The perspirational leadership: According to Bain (1995:24), this aspect of leadership is equally important if people want action. If there is only the inspirational, the whole organization will be psyched up, but will go nowhere because there is no enablement.

Perspirational leadership needs:

- Organizational clarity and clarity of objectives.
- Reward systems to be aligned with the goals.
- Compatibility of resource allocation and development. Procedures need to be right and knowledge needs to be transferred through networking. People need to be placed first with a meritocracy that ensures that the best get ahead.
- Controls and the ability to measure to ensure that the business is being managed on the correct bases. Individuals and teams must always be able to track their own performance.

Bain (1995:24) argues further that successful leaders do not just lead, neither do they just manage. Both tasks must be undertaken. The vision must be connected to mundane tools. In this setting, the leader achieves this through team-building, through openness and feedback.

The following critical aspects of competency would help in developing a programme that would assist deputy principals to deal with change, provided they receive in-service training in leadership and management.

3.6 CRITICAL ASPECTS OF COMPETENCY-BASED LEADERSHIP

3.6.1 Foundation skills

Basically, leadership should be regarded as a managerial activity involving planning, leading, organizing and control. Competency-based leadership develops from these traditional aspects of education management: the foundation skills of delegation (getting the best people to do the right jobs); communication (making sure everyone knows what to do); and motivation (making sure everyone wants to get the job done) (Maile, 1998:25). This supports the argument that the notion of leadership is constituted by the availability of followers and influence. However, to acquire acquiescent followers, a deputy principal requires these foundation skills, in order to ensure that:

- the team works as a team and not as individuals;
- the team is able to understand its objectives and how they fit in with overall organizational objectives;
- team members support one another;
- the team is prepared to put in extra effort when required;
- the team aims for excellence, not just for doing the job; and
- specific tasks are allocated to those best able to do them (Roebuck, 1999:11).

3.6.2 Reflective practice

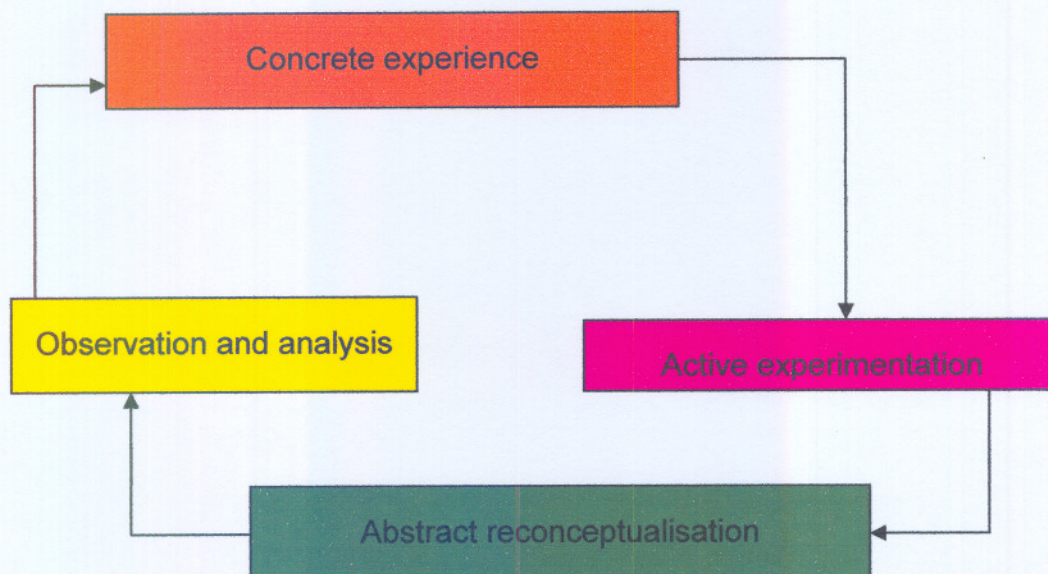
The notion of team leadership entails that in an organizational setting like a school, the deputy principal as the leader will have to deal with different views and skills which are critical to the well-being of the institution (Maile, 1998:27).

The challenge is to balance the different views and skills of each member, the needs of an individual and that of the institution, and ultimately to determine what must prevail. The aim is to fill the gap between what exists for students and what is desired. A competent leader should take into consideration that (Maile, 1998:27):

- differences can be assessed by collecting information from team members;
- needs and conditions within the district change over time; and
- all team members should be given an equal and fair chance to participate (Maile, 1998:27).

The leader can develop a greater level of self-awareness which entails revising one's assumptions and adopting a dual stance of being both the actor and one's own critic. This is called reflective practice or self-evaluation and can be set out visibly as follows:

Figure 3.5: Experimental learning cycle (Osteerman & Koffkamp, in Maile, 2000:313)



Reflective practice begins with an experience of a concrete problematic situation that cannot be resolved by the use of standard operational

procedures. It involves identifying problematic situations which cannot be resolved at the moment. Deputy principals step back and observe and analyses, what the problem was, what their intentions are, what they did and what happens? When these questions are asked the crux of the problem will emerge (Maile, 2000:314). Very often deputy principals will find that the problem is the discrepancy between the real and the ideal, and this stimulates further inquiry. After this, deputy principals will invite more input to re-conceptualize the problem by:

- brainstorming;
- using nominal group techniques;
- mind-mapping;
- using fault tree analysis; and
- employing the Kiva Technique (McEwan, 1997: 68-80).

This activity of reflective practice helps deputy principals as leaders to come to an understanding of their own behaviour, develop a conscious awareness of their own actions and effects, as well as a predisposition that shape their actions.

3.6.3 Role-specific leadership

Riley and Louis (2000:52) argue that leadership is practised in schools by a principal and an educator. In relation to educator leadership, this may either be formal or informal in nature. Lead educator, master educator, departmental head, union representative, member of the school governing council, all these are among the many designations associated with formal educator leadership roles.

Educators assuming these roles are expected to carry out a wide range of functions: representing the school in district-level decision-making (Fullan, 1993:47); stimulating the professional growth of colleagues (Wasley, 1991:78); being an advocate for teachers' work (Bascia, 1997:104); and

improving the school's decision-making process (Malen, Ogawa & Krantz, 1990:177). Those appointed to formal leadership roles are also sometimes expected to induct new educators into the school, and to influence positively, the willingness and capacity of other educators to implement change at the school (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991:120; Whitaker, 1995:411).

3.6.4 Deputy principals as facilitative leaders

A facilitative leader supports others in their participation, learning and achievement of their goals (Hoskins, 1995:54, 192). Conley and Goldman (1994: 45) define facilitative leadership as the behaviour that enhances the collective ability of a school to adapt, solve problems and improve performance. The key word here is "collective", the facilitative leader's role is to foster the involvement of educators at all levels. Several key strategies are used by deputy principals as facilitative leaders: overcoming resource constraints, building teams, providing feedback, coordination and conflict management, creating communication networks, practising collaborative politics and modelling the school's vision (Conley & Goldman, 1994:45). A deputy principal as facilitative leader needs the following steps to fulfil his/her responsibilities:

- Develop a vision and mission. A facilitative leader encourages all staff members to participate in developing a vision and a mission for dealing with the barriers to learning and development. A unanimous vision and mission unites staff members to work together in a coordinated way to accomplish the set goals (Hoskins, 1995:194).
- In order to formulate a strategy for addressing diverse learner needs, staff members need to explore their values and beliefs regarding special educational needs, disability and barriers to learning and development. A facilitative leader arranges opportunities for staff members to examine, share and develop their values and beliefs (Hoskins, 1995:194).
- Plan collaboratively. When staff members work together in the planning process, they take ownership of the envisioned results and therefore do what it takes to be successful. Moreover, the staff members are the people

working with the issues under discussion on a daily basis; therefore they are in the best position to know what is needed (Hoskins, 1995:194).

- A facilitative leader enables staff members to consider the implications of their decisions on the whole system, brings multiple viewpoints together and ensures that planning is consistent with their vision and their values (Hoskins, 1995:194, 196).
- Put policies and guidelines into practise. A facilitative leader supports staff members who are working with policies and guidelines. When policies and guidelines do not keep up with current innovative trends and practices, the facilitative leader must help staff members to stay within the guidelines, and also provide feedback to the policy developers so that they can make the necessary changes (Hoskins, 1995:196). The facilitative leader is also a change agent for his/her colleagues when they are faced with demands of new policy and are required to develop new practices. The facilitative leader should therefore have good knowledge of the current policies and guidelines, as well as the full process of putting policy into practice.
- Allocate resources. It often happens that a small number of learners facing particular barriers to learning and development require a large portion of the available resources. It is the responsibility of the deputy principal as a facilitative leader to overcome resource constraints (Conley & Goldman, 1994:450)

The facilitative leader facilitates the equitable distribution of the resources so that the needs of the majority do not supersede the needs of the few, but in such a way that each member of the centre of learning is ultimately supported according to his/her needs (Hoskins, 1995:197; Conley & Goldman, 1994:45).

- Problem-solving. The facilitative leader supports staff members in the processes of both shared and individual problem-solving (Hoskins, 1995:197). Problem-solving is a skill which can be learned and then applied in challenging situations. Problem-solving rests on a framework of positive attitudes and a willingness to grapple with difficulties which crop

up. In such situations, effective solutions produce a greater feeling of satisfaction among staff members (Conley & Goldman, 1994:46).

- Ownership of results. A leader is the one who when the job is done, gets the people believe: "We did it ourselves" (Hoskins, 1995:198). A facilitative leader facilitates participation and values contribution from members of the system. Through participation, contribution and sharing, staff members can accomplish the mission of the centre of learning and maintain their commitment to work together and realise further goals (Dunlap & Goldman, 1990:22).

3.6.5 Motivation by deputy principals

Leadership contributes to what makes people want to work, that is, motivation. Competency-based leaders do not overreact to negative behaviour, criticism and weakness of others. They are aware of them and realise that understanding behaviour is pervasive among good leaders (Keetan, 1996:5). The main way of judging others is by observing their behaviour and coming to conclusions. For instance, it is easy to make wrong assumptions when you do not know whether or not someone has acted internationally. Most of a person's behaviour is hidden beneath the surface.

No one knows exactly what is lurking in the ocean's depths. Hence, competency-based leaders believe in the unseen potential of all people (Covey, 1991:35)

A climate for growth and opportunity is created by listening but not telling, encouraging but not imposing, supporting but not defending, coaching but not instructing, delegating but not directing, and recognizing but not blaming (Pitt, 1995:25).

3.6.6 Delegation by deputy principals

Another important aspect of competency-based leadership is getting the best people to do the job.

- In team endeavours, competency-based leaders build on people's strengths and strive to complement people's weakness with the strength of others. This is done through delegation. Since the leader believes in the strength and capacities of others, he/she is able to integrate and effectively use a variety of resources, in the form of skills, to accomplish the objectives of the organization (Maddux, 1990:7). The leader must know what is expected of him or her, when it is expected, and how best to employ his/her human resources to obtain the desired results. This means that assigning work is a managerial activity which needs planning, leading, organization and control. Delegation should be based on individual skills:

The ability to use knowledge, methods and equipment acquired from experience and training to perform specific tasks;

- The ability and judgement to work with people, including an understanding of motivation and leadership (human skills); and
- The ability to understand the complexities of the overall organization and where one's own unit fits into the total picture.

Delegation is also best in conjunction with these communication processes:

- Explaining techniques and methods; and
- Eliminating obstacles from preconceptions, perceptions, criticism, lack of trust, fear of being disliked, lack of confidence and a know-it-all attitude.

The delegating person must always consider the background of individuals, their experience and circumstances, and the availability of resources and support system. The act of delegating involves decision-making about what to delegate, the appropriate person to perform the task, support to be given and the time frame of the task at hand. Decisions are made to select a course of action from alternatives (Bruwer & Cilliers, 1998:32).

3.7 BASIC MANAGEMENT TASKS OF THE DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

3.7.1 Definition of management

Management can be thought of as a function which is part of an organization's formal structure. According to Mullins (1996:398), management is regarded as:

- taking place within a structured organizational settings and with prescribed roles;
- directed towards the attainment of aims and objectives;
- achieved through the efforts of other people; and
- using systems and procedures.

According to Griffin (1993:4), there are many definitions of management which are relatively concise and simplistic. Management can be defined as knowing exactly what a deputy principal as a leader wants his subordinates to do, and then seeing that they do it in the best and the cheapest way. Deputy Principals need this skill to be able to handle change at their schools.

According to Griffin (1993:5), management us a set of activities (including planning and decision-making, organizing, leading and controlling) directed at an organization's resources (human, financial, physical, and information) with the aim of achieving organizational goals in an efficient and effective manner. A Deputy principal as a manager should ensure that a school's goals in relation to the change process are achieved in an efficient and effective manner. Griffin (1993:5) defines a manager as someone whose primary responsibility is to carry out the management process. A manager is someone who plans and makes decisions, organizes, leads and controls human, financial, physical and information resources that are affected by transformation and change in an institution.

It is through the process of management that the efforts of members of the organization are co-ordinated, directed and guided towards the achievement

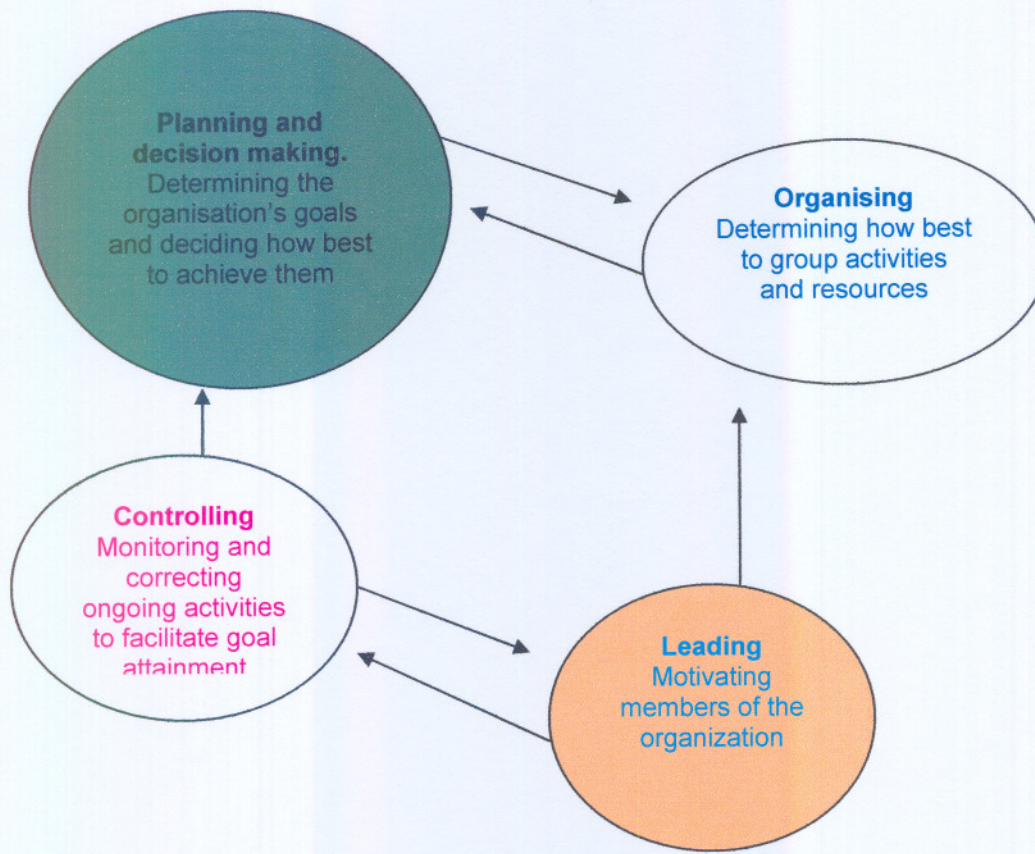
of organizational goals. Management is therefore the cornerstone of organizational effectiveness, and is concerned with arrangements for the carrying out of organizational process and the execution of work (Senior, 1997:189).

Management tasks that a deputy principal can apply to deal with change are divided into four basic categories, namely: planning, organizing, leading and controlling. According to Marx (in Van der Westhuizen, 1990:137; Bain, 1995:14; Griffin, 1993:8), the following will define these tasks:

- Planning is that intellectual act through which specific future activity is carefully considered with the aim of achieving certain goals.
- The initial step in planning is defining the goal which will provide the specific future direction to be taken.
- The specific policy adapted forms the frame of reference for the decision-making activity during which a choice must be made between two or more alternative courses of action in pursuit of the achievement of the defined goals.
- Planning is the management task which is concerned with deliberately reflecting on the objectives of the organization, the resources, the activities involved and drawing up the most suitable plan for effective achievement of these objectives.

The following diagram represents the management process that deputy principals could apply in order to manage the implementation of change at schools:

Figure 3.6: The management process (Griffin, 1990:9)



3.7.2 Definition of planning

Planning entails professional reflection on and strategy determination for the total plan of action and the ways in which the instruction-learning events are to take place. According to Griffin (1993:8), planning means setting a school's goals and deciding how best to achieve them. A deputy principal could use decision-making as part of a planning process to select a course of action from a set of alternatives. Planning and decision-making help maintain managerial effectiveness by serving as guides for future activities.

Planning addresses the answers to what is done, how and when it is done and by whom. Marx and Churr (1990:186) define planning as the management task concerned with deliberate reflection on the future objectives of an institution or one of its divisions, the resources and activities involved in reaching those to master the future. Through careful planning, set objectives

are realised. Planning is an integrated management task and in all the various tasks each has a planning element.

Planning tasks of the manager of the school includes the formulation of a policy which provides general guidelines for all the managerial activities in an organization. A policy is reviewed as follows (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:150):

- A policy is regarded as the general statements or guidelines for decision-making to guide those who are involved in implementing the execution of planning.
- A policy is those resources by means of which goals are interpreted and certain broad guidelines are laid down to serve as the basis for decision-making.
- It provides guidelines and allows the executor to make decisions within a certain framework.
- The policy provides the framework within which decisions are made, creating the need for various rules which must be adhered to in the decision-making activity.

However, planning also consists of the following three distinct functions which are intrinsic to planning.

3.7.3 Selection as part of planning

Deputy principals as second-in-command could also be involved in the selection process as part of planning.

Woods and colleagues (in Sehlare, 1993; 120) describe criterion for selection as a process of determining the professional staff from the available pool of applications.

This selection process is a vehicle whereby principals can hire a diverse faculty, a faculty reflecting beliefs, attitudes and backgrounds so as to address changes at schools

According to Sehlare (1993:132), a selection process further asserts that it becomes more important when one examines the correct rate of educator turnover. It assists in placing educators at the right post for relevant duties.

During a selection process, principals can engage in other activities influencing selection. They can prepare a job analysis and standards which candidates must meet to obtain teaching positions. These principals can work together with the committee to prepare procedures for selection (Cronje *et al.*, 1990:334).

3.7.4 Leading

The other basic management function is leading. Some people consider leading to be both the most important and the most challenging of all management activities a deputy principal could apply in dealing with change. According to Griffin (1993:10) leading is the set of processes used to get educators to work together to advance the interest of the school as an organization.

3.7.5 Controlling

Woods (in Sehlare, 1993:132) defines controlling as the process by which management sees that what did happen, is what was supposed to happen. If not, necessary adjustments are made. Planning is clearly a prerequisite for controlling. According to Griffin (1993:10), controlling means monitoring the organization's progress towards its goal.

Marx and Churr (1990:322) indicate that, in the case of directing, the emphasis falls on the initiation and continuation of the work, and in controlling, the work is already in operation and the emphasis falls on controlling the quality of the execution and the corrections which have to be made when the execution is not satisfactory.

Controlling is the management task by means of which the execution of plans and instructions is controlled and regulated in order to ensure that they are carried out in accordance with the prescribed plans and standards, and that

the objectives which have been formulated are indeed achieved (Marx & Churr, 1990:32).

Cronje *et al.*,(1990:119) share the same feeling and define control as the systematic attempt to set standards appropriate to the objectives of the organization; to observe actual achievements; to compare them with standards, and to take corrective measures to ensure that all the resources of the organization are used as effectively as possible to accomplish its mission and objectives. Cronje *et al.*,(1990:11 say that controlling is a continuous process, and it is intimately linked to planning, organizing and leading. It is the measurement and correction of the performance of activities of educators in order to make sure that all levels of objectives and plans devised to be attained are being accomplished.

Principals and deputy principals could use controlling which seeks to compel events to conform to plans so as to deal with change at schools.

In view of this, Congelosi (1990:24) argues that controlling and bringing about change at schools would be a problem for the new implementers. He urges that leaders (principals and deputy principals) should feel committed to guiding and directing the new implementers of change. Failure to do it, might lead to disaster in the teaching-learning environment.

However, sound planning also is not sufficient. Key qualities of an effective manager of change have been identified as can next be discussed.

3.8 MANAGERIAL TASKS OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN HANDLING CHANGE

According to Harvey-Jones (in Everard & Morris, 1990:242), the ability to create the future in the way that we wish is what differentiates the good manager from the bad. According to Everard and Morris (1990:242), deputy principals who are more successful than others at managing complex organizations in which major changes have to be implemented show that they tend to have a distinctive mix of knowledge, skills, personal attitudes and values and the capacity to orchestrate these, as they make a host of personal

decisions that lie at the heart of organization management. By the very nature of their competencies as educators, deputy principals are well endowed with some of the qualities that are required.

Other qualities, however, are more commonly found to flourish in a paragon who would possess all the requisite qualities in full measure. However, an understanding of the kind of deputy principal who is good at handling change is helpful both in selecting senior staff and project leaders and in assessing what qualities educators need to develop.

Before describing the key qualities that seem to be needed to implement change effectively, it is instructive to examine the characteristics that Peters and Waterman (in Everard & Morris, 1990:242-243) found in successful leaders: such leaders listened to their employees and treated them as adults. They saw that leadership, unlike naked power-wielding, was inseparable from followers' needs and goals. Caring ran in the veins of managers of the excellent schools. They did not allow intellect to overgrow wisdom. They set and demanded high standards of excellence. Managers had to combine visionary ideas at the highest level of abstraction with activities at the most mundane level of detail. Managers had the capacity to generate enthusiasm and excitement, to harness the social focus in the organization and to shape and guide its values (Everard & Morris, 1990:243).

Valerie Steward (in Everard & Morris, 1990:243) listed the following characteristics of leaders who are good at managing change:

- They know clearly what they want to achieve.
- They can translate desires into practical action.
- They can see proposed changes not only from their own viewpoint, but also from that of others.
- They show irrelevance for tradition, but respect for experience.
- They plan flexibly, matching constancy of ends against a repertoire of available means.

- They are not discouraged by setbacks.
- They harness circumstances to enable change to be implemented.
- They clearly explain change.
- They involve their staff in the management of change and protect their security.
- They don't pile one change on top of another, but await assimilation.
- They present change as a rational decision.
- They make change personally rewarding for people, wherever possible.
- They share maximum information about possible outcomes.
- They show that change is "related to the business".
- They have a history of successful change behind them.

Over and above all this, there is a definite need for communication between the leader and his/her team.

3.9 COMMUNICATION AS A WAY OF MANAGING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGE

The importance of leadership does not lessen once the change is underway. The implementation team and organization leaders at all levels need to keep the plans on track, continue to articulate the vision and reinforce new behaviour (Human Technology Inc, 1999:13-1). A deputy principal as a leader needs to ensure that the change being implemented is the best change for the school/organization and make course corrections if it is not. To effectively manage this process (implementation of change), the deputy principal should ensure proper communication. This is because communication is important throughout the change process and continues to be important in the implementation phase. Educators, unions and other stakeholders can serve as vital sources of information on how implementation of change is going.

