

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2 THE NATURE OF TEAM MANAGEMENT

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter opens with the description of the concept of team management, including its advantages and disadvantages. This is followed by an exploration of the major theories of team management. The discussion of the prerequisites for effective team management analyses those elements which have been identified as essential for the effective functioning thereof. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the composition and structure of team management.

#### 2.2 DEFINING TEAM MANAGEMENT

As indicated in the previous chapter, a group of teachers becomes a "team" when there is a task which requires them to interact with one another for the purpose of accomplishing that task. Margerison and McCann (1990:10) stress that a team is more than the number of brilliant individual advisers. They regard a team as a group of people who understand each other, who are aware of individual strengths and weaknesses and who co-operate with one another.

Co-operation within a team promotes teamwork. According to Bell (1992:45) teamwork is a group of people working together on the basis of shared perceptions, a common purpose, agreed procedures, commitment, co-operation and resolving disagreements openly by discussion. Bell further opines that teamwork has to be managed if it is to be effective.

Team management is not transplanting ideas out of the heads of the principals into the heads of the teachers. It is the art of mobilising and putting together the intellectual resources of all the teachers in the service of the school (Margerison & McCann, 1990:2). Swift (1972:26) regards team management as an organisational pattern in which managers share power and responsibility with their subordinates. Littlejohn (1982:23) alleges that team management integrates members, irrespective of organisational rank or title, with decision-making, conflict-resolving and leadership process. Owens (1987:284) views it as ego involvement which unleashes creativity and initiative.

Team management, therefore, implies the utilisation of teams to deal with management tasks or functions so as to facilitate the attainment of school goals and the satisfaction of

both teachers and pupils. It is the system of mobilising the intellectual resources of the teachers in the service of the school.

### **2.3 TEAM MANAGEMENT AND PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT**

Wynn and Guditus (1984:23) opine that team management and participative management are often used synonymously. An analysis of the definition of team management by Owens (1987:289) and of participative management by Houston (1990:187) confirms this allegation.

Nevertheless, an observable distinction is that participative management refers to the involvement of an individual or individuals, while team management refers to the co-operative or collaborative effort of a group in shaping the destiny of the organisation (Wynn & Guditus, 1984:23). Team management, therefore, implies the utilisation of teams, through participative management, whose membership may not necessarily consist of managers. Snyder's (1978:4) explanation of the concept team management supports this viewpoint. His analysis also indicates that participation is an element of team management.

Team management is based on theories of writers such as Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg.

### **2.4 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF TEAM MANAGEMENT**

#### **2.4.1 Maslow**

Maslow (1954) holds the view that the motives of a human being reside in the satisfying of his needs. His behaviour is at times influenced by the strongest need at that specific time. According to Maslow, human behaviour shows a hierarchy in which physiological needs are the basis and the self-actualisation needs are at the top.

The same author states that the worker (i.e. the teacher ) should be given more power over his own work environment, responsibility, authority and increased control over decision-making that affects his immediate work environment. Inability to satisfy these needs result in discontent and restlessness (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:178). The degree of self-actualisation increases sharply for individuals as their dependence and subordination decrease and their control over their work increase (Argyris, 1957:181).

### **2.4.2 Herzberg**

According to Robbins (1989:153), Herzberg's hygiene factors which cause dissatisfaction are related to the conditions and environment of the work. These factors are : policy and administration, supervision, salary, job security, interpersonal relations and working conditions (Robbins, 1989:153; Lehman, 1989:76; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:94). Intrinsic factors which act as motivators are : achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth (Robbins, 1989:153). When these factors receive attention, high-order needs are satisfied. Motivators make the work more interesting and have the greatest potential for increased performance (Lehman, 1989:76).

Team management is one of the mechanisms of participation in school management which provide motivation or make the work meaningful. Team management changes the work itself and provides teachers with increased responsibilities and an opportunity for personal growth. It recognises their abilities and provide opportunities to enhance their visibility for promotion and advancement. Team management can be used to build motivation into jobs (Anthony, 1984:22).