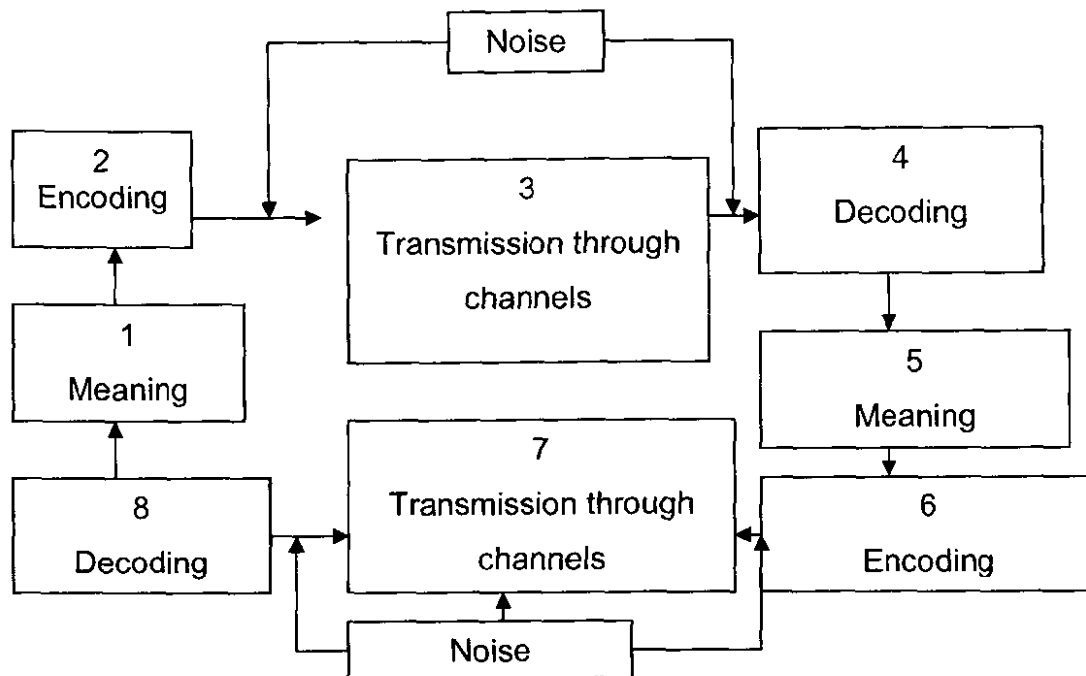
Communication ensures that all stakeholders are kept up-to date and informed on the status of the implementation plan and course corrections as they occur. According to Human Technology Inc (HTI) (1999:13-4) a deputy principal as a leader should provide opportunities for people to communicate with him/her. The deputy principal must be accessible to clear up confusion, answer questions, listen to complaints and hear ideas during a change process.

3.9.1 Definition of communication

Communication is the process of transmitting information from one person to another. Effective communication then is the process of sending a message in such a way that the message received is as close in meaning as possible to the message intended. Communication involves at least three conditions; firstly, two people must be involved, however the relationship between these two people can vary significantly in terms of proximity, intensity and time. Secondly there must be information to be communicated. Thirdly, some attempt must be made to transmit this information. The definition of effective communication incorporates the ideas of meaning and consistency of meaning.

The following figure details the communication strategy a deputy principal can use to cascade information to stakeholders about change at a school:

Figure 3.7: The communication process (Griffin, 1993:447)



Communication also relates directly to the basic management functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling. Henry Mintzberg (in Griffin, 1990:16) offers a number of interesting insights into the nature of managerial roles. Mintzberg then argues that managers play several different roles and that these roles fall into three basic categories: interpersonal, informational and decisional roles:

Interpersonal roles: There are three interpersonal roles inherent in the manager's job. Firstly, the manager is often asked to serve as a figurehead, taking visitors to dinner, attending ribbon-cutting ceremonies, and the like. The leader is also asked to serve as a leader; hiring, training, and motivating employees. A manager who formally or informally shows subordinates how to do things and how to perform under pressure is leading. Finally, managers can have a liaison role. This role often involves serving as a coordinator or link between people, between groups or between organizations (Griffin, 1990:16; 1993:444).

Informational roles: The manager plays this role at a strategic point to gather and disseminate information. Its first informational role is that of monitor. A

manager is also a disseminator of information, transmitting relevant information basic to others in the workplace. (Griffin, 1993:444; 1990:16). When these roles of monitor and disseminator are viewed together, the manager emerges as a vital link in the organization's chain of communication. A manager is also a spokesperson focusing on external communication.

Decisional roles: The manager has the role of entrepreneur, the voluntary initiator of change. The manager is also a negotiator. He enters into negotiations as a representative of the institution. Another role is that of resource allocator. In this role the manager decides who in the unit will be given what resources and who will have access to the manager's time (Griffin, 1990:18).

It is impossible for the manager to fulfil these roles without bringing his/her emotions into play.

3.10 THE EMOTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN DEALING WITH CHANGE

Teaching and learning are profoundly emotional activities a deputy principal is faced with at schools (Fried, 1995:10). If deputy principals as educational reformers ignore the emotional dimensions of educational change, emotions and feelings will only re-enter the change process by the back door (Hargreaves, 1997:108)

When change is effected at schools, the emotions of leadership, their provocation, origins, qualities and some of their effects on the working lives of educational leaders (principals and deputy principals) and the educators should be considered (Beatty, 1999:1). It is during change that educators, heads of departments and deputy principals will communicate their emotional experiences of educational leadership.

Change can cause loss of grief. The emotions of mourning and bereavement are involved (Evans, 1996:28; Nias, 1992:48). Under school reform initiatives, principals and deputy principals are experiencing change and loss as well as gains when, as a deputy principal, you are forced to implement change that is

contrary to your own ideals. What you lose is your very purpose: literally bringing out demoralisation (Hargreaves, 1998:65).

3.11 SUMMARY

Chapter 3 has concentrated on the leadership and management task of the deputy principal at school. It outlined the roles and responsibilities to be carried by the deputy principal in dealing with change at schools, defining in detail how to lead and manage the school in times of change. The chapter details the subsequent change in performance of stakeholders in education, schools' commitment and culture, putting emphasis on how deputy principals as managers influence performance at schools during change. This chapter has also focused on the leadership skills for deputy principals to manage change at schools and vital aspects of leadership models.

Chapter 4 will focus on the empirical research to be undertaken by the researcher. The aim of the empirical research is to look at a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the design of the empirical research regarding the management programme in assisting deputy principals in dealing with change at schools in the Sedibeng West District in Gauteng.

4.2 THE AIM OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The empirical research aims to gather information about the understanding of the existing practices regarding the management programme in dealing with change at schools in Sedibeng West District in Gauteng.

The research aim in Chapter 4 was (see 1.3):

- To present an overview of the importance and effect of change at school.
- To suggest a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools.
- To do empirical research among deputy principals and educators regarding their performance in change management at school level
- To determine the management and leadership role of deputy principals

4.3 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

For the purpose of this research a structured questionnaire was selected as the research tool. The rationale for the use of the structured questionnaire will be presented.

4.3.1 The questionnaire as a research tool

A questionnaire is a self-report instrument used for gathering information about variables of interest to the researcher and consists of questions or items

that a respondent reads and answers (Best & Kahn, 1993:230; Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996:288). According to Tuckman (1994:216), a survey questionnaire is a tool used in the collection of research data and is ultimately dependent on the purpose of the study. Questionnaires are used by researchers to convert information given directly by people into data. In this sense the questionnaire is appropriate to gather data for this research in that it would elicit factual data about the management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools.

The suitability of the questionnaire in this research is based on the fact that the respondents are educators and deputy principals who are directly involved in teaching and learning. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (1990:336), the questionnaire has both advantages and disadvantages.

The use of the questionnaire in educational research can be very valuable if carefully planned and developed (Gall *et al.*, 1996; Mouton, 2001:99-108; Coleman & Briggs, 2002:159-171). In this research, a questionnaire survey was used for the following reasons (Gall *et al.*, 1996:289, Neuman, 1997:233):

- The sample schools are situated in the vicinity of the researcher. It was easy to deliver the questionnaires to the respondents
- The time factor also played a role in getting the completed questionnaires back from the sample schools.

4.3.1.1 The advantages of the questionnaire

The following are some of the advantages of the questionnaire as used in this research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990:421; Best & Kahn, 1993:230; Tuckman, 1994:216):

- It can be distributed to respondents with financial and time cost effectiveness and has a wide coverage.
- It reaches people who would be difficult to reach, thus obtaining a broad spectrum of views.

- Since the questions are phrased identically, the questionnaire allows for uniformity and elicits more comparable data.
- Anonymity of respondents is assured since respondents are not required to expose their identities, addresses and institutions.
- It is relatively easy to plan, construct and administer.
- Anybody can administer it on behalf of the researcher.
- Respondents can answer the questionnaire without pressure for immediate response.
- The influence that an interviewer might have on the respondents is obviated.

Processing is made easy by the questionnaire being well constructed.

- Due to its impersonal nature, the questionnaire may elicit more candid and objective, thus more valid responses.
- The questionnaire enhances progress in many areas of educational research and brings to light much information, which would otherwise be lost.

4.3.1.2 Disadvantages of a questionnaire

According to Fraenkel & Wallen (1990:336), Best & Kahn (1993:230) and Tuckman (1994:216), questionnaires have the following disadvantages:

- Questionnaires might be interpreted and understood differently by respondents.
- As the motivation of the respondents is difficult to check, misleading responses might be received.
- It is difficult to determine who really completed the questionnaire.

- A low response rate is the biggest disadvantage of the questionnaire and may lead to misleading results.
- Respondents may be unwilling to respond to questions on private matters or controversial issues and may consequently provide what they regard as desirable responses.
- The length of the questionnaire may lead to careless or inaccurate responses and may result in low return rates.
- Questionnaires that do not probe deep enough do not reveal a true picture of opinions and feelings.
- Respondents might have little interest in a particular problem and therefore might answer the questionnaire indiscriminately.

Wolf (1997:422) states that careful and sensitive developmental work will help to identify and make full provision for the limitations of questionnaires. The researcher must be satisfied that the questions are stated with sufficient clarity to function in the impersonal interaction and must maximize the likelihood that a respondent will answer the questions and return the questionnaire (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990:422-424, Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996:294).

4.3.2 The design of the questionnaire

4.3.2.1 Preparing the questionnaire

The design of a questionnaire must be well organized by a thorough process. A well-designed and administered questionnaire can serve as an appropriate and useful data-gathering device and can increase the reliability and validity of the data. As suggested by Ary *et al.*, (1990:422-423) and Gall *et al.*, (1996:294), the following factors were considered in the preparation of this questionnaire:

- The questionnaire should reflect scholarship so as to elicit high returns.

- The questionnaire should be as brief as possible so that answering it requires a minimum of the respondents' time.
- The questionnaire should not include unnecessary items.
- Questionnaire items should be phrased in a manner which is understandable by all respondents.
- Items in the questionnaire should be phrased in a way that will elicit unambiguous responses. Words such as "often" and "sometimes" should be avoided.
- Items should be phrased in such a manner that it avoids bias or prejudice that might predetermine respondents' answers.
- Alternatives to questions should be exhaustive.
- Questions that might elicit embarrassment, suspicion or hostility in the respondents should be avoided.
- Questions should be arranged in the correct psychological order. If both general and specific questions are included, the general should precede the specific,
- The questionnaire should be attractive, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated or printed.
- Questions should allow for respondents to review their own relevant experiences in order to arrive at accurate and complete responses.
- Questions should communicate necessary rules about the process of answering so as to reduce complexities.

4.3.2.2 Construction of the questionnaire items

Questionnaire items must be constructed carefully in order to measure a specific aspect of the study's objectives or hypothesis. The construction of the

questionnaire items in this study was done carefully (*cf.* 1.4.3). The aim of the empirical research was taken into consideration.

A total of 91 questions were used in the questionnaire (Appendix A). The literature study was used to construct items relating to the following:

- Personal and general information (Section A)
- Change management skills of deputy principals (Section B)
- Work experience of deputy principals (Section C)
- Competencies of deputy principals (Section D)

Section A requires general information regarding the respondents. Section B was constructed in such a way as to elicit responses that would give an indication of the respondents' understanding of management programmes in assisting deputy principals in dealing with change at schools.

The ranking scale used in section B required respondents to indicate their skills in understanding change management on a four point scale (1=never, 2=sometimes, 3=most of the time, 4=always). Section B is further divided into four categories, which are: preparing for change, planning changes, implementing changes, sustaining changes.

Section C requires the respondents to indicate their practices and work experiences as deputy principals. The ranking scale ranges from 1 to 5 points (1=agree strongly, 2=agree, 3=not sure, 4=disagree, 5=disagree strongly).

Section D was constructed in a way to elicit information on schools as organizations. The ranking scale required respondents to indicate their practices and experiences on a five point scale (1=never, 2= hardly ever, 3=not sure, 4=sometimes, 5=always).

4.3.2.3 The questionnaire format

According to Ary *et al.*, (1990:429), the questionnaire items and the covering letter are the main source of information that the respondent will refer to in

deciding whether or not to complete the questionnaire. The following rules of questionnaire formatting must be adhered to:

- The questionnaire must be made attractive.
- Questions should be laid out or organized in such a way that the questionnaire is easy to complete.
- Questions should display a natural ordering or flow so that they keep the respondents moving towards completion.
- Questionnaire items and pages must be numbered.
- Brief, clear and bold-typed printed instructions should be included.
- The questionnaire should start with a few interesting and non-threatening items.
- Questionnaires should not be too long and should include enough information so that items are interesting to the respondents.

4.3.2.4 Pilot study

In addition to the preliminary check made on the questions in order to locate ambiguities, it is desirable to carry out a pre-test of the questionnaire before using it in the research. For the pre-test, a sample of individuals from a population similar to that of the research subjects should be selected. The pre-test form should provide space for respondents to comment about the questionnaire itself in order to indicate whether some questions seem ambiguous and to indicate other aspects that can lead to improving the questionnaire (Tuckman, 1994:235).

The questionnaire was submitted to the researcher's promoter for her scrutiny and comments. Thereafter, the questionnaire was piloted to a sample of thirty principals (n=30) from both primary and secondary schools (n=94) in Sedibeng West District (D8). The sample group was drawn from the intended target population. The pilot group was requested to comment on the

questionnaire in terms of length, unclear or ambiguous questions and any further suggestions as advised by (Ary *et al.*, 1990:42).

4.3.2.5 Questionnaire distribution

The final questionnaire was then distributed. The front part of the questionnaire contains instructions aimed at orientating the respondents to the questionnaire and assuring them of confidentiality and anonymity.

The researcher distributed the questionnaires to schools, ensured a high return rate and exercised control over the time for returning them. With all the above as background, the specific respondents in this research can now be identified.

4.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The study involved a sample of primary and secondary schools (n=94) in Sedibeng West District (D8) in Gauteng.

4.4.1 The response rate

According to the literature (Ary *et al.*, 1990:453; De Vos *et al.*, 2002:172), a response rate of between 60% and 70% provides enough data to draw valid and reliable conclusions. Generalizations from the research can then be made to the whole study population. Questionnaires totalling 564 in number were distributed to the schools and 539 were returned (*cf.* 1.4.4). This response rate is therefore adequate to draw meaningful conclusions for the study population

Table 4.1: Sample population

| Questionnaires distributed | Questionnaires returned | Questionnaires not returned | Percentage (%) Returned |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 564 | 369 | 195 | 65.4 |

4.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The Statistical Consultant Services of the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) assisted with the capturing of the data from the returned questionnaires and the descriptive statistics.

4.5.1 Data analysis

The analysis of the statistical data comprises a discussion on the responses of the educators and deputy principals.

4.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research design for the quantitative research was presented. In the quantitative research, a questionnaire was developed to gather data from the sample population. A pilot study was undertaken to pre-test and finalize the questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed to the study population and the completed questionnaire was analysed statistically.

In the next chapter, the research data will be analysed and interpreted.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of chapter 5 was analyzing and interpreting quantitative data (*cf.* 1.3). The target population of the empirical survey was the educators and deputy principals from both selected primary and secondary schools in Sedibeng West District (D8). The purpose of the empirical survey was to collect enough data in order to develop a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools

5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

The quantitative phase of research provides for biographical data of the school educators and deputy principals. The aim of the items in this section (*cf.* Section A of the questionnaire, items 1-6) was to gather information which could possibly be utilized when interpreting data.

5.2.1 Biographical data of educators and deputy principals

Table 5.1: Biographical data of educators and deputy principals

| Item | | Biographical data | f (frequency) | % |
|------|-----|-------------------|------------------|-------|
| 1 | Age | 25-34 | 77 | 20,87 |
| | | 35-44 | 203 | 55,01 |
| | | 45-54 | 63 | 17,07 |
| | | 55-60 | 15 | 4,07 |
| | | 61-65 | 2 | 0,54 |
| | | | 9 | 2,44 |
| | | Total | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|----------------------|------------|------------|
| 2 | Gender | Male | 143 | 38,75 |
| | | Female | 218 | 59,08 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2,17 |
| | | Total | 369 | 100 |
| 3 | Position you hold at school | Principal | 18 | 4,88 |
| | | Deputy Principal | 14 | 3,79 |
| | | H.O.D | 48 | 13,01 |
| | | PL1 Educator | 277 | 75,07 |
| | | Missing | 12 | 3,25 |
| | | Total | 369 | 100 |
| 4 | Highest Qualification Level | Technical Diploma | 8 | 2,17 |
| | | Diploma in Education | 223 | 60,60 |
| | | Degree | 88 | 23,91 |
| | | Honors Degree | 38 | 9,78 |
| | | Masters Degree | 8 | 2,17 |
| | | PhD or D Ed | 5 | 1,36 |
| 5 | REQV | A + B = M + 2 | 2 | 0,54 |
| | | C = M + 3 | 144 | 39,13 |
| | | D = M + 4 | 128 | 34,78 |
| | | E = M + 5 | 45 | 12,23 |
| | | F = M + 6 | 16 | 7,34 |
| | | G = M + 7 | 33 | 0,31 |
| 6 | Home Language | English | 6 | 1,83 |
| | | Afrikaans | 30 | 9,17 |
| | | Sesotho | 241 | 73,70 |
| | | Setswana | 25 | 7,65 |
| | | Sepedi | 24 | 7,34 |
| | | Tshivenda | 1 | 0,31 |
| | | | Total | 327 |

5.2.1.1 Age

In table 5.1, most of the respondents (55,01%) are aged between 35-44 years. 20,87% are respondents aged between 25-34 years, 17,07% are respondents aged between 45-54 years, while 4,07 and 0,54% are

respondents possible retirement age between 55-60 and 61-65 respectively (*cf.* Section A, item 1).

This is gratifying, because the respondents are therefore mostly educators with experience of the situation.

5.2.1.2 Gender

In table 5.1, most of the respondents (59.08%) are women. Only 38, 75% of the respondents from both primary and secondary schools are male (*cf.* Section A, item 2). In the teaching fraternity, most educators are women and very few are men, so no outcome was expected.

5.2.1.3 Position educators hold

Most of the respondents (75, 07%) are PL1 educators from both primary and secondary schools in Sedibeng West District (D8). The Heads of Departments (H.O.Ds) make up only 13, 1% of the respondents. 3, 79% of the respondents are deputy principals and 4, 88% are the principals of the selected schools in the district (*cf.* Section A, item 3).

This is important, as the research will highlight subordinate educators' views of deputy principals' roles in change management.

5.2.1.4 Highest qualification

Most of the respondents (60, 60%) have a Diploma in Education as their highest qualification. Only 23, 91% of the respondents are university graduates, and 9, 78% have an Honours Degree (*cf.* Section A, item 4).

Although this situation is disappointing as such, there is no reason why it should devalue the outcome of the research.

5.2.1.5 REQV

Most of the respondents (39, 13%) fall within M+3, a category C. 34, 78% of the respondents are within the bracket of M+4, which is category D. 0, 54% are those educators who fall in the lowest category (A or B, M+2) with the

lowest qualifications. 12, 23% and 7, 34% of the respondents are in category E=M+5 and F=M+6 respectively. Very few respondents (0, 31%) hold higher qualifications (G=M+7) (see Section A, item 5). Although most of the respondents fall within category C, it does not mean that they do not have experience in relation to how deputy principals deal with change management at school.

5.2.1.6 Home language

In table 5.1 it is clear that most of the respondents (73, 70%) use Sesotho as their home language. 9, 17% of the respondents indicate Afrikaans as their home language. 1, 83% indicate English, 7, 65% Setswana and 7, 34% Sepedi. Tshivenda is only 0, 31% of the respondents (*cf.* Section A, item 6).

There is no reason to fear that this situation will prevent the respondents from interpreting the questionnaire correctly.

5.3 SECTION B: CHANGE MANAGEMENT SKILLS

5.3.1 Preparing for change

Table 5.2: Data on change management skills

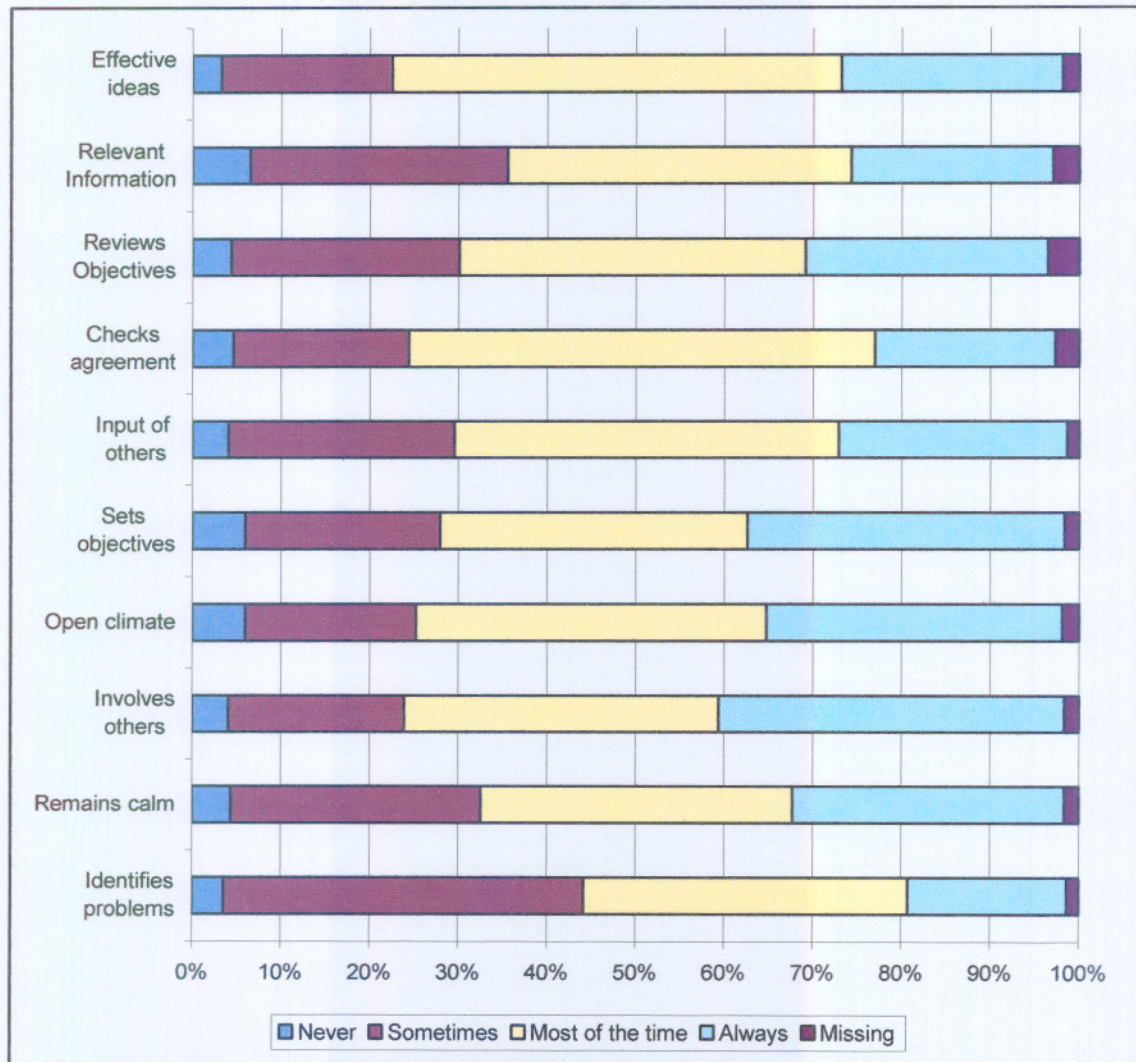
| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|------------------------------------|------------------|------------|------------|
| 1.1 | Identifies problems systematically | Never | 13 | 3,52 |
| | | Sometimes | 150 | 40,65 |
| | | Most of the time | 135 | 36,59 |
| | | Always | 66 | 17,89 |
| | | Missing | 5 | 1,36 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.2 | Remains calm under pressure | Never | 16 | 4,34 |
| | | Sometimes | 104 | 28,18 |
| | | Most of the time | 130 | 35,23 |
| | | Always | 113 | 30,62 |
| | | Missing | 6 | 1,63 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-----|---|------------------|------------|------------|
| 1.3 | Involves others when appropriate | Never | 15 | 4,07 |
| | | Sometimes | 73 | 19,78 |
| | | Most of the time | 131 | 35,50 |
| | | Always | 144 | 39,02 |
| | | Missing | 6 | 1.63 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.4 | Builds on an open climate for decision-making | Never | 22 | 5,96 |
| | | Sometimes | 71 | 19,24 |
| | | Most of the time | 146 | 39,57 |
| | | Always | 123 | 33,33 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.5 | Sets objectives | Never | 22 | 5.96 |
| | | Sometimes | 81 | 21.95 |
| | | Most of the time | 128 | 34.69 |
| | | Always | 132 | 35.77 |
| | | Missing | 6 | 1.63 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.6 | Draws on the input of others | Never | 15 | 4.07 |
| | | Sometimes | 94 | 25.47 |
| | | Most of the time | 160 | 43.36 |
| | | Always | 95 | 25.75 |
| | | Missing | 5 | 1.36 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.7 | Checks for agreement | Never | 17 | 4.61 |
| | | Sometimes | 73 | 19.78 |
| | | Most of the time | 194 | 52.57 |
| | | Always | 75 | 20.33 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|------|--|------------------|------------|------------|
| 1.8 | Reviews objectives carefully | Never | 16 | 4.34 |
| | | Sometimes | 95 | 25.75 |
| | | Most of the time | 144 | 39.02 |
| | | Always | 101 | 27.37 |
| | | Missing | 13 | 3.52 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.9 | Finds all information relevant to a decision | Never | 24 | 6.50 |
| | | Sometimes | 107 | 29.00 |
| | | Most of the time | 143 | 38.75 |
| | | Always | 84 | 22.76 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 1.10 | Prepares ideas effectively | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Sometimes | 71 | 19.24 |
| | | Most of the time | 187 | 50.68 |
| | | Always | 92 | 24.93 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

These results can be presented graphically as follows:+

Figure 5.1: Preparing for change



5.3.1.1 Identifies problems systematically

In table 5.2, most of the respondents (40, 65%) indicate that the deputy principal sometimes identifies problems systematically. About 36.59% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal identifies problems most of the time. 17.09% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal always identifies problems systematically, while 3.52% disagree with the statement.

In preparing, planning, implementing and sustaining of change at schools, deputy principals will have to think systematically and within the context of school dynamics and transformation (cf.2.2). Deputy Principals should be

able to identify problems that will emerge in the process, because managing change is all about taking risk (*cf.* par. 3.2, Chapter 2 and Figure 2.9).

5.3.1.2 Remains calm under pressure

Respondents (35.23%) confirm that the deputy principal remains calm under pressure most of the time in order to address issues relating to change at schools (*cf.* par. 3.10). 30.62% indicate that he/she always remains calm, 28.18% indicate that the deputy principal sometimes remains calm, and 4.34% of the respondents indicate that he/she does not cope with pressure at work at all. As this issue is of vital importance in change management, deputy principals need urgent guidance in this connection.

5.3.1.3 Involves others when appropriate

39.02% of the respondents define the deputy principal as someone who always involves his/her subordinates when it is necessary to do so. 35.50% of the respondents indicated that educators are involved in the decision-making and implementation process most of the time, 19.78% say that the other educators are involved sometimes and only 4.07% disagree and indicate that there is no involvement of others during a change process.

In leading change (*cf.* Table 2.1), deputy principals need to audit skills of other stakeholders within the school in order that the school be ready to accommodate change. Involvement of other stakeholders is important in a school to shift from current state to transition and an improved state. It improves their commitment when changing systems and structures are fairly communicated to them. Proper communication ensures optimal teamwork (*cf.* 2.13.6.3; 2.13.6.4).

5.3.1.4 Builds on an open climate for decision-making

In table 5.2, 39.57% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal builds on an open climate for decision-making most of the time(*cf.*2.2), while 33.33% agree that the action is a;ways practised at the school. 19.24% indicate that decision-making was sometimes built on an open climate (*cf.* par. 2.2). 5, 96%

admit that this is never done. It is gratifying to know that there is mostly an open climate, but care should be taken to improve on this issue.

5.3.1.5 Sets objectives

In table 5.2, it appears that 35.77% of the respondents show that the deputy principal is committed to set objectives for the smooth planning and implementation of change at school. 34.69% sees the action as not being consistent, but happening most of the time. 21.95% indicate that the deputy principal sometimes sets objectives, and 5.96% indicate that this is never done.

It is disconcerting that the percentages for "sometimes" and "never" are so high. This situation calls for urgent rectification.

5.3.1.6 Draws on the input of others

43.36% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal will utilize the input of others in preparation for change most of the time (*cf.* par.2.2; 2.17.1; 2.17.2; 2.17.3). 25.75% confirm that the deputy principal always does this, while 25.47% of the respondents indicate that it happens sometimes. Only 4.07% disagree and mention that he/she will never consider using the inputs of his/her colleagues to address issues of change.

In the light of what has previously been discussed, this augurs well for peaceful change initiatives.

5.3.1.7 Checks for agreement

52.57% of the respondents declare that the deputy principal checks for agreement most of the time during preparation and implementation of change. 20.33% of the respondents indicate that he/she always consults, while 19.70% shows that it is done sometimes. Only 4.61% of the respondents indicated that the deputy principal never consults or checks for agreement in preparation for change. This situation allows the deputy principals to be on par with activities as he/she always review agreements made with his/her subordinates.

5.3.1.8 Reviews objectives carefully

39.02% of the respondents show that the deputy principal tries to review objectives most of the time and 27.37% agree that they will always revisit the objectives to prepare for change. 25.75% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal sometimes reviews objectives, and only 4.34% disagree and elucidate that he/she never rechecks, revisits and reviews objectives to prepare carefully for the change process. This low percentage of respondents (4.34%) confirms that deputy principals are committed to change as they review objectives most of the time.

5.3.1.9 Finds all information relevant to a decision

The respondents (38.75%) indicate that the deputy principal will most of the time finds all information relevant to making a decision about change at school. 29.00% of the respondents finds that it is done sometimes, and about 22.76% of them indicate that he/she always tries to gather all information relevant to making a decision in preparing for change, while only 6.50% see it differently as that the deputy principal never collects data to effect change at school. It is gratifying to know that, on the whole, decisions are based on the relevant information.

5.3.1.10 Prepares ideas effectively

In table 5.2, it is obvious that 50.68% of the respondents agree on the fact that the deputy principal embarks on effective preparation of ideas to deal with change at school most of the time. 24.93% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal always does so, while 19.24% indicate that it is sometimes done. Only 3.25% of the respondents argue that the deputy principal never prepares ideas for effective preparation for change. This result augurs well for effective management.

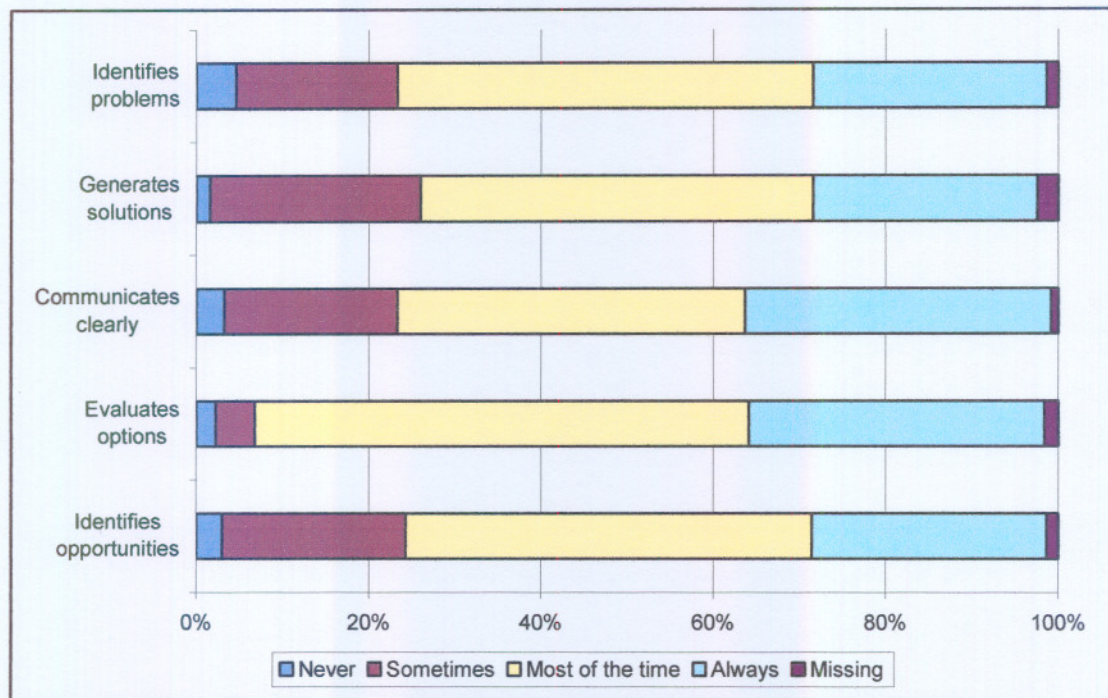
5.3.2 Planning for change

Table 5.3: The role of the deputy principal in planning for change

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|---|------------------|------------|------------|
| 2.1 | Identifies opportunities and solutions | Never | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Sometimes | 78 | 21.14 |
| | | Most of the time | 173 | 47.43 |
| | | Always | 100 | 27.10 |
| | | Missing | 5 | 1.36 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 2.2 | Evaluates options carefully | Never | 7 | 1.90 |
| | | Sometimes | 14 | 20.05 |
| | | Most of the time | 177 | 47.97 |
| | | Always | 106 | 28.73 |
| | | Missing | 5 | 1.36 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 2.3 | Communicates information and views clearly | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Sometimes | 74 | 20.05 |
| | | Most of the time | 149 | 40.38 |
| | | Always | 131 | 35.50 |
| | | Missing | 3 | 0.81 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 2.4 | Generates imaginative solutions to problems | Never | 6 | 1.63 |
| | | Sometimes | 90 | 24.39 |
| | | Most of the time | 168 | 48/53 |
| | | Always | 96 | 26.02 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 2.5 | Identifies problems concerning implementation | Never | 17 | 4.61 |
| | | Sometimes | 69 | 18.70 |
| | | Most of the time | 178 | 48.24 |
| | | Always | 100 | 27.10 |
| | | Missing | 5 | 1.36 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

These results can be presented graphically as follows:

Figure 5.2: Planning for change



5.3.2.1 Identifies opportunities and solutions

47.43% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal at school identifies opportunities and solutions to educators in order to plan for change (cf. 2.13.1 and 2.13.2). 27.10% indicate that he/she always does so. 21.14% of the respondents consider the deputy principal as someone who sometimes assists in the planning of change at school, while 1.90% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal never identifies opportunities and will never provides solutions to deal with change at school. It is gratifying to know that less than 3% of the deputy principals fall in this important category.

5.3.2.2 Evaluates options carefully

In table 5.3 it is clear that most of the respondents (47.97%) are of the opinion that when change is effected, the deputy principal will evaluate options to cater for its implementation (cf. 2.13.1). 28.73% find that options are always evaluated in planning for change, 20.05% of the respondents are somewhat doubtful and indicate that options are sometimes considered. Only 1.90% of the respondents portrait the deputy principal as a leader or manager who

never evaluates options in planning for change (*cf.* 2.16 and 2.20). This situation should improve as it is vitally important that options should always be evaluated carefully.

5.3.2.3 Communicates information and views clearly

In relation to communication of information during the process of planning, it is elucidated in table 5.3 by 40.38% of the respondents that the deputy principal will communicate information to stakeholders most of the time when planning for change (*cf.* 2.13.2; 3.9; 3.9.1). Furthermore, it is pointed out by 35.50% respondents that communication of information and views about change is clearly done, while 20.05% indicate that views and information are sometimes cascaded down to stakeholders. 3.25% of the respondents maintain that information is never communicated during a change process (*cf.* 3.4.3.3 and 3.9.1). There should be no negative attitude towards communicating information and views clearly.

5.3.2.4 Generates imaginative solutions to problems

45.53% the respondents elucidate those imaginative solutions to problems relating to change are actually generated most of the time, while 26.02% of the respondents portray the deputy principal as a manager who always generates imaginative solutions. 24.39% indicate that the deputy principal sometimes does so, and 1.63% of the respondents indicate that imaginative solutions to problems are never generated (*cf.* 2.19.7). It is gratifying to know that so many deputy principals are mostly imaginative in their problem-solving.

5.3.2.5 Identifies problems concerning implementation of change

Implementation of change at schools seems to be a problem. 48.24% of the respondents indicate that deputy principals will identify problems which inhibit the implementation process most of the time, while 27.10% strongly emphasize the fact that problems concerning implementation are always identified (*cf.* 3.6.4; 3.4.9.2 and 3.4.9.4). 18.70% of the respondents elucidate the fact that identification of problems is sometimes practised at school, while 4.61% indicate that problems are never identified. The outcome of this aspect

is very encouraging, but all deputy principals should always be capable of identifying problems concerning the implementation of change.

5.3.3 Implementing change

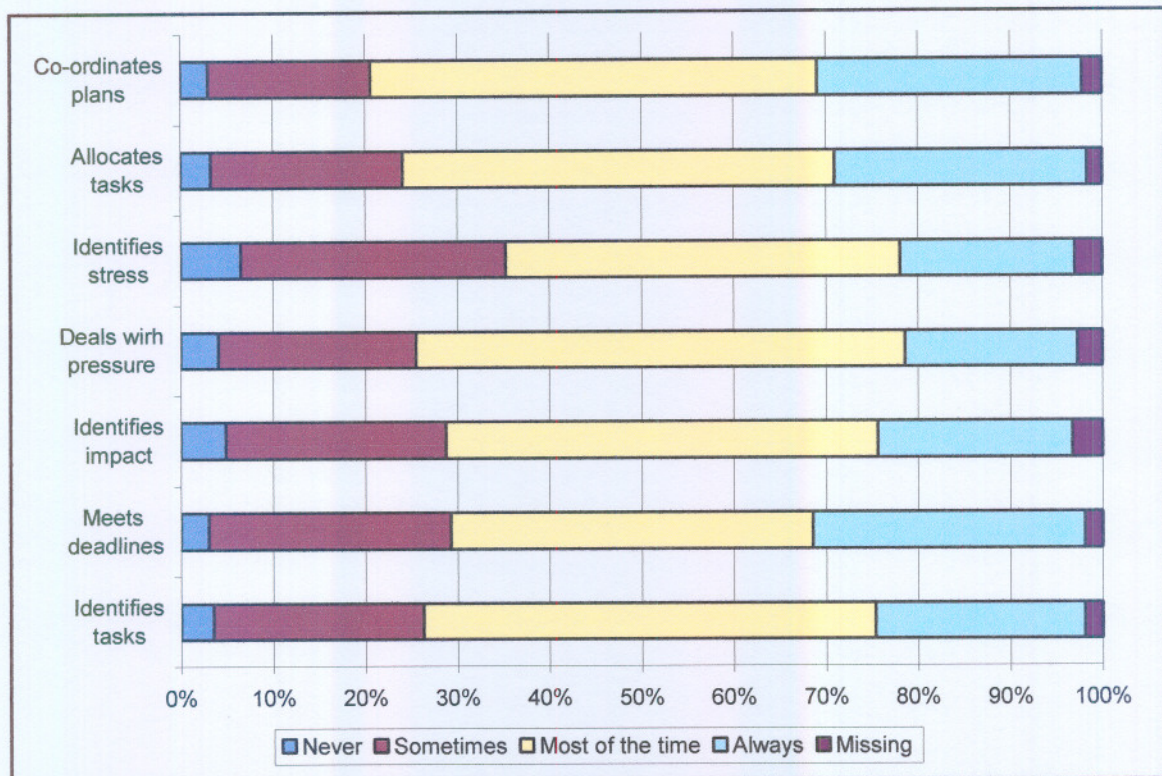
Table 5.4: Implementation of change

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|-------------|---|------------------|------------|------------|
| 3.1 | Identifies what needs to be done to achieve a plan for change | Never | 13 | 3.25 |
| | | Sometimes | 84 | 22.76 |
| | | Most of the time | 181 | 49.05 |
| | | Always | 84 | 22.76 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 3.2 | Meets deadline | Never | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Sometimes | 97 | 26.29 |
| | | Most of the time | 145 | 39.30 |
| | | Always | 109 | 29.54 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 3.3 | Identifies the impact of change on people | Never | 18 | 4.88 |
| | | Sometimes | 88 | 23.85 |
| | | Most of the time | 173 | 46.88 |
| | | Always | 78 | 21.14 |
| | | Missing | 12 | 3.25 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 3.4 | Deals with impact of pressure | Never | 15 | 4.07 |
| | | Sometimes | 79 | 21.41 |
| | | Most of the time | 196 | 53.12 |
| | | Always | 69 | 18.70 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 3.5 | Identifies the impact of stress on others | Never | 24 | 6.50 |
| | | Sometimes | 106 | 28.73 |
| | | Most of the time | 158 | 42.82 |
| | | Always | 70 | 18.97 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-----|--|------------------|-----|-------|
| 3.6 | Allocates tasks sensibly | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Sometimes | 76 | 20.60 |
| | | Most of the time | 171 | 46.34 |
| | | Always | 100 | 27.10 |
| | | Missing | 6 | 2.71 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 3.7 | Co-ordinates plans and actions effectively | Never | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Sometimes | 65 | 17.62 |
| | | Most of the time | 179 | 48.51 |
| | | Always | 106 | 28.73 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

These results can be presented graphically as follows:

Figure 5.3: Implementation of change



5.3.3.1 Identification of needs to achieve a plan for change

In table 5.4, most of the respondents (49.05%) state that a plan for change is identified most of the time. 22.76% of the respondents' state that occurs sometimes and another 22.76% that it occurs. Only 3.25% indicate that the

identification is done. This augurs well for a sound foundation in the planning of the required change.

5.3.3.2 Meets deadline

It is stated in table 5.4 that the deputy principal meets the deadline in dealing with change most of the time, as indicated by most of the respondents (39.30%). This is confirmed by 29.54% of the respondents who state that the deputy principal always meets this deadline. 26.29% of the respondents indicate that the deadline is sometimes met, and only 2.98% stress the fact that deadline is never met. This is another gratifying indication in the furtherance of effective change.

5.3.3.3 Identifies the impact on people

According to this response, 46.88% of the respondents indicate that the impact of change on people is identified by the deputy principals most of the time. 23.85% state that the impact of change is sometimes identified, and 21.14% stress the fact that the impact is always identified so as to align the attitudes of educators at school. Only 4.88% of the respondents indicate that the impact of change is never identified by the deputy principal as manager of change at school. This augurs well for the strategic management of change.

5.3.3.4 Deals with impact of pressure

According to 53.12%, of the respondents the deputy principal deals with the impact of pressure on educators most of the time (*cf.* 3.10). 21.41% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal would sometimes work at the impact of pressure to assist the educators in dealing with challenges of change at school. 18.70% of the respondents stated that the deputy principal will always deal with the impact of change on people, and only 4.07% indicated that the impact of pressure was never dealt with (*cf.* 2.13.6.8; 2.15; 2.19.1 and 2.19.2). This is also favourable for the strategic management of change.

5.3.3.5 Identifies the impact of stress on others

In table 5.4, 42.82% of the respondents indicate that the impact which stress would have on the stakeholders is identified by the deputy principal. 28.73% state that the deputy principal would sometimes identify its impact on others, while 18.97% say that the impact of stress is always identified. Only 6.50% of the respondents indicate that the impact of stress on others is never accommodated. It is alarming to realise that so many people experience stress that goes unattended to.

5.3.3.6 Allocates tasks sensibly

According to 46.34% of the respondents, tasks are been allocated sensibly most of the time (*cf.* 2.15.1). 27.10% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal has always allocated duties to educators sensibly, while 20.60% indicate that tasks are sometimes allocated. 3.25% stated that they were never allocated to others. This is not good enough. Care should be taken that tasks will always be allocated sensibly.

5.3.3.7 Co-ordinates plans and actions effectively

Concerning the effective co-ordination of plans and actions to deal with change, 48.51% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal does so most of the time. 28.73% of the respondents indicate that plans and actions are always coordinatedeffectively, while 17.62% are of the opinion that this is sometimes done. 2.98% indicate that plans and actions are never coordinated successfully. This does not augur well for effective change management. It calls for programme that can coerce all deputy principals into rectifying this situation.