### **2.4.3 McGregor**

McGregor (1960:33-57) makes a distinction between Theory X and Theory Y. According to Newton (1980:64), the former is based on the scientific management theory and presents a negative view of the worker while the latter is derived from a humanistic theory and proposes a positive view of the worker.

The Theory X assumptions are the following (McGregor, 1960:33-34) :

- The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.
- Consequently, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed or threatened with punishment to make them strive toward achieving organisational objectives.
- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above everything else.

McGregor (1960:45-57) contrasts Theory X with Theory Y assumptions which hold that :

- The average human being does not inherently dislike work.
- External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for achieving organisational goals.

- Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
- The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.
- The capacity for creativity in solving organisational problems is widely distributed in the population.

Principals who subscribe to Theory X assumptions exclude their teachers from participating in school decision-making. They assign decision-making to themselves through the hierarchical structure of the school organisation. Theory X assumptions make principals believe that teachers are incapable of participating in decision-making or unwilling to participate and that any endeavour to promote participation is a waste of time (Anthony, 1984:39). According to McGregor the authoritarian principal would subscribe to the Theory X view of his teachers, whereas the democratic principal would hold with the Theory Y view.

McGregor, being a human resource theorist, proposes that training and organisational development activities be used to help managers develop so that they can humanise the schools (Moss, 1991:76) and create opportunities to satisfy high-level needs (McGregor, 1960:40).

#### **2.4.4 Argyris**

Argyris (1957:158) opines that an individual develops along an immaturity-maturity continuum, from immaturity as an infant to maturity as an adult. He alleges that mature individuals are predisposed to independence and yet management controls and forces them to be dependent, passive and subordinate. These incongruencies lead ultimately to conflict, frustration and failure (Anthony, 1984:22). Lunenburg & Ornstein (1991:33) argue that school administrators respond by imposing further restrictions which are counterproductive and contribute to ineffectiveness.

If a principal wants to get good performance from his teachers he should treat them as adults. He should allow them to exercise control over their work, to use their abilities and to experience opportunities aimed at accomplishment and achievement. The restraining effects of a bureaucratic organisational structure should be ameliorated by flexible rules and procedures, greater delegation of authority, more participation in decision-making, and more fluid structure throughout the organisation (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:33).

### **2.4.5 Likert**

Likert (as quoted by Blumberg & Feitler, 1972:63) proposes four basic systems of organisation which he labelled the following:

System 1: Authoritative-Exploitative; System 2: Benevolent-Authoritative; System 3: Consultative and System 4 : Participative. System 1, 2 and 3 rely on negative motivation, fear and punishment with reward being used also in System 2 and 3. Centralised decision-making is also prevalent (Owens, 1987:49). There is some similarity between System 1, 2 and 3 and McGregor's Theory X.

Siped and Likert (quoted by Owens, 1987:49) maintain that the more effective schools are those with a participative environment more towards System 4, while the less effective are more authoritarian, toward a System 1 pattern of operation. System 4 is based upon McGregor's Theory Y, the same as team management (Wynn & Guditus, 1984:62).

The implication hereof is that the principals should try to transform or move their schools or teams from System 1, 2, and 3 to System 4. For a school to be in this position or system, the principal should ensure that all interactions between the teachers and himself are perceived by teachers as promoting their own sense of personal worth and importance in the school.

Team management is underpinned and characterised by the above-mentioned theorists. Principals should therefore be familiar with these theories. In addition, principals should also be aware of the advantages of team management.

## **2.5 ADVANTAGES OF TEAM MANAGEMENT**

Team or group decision-making has advantages over individual decisions in certain instances. However, neither is ideal for all situations.

Team management addresses the high order needs of team members and practicalities Theory Y assumptions as well as Herzberg's motivations. It perceives team members as mature adults while promoting a System 4 type of management.