5.3.4 Sustaining change

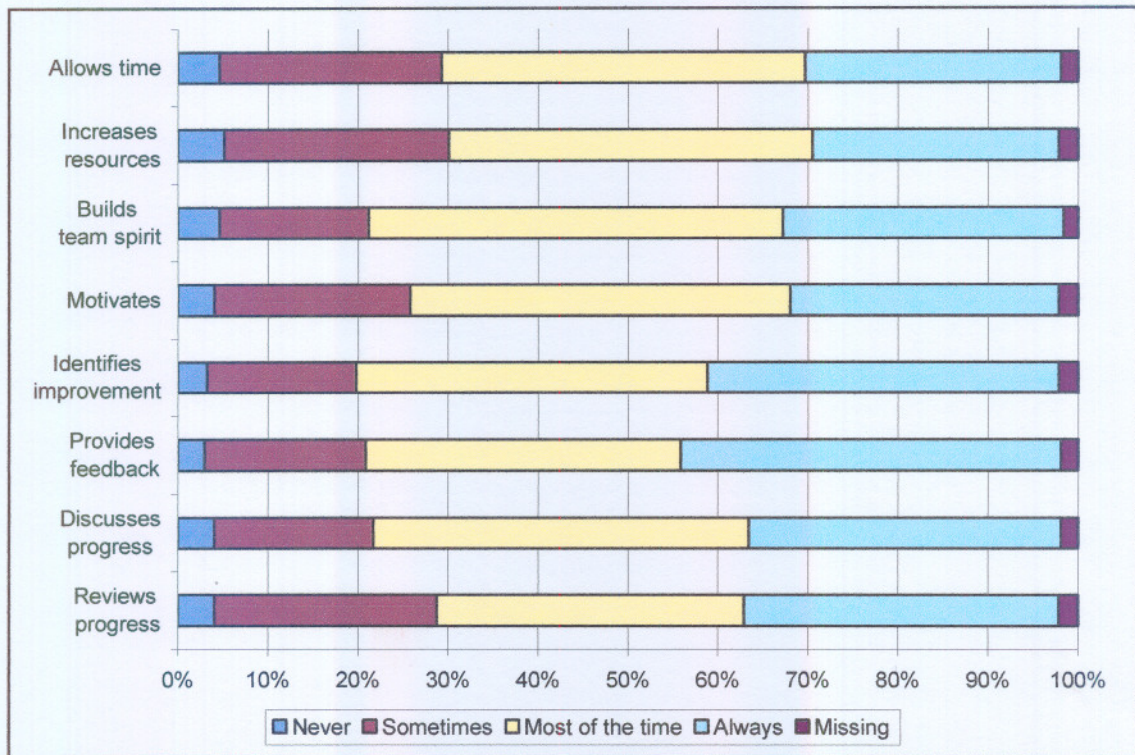
Table 5.5: Sustaining changes at school

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|-----------------------------------|------------------|------------|------------|
| 4.1 | Makes the time to review progress | Never | 15 | 4.07 |
| | | Sometimes | 91 | 24.66 |
| | | Most of the time | 126 | 34.15 |
| | | Always | 129 | 34.96 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 4.2 | Discusses progress openly | Never | 15 | 4.07 |
| | | Sometimes | 65 | 17.62 |
| | | Most of the time | 154 | 41.73 |
| | | Always | 128 | 34.69 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 4.3 | Provides relevant feedback | Never | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Sometimes | 66 | 17.89 |
| | | Most of the time | 129 | 34.96 |
| | | Always | 156 | 42.28 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 4.4 | Identifies areas for improvement | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Sometimes | 61 | 16.53 |
| | | Most of the time | 144 | 39.02 |
| | | Always | 144 | 39.02 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| 4.5 | Keeps motivation high | Never | 15 | 4.07 |
| | | Sometimes | 80 | 21.68 |
| | | Most of the time | 156 | 42.28 |
| | | Always | 110 | 29.81 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-------|---|------------------|------------|------------|
| 4.6 | Builds team spirit | Never | 17 | 4.61 |
| | | Sometimes | 61 | 16.53 |
| | | Most of the time | 170 | 46.07 |
| | | Always | 115 | 31.17 |
| | | Missing | 6 | 1.63 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |
| 4.7 | Sets out to increase the use of resources | Never | 19 | 5.15 |
| | | Sometimes | 92 | 24.93 |
| | | Most of the time | 149 | 40.38 |
| | | Always | 101 | 27.37 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |
| 4.8 | Allows enough time for change | Never | 17 | 4.61 |
| | | Sometimes | 91 | 24.66 |
| | | Most of the time | 149 | 40.38 |
| | | Always | 105 | 28.46 |
| | | Missing | 7 | 1.90 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |

These results can be presented graphically as follows:

Figure 5.4: Sustaining changes at school



5.3.4.1 Makes the time to review progress

In terms of the reviewed progress during change progress at schools, 34.96% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal would always provide enough time to deal with change, while 34.15% indicate that the deputy principal makes time to review progress at school most of the time. 24.66% of the respondents are of the opinion that time is sometimes made available by deputy principal, and 4.07% state clearly that no provision of time is made to review progress. Although more than 69% are positive about this vital issue, nearly 29% point a bleak picture which must definitely be rectified.

5.3.4.2 Discusses problems openly

Most of the respondents (41.73%) indicate that problems relating to change are discussed openly most of the time and 34.69% state that the deputy principal always discusses problems relating to change openly with others. This is gratifying, but 21.69% need to set this matter straight as soon as possible.

5.3.4.3 Provides relevant feedback

Most of the respondents (42.28%) indicate that relevant feedback is provided to sustain changes at schools. 34.96% of the respondents state that feedback is provided most of the time in order to deal with change, but 17.89% say it occurs only sometimes and 2.98% state that this never occurs. A realistic programme should rectify the matter.

5.3.4.4 Identifies areas for improvement

The responses provided by the respondents stress the fact that the deputy principal identifies areas for improvement, while 39.02% state that this is always so. But 17.89% say it only occurs sometimes and 2.98% say he/she never does so. This is a situation which should be improved on.

5.3.4.5 Keeps motivation high

42.28% of the respondents indicate that the deputy principal motivates other educators to handle change at school most of the time (*cf.* 3.5.5), while 29.81% state that this is always done. Only 21.68% say that motivation is kept high sometimes and 4.07% say it never happens. It is gratifying that by far the majority experience their motivation being kept high.

5.3.4.6 B4.6: Builds team work

To sustain change, 46.07% of the respondents indicate that a team spirit is being built up at schools most of the time (*cf.* 2.19.3 and 2.19.7) and 31.17% state that this is always so coordinated by deputy principal (*cf.* Figure 2.10). But 16.53% say this only happens sometimes and 4.61% say this never occurs. This does not augur well for change, so a programme should rectify the omission.

5.3.4.7 Sets out to increase the use of resources

40.38% and 27.37% of the respondents indicate that resources are utilized to sustain change at school most of the time or always. 24.93% state that setting out increase the use of resources is only done sometimes, and 5.15% say never. This promises that available resources are being used to the full.

5.3.4.8 Allows enough time for change

Most of the respondents (40.38% and 28.40%) indicate that enough time is being allocated to bring about change at schools. 24.66% of the respondents say that this only occurs sometimes and 4.61% say it never occurs. The fact that 29.27% of the deputy principals do not allow enough time for change is disconcerting, because time is of the essence in this undertaking. This pointed directly at the need of a management programme to guide the managers.

The following section of the questionnaire dealt with the deputy principal's work experience.

5.4 SECTION C

Firstly, the principal's role shall be explored in assisting the deputy principal.

5.4.1 Leadership (quantitative data)

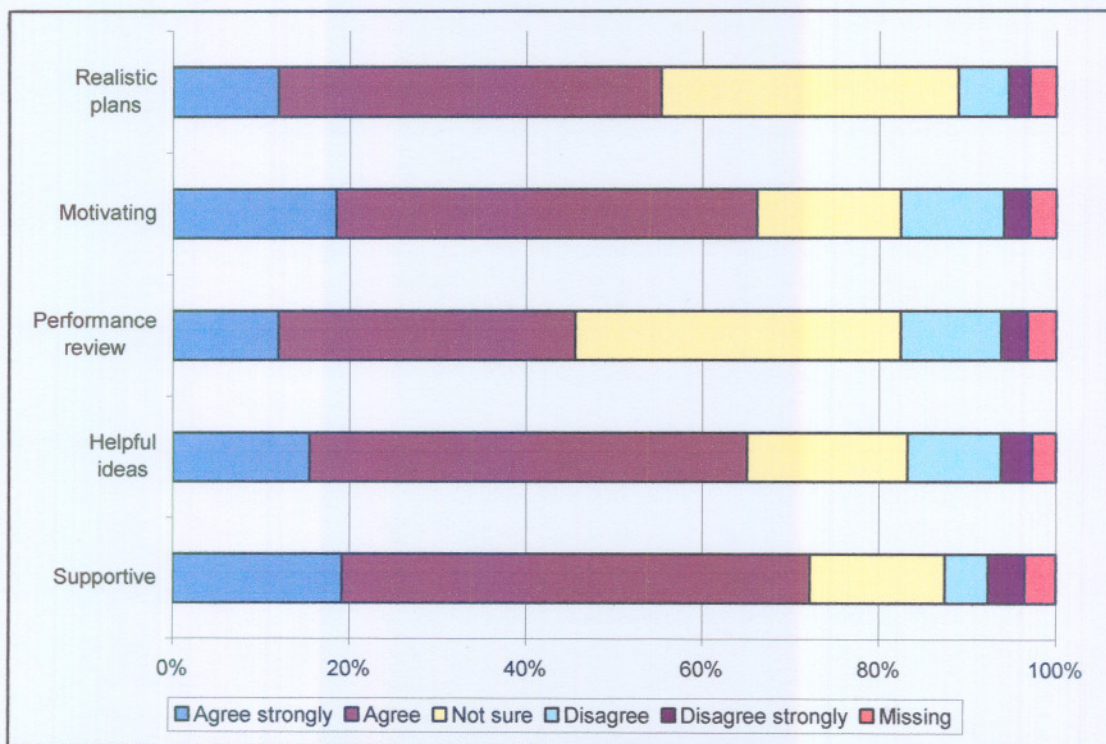
Table 5.6: Principal's commitment

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|---|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C3 | Principal is supportive | Agree strongly | 70 | 18.97 |
| | | Agree | 194 | 52.57 |
| | | Not sure | 56 | 15.18 |
| | | Disagree | 18 | 4.88 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 15 | 4.07 |
| | | Missing | 13 | 3.52 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C4 | Principal has ideas that are helpful deputy principal's work | Agree strongly | 57 | 15.45 |
| | | Agree | 183 | 49.59 |
| | | Not sure | 67 | 18.16 |
| | | Disagree | 39 | 10.57 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 13 | 3.52 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C14 | Performance is regularly reviewed by the principal | Agree strongly | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Agree | 124 | 33.60 |
| | | Not sure | 136 | 36.86 |
| | | Disagree | 42 | 11.38 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Missing | 12 | 3.25 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C18 | I feel motivated to address issues pertaining to change at school | Agree strongly | 68 | 18.43 |
| | | Agree | 176 | 47.70 |
| | | Not sure | 60 | 16.26 |
| | | Disagree | 43 | 11.65 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-------|---|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C20 | The principal sets realistic plans to address changes | Agree strongly | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Agree | 160 | 43.36 |
| | | Not sure | 124 | 33.60 |
| | | Disagree | 21 | 5.69 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 9 | 2.44 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |

Graphically, this data can be represented as follows:

Figure 5.5: Principal's commitment



5.4.2 Empowerment of deputy principal

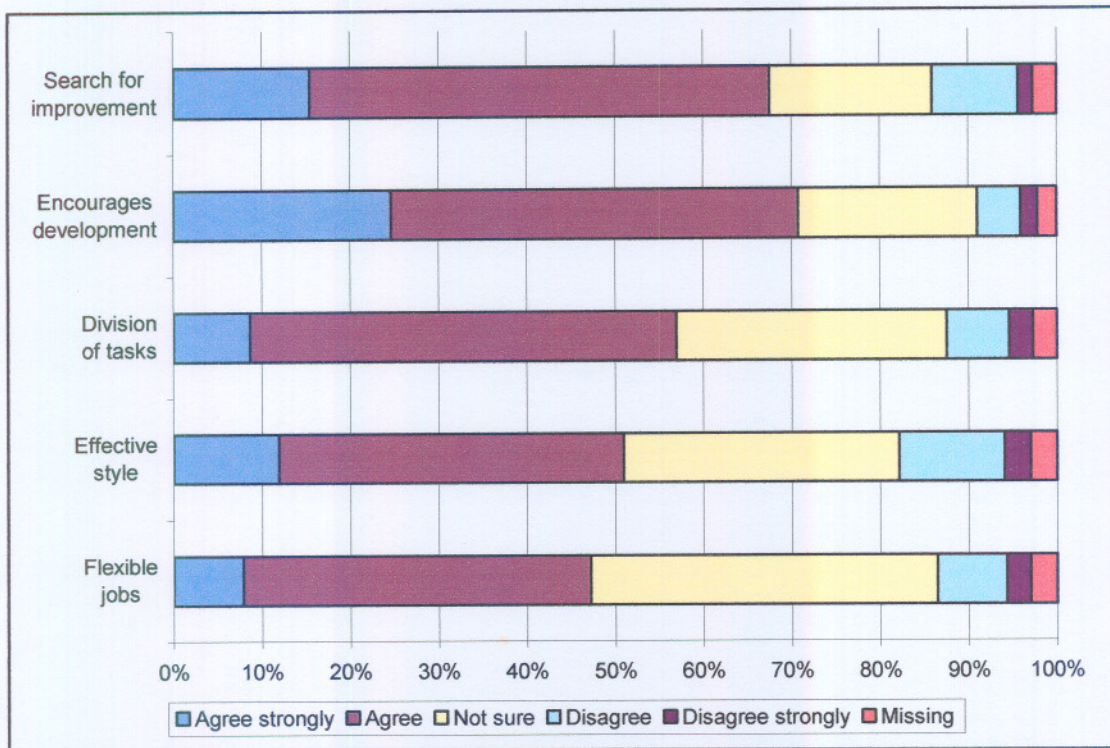
Table 5.7: Empowerment of deputy principal

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|-------|--|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C8 | Jobs and lines of authority on change are flexible | Agree strongly | 29 | 7.86 |
| | | Agree | 145 | 39.30 |
| | | Not sure | 145 | 39.30 |
| | | Disagree | 29 | |
| | | Disagree strongly | 10 | 7.86 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-------|--|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C11 | The management style adopted by senior management is helpful and effective | Agree strongly | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Agree | 144 | 39.02 |
| | | Not sure | 115 | 31.17 |
| | | Disagree | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |
| C13 | The way in which work tasks are divided is sensible and clear | Agree strongly | 32 | 8.67 |
| | | Agree | 178 | 48.24 |
| | | Not sure | 113 | 30.62 |
| | | Disagree | 26 | 7.05 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 10 | 2.71 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |
| C17 | I am encouraged to develop to my full potential | Agree strongly | 91 | 24.66 |
| | | Agree | 170 | 46.07 |
| | | Not sure | 75 | 20.33 |
| | | Disagree | 18 | 4.88 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 7 | 1.90 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |
| C23 | There is a constant search for ways of improving the work | Agree strongly | 57 | 15.45 |
| | | Agree | 192 | 52.03 |
| | | Not sure | 68 | 18.43 |
| | | Disagree | 36 | 9.76 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 6 | 1.63 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| Total | | | 369 | 100 |

The essence of the responses is captured in table 5.7. The response can be represented graphically as follows:

Figure 5.6: Empowerment of deputy principal



Looking at Table 5.6 and Table 5.7 together people can come to the following conclusions, highlighting the opinion with the highest percentage:

The principal's commitment (see Table 5.6 and Figure 5.5)

The school principals are committed to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools; C3, C4, C8, C11, C13, C14, C15, C16, C17, C18, C20, C23.

- The principal is supportive to the deputy principal (C3, *cf.* 2.4.2; 2.4.3 and 3.4.2.1).
- The principal has ideas that are helpful to the deputy principal's work (C4 *cf.* 2.4.3.1 and 2.13.6.3).
- The principal reviews performance by deputy principal regularly (C14, *cf.* 3.4.2.2).
- The principal encourage creativity and initiative (C16, *cf.* 3.6.5).

- The principal motivates deputy principals to address issues pertaining to change C18, *cf.* 3.6.5).
- The principal set realistic plans to address changes (C20).

Empowering deputy principals (table 5.7 and figure 5.6)

The principal performs the following tasks to empower the deputy principal: C8, C11, C13, C17 and C23.

- The principals make jobs and the line of authority on change flexible (C8, *cf.* 2.19.2)
- Management style adopted by the principal is democratic, helpful and effective (C11, *cf.* 2.9.1).
- Work tasks are divided sensibly and are clear to empower deputy principal (C13, *cf.* 2.19.2).
- The deputy principal is encouraged to develop to his/her potential (C17, *cf.* 2.4.3).
- The principal searches continuously to find a constant way of improving the work of the deputy principal (C23, *cf.* 2.4.3).

5.4.3 The role of the school during a change process

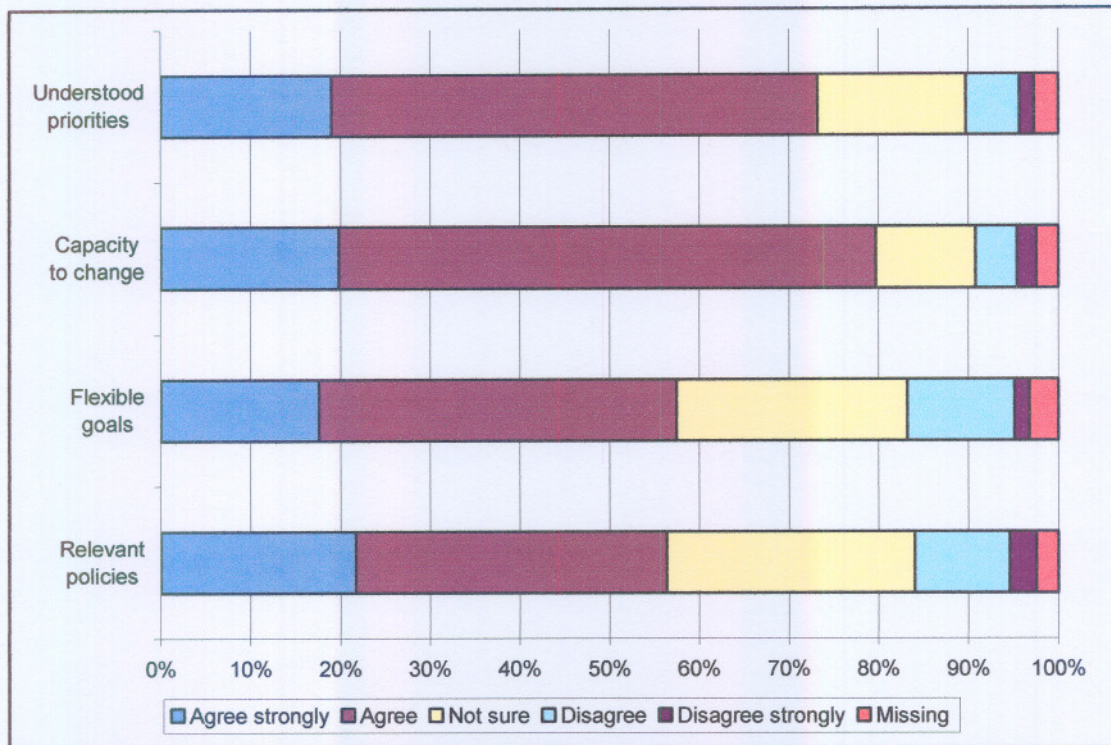
Table 5.8: The role of the school

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|--|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C5 | The school keeps its policies and procedures relevant and up to date | Agree strongly | 80 | 21.68 |
| | | Agree | 128 | 34.69 |
| | | Not sure | 102 | 27.64 |
| | | Disagree | 39 | 10.57 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-----|---|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C7 | The goals and objectives of the school concerning change are flexible | Agree strongly | 65 | 17.62 |
| | | Agree | 147 | 39.84 |
| | | Not sure | 95 | 25.75 |
| | | Disagree | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 6 | 1.63 |
| | | Missing | 12 | 3.25 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C15 | The school has the capacity to change | Agree strongly | 73 | 19.98 |
| | | Agree | 221 | 59.89 |
| | | Not sure | 41 | 11.11 |
| | | Disagree | 17 | 4.61 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 8 | 2.17 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C22 | Priorities of the school are understood by its educators | Agree strongly | 70 | 18.97 |
| | | Agree | 200 | 54.20 |
| | | Not sure | 61 | 16.53 |
| | | Disagree | 22 | 5.96 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 6 | 1.63 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

A graphical representation of the responses follows:

Figure 5.7: The role of the school



The school assists in dealing with change in the following manner:

The school keeps its policies and procedures relevant and up to date (C5, *cf.* 2.5, 2.9.2).

The goals and objectives in the school on changes are clearly stated (C7, *cf.* 2.7.1.1; 2.7.1.2; 2.10).

- The school has the capacity to change (C15, *cf.* 2.9.1 and 2.9.2).
- The priority of the school is understood by its education (C22, *cf.* 2.22.2).

5.4.4 Educators' commitment

Table 5.9: Educators' commitment

| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|--|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C21 | Educators seek to make best use of resources | Agree strongly | 55 | 14.91 |
| | | Agree | 213 | 57.72 |
| | | Not sure | 69 | 18.70 |
| | | Disagree | 16 | 4.34 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 8 | 2.17 |
| | | Missing | 8 | 2.17 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C24 | Staff members cooperate effectively in order to get the work done | Agree strongly | 55 | 14.91 |
| | | Agree | 190 | 51.49 |
| | | Not sure | 93 | 25.20 |
| | | Disagree | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 10 | 2.71 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C25 | Departments work well together to achieve quality work in terms of change at schools | Agree strongly | 39 | 10.57 |
| | | Agree | 147 | 69.84 |
| | | Not sure | 115 | 31.17 |
| | | Disagree | 49 | 13.28 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 9 | 2.44 |
| | | Missing | 10 | 2.71 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C27 | Results are attained because people are committed to change | Agree strongly | 42 | 11.38 |
| | | Agree | 151 | 40.92 |
| | | Not sure | 134 | 36.31 |
| | | Disagree | 25 | 6.78 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 8 | 2.17 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

This data can be represented graphically as follows:

Figure 5.8: Educators' commitment

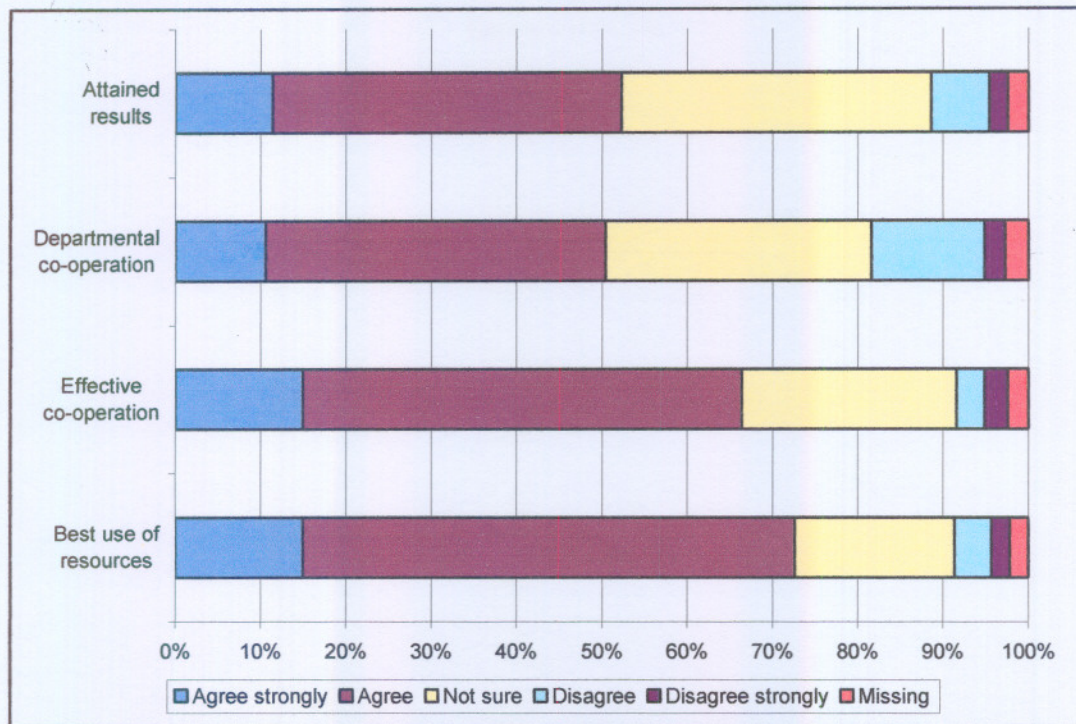


Table 5.9 and Figure 5.8 represent the commitment of educators during change. It deals specifically with the way educators use resources to address the issue of change at schools