Participation by the team in the decisions that affect its members can promote ego involvement in the activities and functions of the team. Ego involvement, opines Herbert (1976:415), is important for enhancing levels of commitment, involvement and motivation. This enables the team members to have a clearer comprehension of their role in the team and the constraints as well as difficulties involved in co-ordinating and managing the unit.

The advantage of commitment is supported by other writers (Davies, 1983:176; Wynn, 1973:9). Robbins (1989:192) is of the opinion that teachers are less likely to undermine a decision at the time of its implementation if they shared in making that decision.

Wynn (1973:9) maintains that the management of a school has become too complex and difficult for any principal to handle alone. Decisions and plans generated by the management team will therefore be better than those generated by an individual person. Davies (1983:176), in support of Wynn, argues that harnessing the collective experience and perception of team members should improve the quality of decision-making.

Participation by team members in the management processes constitutes a valuable vehicle for the professional development of the members of the team (Wynn, 1973:9-10). Hawkins (1982:82) also sees team management as contributing to staff development in that it helps team members to grow and gain confidence in their roles as teachers. Teachers who solve problems on a daily basis usually develop a clearer comprehension of the nature of the problems and the solution strategies. Ultimately teachers develop or gain technical expertise.

A caring and sharing attitude develops among team members as a result of communication and interaction, while mutual trust and support are fostered (Littlejohn, 1982:23). Consequently, conflict within the team can be openly and constructively handled. Littlejohn further states that a positive team spirit creates a healthy, positive climate for conflict resolution. It can bring about increased teacher motivation and teamwork.

Group decision-making in the form of team management is congruent to democratic processes and may be viewed as being more legitimate in the current climate of teacher militancy than individual decision-making by a principal. When a principal fails to consult with teachers before making a decision, he can create an impression that the decision was made autocratically and arbitrarily (Robbins, 1989:285).

Another advantage of team management is that communication becomes open throughout the school, with teachers talking to one another as well as their managers (Littlejohn, 1982:23). This writer further maintains that an integrated communication network within the team leads to less distortion and an improved clarification of information and can enhance goal achievement.

Herbert (1976:415) mentions access to information as another benefit of team management. According to him, teachers, because of their intimate relationship with

work processes, may possess information that management lacks. Because of the existence of communication barriers to the upward flow of information in most organisations (schools), such valuable information possessed by subordinates never reaches the principals (Greenwood, 1969:699). Participation in team activities by management and subordinates breaks down the barriers, making the information available to managers. It may also reduce the status differentials between workers and managers and, as a result, bring about better communication in both directions (Herbert, 1976:424).

According to DuVall and Erickson (1981:63), job satisfaction of teachers participating in a management team will be higher than that of teachers executing similar responsibilities but operating individually, provided that participants in the management team are convinced they have an effect on the decision-making process.

The above-mentioned advantages give the impression that team management is a panacea for all management problems. However, on the contrary, team management also has its own disadvantages.

## **2.6 DISADVANTAGES OF TEAM MANAGEMENT**

The aforementioned advantages of team management are accompanied by the following disadvantages :

- Team members are rarely similar or equal. They bring into the team their different ranks, experience, verbal skills, assertiveness, knowledge about the topic and influence over other members. These lead to a state of affairs where one or more members dominate others and ultimately have an undue influence on the final decision (Robbins, 1988:112).
- Social pressure within the team suppresses dissenting voices. The need to be accepted and to become a member of the team prevent open disagreement and foster conformity (Robbins, 1988:112). This might lead to group thinking.
- While group members can share responsibility, it is not clear who takes responsibility for the final outcome. Robbins (1988:112) alleges that the responsibility of any single team member is watered down in participative decision-making.
- Groups always utilise more time to reach a solution than if an individual were making the decision alone (Robbins, 1988:112). The attempt to attain consensus may lead to procedure delays such as consultation with other individuals or committee or team.

Consequently, it requires patience and a considerable investment of time (Bush, 1986:63). Teachers simply do not have such time, because for the greater part of the day they are involved in teaching. Bush argues that if meetings are held after school, teachers are invariably tired and not keen to be subjected to a tedious process of achieving consensus.