5.4.5 Deputy principals' work experience

Table 5.10: Deputy principals' work experience

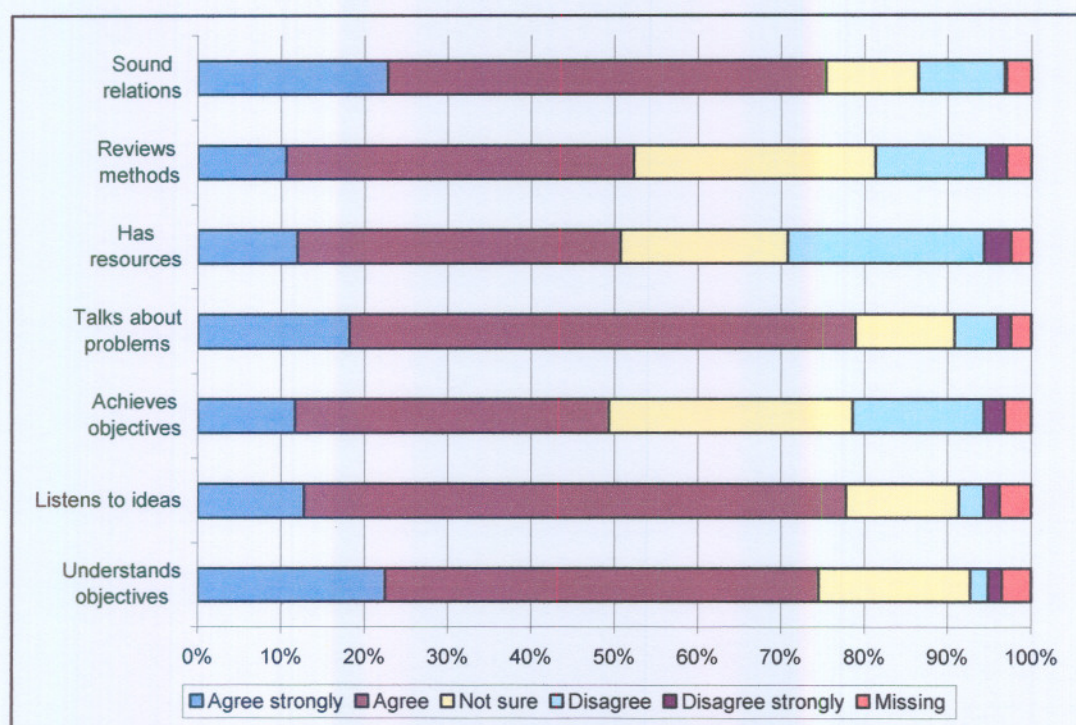
| Item | Activity | | f | % |
|------|---|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C1 | Deputy principal understands the objectives of the school | Agree strongly | 83 | 22.49 |
| | | Agree | 192 | 52.03 |
| | | Not sure | 67 | 18.18 |
| | | Disagree | 8 | 2.17 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 6 | 1.63 |
| | | Missing | 13 | 3.52 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-----|--|-------------------|------------|------------|
| C2 | Deputy principal listens to ideas | Agree strongly | 47 | 12.74 |
| | | Agree | 240 | 65.04 |
| | | Not sure | 50 | 13.55 |
| | | Disagree | 11 | 2.98 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 7 | 1.90 |
| | | Missing | 14 | 3.79 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C6 | Deputy principals regularly achieve their objectives | Agree strongly | 43 | 11.65 |
| | | Agree | 139 | 37.67 |
| | | Not sure | 108 | 29.27 |
| | | Disagree | 58 | 15.72 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 9 | 2.44 |
| | | Missing | 12 | 3.25 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C9 | Can talk to someone at work if there is work-related problem | Agree strongly | 67 | 18.16 |
| | | Agree | 224 | 60.70 |
| | | Not sure | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Disagree | 19 | 5.15 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 6 | 1.63 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C10 | Have information and resources needed to effect a change at school | Agree strongly | 44 | 11.92 |
| | | Agree | 143 | 38.75 |
| | | Not sure | 74 | 20.05 |
| | | Disagree | 87 | 23.58 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 12 | 2.25 |
| | | Missing | 9 | 2.44 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| C12 | Constantly review methods and introduce improvements | Agree strongly | 39 | 10.57 |
| | | Agree | 154 | 41.73 |
| | | Not sure | 107 | 29.00 |
| | | Disagree | 49 | 13.28 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 9 | 2.44 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|-----|--|-------------------|-----|-------|
| C19 | Deputy principal's relationship with members of group is sound | Agree strongly | 84 | 22.76 |
| | | Agree | 194 | 52.57 |
| | | Not sure | 41 | 11.11 |
| | | Disagree | 38 | 10.30 |
| | | Disagree strongly | 1 | 0.27 |
| | | Missing | 11 | 2.98 |

A graphical representation of the data follows:

Figure 5.9: Deputy Principals' work experience



- Deputy principals understand the objectives of the school (C1).
- Deputy principals listen to ideas (C2).
- They regularly achieve their objectives (C6).
- Can talk to someone at work in terms of problems related to change (C9)
- Have information and resources to effect change (C10).
- Deputy principals review their methods and try to introduce improvements (C12).

- There is a sound relationship between the deputy principal and staff members (C19).

Concerning the competencies of deputy principals, as explored in Section D of the questionnaire, governance, leverage and connectivity will next be elucidated.

5.5 SECTION D

5.5.1 Competencies of the deputy principal

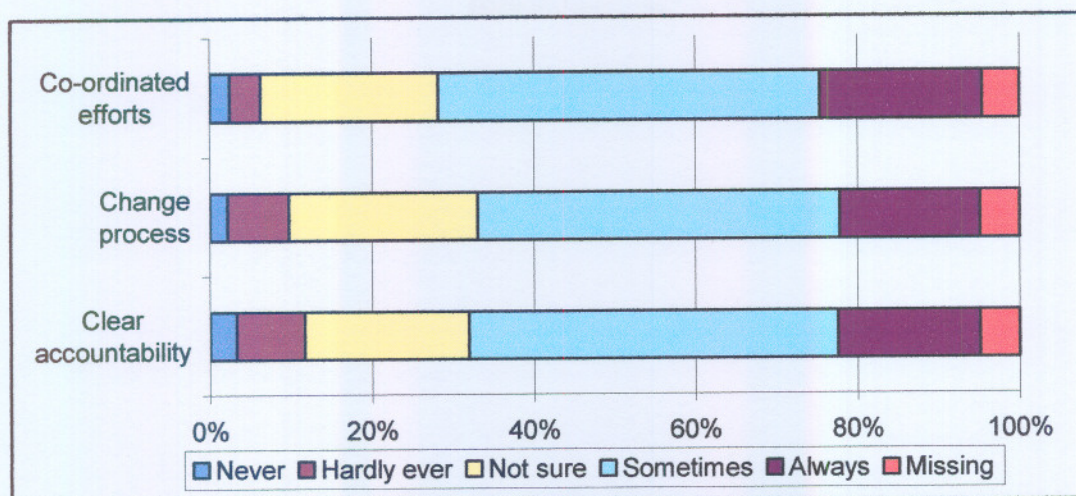
5.5.1.1 Management Programme: Governance

Table 5.11: Governance

| Item | | | f | % |
|------|--|-------------|------------|------------|
| D1.1 | Accountability for all aspects of the change process is clear | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Hardly ever | 31 | 8.40 |
| | | Not sure | 75 | 20.33 |
| | | Sometimes | 168 | 45.53 |
| | | Always | 65 | 17.62 |
| | | Missing | 18 | 4.88 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| D1.2 | The processes of change are aligned in terms of planned outcomes | Never | 8 | 2.17 |
| | | Hardly ever | 28 | 7.59 |
| | | Not sure | 86 | 23.31 |
| | | Sometimes | 165 | 44.72 |
| | | Always | 64 | 17.34 |
| | | Missing | 18 | 4.88 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| D1.3 | The efforts of individuals and groups involved are coordinated | Never | 9 | 2.44 |
| | | Hardly ever | 14 | 3.79 |
| | | Not sure | 81 | 21.95 |
| | | Sometimes | 174 | 47.15 |
| | | Always | 74 | 29.05 |
| | | Missing | 17 | 4.61 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

This data can be graphically represented as follows:

Figure 5.10: Governance



- The deputy principal's accountability for all aspects of the change process is sometimes clear (D1.1).
- The processes of change are sometimes aligned in terms of planned outcomes (D1.2).
- The efforts of individuals and groups involved are sometimes coordinated (D1.3).

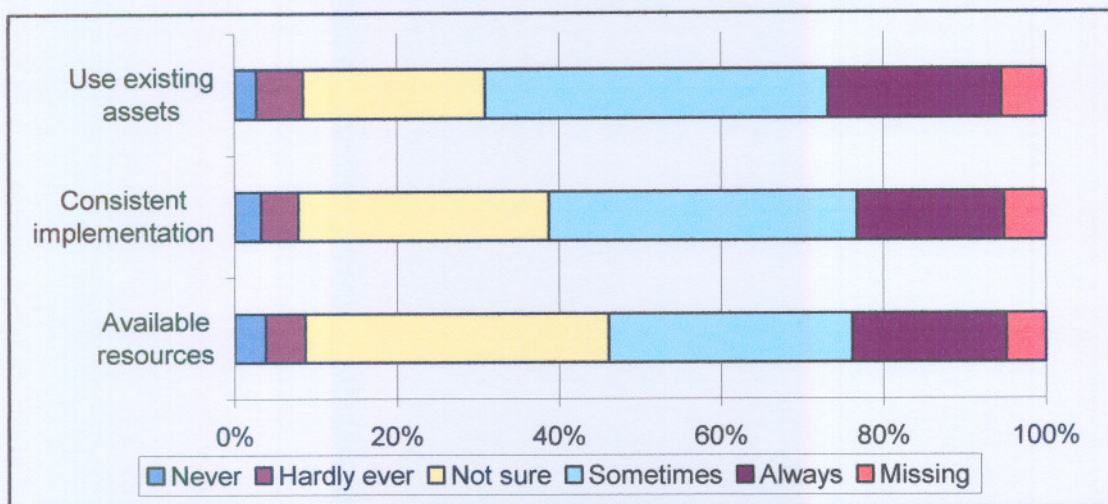
Table 5.12: Management programme: Leverage

| Item | | | f | % |
|------|--|-------------|------------|------------|
| D2.1 | Platforms of resources, skills and knowledge are available for the deployment of new initiatives | Never | 14 | 3.78 |
| | | Hardly ever | 18 | 4.88 |
| | | Not sure | 138 | 37.40 |
| | | Sometimes | 111 | 30.08 |
| | | Always | 70 | 18.97 |
| | | Missing | 18 | 4.88 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| D2.2 | The elements of change are implemented consistently | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Hardly ever | 17 | 4.61 |
| | | Not sure | 114 | 30.89 |
| | | Sometimes | 140 | 37.94 |
| | | Always | 67 | 18.16 |
| | | Missing | 19 | 5.15 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

| | | | | |
|------|---|-------------|-----|-------|
| D2.3 | Full value is gained from existing assets and resources | Never | 10 | 2.71 |
| | | Hardly ever | 21 | 5.69 |
| | | Not sure | 83 | 22.49 |
| | | Sometimes | 156 | 42.28 |
| | | Always | 79 | 21.41 |
| | | Missing | 20 | 5.42 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

This data can be graphically represented as follows:

Figure 5.11: Management programme: Leverage



- Most respondents (37.40%) indicate that they are not sure whether platforms of resources, skills and knowledge are available for the deployment of new initiatives (D2.1).
- The elements of change are sometimes implemented consistently (D2.2).
- Full value is sometimes gained from existing assets and resources (D2.3).

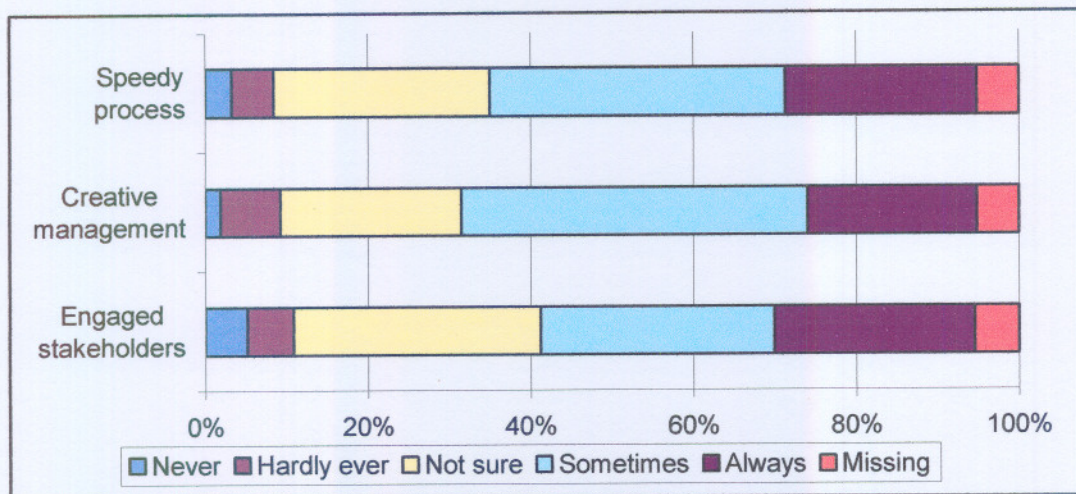
5.5.2 Management programme: Connectivity

Table 5.13: Connectivity

| Item | | | Ranking | % |
|------|---|-------------|------------|------------|
| D3.1 | Key stakeholders are engaged appropriately | Never | 19 | 5.15 |
| | | Hardly ever | 21 | 5.00 |
| | | Not sure | 112 | 30.35 |
| | | Sometimes | 106 | 28.73 |
| | | Always | 91 | 24.66 |
| | | Missing | 20 | 5.42 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| D3.2 | The process of change is managed creatively | Never | 7 | 1.90 |
| | | Hardly ever | 27 | 7.32 |
| | | Not sure | 82 | 22.22 |
| | | Sometimes | 157 | 42.55 |
| | | Always | 77 | 20.87 |
| | | Missing | 19 | 5.15 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |
| D3.3 | Resources allow for a speedy change process | Never | 12 | 3.25 |
| | | Hardly ever | 19 | 5.15 |
| | | Not sure | 98 | 26.56 |
| | | Sometimes | 134 | 36.31 |
| | | Always | 87 | 23.58 |
| | | Missing | 19 | 5.15 |
| | Total | | 369 | 100 |

This data can be graphically represented as follows:

Figure 5.12: Management programme: Connectivity



- Respondents (30.35% are not sure whether key stakeholders are engaged appropriately (D3.1).
- The process of change is sometimes managed creatively (D3.2).
- Resources sometimes allow for a speedy change process (D3.3).

5.6 SUMMARY

In this research, a questionnaire was used to gather data from the principals, deputy principals, heads of departments and educators of both primary and secondary schools in Sedibeng West District (D8). This data were processed statistically and the processed results were analysed to determine a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools. The processed results were categorized in table format, depending on the commonality of the questions.

The analysis of this quantitative research is structured according to the following categories: biographical information, change management skills, leadership, work experience and competencies (governance, leverage and connectivity).

The information from the empirical research in Chapter 5 was used to develop a management programme for deputy principals at schools in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER SIX

A MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME TO ASSIST DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE IN SCHOOLS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of chapter six is: To develop a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change in schools.

In developing a programme, (Hayes, 1992:724) contends that the increasing problems of poverty and social disruption in the lives of learners are more threatening than ever. To rescue learners from hopelessness and violence, dramatic changes in educational programme and social services must be considered (Hayes, 1992:724). Reactions to this appeal and to the call for major educational changes have been mixed. Many professional educators call for massive systematic change or restructuring of schools.

Corbett (1990:48) defines restructuring as major changes in roles, relationships, and rules to obtain new results at schools and in districts, needing the development of a strategic approach for the continuing professional development of deputy principals. In England, for example, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) proposed the identification of agreed national standards to assist set targets for teacher development and career progression designed to establish clear and explicit expectations of teachers in different key roles (Glatter, 1997:90).

According to Glatter (1997:190), the school and the district should perform the following duties in order to plan for a development programme for deputy principals:

- Undertake initial needs assessment designed to help them (school and district) identify their training needs against the demands posed by the change process, which will results in an action plan for atraining and developmentl programme.

- Complete successfully the compulsory strategic leadership and accountability module and any further training and development necessary.

In chapter 6, both the *literature review* and empirical study (*cf.* Chapter 4) are put into context with the aim to develop a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools.

6.2 THE CONCEPT MODEL

6.2.1 The background of a model

According to Smit (1998:137-142), formulating the definition of a model is broad and general. Mouton and Marais (1990:143) argue that in compiling a model, an attempt could be made to simplify the relation between main elements in a process. According to Jonker (1994:208), a model could be used as a research tool, because it makes a programme more visible and understandable.

Bellis (2000:181) is of the opinion that an approach can be developed in the form of a model. It is suggested that all main aspects concerned with systematic approach could be applied. It could also be dramatized to bring about a concrete model which can be of assistance to deputy principals in dealing with change. Mentz (2000:181) contends that in reality a model could be structured into important components of essential elements and put into applicable perspective.

6.2.2 The qualities of a model

According to Mouton and Marais (1990:144), the qualities of an effective model are as follows:

- A model identifies central problems in a continued phenomenon to be researched.
- A model provides descriptions, figures and a remedy to make predictions.
- A model limits, isolates and systematizes one domain to be researched.

6.3 TERMINOLOGY

Process of development

The process of development involves the setting of realistic goals and risk-taking in line with the individual's strength and weaknesses in order that both self-confidence and ability or performance might be enhanced (Human, 1991:251). Development is a process in which ability can increase through the dynamic and complex interaction between the individual's perceived ability, his/her motivation and the way in which the person is managed (Human, 1991:251). In other words, development is a process which also depends on the way the person is managed; on the values and attitudes of the manager towards the person being developed and the extent to which the person is provided with support and developmental opportunities (Human, 1991:251).

Benchmarking

Benchmarking is a process of acquiring knowledge from others who are renowned for their excellence in a field. One organization compares its practices with another and wherever a gap exists, tries to learn why and how it can come closer to that level. Benchmarking refers to what others in a similar situation have done in their change efforts (Smith, 1994:27).

Empowerment

Empowerment can be defined as a process whereby school participants develop the competence to take charge of their own growth (Short, Greer & Melvin, 1994:38).

The next aspects that call for elucidation are in-service training and sustaining motivation.

6.4 IN-SERVICE TRAINING

A coaching model which incorporates the principles of a change process should be compared with a traditional way of doing things at school and the

implications of the new approach. Training and in-service coaching at schools occur by principals conducting sessions more or less in the following manner:

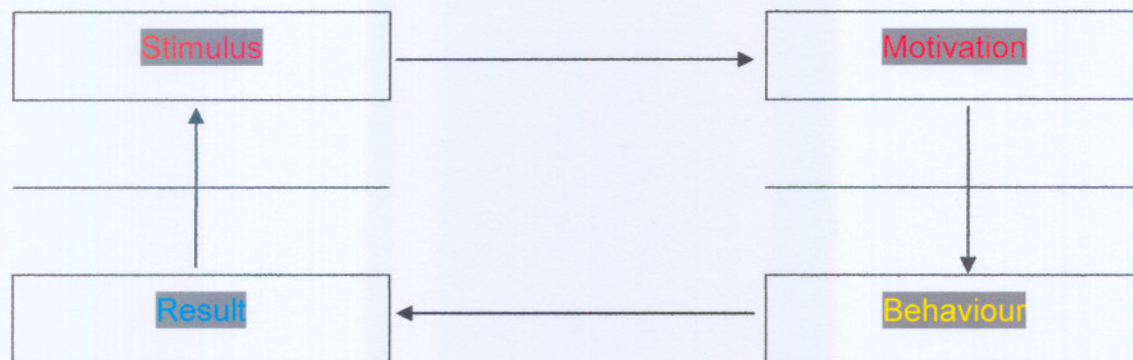
- Principals should describe the overall task and express confidence in the deputy principal's ability to master the new responsibility.
- Check whether the deputy principal has any prior knowledge that may assist in learning to adapt to change.
- Principals as trainers should demonstrate each step, emphasizing the key points leading to a change process.
- Allow the deputy principal to practise, under supervision, and give feedback.
- Let the deputy principal operate on his/her own.
- Follow-up periodically and give the deputy principal further feedback and encouragement.

During training and in-service coaching, emphasis is on understanding and doing.

6.5 DEPUTY PRINCIPALS KEEP MOTIVATION AT SCHOOLS HIGH

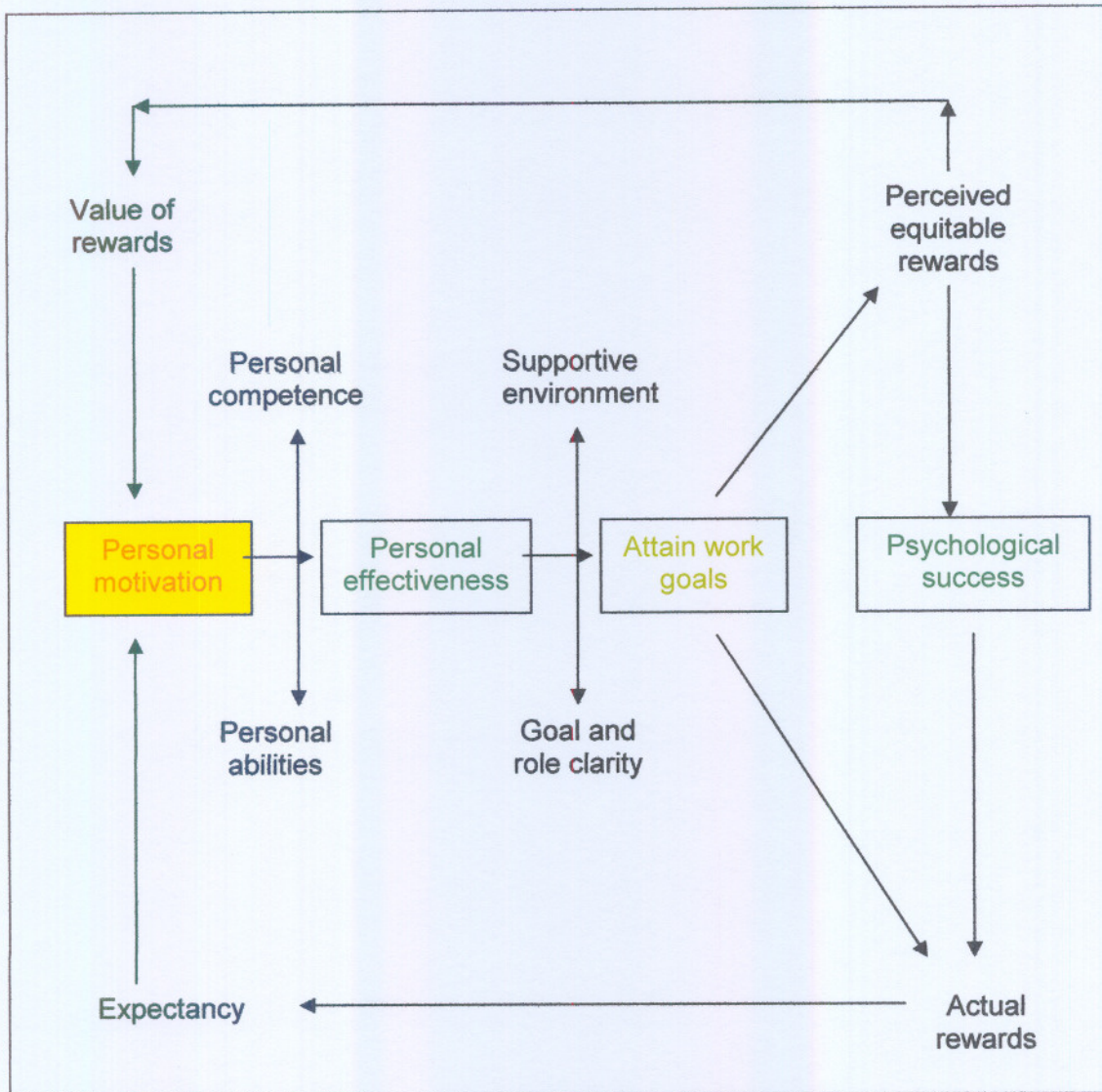
Motivation (B4.5) is an inner drive which makes people expend effort to achieve a given objective. It is stimulated by external attractors such as the challenges of the change process, and it is also the strength of the inner drive (Tampoe, 1993:155). According to Tampoe (1993:155), components of motivation are: a stimulus to act caused by the realization of an unfulfilled need; the arousal of the inner drive to assuage that need; behaviour to satisfy the need; and an assessment of the outcome and re-stimulation if the cycle of events has produced the outcome aimed for. This cycle of events is illustrated in figure 6.1 below:

Figure 6.1: Basic components of motivation



The crucial fact in the management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change is that, if after the successful completion of the behaviour, deputy principals are not motivated, it will affect their self-esteem and confidence and can reduce their willingness to deal with change at schools. The role of the schools is to draw up a programme to ensure that the deputy principals have the competence and support to utilize the resources in order to deal with the change. In this way, their confidence will increase and, in turn, increase their development. When these environmental factors are brought to bear, a more comprehensive model of motivation is developed, as illustrated in Figure 6.3 below.