Team management in schools depends virtually on the disposition of the principal. Participation in decision-making by the staff can materialise only with the approval of the principal, who, according to Bush (1986:65) can exert strong influence concerning what is to be discussed and also veto decisions he regards as unacceptable.

Gorton (1980:336) lists the following difficulties experienced by groups :

- Failure by some team members to comprehend the reason for their membership into a group and a consequent absence of commitment to a group.
- Lack of understanding and/or acceptance by members of the group of the goal or task the group is expected to address.

In addition to the above advantages and disadvantages, there are certain prerequisites or elements for effective team management

## **2.7 PREREQUISITES OF TEAM MANAGEMENT**

According to Grindle (1982:30) there are four prerequisites central to the process of management by collaborative practises. He identifies these as leadership, communication, participative decision-making and the exercise of shared authority and power. He regards these elements or functions as being of equal significance.

### **2.7.1 Active leadership**

#### **2.7.1.1 Introduction**

In a school situation the leadership role is not necessarily exercised by the principal alone all of the time. It is also exercised by the teachers in their different capacities as sports masters, departmental heads, deputy principals and class teachers. Nevertheless, it is the principal's role of leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for learning and teaching as well as enhancing the morale of the teachers.

### **2.7.1.2 Definition of leadership**

Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals (Robbins, 1982:83). It is the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing organisational goals and objectives (Lipham, quoted by Gorton, 1980:264). Boles and Davenport (1975:117), on the other hand, view leadership as the process in which the individual takes initiative to assist a group in moving towards production goals that are acceptable and to dispose of those needs of individuals within the group that impelled them to join it.

From these definitions it is evident that leadership is concerned with influencing people and facilitating the achievement of goals. In order to influence teachers it would be necessary to satisfy their needs. These might be ego or self-actualising needs or even security needs. A satisfied work force becomes an asset towards the achievement of such goals. For the influence to be effective, there should be sound interpersonal relationships as well.

### **2.7.1.3 Leadership, power and authority**

Leadership has been defined as the ability to influence people. This influence is due in part to the source of power the leader utilises. The concept of power, however, conveys undesirable connotations of dominance, control and manipulation for most people (Herlihy & Herlihy, 1985:95).

Webber (in Carver & Sergiovanni, 1969:201) defines authority as legitimate power. In other words, authority is a particular type of power which has its origin in the position which a leader occupies. Swift (1971:27) summarises the distinction between power and authority by stating that authority resides in the office (position), but power rests with those "in the know".

### **2.7.1.4 Bases of power**

To Guditus (1983:31) the crucial issue concerning power is its distribution within the organisation (schools) and the uses to which it is put. French and Raven (in Herlihy & Herlihy, 1985:96) identified five basis of power namely, legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, referent power and expert power.

*Legitimate power* is the power given to people by virtue of the position they occupy in a hierarchy. For the principal, this power includes assignment of duties to teachers and enforcement of policies (Herlihy & Herlihy, 1985:96). According to Hersey and Blanchard

(1982:184) more matured (i.e. experienced, willing and competent) teachers are less influenced by the use of position power.

*Reward power* is based on the principal's ability to provide rewards to teachers who believe that compliance will lead to positive incentives such as promotion or recognition (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:179). The principal's reward power can be formal, as exemplified by a positive teacher evaluation, recommendation for contract renewal (confirmation of probation) and it can also be informal, as in a word of praise or recognition for a job done well (Herlihy & Herlihy, 1985:96).

The opposite of reward power is *coercive power*. It emanates from legitimate power (Koontz *et al.*, 1986:206). A teacher reacts to this power out of fear of the negative ramifications that might result if he fails to comply. It is the power to punish by firing, suspending, demoting, transferring, assigning work activities to a teacher which he finds unpleasant (Robbins, 1989:342) or withholding a merit increase (Koontz *et al.*, 1986:206).

According to Wynn & Guditus (1984:96) these three sources of power are inherent in hierarchical positions. Guditus (1976:53) alleges that these bases of power are conferred by the organisation, and as a result can be increased, redistributed or withdrawn arbitrarily. He further states that these sources of power are frequently eroded by legislative changes, unionisation, court decisions, and changing attitudes as reflected in the re-emergence of the principle of shared governance.

*Referent power* is based on the leader's personal traits (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:179). This power manifests itself in people associating with a leader and his ideas. The leader is held in high esteem because of his personal characteristics. In short, he is a popular person.

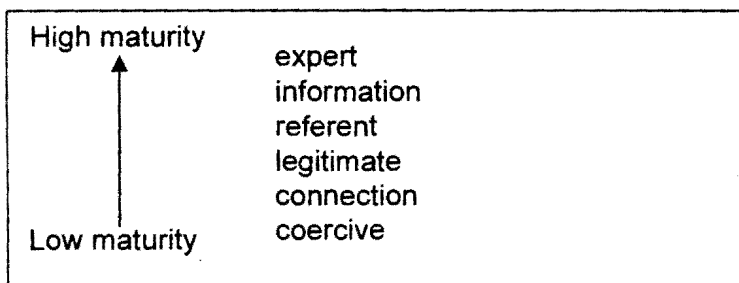
According to Hersey & Blanchard, (1982:178) *expert power* manifests itself through the leader's possession of expertise, skill and knowledge, which through respect, influences others. A leader high in expert power is seen as possessing the expertise to facilitate the work behaviour of others. This aspect leads to compliance with the leader's wish. Expert power encompasses the principal's expertise in both management and instructional leadership, and it is enhanced through continued professional development (Herlihy & Herlihy, 1985:96).

Referent and expert power are regarded by Wynn and Guditus (1984:32) as overriding sources of power. Those in charge of management teams are expected to rely on expert

and referent power if they are to provide effective leadership to their teams. Traditional bases of power are losing favour among teachers.

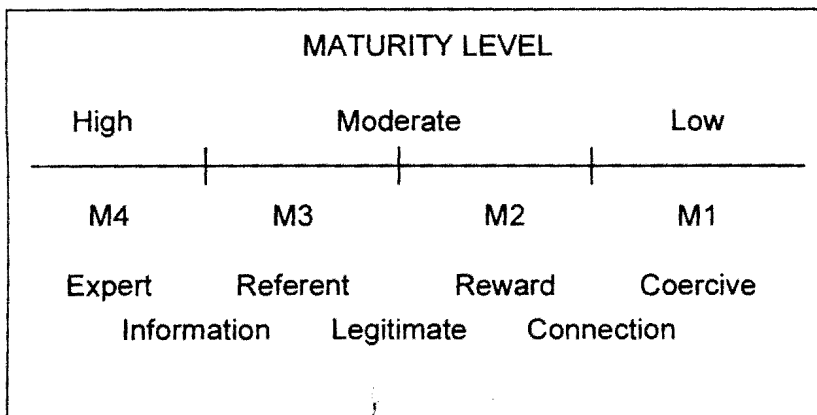
According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982:181) the five power bases appear to have significant impact on the behaviour of team members at various levels of maturity, as shown in Figure 2.1. Figure 2.2 on the other hand indicates the power bases that may influence people's behaviour at various levels of maturity.

**FIGURE 2.1: Impact of power bases at various levels of maturity**



(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:182.)

**FIGURE 2.2: Power bases necessary to influence people's behaviour at various levels of maturity**



(Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:182.)