Figure 6.2: Motivation model for staff at school (Tampoe, 1993:155)



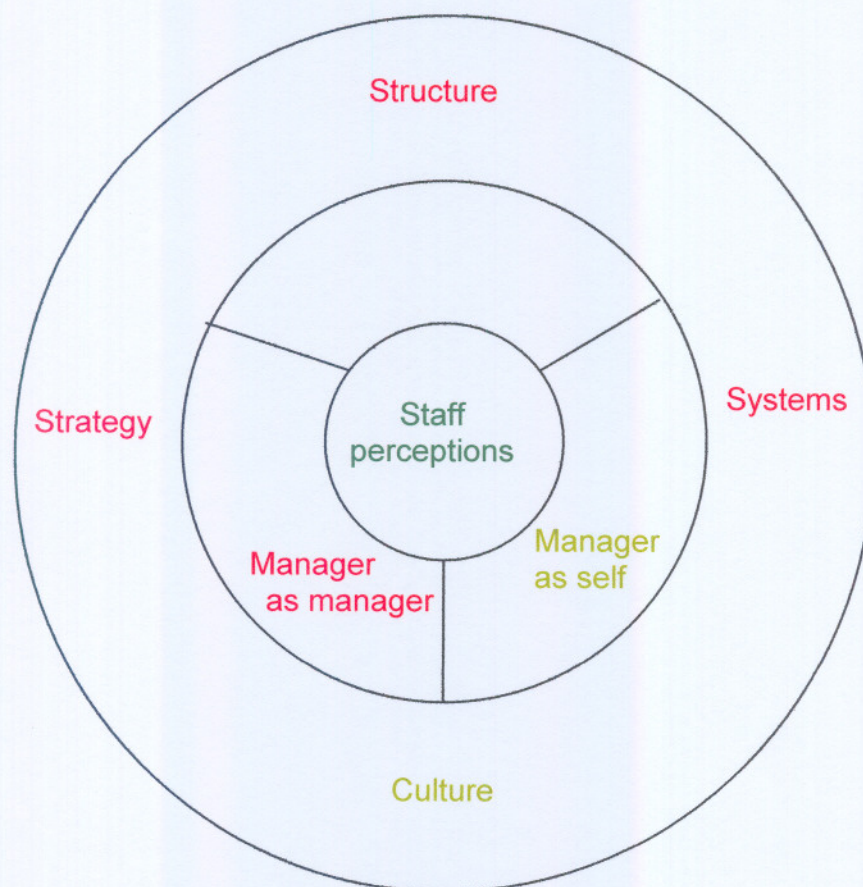
This model suggests that the strength of the motivation of the deputy principals depends on the strength of the value of the reward they earn. This will also suggest that the personal motivation of individuals combines with their personal competencies and personal abilities to make their motivation effective as an engine of meaningful effort to deal with change (Tampoe, 1993:156).

The above-mentioned orientation eventually eliminates in the following programme which is intended to empower the deputy principal in dealing with change.

6.6 A PROGRAMME TO EMPOWER DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE

This is a model which concentrates on creating an empowered environment through strategy, structure, systems and culture. It starts from the basis of staff perception which is based upon a Hermeneutic concept of endeavouring to understand the other person's reality in order to be able to deal with change at schools. When this has been discovered, it is up to the deputy principal to start to close the gap between what educators believe would help them perform their duties better during a change process. Before deputy principals as managers can manage change at schools effectively, they must understand themselves in respect of empowerment as illustrated in figure 6.3 below:

Figure 6.3: A model of empowerment

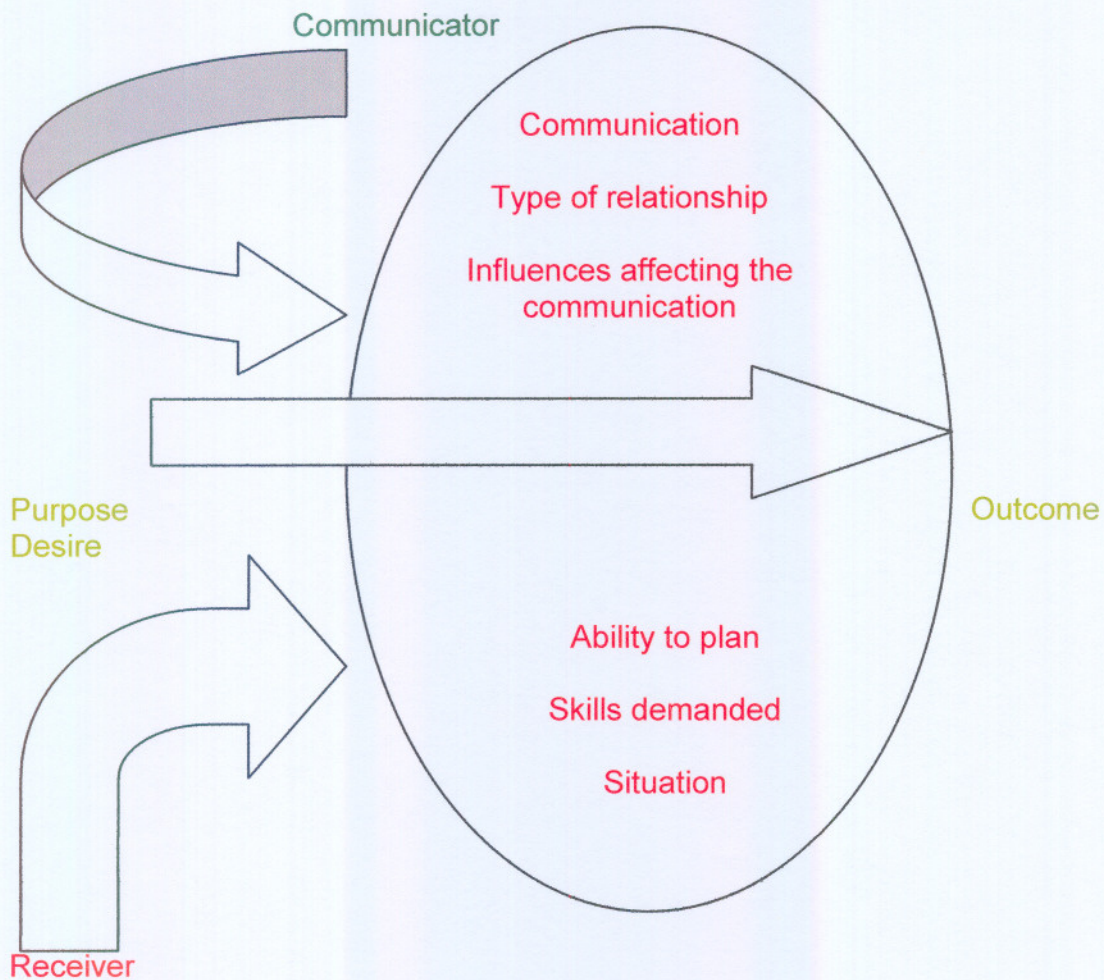


6.7 MANAGING CHANGE AT SCHOOL

6.7.1 Communication skills

Communication skills are indispensable for managing change at schools, as illustrated in figure 6.4 below.

Figure 6.4: Managing change at school



This model is developed to train deputy principals to enable them to analyse, plan and work effectively with educators in dealing with change at school. The model helps deputy principals adapt to change and is referred to as “The Communicator Manager” model (Dutfield & Eling, 1990:111). In much of the literature this helping process is labelled as counselling which is:

- information giving

- advising-coaching and mentoring; and
- straightforward instruction, to provide clarity and direction.

Adapting the model to help individuals to cope with changes, the deputy principal will need to do the following when communicating with educators:

- Clarify the purpose of the communication and identify specific issues which will make up the helping process.
- Identify and act in the appropriate role to create the relationship which will contribute to achieving the desired outcome.
- Recognise and manage the influences and pressures, particularly the perceived psychological effects of the change.
- Understand how the values, attitudes, needs and expectations of both the trainer and the trainee will influence their communications.
- Use the appropriate skills to communicate change to educators.

During the process of managing a change programme, the trainer may attempt to help the deputy principal come to terms with the the new role, work with the new system, or provide a different service to cope with the change. To do this, he/she should recognise and manage the pressures and influences of communication.

6.7.2 Recognising and managing the pressures and influences of communication during a change process

The schools and district office (Department of Education) are usually involved with deputy principals whom they know well when helping them to deal with changes so that it is often possible to recognize the way that the change will create different pressures or have different influences on individuals. It will often be clear that one deputy principal has a high need for personal control and if the change has altered the ability, for example, to determine his priorities, then helping that deputy principal to recognise the areas of the job

which have not changed may be the most helpful thing to do. If that deputy principal feels that all the usual controls are disappearing, stressing aspects which will remain unchanged may be essential to reassure them so that they are able to absorb the information about the change (Lovell, 1994:114).

The pressures and influences are more practical concerns which the deputy principal brings to work. Some may be influenced by the effect that the change will have on their professional standards which causes the deputy principal to need help in order to translate the changes to his/her subordinates at school. The fact that the change provides challenges or variety for the deputy principal may mean that he/she is blocked from recognizing the difficulties being experienced by their educators (Lovell, 1994:115). It is important that the deputy principal in his/her appraisal programme be trained to recognise the effect of the pressures and influences. Figure 6.5 and 6.6 highlight some of these influences and pressures.

Figure 6.5: The influences on a subordinate (Lovell, 1994:115).

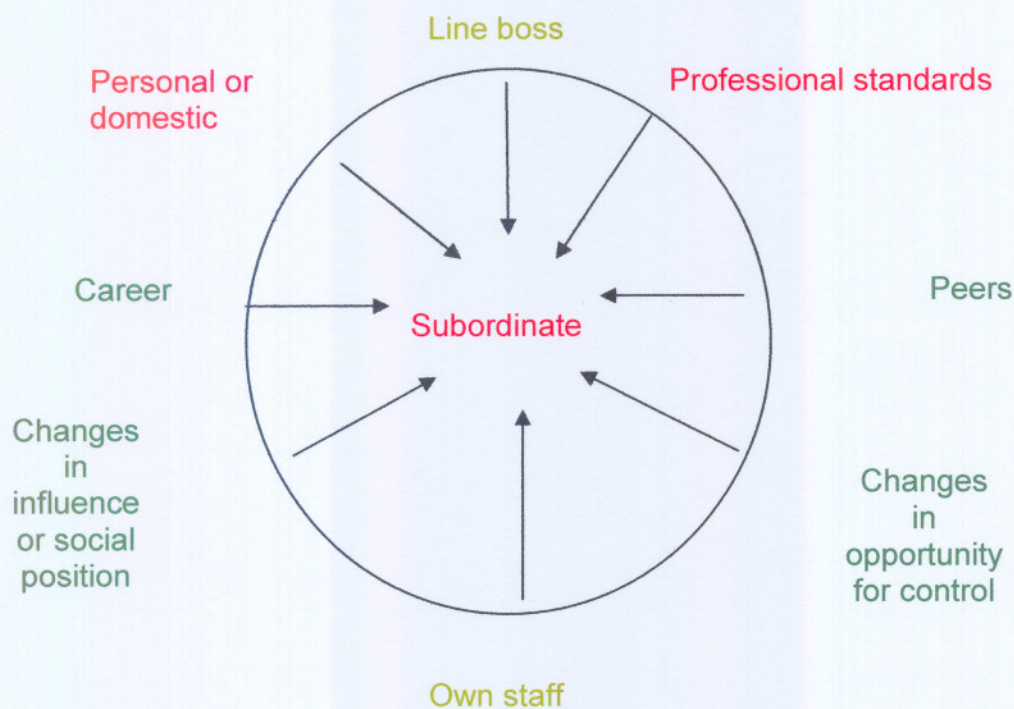
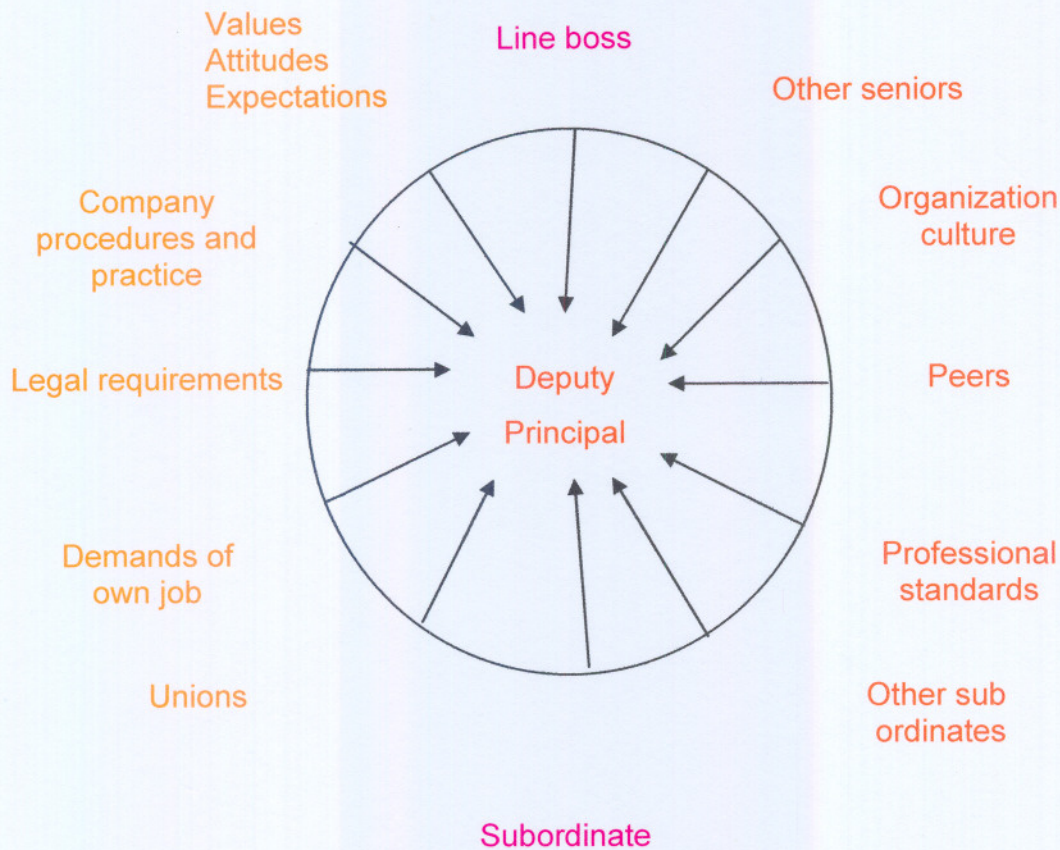


Figure 6.6: The influences on a manager (Lovell, 1994:115).



The above-mentioned aspects point towards the necessity of drawing from the input of other educators.

6.8 DRAWS ON THE INPUT OF OTHERS

In order to construct an effective programme for the deputy principal, he/she needs to create a change management structure; determining the key committees and teams needed to lead and manage the design and implementation process as well as the resources and authorities to perform their roles. A training programme in assisting deputy principals to draw on the input of others could include the following stakeholders: sponsor, steering committee, design team, implementation team and transition monitoring team.

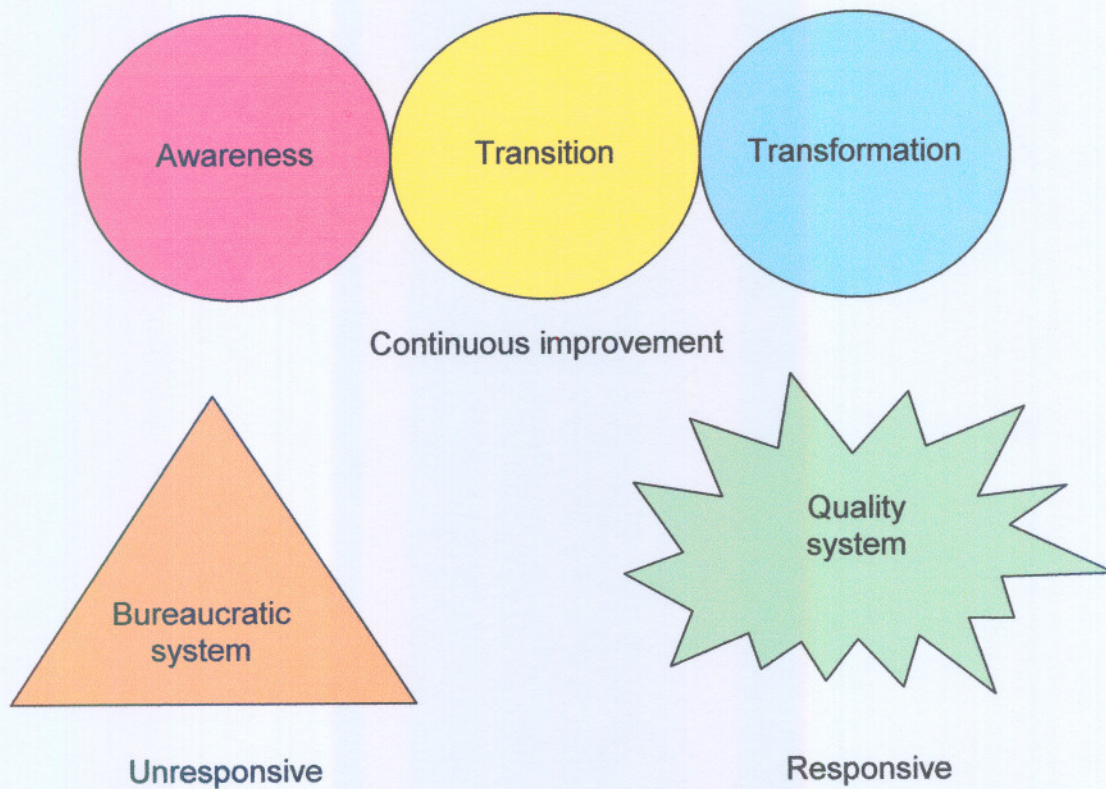
The sponsor champions the change and provides overall vision, direction and resource support during the development programme. The steering committee prepares for the development programme by acquiring the necessary knowledge about the change process. The committee plans the change strategy, ensures that the vision is developed and communicated, and orients the deputy principal to the change efforts.

This information is embedded in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Management structure to design a training programme for deputy principals

| PHASE 1 SPONSOR | PHASE 2 STEERING COMMITTEE | PHASE 3 DESIGN TEAM | PHASE 4 IMPLEMENTA- TION TEAM | PHASE 5 TRANSITION MONITORING TEAM |
|---|---|--|---|--|
| Champions the change | Prepares for change effort | Develop a detailed blueprint of the programme | Determines and carries out matter plan | Assesses the training process |
| ↓ | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ |
| Provides overall vision, direction and resource support | Plans change strategy | Checks institutional structure | Ensures that people affected receives information resources & support during approval | Gather information about the impact of developmental programme |
| ↓ | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ |
| Assembles a steering committee | Commits resources provides leadership | Redesign jobs | Identifies barriers to implementation of the programme | Facilitate communication |
| | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ |
| | Maintains open communication | Process change requirements | Align the school systems with the change | Serves to review plans |
| | ↓ | ↓ | | ↓ |
| | Implements decisions | Training & Education requirements | | Communicate with implementation team |
| | ↓ | ↓ | | |
| | Initiates and oversees the appraisal system | Information and resource requirements | | |
| | ↓ | ↓ | | |
| | Provides leadership support | Analyse data | | |
| | | ↓ | | |
| | | Reports to steering committee and makes recommendation | | |

Figure 6.9: Quality Change Process Model (Acer-Hocevar: 1996:82).



This model provides a conceptual perspective on the change process, which comprises different phases of development. The change process starts off within a bureaucratic system, develops through the phases of awareness, transition and transformation into a quality system. This model presumes that it is through continuous improvement that systems improve over time from bureaucratic to a quality system.

Its goal within the school environment is to identify specific learner needs, rather than to fit them into fixed programmes. The responsiveness of this system gives deputy principals the freedom of continuously changing programmes and services to enhance customer success and satisfaction. Deputy principals in higher involvement institutions are encouraged to function independently as professionals while working interdependently to achieve new purposes. It is the notion of systems thinking of a quality system that encourages people within the organization to assume new responsibilities for the overall success of services (Acer-Hocevar, 1996:82).

It has become obvious that the different phases of development will impact greatly on the school systems and therefore on the people.

6.9 IMPACT OF CHANGE ON PEOPLE

Schools must be viewed as complex living systems consisting of webs of relationships that need to change and grow constantly. As the school implements change, these relationships must be brought into alignment to support the new ways of working. In designing the change, then planning for and implementing the change, the school's current infrastructure and systems must be considered, as they will be impacted by the change and the systems that are needed to support them. As the design of the school changes and as work is conducted in new ways, the system must change to fit the new logic (Mohrman *et al.*, 1995:7).

6.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter, a management programme was constructed from the literature study and empirical research. The programme indicates the strategy that should be followed to assist the deputy principals in dealing with change at schools. The aim of the management programme is to provide senior managers with guidelines to improve the skills of the deputy principals to deal with challenges they face during change at schools.

The challenge to school managers set by this programme is to develop a work culture that is conducive to quality improvement and provides the context for all changes at the school.

The next chapter consists of a summary, findings and therecommendations of this study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to:

- Summarise the key aspects of the research (*cf.* 1.3);
- Make findings in respect of the research aims (*cf.* 1.3), and
- Make recommendations which are based on the research aims (*cf.* 1.3).

7.2 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 presented the rationale of the study. It introduced the necessity of change and the inevitability of resistance (*cf.* 1.1), pinpointing the basic problem inherent in this as being at the door of the deputy principal who must manage change at the school effectively (*cf.* 1.2), therefore focusing attention on the urgency of developing a management programme to assist the principal's second-in-command in this overwhelming task in Sedibeng-West (D8). Furthermore, the research aims (*cf.* 1.3) and methodology (*cf.* 1.4) were explained, as well as the contribution it should make (*cf.* 1.6), and the division of the chapters were set out (*cf.* 1.7)

Chapter 2 focuses on the importance and effect of change at schools. The concept change management at schools (*cf.* 2.2) has been discussed, followed by the definition of the term change (*cf.* 2.3) which is the main focus in this study. The second part of the chapter focuses on the factors influencing change (*cf.* 2.4). This is followed by forms of change in education (*cf.* 2.5) and forces that bring about change in education (*cf.* 2.6).

A temporal framework for analysing change at school is discussed (*cf.* 2.7) as well as the parental involvement at school during a change process (*cf.* 2.8), the structure of change at school (*cf.* 2.9), conditions for a change process (*cf.*

2.10) and eventually the duties and responsibilities of deputy principals (*cf.* 2.11), his/her understanding the changing role of the deputy principal (*cf.* 2.13). Guidelines for managing resistance to change at school (*cf.* 2.14) and how educators will respond to change at school (*cf.* 2.15) are dealt with.

This chapter further deals with the strategic planning in dealing with change at school (*cf.* 2.16), guidelines for educational change (*cf.* 2.17), educators committed to change as a focus for deputy principal (*cf.* 2.18), key factors in effective change management (*cf.* 2.19), benchmarking as a tool for change management (*cf.* 2.20), ensuring managerial value and trinity (*cf.* 2.21), change management and related problems (*cf.* 2.22), principals and school restructuring (*cf.* 2.23) and steps for a successful change management process (*cf.* 2.24).

The focus in Chapter 3 is on managing change: the role of the deputy principal. First an outline of the difference between leadership and management is given (*cf.* 3.2), then the attributes of leadership are given (*cf.* 3.3), and models of leadership for deputy principals (*cf.* 3.4). Vital aspects of leadership models (*cf.* 3.5) follow, plus critical aspect on competency-based leadership (*cf.* 3.6). Another major part is the basic management task of the deputy principals (*cf.* 3.7) and managerial tasks of deputy principals (*cf.* 3.8). Lastly communication as a way of managing the implementation of change (*cf.* 3.9) and the emotions of educational leadership in dealing with change (*cf.* 3.10) are dealt with.

In Chapter 4, an overview was given of the research design, which is composed of quantitative research (*cf.* 4.2). In the planning for the quantitative research, the aims and construction of the questionnaire were investigated, as well as the statistical analysis (*cf.* 4.5).

In Chapter 5, the quantitative data was analysed and ranked according to frequencies and percentages of all items. The data was then interpreted to determine the extent the school can develop a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at school.

In Chapter 6, the information gathered from the literature review and the quantitative data were used to develop a management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at school. It discussed in-service training (*cf.* 6.4), motivation (*cf.* 6.5), managing change at schools (*cf.* 6.7), drawing on the input of others (*cf.* 6.8) and the impact of change on people (*cf.* 6.9).

The next section contains findings to indicate how the research aims were achieved.

The next section contains findings to indicate how the research aims were achieved.

7.3 FINDINGS

In order to conclude and to make recommendations for the management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change at schools, the findings will be classified in terms of the stated objectives of this study.

7.3.1 Findings with regard to the change management skills the deputy principals need to acquire in dealing with change at schools

B1 Preparing for change

- The findings in relation to the preparation for change are that the deputy principals sometimes identify problems systematically. It is indicated that they remain calm most of the time when pressure emerges. The deputy principals involve their subordinates in their decision-making and implementation (B1.1; B1.2; B1.3).
- The deputy principals utilize the input of others in preparation for change. They check for agreements made in order to be on par with the changing situation at school, and every time objectives are being reviewed to deal with change (B1.6; B1.7; B1.8).

- Communication as a way of disseminating information to staff is not always adequate. Options are evaluated and problems concerning the implementation process are identified most of the time.

B2 Planning for change

- The deputy principals should identify opportunities and solutions to address the issue of change further (B2.1; B2.2; B2.3; B2).

B3 Implementing change

- During the implementation of change, needs to achieve a plan for change was identified. In order for to achieve clarity of purpose and direction, the deputy principal has to work towards producing an aim, agoal or avision. The findings indicated that the deputy principals met deadline in dealing effectively with change at school most of the time.
- It is clear that change at schools can have adverse consequences for the individual deputy principals within schools and for schools themselves. Change can cause stress to people who are managing and implementing it. In the process of managing change, the deputy principals deal with the impact of pressure and stress in themselves, as well as inthose they are managing (B3.3; B3.4; B3.5).

B4 Sustaining changes

- Time was allocated to review progress at schools. This includes discussion of the progress, provision of relevant feedback and identification of areas for improvement (B4.2; B4.3; B4.4).
- During the change process, the deputy principals sustain the motivation of educators who are affected by change. They are successful in building a team spirit among educators. They build an inviting working environment which enables educators to deal with the pressures of change. The issue of resources is also addressed (B4.5; B4.6; B4.7).

7.3.2 Findings with regard to leadership as displayed by deputy principals during a change process at schools

- Principals of schools are the driving force behind the success of the implementation of change at schools. They are highly supportive, providing ideas concerning change. Realistic plans to address change are put in place and performance of the deputy principals is also reviewed regularly. Jobs and lines of authority on change are flexible. The schools have adopted a helpful and effective management styles to address the issue of change. Tasks are divided among staff and deputy principals were encouraged to develop to their full potential (C3; C4; C8; C11; C13; C17; C18; C20).

7.3.3 Findings with regard to the role of the school during a change process

- The schools keep their policies and procedures relevant and up-to-date to effect change. The goals and objectives of change are flexible. The school has the capacity to accommodate change and its priorities are well understood by its educators (C5; C7; C15; C22).

7.3.4 Findings with regard to educators' commitment

- It is clear that educators at schools seek to make best use of resources at school to address change. There is much cooperation and teamwork among staff which enabled deputy principals to deal with change. There is a clear and strong interaction between departments in order to achieve quality work in terms of change at schools. It is found hat educators are committed to change (C21; C24; C25; C27).

7.3.5 Findings with regard to deputy principals' work experience

- Deputy principals understand the objectives as set out by the school and always listen to ideas. They consult other educators if they are experiencing problems which are work-related (C1; C2; C6; C9).

- They seek information and organize resources needed to effect change and try to introduce improvements in dealing with change (C10; C12; C19).

7.3.6 Findings with regard to competencies of deputy principals in relation to governance

- Accountability for all aspects of the change process is clear and processes of change are adapted in terms of planned outcomes (D1.1; D1.2; D1.3).

7.3.7 Findings with regard to competencies of deputy principals in relation to leverage

- Platforms of resources, skills and knowledge are available for the deployment of new initiatives (D2.1).
- The elements of change are implemented consistently and full value is gained from existing assets and resources (D2.2; D2.3).

7.3.8 Findings with regard to competencies of the deputy principals in relation to connectivity

- Key stakeholders are engaged appropriately, the processes of change are managed creatively and resources allow for a speedy change process (D3.2; D3.2; D3.3).

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

7.4.1 Recommendation 1

A training programme for deputy principals should be designed to introduce them to the philosophy and core elements of dealing with change at schools. A developmental programme to guide schools to assist deputy principals in dealing with change should support this training programme.

Motivation

The management programme represents a fundamental concept in thinking about the management of change at schools. It requires deputy principals to

be equipped with skills and knowledge to be able to handle change at schools.

7.4.2 Recommendation 2

A framework for analysing change at schools should be developed for deputy principals to understand the process and context of change as it unfolds within a school (*cf.* 2.8).

Motivation

The framework is critical to successful change. It is central to increasing tolerance to future shock. This pattern is the cornerstone of the human capacity to absorb shock.

7.4.3 Recommendation 3

The trainers should develop deputy principals to match the capabilities needed for the challenges they face.

Motivation

The challenges deputy principals confront in life consist of the changes they see and the opportunities they acknowledge. When the challenges they encounter in terms of change are matched equally with their capabilities, they are usually able to predict what the outcome of a situation will be when they are challenged with a situation which is greater than their capabilities.

7.4.4 Recommendation 4

Schools must be viewed as complex living systems consisting of webs of relationships that need to change and grow constantly. The impact the systems have on people must be assessed.

Motivation

As the school implements change, these relationships must be brought into alignment to support the new ways of dealing with change. Those designing the change, planning for and implementing the change must consider the

school's readiness in terms of current infrastructure and how systems will be impacted by the change and what systems need to support it.

7.4.5 Recommendation 5

The school should develop strategies. Designing short- and long-term strategies will help in dealing with system impacts. Track impacts should be in place as a process of collecting information on the impacts which change will make when implemented.

Motivation

Application of management programme by the school requires a major effort and openness for innovative and fresh thinking about current change. The empowerment of deputy principals require that they are involved in the process of in-service training

7.4.6 Recommendation 6

Deputy principals should be appraised thoroughly in order to manage stress, to respond positively to it and sublimate it, whether internally or externally generated (*cf.* 2.4).

Motivation

Deputy principals need to be inducted and oriented to commit themselves to the implementation of change.

7.4.7 Recommendation 7

Deputy principals must be helped to develop in such a way as to acquire certain skills in order to manage change successfully (*cf.* 2.5.2).

Motivation

Department of Education should initiate management development programmes for deputy principals regarding quality assurance as a matter of urgency. This programme will assist deputy principals in the proper implementation of change.

7.4.8 Recommendation 8

The principal of a school should give his/her deputy principals support. The nature and intensity of support given by those involved in the change to those implementing it is one of the most important indicators of successful change.

Motivation

Schools should collaborate in cluster to share a common understanding of change and be able to put in place structures that will eliminate problems emanating from the change process.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

- An investigation into sound management in the school context: developing a communication network.
- Developing an in-service training programme to enhance the deputy principal's performance at school.
- Effective school management: perceptions of educators and learners.

7.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations became apparent towards the completion of this study:

- In this study the responses of educators and deputy principals were consulted. Perhaps the responses of also the School Management Teams and School Governing Bodies could have provided valuable insight.
- At some schools, educators and deputy principals were reluctant to complete the questionnaires
- A number of questionnaires were returned uncompleted. This could be interpreted as disinterest of the respondents towards research.

7.7 CLOSING REMARKS

In Chapter 1, it is apparent that in the ever-changing institutional systems in South Africa, the leadership of schools needs to be appraised and developed in order to deal successfully with the challenges which emanate from this change.

Due to the fact that the environment in which schools in South Africa are operating is constantly changing, the deputy principals as seconds-in-command should undergo a developmental training to equip them with the necessary skills to cope with the change process at schools.

REFERENCES

- ACHILLES, C.M. 1992. The leadership enigma is more than semantics. *Journal of School Leadership*, 1(1): 59-65.
- ACER-HOCEVAR, M. 1996. Conceptual models, choice and work cultures. *NASSP bulletin*, 80(576):78-86, Jan.
- ARY, D., JACOBS, J. L. & RAZAVIEH, A. 1990. Introduction to research in education. Fort Worth: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- BAIN, N. 1995. Successful Management. London: Macmillan Press. Ltd.
- BASCIA, N. 1997. Invisible leadership: teachers' union activity in schools. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 33(2/3): 69-85.
- BASS, B.M. 1990. From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organisational Dynamics*, 19(3): 19-31.
- BASS, B.M. 1997. Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organisational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, 52: 130-139.
- BASS, B.M. 1999. Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Selling & Sales Management*, 17(3): 19-28.
- BASS, B.M. & AVOLIO, B.J. 1994. Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership. Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage.
- BEATTY, B.R. 1999. Feeling like a leader: the emotions of leadership. A paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association: Montreal, Canada.
- BEER, M., EINSTAT, R.A. & SPECTOR, B.A. 1990. Why change projects don't produce change. *Harvard Business Review*, November: 32-40.

BELLIS, I. 2000. Skills development: a practitioner's guide to SAQA, the NQF and the Skills Development Acts. Randburg: Knowledge Resources.

BENNIS, W. 1998. On Becoming a leader. London: Arrow.

BERRY, G. 1997. Leadership and the development of quality culture in school. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 11(2); 52-64.

BERULDSEN, A. & BUCHANAN, C. 1995. Reframing leadership: looking at schools from political, structural, human resources and symbolic points of view. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Australian Council for Educational Administration: Sydney.

BEST, J.W. & KAHN, J.V. 1993. Research in education. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

BESTER, C.J. 1994. Die rol van die skoolhoof as fasiliteerder van verandering. Potchefstroom, PU vir CHO. (Thesis – PhD) 178p.

BOLMAN, L.G. & DEAL, T.E. 1997. Reforming organisations: artistry, choices and leadership (2nd ed). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

BONSTINGL, J.J. 1995. The Quality Philosophy: a transcript of John Jay Bonstingel's speech, 31 January, Johannesburg.

BROWN, D.J. 1990. Decentralization and school-based management. London: Falmer Press.

BRYMAN, A. 1992. Charisma and leadership in organisations. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

BRUWER, P. & CILLIERS, N. 1998. Entrepreneurship and business management: managing your own business. 3rd ed. Observatory: Future Managers.

BURNES, B. 1996. Managing change. a strategic approach to organisational dynamics. London: Pitman Publishers.

CADWELL, B.J. 1992. The principal as leader of the self-managing school in Australia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 30(3): 6-19.

- CALABRESE, R.L. 2003. The ethical imperative to lead change: overcoming the resistance to change. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 17(1): 7-13.
- CALDWELL, B.J. & SPINKS, J.M. 1992. Leading the self-managing schools. London: Falmer Press.
- CALITZ, L., FUGLESTAD, O.L., & LILLEJORD, S. 2001. Leadership in education. Cape Town: Heinemann,
- CALVERT, J. 1990. The dangers of school-based budgeting. Our schools our selves, 1(2), 29-45.
- CARL, A.E. 1994. Teacher empowerment through curriculum development: theory into practice. Cape Town: Juta.
- CARLSON, B. 1994. TQM edges into education. *Productivity SA*, 20(5): 14-20, Nov.
- CARNALL, C.A. 1990. Managing change in organisation. Prentice Hall .
- CARTER, S. 1996. Winning isn't everything. *Across the Board*, 33(4): 34-42.
- CHAPMAN, J. 2001. A new agenda for a new society. (In Leithwood; K., Chapman, J.; Corson, D., Hallinger, P, and Hart, A. (eds). *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*. Dordrecht: Kluwer.).
- CHEN, X. & FAHR, J. 2001. Advances in global leadership. Hong Kong: Elsevier Science Ltd.
- CHEUNG, YC CHEN, X. & TAM, W.M. 1996. Staff development for school education quality: implications of multimodels. *Training for Quality*, 4(4): 16-24.
- CLARK, K.E & CLARK, M.B. (eds) 1990. Measures of leadership. West Orange: Leadership Library of America.
- CLARKE, A. 1995. Research submitted as part of engineering doctorate entitled *Improving the Change Management Process*, University of Warwick.

CLARKE, A. & GARSIDE, J.D.1997. The development of a best practice model for change management. *European Management Journal*, 4(2).

COHEN, L. & MANION, L. 1994. Research method in education. New York: Routledge.

COLEMAN, M. & BRIGGS, A.R.J. 2002. Research methods in educational leadership and management. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

COLEMAN, P. 1998. Parent, student and teacher collaboration: the power of three. Thousand Oakes, CA: Corwin Press.

CONGELOSI, J.S. 1990. Management strategies. New York: Macmillan.

CONLEY, S. 1991. Review of research on teacher participation in school decision making. *Review of Research in Education*, 17: 225-226.

CONLEY, D.T. & GOLDMAN, P. 1994. Facilitative leadership: how principals lead without dominating. Eugene, Oregon: Oregon School Study Council.

CONNER, D.R. 1992. Managing at the speed of change: how resilience managers succeed and prosper where others fail. New York: John Wiley & sons.

CORBETT, H.D. 1990. On the meaning of restructuring: research for better schools. Philadelphia:

CORNELL, J. 1996. Aspects of the management of change. *Journal of Management in Medicine*, 10(2): 23-30.

COVEY, S.R. 1991. Principle-centred leadership. London: Simon & Schuster.

COVEY, S. 1994. The seven habits of highly effective people (rev. ed.), New York: Simon and Schuster.

CRONJE, G. J., NEULAND, E. W., HUGO, W.M., & VAN REENEN, M.J. 1990. Instruction to business economics. 3rd impression. Cape Town: Southern Book Publishers.

- DAFT, R.L. 1999. Leadership: theory and practice. London: Dryden Press.
- DAKIN, S.R & HAMILTON, R.T. 1990. How general are your general managers? *Management Decisions*, 28(2): 32-37.
- DAVIDSON, G. 1992. Beyond direct instruction: educational leadership in the elementary school classroom. *Journal of School Leadership*, 2(3): 280-288.
- DAVIES, D. 1992. Schools reaching out: family, school and community partnership for students' success. *Phil Delta Kappan*, 72(4): 379–382, Jan.
- DAWSON, P. 1994. Organisational Change: a processual approach. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- DAY, C., HARRIS, A., HADFIELD, M., TOLLEY, H. & BERESFORD, J. 2000. Leading schools in times of change. Milton: Open University Press.
- DEKKER, E. 1993. Die rol van ouers. *Prisma*, 5(5): 28-33.
- DEN HARTOG, D.N., VAN MUIJEN, J.J. & KOOPMAN, P.L. 1997. Transactional versus transformational leadership: an analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 70: 19-34.
- DE MEILLON, C. 2006. Change management and change management process, extensive experience in a technology environment. <http://www.mondial.co.za/change/itconsulting.html>
- DE VOS, A.S. & FOUCHÉ, C.B. 1998. Data analysis and interpretation: univariate analysis. (In De Vos, A.s. (ed.). Research at grass roots. Pretoria: Van Schaik Academic. P.202-223.)
- DEMPSTER, N & MAHONY, P. 1998. Ethical challenges in school leadership in effective school leadership: responding to change. London: Paul Chapman.
- DILLRAD, C.B. 1995. Leading with her life: an African-American feminist (re)interpretation of leadership for an urban high school principal. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31(4):539-563.

DIMMOCK, C.1996. Dilemmas for school leaders and administrators in restructuring. (*Inn* Dimmock, C (ed). *School-Based Management and School Effectiveness*. Routhledge, London. pp. 1-21).

DONALD, D., LAZARUS, S. & LOLWANA, P. 1997. Educational psychology in social context: challenges of development, social issues, and special needs in southern Africa. A teacher's resource. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

DOYLE, M.E. & SMITH, M.K. 2001. Classical leadership, <http://www.infed.org/leadership/traditionalleadership.htm>.

DRUCKER, P.F. 1990. *Managing for the future. The 1990s and beyond*. New York: Dulton Publishers.

DUIGNAN, P.A. & MacPHERSON, R.J.S. 1993. Educative leadership: a practical theory. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 29(1): 8-33.

DUTFIELD, M. & ELING, C. 1990. *The communicating manager*. Shaftesbury: Element Books.

DUNLAP, D. & GOLDMAN, P. 1990. Power as a "System of Authority vs. Power as a" System of Facilitation. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, April 16-20. 25 pages.

EDUPOL. 1995. *The National Teacher Education Audit*. Johannesburg: National Business Initiative.

ELLSWORTH, J. 1998. Factors affecting participant reactions to new training devices. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 59(08), 2938A. (University Microfilms No. AAI99-03405).

ELY, D. 1990. Conditions that facilitate the implementation of educational technology innovations. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, 23(2), 298-305.

EVANS, R. 1996. *The human side of school change*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

EVERARD, B. & MORRIS, G. 1990. Effective school management: management in education. 2nd ed. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

FIDLER, B. 1996. Strategic planning for school improvement. London: Pitman.

FIEDLER, H.E. 1997. Situational control and a dynamic theory of leadership. (In Grint, K. (ed). 1997. Leadership: classical, contemporary and critical approaches. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

FOWLER, S.; VAN BRUMMELEN, H.W. & VAN DYK, J. 1990. Christian schooling: education for freedom. Potchefstroom: PU for CHE. (Institute for Reformational Studies. F3-collection.)

FRAENKEL, J.R. & WALLEN, N.E. 1990. How to design and evaluate research in education. New York: McGraw Hill.

FRIED, R. 1995. The passionate teacher. Boston: Beacon Press.

FULLAN, M. 1992. Successful school improvement. Toronto: OISE Press.

FULLAN, M. 1993. Change forces: probing the depths of educational reform. London: Falmer Press.

FULLAN, M. 1998. Breaking the bonds of dependency: educational leadership. Illinois: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

FULLAN, M.G. 2001. The new meaning of educational change. 3rd ed. London: Routledge Falmer.

FULLAN, M. & HARGREAVES, A. 1991. What's worth fighting for? Working together for your school. Toronto: Ontario Public School Teachers Federation.

FULLAN, M. & HARGREAVES, A. 1996. What's worth fighting for in your school? 2nd ed. New York: Teachers College Press.

FULLAN, M. G. & STIEGELBAUER, Z. 1991. The new meaning of educational change. 2nd ed. New York: Teachers College Press.

GALL, M.D., BORG, W.R. & GALL, J.P. 1996. Educational research: an introduction. New York: McGraw-Hill.

GELTNER, B.B. & SHELTON, M.M. 1991. Expanded notions of strategic instructional leadership: the principal's role with student support personnel. *Journal of School Leadership*, 1(4):338-350.

GERBER, P.D., NEL, P.S & VAN DYK, P.S. 1994. Human resources management. 4th ed. Pretoria: Southern Publishers.

GERBER, P.D., NEL, P.S. & VAN DYK, P.S. 1998. Human Resources Management. 4th ed. Cape Town: International Thompson Publishing (RSA).

GERTH, H. H. & MILLS, C. (Eds). 1991. From Max Weber: essays in sociology, London: Routledge.

GLATTER, R. 1997. Context and capability in educational management. *Educational Management and Administration*, 25(2): 86-94.

GOLDRING, E.A. & RALLIS, S.F. 1993. Principals of dynamic schools: taking charge of change. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

GOLDSTEIN, J. 1994. The unshackled organisation: facing the challenges of unpredictability through spontaneous re-organisation. Oregon: Productive Press.

GOLENSKY, M. 1993. The board-executive relationship in non-profit organisation: partnership or power struggle? *Non-profit Management and Leadership*, 4(2): 177-191.

GORMAN, J.T. 1993. The road of Kyosei: government and industry must work together. *Industry Week*, 242(7): 66, Apr.

GREENFIELD, W.D. 1995. Towards a theory of school administration: the centrality of leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31(1): 61-85.

GRIFFIN, R.W. 1990. Management. 3rd ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

GRIFFIN, R.W. 1993. Management. 4th ed: Texas A & M University. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston

GROBLER, P.A. 1996. Leadership challenges facing companies in the new South Africa. (Unpublished inaugural address: UNISA, Pretoria.)

GROBLER, B. 2003. Effective education management series: a guide to educators and managers in education. Module 2 - Management of the school in context. Sandown: Heinemann Publishers.

GRONN, P. 1996. From transactions to transformations: a new world order in the study of leadership. *Educational Management and Administration*, 24(1):7-30.

GUINNESS, A.E. 1990. ABC's of The mind. New York: Reader's Digest Association.

HALLINGER, P. 1992. The evolving role of American principals from managerial to instructional to transformational leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 30(3): 35-48.

HALLINGER, P. 2003. Leading educational change: reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3): 328-334.

HALLINGER, P. & MURPHY, J. 1991. Developing leaders for tomorrow's schools. *Phil Delta Kappan*, 72(7): 514-520.

HAMPDEN-TURNER, C. & TROMPENAARS, L. 1993. The seven cultures of capitalism. New York: Doubleday.

HARGREAVES, A. 1997. Rethinking educational change with heart and mind. Alexandria: Association for Curriculum and Development.

HARGREAVES, A. 1998. The emotional politics of teaching and teacher development with implications for educational leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*.

- HAYES, J. 1992. *Interpersonal skills: goal-directed behaviour at work*. London: Harper Collins.
- HEIFETZ, R.A. 1994. *Leadership without answers*. Cambridge: Beknap Press.
- HENRY, M. 1996. *Parent-school collaboration*. Albany: New York Press.
- HERMAN, J.J. & HERMAN, J.L. 1994. *Making change happen*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.
- HEWITT, F., ROBINSON, S. & BENNETT, D. 1996. Modelling and benchmarking business processes: the supply line example. *Journal of Benchmarking for Quality Management and Technology*, 3(2).
- HODGKINSON, C. 1991. *Educational leadership: the moral Art*. Albany: Suny Press.
- HOPKINS, D. 1992. Changing school culture through development planning. (In Riddel, S. & Brown, S. (eds). *School Effectiveness Research: It's Messages for School Improvement*. Edinburgh: HMSO.
- HOSKINS, B. 1995. *Developing inclusive schools: a guide*. Bloomington: Forum on Education.
- HOULDER, V. 1994. Management, measuring up to success: a growing number of UK companies are turning to benchmarking to improve their performance. *Financial Times*: 17: 1 Aug.
- HUMAN, L. (ed) 1991. *Educating and developing managers for a changing South Africa: selected essays*. Cape Town: Juta.
- JOHNSON, J. & PICKERSGILL, S. 1992. Personal and interpersonal aspects of effective team-oriented headship in the primary school. *Educational Management and Administration*, 20(4): 239-248.
- JOHNSON, G. & SCHOLES, K. 1993. *Exploring corporate strategy* (3rd ed.). Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

JONKER, M.P. 1994. 'n Bestuursinligtingstelsel vir 'n staatondersteunde skool. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Proefskrif-PhD). 188p.

JUDGE, T.A. & BONO, J.E. 2000. Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85: 751-765.

KAKU, R. 1997. The path of *Kyosei*: the ethical imperatives to lead change overcoming the resistance to change. The ethical imperatives to lead change overcoming the resistance to change. *Harvard Business Review*, July/August, p. 55

KAM-CHEUNG, W. & KAI-MING, C. 1995. Educational leadership and change: an international perspective. Hong Kong: University Press.