### 2.7.1.5 The Managerial Grid

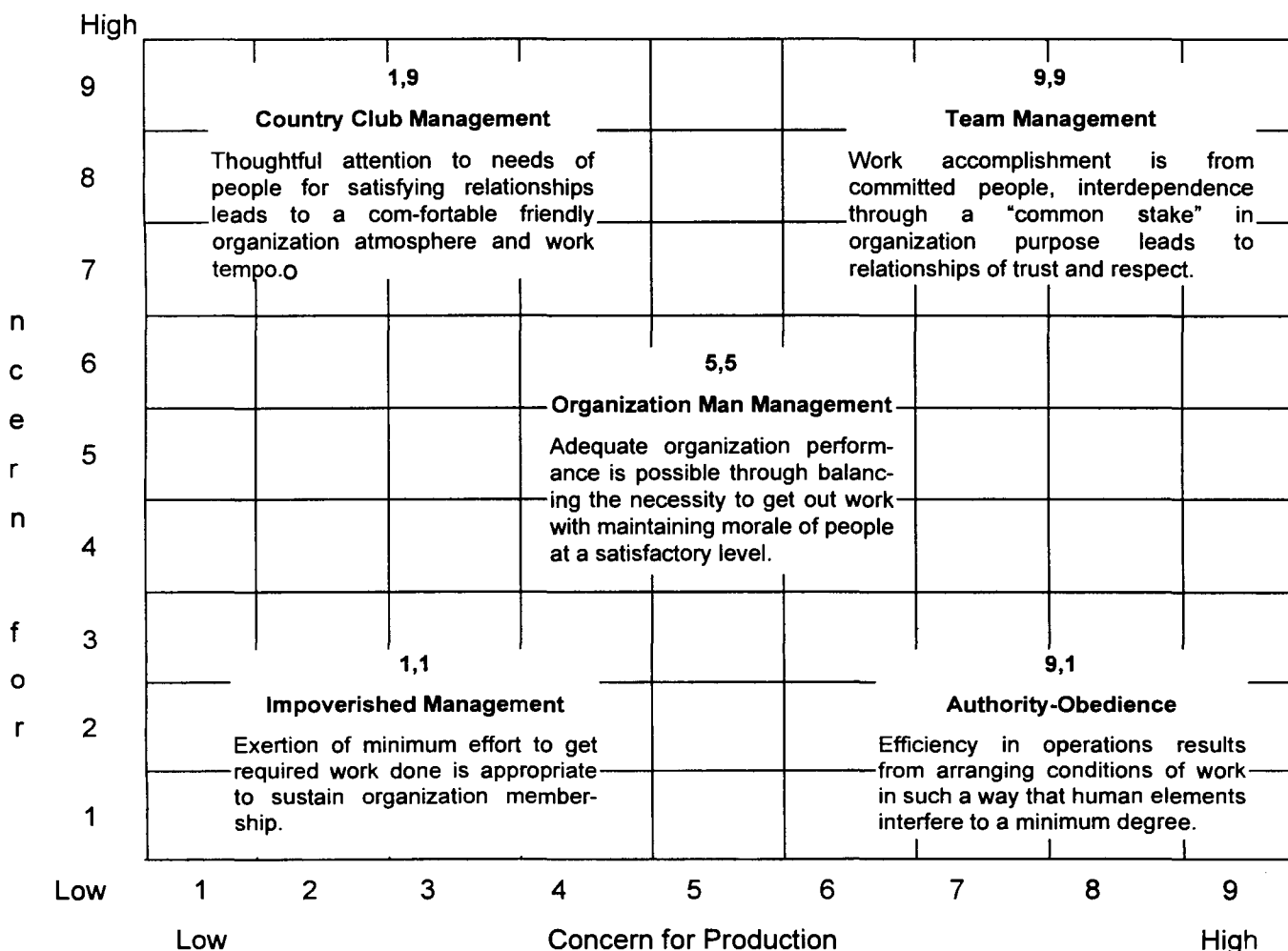
Blake and Mouton's (1982) Managerial Grid analyses the behaviour of the leader against a managerial grid consisting of two basic dimensions, namely, concern for people and concern for production. Concern for production refers to the successful accomplishment of organisational task while concern for people is about sound and warm interpersonal relations (Hoy & Miskel, 1989:299).