KANTER, R.M. 1991. Transcending business boundaries: 12,000 world managers' view change. *Harvard Business Review*, May-June: 151-164.

KARINA, G & TANAKA, W. 1991. Does Empowerment affect Administration? *Nassou Bulletin*, 74(528): 115-120.

KECK, T & LOLLET, K. 1995. Critical success factors in captive multi-line insurance agency sales. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 15(1): 17-33.

KEETAN, K. 1996. The management guide to understand behaviour. Horsham: Ravetre Publishing.

KEYTER, J.J. 1995. Ouerbetrokkenheid. *Woord en Daad*, 35(352): 11-14.

KIMBROUGH, R.B & BURKETT, C.W. 1990. The principalship: concepts and practices. Engelwood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.

KLEINE-KRACHT, P. 1993. Indirect instructional leadership: an administrator's choice. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 29(2):187-212.

KOTTER, J.P. 1995. Why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard Business Review*, April/May: 59-65.

KOWALSKI, J. & OATES, A. 1993. The evolving role of superintendents in school-based management. *Journal of School Leadership*, 3(4):380-390.

KUSHMAN, J.W. 1992. The organisational dynamics of teacher workplace commitment: a study of urban elementary and middle school. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 28(1):5-42.

LAGANA, J.F. 1998. Managing change and school improvement effectively. *NASSP Bulletin*, 73(518): 50-65.

LAUGHLIN, R. 1991. Environmental disturbance and organisational transitions and transformations: some alternative models. *Organisation Studies*, 12(2): 209-232.

LEES, K.A. 1995. Advancing democratic leadership through critical theory, *Journal of School Leadership*, 5(3):220-230.

LEITHWOOD, K. 1992. The move towards transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 49(5):8-12

LEITHWOOD, K. 1994. Leadership for school restructuring. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 30(4):498-518.

LEITHWOOD, K., TOMLINSON, D. & GENGE, M. 1996. Transformational school leadership. (In Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. & Hart, A. (eds). *International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*. Netherlands: Kluwer.)

LEITHWOOD, K., JANTZI, D. & STEINBACH, R. 1999. *Changing leadership for changing times*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

LOOCK, C., CAMPHER, T., DU PREEZ, P., GROBLER, B & SHABA, S.M. 2003. *Effective Education Management Series. Educational Leadership, Module 3*. Pretoria: Heinemann Publishers.

LOUIS, K & MILES, M. B. 1990. *Improving the urban high school: what works and why*. New York: Teachers College Press.

LOUIS, K.S. 1994. Beyond managed change: rethinking how schools improve. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 5(1):2-24.

LOUIS, K.S., TOOLE, J. & HARGREAVES, A. 1999. Rethinking school improvement. (In Murphy, J. & Louis, K.S. (eds). *Handbook of Research as Social Administration*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass. pp. 251-276).

LOVELL, R. 1994. *Managing change in the new public sector*. Civil Service College: Longman Publishers.

LOWE, K.B., KROECK, K.G. & SIVASUBRAMANIAM, 1996. Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7: 385-425.

LUNENBURG, F.C & ORNSTEIN, A.C. 1991. *Educational administration: concepts and practices*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

MABIN. V. L., FORGESON, S. & GREEN, L. 2001. Harnessing resistance: Using the theory of constraints to assist change management. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 25(2): 168-191.

MacDONALD, B. 1991. Critical introduction: from innovation to reform-a framework for analysis. (In Rudduck, J. *Innovation and change*. Toronto: OISE Press. pp 1-9).

McPHERSON, M. 1996. Indigenous perspective of educational management: the third watershed in building theories of educational administration: implications for indigenous policy research and leadership practice. Paper presented at the Eighth International Conference of CCEA in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 19-24 August.

MADDUX, R.B. 1990. *Delegating for results*. California: Crisp Publications.

MAILE, S. 1998. *Empowering teachers by means of staff development for the restoration of a culture of teaching and learning*. Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation. University of Pretoria.

MAILE, S. 2000. Recognition of competence: An empowerment model for the retention of excellent teachers in the classroom. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Pretoria

MALEN, B., OGAWA, R.T & KRANTZ, J. 1990. What do we know about school-based management? A case study of the literature, a call for research. (In Clune, W.H. & Witte, J.F. (eds). *Choice and Control in American Education*, 2: The Practice of Choice, Decentralisation, and School Restructuring. New York: Falmer Press. pp. 289-342).

MAMPURU, K.C & SPOELSTRA, H.I.J. 1994. Negotiation skills in education management. Kenwyn: Juta.

MARX, F.W. & CHURR, E.G. 1990. Fundamentals of business economics. Pretoria: HAUM.

McEWAN, E.K. 1997. Leading your team to excellence: how to make quality decisions. California: Corwin Press.

MENTZ, E. 2000. Rekenaartegnologie-opleiding vir onderwysers: 'n uitkomsgebaseerde benadering. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Proefskrif-PhD)

MIDDLEHURST, R & GORDON, G. 1995. Leadership, quality and institutional effectiveness. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 49(3):267-285.

MIDDLEWOOD, D. 1998. Strategic management in education: an overview. London: Paul Chapman.

MOHRMAN, S.A. & MOHRMAN, A.M. 1995. Designing team-based organisations: new forms for knowledge work. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

MORGAN, G. 1997. Images of organisation. California: Thousands Oakes.

MORTIMORE, P. 1993. School effectiveness and the management of effective learning and teaching. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 4(4): 290-310.

MOUTON, J. 2001. How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

MOUTON, J. & MARAIS, H.C. 1990. Metodologie van die geesteswetenskappe. Pretoria: RGN.

MULLINS, L.J 1996. Management and organisational behaviour. London: Pitman.

MURGATROYD, S & MORGAN, C. 1993. Total quality management and the school. Buckingham: Open University Press.

MURPHY, J 1993. Restructuring in search of a movement. (*In* Murphy, J. & Hallinger, P. (eds), Restructuring schooling: learning from ongoing efforts. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press. Pp. 1-31).

MURPHY, J 1994. Transformational change and the evolving role of the principal. Early empirical evidence. Paper presented at AERA conference, New Orleans, April 1994.

MURPHY, J. 1995. Creative leadership. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Australian Council for Educational Administration by Sydney, Australia.

MURPHY, J. & HALLINGER, P. 1992. The principalship in an era of transformation. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 30(3): 77-88.

NANUS, B. 1992. Visionary leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

NEUMAN, W.L. 1997. Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

NEWTON, C & TARRANT, T. 1992. Managing change in schools. A practical handbook. London: Routledge.

NIAS, J. 1992. Working and learning together for change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

NICKOLS, F. 2004. Change management. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

NOJAJA, J.M. 2003. Reasons for lack of parent involvement in secondary schools in the North-West Province. M Ed Thesis. PU vir CHO.

NZIMANDE, B. 1996. A clean slate for our schools. *City Press*. 15, 27 Oct.

PATON, R.A & McCALMAN, J. 2000. Change management: a guide to effective implementation. London: Sage Publication.

PAUL, R. 1997. Dialogical thinking: critical thought essential to the acquisition of ritual knowledge and passion. Glasgow: University of Glasgow.

PETTIGREW, A. 1990. Longitudinal field research on change: *Theory and Practice, Organisation Science*, 1(3): 267-292.

PETTINGER, R. 1997. Introduction to management. 2nd ed. London: Macmillan Press.

PITT, C. 1995. Motivating your organisation: achieving business success through reward and recognition. Sydney: McGraw-Hill.

PODSAKOFF, P.M., MacKENZIE, S.B., MOORMAN, R.H. & FETTER, R. 1990. Transformational leaders' behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizen behaviours. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2):107-142.

POSTMA, W. 1996. Effektiewe ouer-onderwyser vennootskap en kommunikasie as voorwaardes vir doeltreffende onderwys. *Die Unie*, 87(6):164-166, Des.

POTTAS, C & NIEUWMEIJER, L. 1992. Onderhandeling- 'n fyn kuns. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

RAPPAPORT, L.A. 1993. A school-based quality improvement program. *NASSP Bulletin*, 77(554): 16-21, Sep.

RICHARDS, T. 1999. Creativity and management of change. *Blackmill Business Bulletin*.

RILEY, K.A & LOUIS, K.S. 2000 (Eds) Leadership for change and school reform: international perspective. London: Routledge Farmer.

- ROGERS, E. 1995. Diffusion of innovations. 4th ed. New York, NY: Free Press.
- ROEBUCK, C. 1999. A self-development programme: effective leadership. London: Marshall Publishers.
- ROSSMILLER, R.A. 1992. The secondary school principal and teachers' quality of work life. *Educational Management and Administration*, 20(3): 132-146.
- ROST, J.C. 1991. Leadership for the 21st Century. New York. Praeger Press.
- SADDLER, P. 1997. Leadership. London: Kogan Press.
- SARASON, S.B. 1996. Revisiting the culture of the school and the problems of change. New York: Teachers College Press.
- SEHLARE, B.P.M.M. 1993. The responsibility of the principal in the induction of the beginner teacher in high schools in Bophuthatswana. Dissertation: PU for CHE, Potchefstroom.
- SENGE, P. 1990. The fifth discipline: the art and practice of the learning organisation: New York: Doubleday.
- SENIOR, B. 1997. Organisational change. London: Pitman Publishers.
- SERGIOVANNI, T. 1990. Adding value to leadership gets extraordinary results. *Educational Leadership*, 1(5): 23-27. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- SHEPPARD, B. 1996. Exploring the transformational nature of instructional leadership. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, XLII (4):325-344.
- SHORT, P.M., GREER, J.T & MELVIN, W. M. 1994. Creating empowerment school: lessons in change. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 32(4): 38-52.
- SMIT, J.J.A. 1998. Modelle in die onderrig van Fisika. *SA Tydskrif vir Natuurwetenskap en Tegnologie*, 17(4): 137-142.
- SMITH, M. 1991. Leadership and supervision. (In Smith, M (ed). *Analysing Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Macmillan, p 207.

SMITH, R. 1994. Strategic management and planning in the public sector. Harlow: Longman Press.

SMITH, W.J., THURLOW, M & FOSTER, W.F. 1997. Supporting education management in South Africa: international perspectives. Vol. 1: Selected Themes in Education Management Development. McGill University: The Canada-South Africa Education Management Program (CSAEMP)

SMYLIE, M.A. 1990. Teacher efficacy at work. (In Reyes, P. (ed). Teachers and their workplace. Newbury Park, Ca: Sage).

SMYLIE, M.A. 1992. Glenview, Illinois: From contract to consultation. (In Kerchner, C.T. & Kopek, J.E. (eds.). A Union of Professionals: Labour Relations and Educational Reform, New York: Teachers College Press. pp. 98-115).

SOUTH AFRICA: Department of Education. 2002. Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (schools) Policy: languages English-second additional language. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA Department of Education. 2003. Facilitators Manual 2. Learning Programme: guidelines for Foundation Phase. Pretoria: Government Printers.

SOUTH AFRICA: Free State Department of Education. 1997. Job description of educators. *Free State Teacher*, 87(7): 13-19.

SQUELCH, J. & LEMMER, E. 1993. Governance of education. (In Lemmer, E. (ed). 2000. Contemporary Education: Global Issues and Trends. Sandton: Heinemann. P.127-146).

STALHAMMAR, B. 1994. Goal-oriented leadership in Swedish schools. *Educational Management and Administration*, 22(1):14-25.

STARK, B .P. & FLAHERTY, J.S. 1999. The competent leader: a powerful and practical toolkit for managers and supervisors. Canada: Human Resource Development Press.

STEYN, G.M. 1996. The quest for quality in our schools. *Educare*, 25(1&2): 120-136.

STREBEL, P. 1996. Choosing the right path: mastering management. Part 14. *Financial Times*.

TAMPOE, M. 1998. *Liberating leadership: realising leadership potential throughout the organisation*. London: The Industrial Society.

THOM, P.J. 1996. Educational leadership worldwide: the Christian conscience factor. Keynote address presented at the eighth international conference of the CCEA in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

TUCKMAN, B.W. 1994. *Conducting educational research*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace College.

VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, P.C. 1991. Educational management tasks. (*In Van der Westhuizen, P.C. Effective educational management*. Pretoria: HAUM. Pp.135-223).

VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, P.C. 1992. Educational management tasks. (*In Van der Westhuizen, P.C. (ed). Effective Educational Management*. Pretoria: HAUM. pp. 135-233).

VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, P.C., De BRUYN, P.P., ERASMUS, M., MENTZ, P.J., STEYN, S.C. & THERON, AMC. 2002. *Schools as Organisations*. Pretoria. Van Schaik Publishers.

VAN DEVENTER, I & KRUGER, A.G. 2003. *An educator's guide to school management skills*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

VAN MAURIK, J. 2001. *Writers on leadership*, London: Penguin.

VAN SCHALKWYK, O.J. 1990. *Ouerbetrokkenheid: 'n handleiding vir die onderwyser*. Pretoria: Alkanto Uitgewers.

VAN STADEN, J.F., SCHEEPERS, J.M. & RIEGER, H.S. 2000. Lokus van beheer en transformasionele leierskap. *Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 26(3): 8-14.

VAN WYK, H.W. 1991. Die rol van die bestuurdersraad in skoolbestuur. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Skripsie-M.Ed).

VOOGT, J., LAGERWEIJ, N. LOUIS, K.S. 1998. School development and organisational learning. (In Leithwood. K. & Louis, K.S. (eds). *Organisational Learning in Schools*. Lisser: Swets & Zeitlinger. pp. 237-260).

WADDEL, D & SOHAL, A.S. 1998. Resistance: a constructive tool for change. *Management Decision*, 36(8): 543-548.

WALKER, A. & DIMMOCK, C. 1999. Exploring principals' dilemmas in Hong Kong: increased cultural understanding of school leadership. *International Journal of Educational Reform*, 8(1): 15-24.

WAN, P.T. 1992. The parent involvement in secondary school management: a case study in Shatin. Unpublished Med dissertation, University of Hong Kong.

WARD, J.G. 1994. Recording educational administration and democracy. (In Prestine, N. & Thurston, P. (eds). *Advances in Educational Administration*. Middlesex, UK: JAI Press).

WASLEY, P.A. 1991. Teachers as leaders: the rhetoric of reform and the realities of practice. New York: Teachers College Press.

WEETO, M.H. 1997. Problems principals experience in optimising parental involvement in school activities. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Mini-dissertation M Ed.) 166p.

WEST-BURNHAM, J. 1994. Strategy, policy and planning. Great Britain: Longman. pp 79-99).

WHITAKER, P. 1993. Managing change in schools. Buckingham: Open University Press.

WHITAKER, P. 1995. Informal teacher leadership: the key to successful change in the middle school. *NASSP Bulletin*, Jan.: 76-81.

WOLF, R.M. 1997. Questionnaires. (*In* Keeves, J.P. Educational research methodology and instrument: an international handbook. Oxford: Pergamon. pp. 422-423).

WRIGHT, P. 1996. Managerial leadership, London: Routledge.

YUKL, G. 1994. Leadership in organisations, 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs.: Prentice-Hall.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING A MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME TO ASSIST DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN DEALING WITH CHANGE IN SCHOOLS IN THE SEDIBENG WEST DISTRICT (D8)

Instructions for completing the questionnaire:

1. The questionnaire is strictly for research purposes only.
2. Please do not enter your name or the name of the school anywhere on this questionnaire.
3. Your honest response will be of great value to the research.
4. Your response will be dealt in a confidential manner.
5. The questionnaire consists of five sections:
 - Section A: Personal and general information
 - Section B: Change management skills of deputy principals
 - Section C: Work experiences of deputy principals
 - Section: D Competencies of deputy principals

SECTION A: PERSONAL AND GENERAL INFORMATION

Please answer the following questions by drawing an (X) in the appropriate box.

| | | | | | |
|----|--------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. | Your age falls within the range: | | | | |
| | 25-34 years | 35 -44 years | 45 – 54 years | 55 – 60 years | 61 – 65years |
| 2. | Your gender: | | Male | Female | |
| 3. | What position do you hold at school? | | | | |
| | Principal | Deputy principal | H.O.D. | | PL1 Educator |
| 4. | Your highest qualification: | | | | |
| | Technical Diploma | Diploma in Education | Degree | Honours Degree | Masters Degree Ph D or D.Ed |
| 5. | What is your REQV? | | | | |
| | A or B = m + 2 | C = m + 3 | D = m + 4 | E = m + 5 | F = m + 6 G = m + 7 |
| 6. | What is your home language? | | | | |
| | English | Afrikaans | Sesotho | Setswana | Sepedi |
| | IsiZulu | IsiXhosa | IsiNdebele | IsiSwati | Tshivenda Other |

SECTION B: CHANGE MANAGEMENT SKILLS OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

The questions seek to determine your own experience in change management skills, preparation for change, planning for change, implementation of change and sustaining of change by deputy principals. Please indicate this by encircling the appropriate number.

| CHANGE MANAGEMENT SKILLS | | | | | |
|---|---|--------------|------------------|-------------------------|---------------|
| The role of the Deputy Principal | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the time | Always |
| 1. | Preparing for change | | | | |
| | The deputy principal: | | | | |
| 1.1 | identifies problems systematically | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.2 | remains calm under pressure | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.3 | involves others when appropriate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.4 | builds on an open climate for decision-making | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.5 | sets objectives | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.6 | draws on the input of others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.7 | checks for agreement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.8 | reviews objectives carefully | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.9 | finds all information relevant to a decision | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1.10 | prepares ideas effectively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. | Planning changes | | | | |
| | The deputy principal: | | | | |
| 2.1 | identifies opportunities and solutions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2.2 | evaluates options carefully | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2.3 | communicates information and views clearly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2.4 | generates imaginative solutions to problems | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2.5 | identifies problems concerning implementation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | Never | Sometimes | Most of the time | Always |
|-----------|---|-------|-----------|------------------|--------|
| 3. | Implementing changes | | | | |
| | The deputy principal: | | | | |
| 3.1 | identifies what needs to be done to achieve a plan for change | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.2 | meets deadlines | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.3 | identifies the impact of change on people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.4 | deals with the impact of pressure | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.5 | identifies the impact of stress on others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.6 | allocates tasks sensibly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.7 | co-ordinates plans and actions effectively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. | Sustaining changes | | | | |
| | The deputy principal: | | | | |
| 4.1 | makes the time to review progress | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.2 | discusses problems openly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.3 | provides relevant feedback | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.4 | identifies areas for improvement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.5 | keeps motivation high | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.6 | builds team spirit | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.7 | sets out to increase the use of resources | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4.8 | allows enough time for change | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

SECTION C: WORK EXPERIENCES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

The questions seek to determine the experience of the deputy principals in dealing with change in schools. Please indicate your own experience by encircling the appropriate number.

| | | Agree strongly | Agree | Not sure | Disagree | Disagree strongly |
|-----|---|-------------------|-------|----------|----------|----------------------|
| 1. | I understand the objectives of this school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | Deputy Principals listen to ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | My principal is supportive. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | My principal has ideas that are helpful to my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | This school keeps its policies and procedures relevant and up to date. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | We regularly achieve our objective. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | The goals and objectives of this school on change are clearly stated. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | Jobs and lines of authority on change are flexible. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | I can talk to someone at work if I have a work-related problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | I have the information and resources I need to effect a change at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | The management style adopted by senior management is helpful and effective. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | We constantly review our methods and introduce improvements | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. | The way in which work tasks are divided is sensible and clear. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | Performance is regularly reviewed by my principal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | This school has the capacity to change. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | Creativity and initiative are encouraged. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | I am encouraged to develop to my full potential | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | I feel motivated to address issues pertaining to change at school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | Agree strongly | Agree | Not sure | Disagree | Disagree strongly |
|----|---|----------------|-------|----------|----------|-------------------|
| 19 | My relationship with members of group is sound | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | The principal sets realistic plans to address change | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | Educators seek to make the best use of resources | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | The priorities of my school are understood by its educators | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 | There is a constant search for ways of improving the way of work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | Staff members cooperate effectively in order to get the work done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 | Departments work well together to achieve quality work in terms of change | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27 | Results are attained because people are committed to change | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

SECTION D: COMPETENCIES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

According to research literature on change management, the deputy principals must have the following change management competencies. Please rank these management competencies according to your own institution on a 5-point scale by encircling the appropriate number.

| MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME | | Never | Hardly ever | Not sure | Sometimes | Always |
|----------------------|--|-------|-------------|----------|-----------|--------|
| 1. | Governance | | | | | |
| 1.1 | Accountability for all aspects of the change process is clear. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1.2 | The processes for change are aligned in terms of planned outcomes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1.3 | The efforts of individuals and groups involved are coordinated. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|--------------|--------------------|-----------------|------------------|---------------|
| 2. Leverage | | Never | Hardly ever | Not sure | Sometimes | Always |
| 2.1 | "Platforms" of resources, skills and knowledge are available for the deployment of new initiatives. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2.2 | The elements of change are implemented consistently. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2.3 | Full value is gained from existing assets and resources. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME | | | | | | |
| 3. Connectivity | | | | | | |
| 3.1 | Key stakeholders are engaged appropriately. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3.2 | The process of change is managed creatively. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3.3 | Resources allow for a speedy change process. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Thank you for your kind support!

APPENDIX B

LETTERS OF PERMISSION



UMnyango WezeMfundo
Department of Education

Lefapha la Thuto
Departement van Onderwys

ENQUIRIES: NM STRYDOM

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

FROM : MR MJ SITHOLE: DCES
POLICY & PLANNING UNIT

DATE : 27 FEBRUARY 2006

This serves to confirm that permission has thus been granted to:

MR MJ MAILULA

to conduct research in any school within the Sedibeng West District (D8) on the topic:
"A Management Programme to assist Deputy Principals in dealing with change in schools
in Sedibeng West District", for purposes of completion of his PhD in Educational Sciences.

It is understood by Mr MJ Mailula that this approval is granted on condition that his
research will not take place during contact time and will therefore not disrupt teaching
and learning.

It would be greatly appreciated if he can be afforded the opportunity to continue with
his research without any prejudice.

Trusting you will find this to be in order.

Yours in Tirisano

MR SD THIMANE
SENIOR MANAGER
SEDIBENG WEST DISTRICT (D8)

**OFFICE OF THE SENIOR MANAGER
SEDIBENG WEST DISTRICT (D8)**

Cnr Goodyear & Shakespear Street
Goodyear Building
TEL: (016) 933 3300/1/94

Private Bag X067
Vanderbijlpark, 1900
Fax: (016) 933 2108



UMnyango WezeMfundo
Department of Education

Lefapha la Thuto
Departement van Onderwys

| | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Date: | 24 February 2006 |
| Name of Researcher: | Mailula Mokgalaka John |
| Address of Researcher: | 226 Louis Trichardt |
| | SE 7 |
| | Vanderbijlpark 1900 |
| Telephone Number: | (016) 9861029 |
| Fax Number: | (016) 9863588 |
| Research Topic: | A management programme to assist deputy principals in dealing with change in schools in Sedibeng West District |
| Number and type of schools: | 99 Primary and Secondary Schools |
| District/s/HO | Sedibeng West |

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

Permission has been granted to proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met, and may be withdrawn should any of these conditions be flouted:

1. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*
2. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.*
3. *A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*

Office of the Senior Manager – Strategic Policy Research & Development
Room 525, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001 P.O.Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000
Tel: (011) 355-0488 Fax: (011) 355-0286

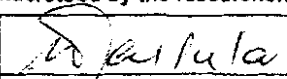
4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Senior Manager (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Senior Manager: Strategic Policy Development, Management & Research Coordination with one Hard Cover bound and one Ring bound copy of the final, approved research report. The researcher would also provide the said manager with an electronic copy of the research abstract/summary and/or annotation.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Senior Manager concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards



ALBERT CHANEE
ACTING DIVISIONAL MANAGER: OFSTED

| | |
|---|--|
| The contents of this letter has been read and understood by the researcher. | |
| Signature of Researcher: |  |
| Date: | 27/02/2008 |