According to Reece and Brandt (1990:330) consideration is the equivalent of concern for people on the Managerial Grid. To these writers this dimension indicates the degree to which a principal's relationships with teachers are characterised by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth in interpersonal relationships. When this dimension is present, the principal-teacher relationship is characterised by a climate of good rapport and two-way communication.

Reece and Brandt (1990:331) equate concern for people on the Managerial Grid to structure. A principal who subscribes to this dimension will actively direct group activities by planning, setting goals, communicating information, scheduling, and evaluating performance.

The Managerial Grid identifies five types of leader behaviour or management style : Authority-Obedience, Country Club Management, Impoverished Management, Organisational Man Management and Team Management (Blake and Mouton, 1982:20-43). Figure 2.3 shows the Managerial Grid.

**Figure 2.3: The Managerial Grid**



(Blake & Mouton, 1985:12.)

\* Authority - Obedience Management (9,1)

The principal whose behaviour approximate the 9,1 style places heavy emphasis on getting the job of the school done but at the same needs to be at the top of things. He knows what has to be done and directs teachers toward goals that he or she has set (Blake *et al.*, in Owens, 1987:132-133). He uses standard methods and engages in relatively close supervision.

This type of principal concentrates on maximising procedures through the use of power, authority and control (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:150). He relies heavily on formal authority and expects compliance on the basis of the position he occupies.

His assumptions on teachers are based on Theory X. He motivates teachers through quotas and deadlines. Conflict is not tolerated; if it emerges it is suppressed and those involved are dealt firmly with (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:299). These authors also allege that this style is also characterised by one-way, downward, formal communication.

\* Impoverished Management (1,1)

This style is characterised by low concern for achievement of school goals coupled with a low concern for the teachers. Because of this little concern for the job and the teachers, a principal using this style is not really involved in the school affairs and contributes little toward its progress (Owens, 1987:132). Koontz, *et al.* (1986:301) is of the opinion that this type of the principal has abandoned his job and only marks time or is acting like a messenger communicating information from his seniors (e.g. school inspectors) to his teachers. In other words, he does the minimum required to remain employed in the school (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:150).

According to Hoy and Miskel (1987:301), there is incompatibility between the demands of the school and the needs of the teachers. These authors further allege that the principal's approach is characterised by placing teachers on jobs and then leaving them alone while he hides behind rules and regulations in order to remain relatively invisible. This style is conspicuous for its lack of leadership activity. It is the writer's opinion that a principal whose style approximate the 1,1 will neglect staff development.

\* Country Club Management (1,9)

Blake *et al.* (quoted by Owens, 1987:133) maintains that a 1,9 type principal is thoughtful and pays attention to the needs of teachers for satisfying relationship. His style leads to a

comfortable friendly atmosphere in the school. In this atmosphere, no one is concerned about putting forth co-ordinated effort to accomplish organisational goals (Koontz *et al.*, 1986:401). The emphasis is on a sound interpersonal relations with the feelings of the teachers being of overriding importance to the principal (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:300).

Communication under a 1,9 principal is informal and concentrates on social and personal topics rather than on task related matters (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:301). Hoy and Miskel further argue that in order to keep every teacher happy, goals are kept global, ambiguous and general, thus every one can support them. This type of a principal makes few demands upon teachers in terms of performance. He relies on personal diplomacy and hopes to obtain compliance because he is a nice guy and his teachers owe it to him.

Unlike the authority - obedience principal who suppresses conflict, the country club principal avoids conflict as far as possible through appeasement. When conflict does emerge, he smoothes it over.

\* Organisation Man Management (5,5)

By sticking to the middle of the road, a 5.5 principal helps to keep the school stable; thus organisational performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get work done with maintaining morale of teachers at a satisfactory level (Blake *et al.*, in Owens, 1987:33). Extreme positions are avoided.

Koontz *et al.* (1986:406) allege that this type of a principal shows a moderate concern for people and production. Consequently, he achieves sufficient, but not outstanding morale and production. These authors further maintain that this type of principal does not set goals too high and he is likely to have a rather benevolent autocratic attitude towards teachers. Hoy and Miskel (1987:301), on the other hand, contend that this style seems sufficient for getting the job done, but it is probably inadequate for promoting innovation and change.

Communication flows through both the formal and informal system. However, just enough is communicated so teachers have a general sense rather than specific of what is going on (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:301).

\* Team Management (9,9).

A leader who utilises this style displays a high concern for task and people and aims to integrate high productivity and high moral through teamwork; communication is two-way and open; conflict is not avoided, instead facts are faced directly, causes examined to

resolve issues; the style emphasises the involvement of those participants who are responsible for both planning and execution. The basic ingredients of this style are : participation, involvement and group decision-making.

Blake and Mouton (1982: 20-43) opine that managers perform best under a 9,9 style as contrasted, for example, with a 9,1 (authority type) or the 1,9 (country club type) leader. These authors allege that this style can be effectively applied in almost any type of organisation and that it achieves production through a high degree of commitment, involvement, participation and shared responsibility - all of which are characteristics of teamwork.

The 9,9 style can be seen in the following (Blake & Mouton, 1964 : 143) :

*Planning.* "I get the people who have the relevant facts and/or stakes in the outcome to review the whole picture and to get their reaction and ideas. Then, I, with them, establish goals and flexible schedules as well as procedures and ground rules, and set up individual responsibilities."

*Work Execution.* "I keep familiar with major points of progress and exert influence on subordinates through identifying problems and revising goals and schedules *with* them as necessary. I lend assistance when needed by helping to remove road blocks."

*Follow-up.* "I conduct a 'wrap-up' with those responsible. We evaluate how a job went and probe what can be learned from it and how what we learned can be applied in future work. If appropriate, I give recognition on a team basis as well as recognising outstanding individual contributions. "

### **2.7.1.6 Leadership styles**

#### **(a) Introduction**

In this section the autocratic, democratic, laissez faire and bureaucratic leadership styles will be discussed. Each style is unique in its characteristics, assumptions, and benefits (Herbert, 1976:430). Furthermore, each leadership style is effective under different situations. However, principals cannot be categorised into similar watertight leadership compartments. For example, a principal might be democratic with regard to senior teachers or members of the management team and autocratic toward novice teachers.

#### **(b) Autocratic leadership**

This leadership style is characterised by a large degree of authority exercised by the principal over his teachers. The autocratic principal unilaterally exercises authority,

makes all decisions and lays down policy. In his school communication is largely a one-way traffic downwards. There is little feedback from the staff and hardly any upward communication (De Witt, 1986:151).

An autocratic principal hopes to achieve school goals by deciding what shall be done, when, where, how economically and by what method (Bockman, 1971:26) and sometimes even why to do it. His concept of leadership is command. He demands unquestionable obedience from subordinates (Koontz, et al., 1986:400).

According to Owens (1987:149), this leadership style shows maximum concern with the task and minimum concern for the teachers; interest is focused only on the immediate job. Subordinates are regarded as children characterised by immaturity and passive dependency instead of mature persons characterised by independence and self-control (cf. 2.2.4).

McGregor's Theory X, Likert's System 1, scientific management (traditional model), Blake and Mouton's authority-obedience leadership style describe autocratic leadership. This style of leadership is incongruent to team management since communication is one-way instead of two-way, authority is monopolised, participation in decision-making is not practised and the leader has no trust nor confidence in his subordinates.

### **(c) Democratic leadership**

Herbert (1976:422-423) maintains that this type of leader shares his authority with his subordinate, employs several different types of techniques to encourage meaningful participation of subordinates in the decision-making function, employs two-way communication channels for full and thorough information exchange, and is much more concerned with creating and maintaining sound interpersonal relationships between manager and group member, as well as among group members.

Gorton (1980:265) states that the democratic leader offers both praise and criticism in his relationship with the group. According to this writer, this leader tries to influence the group but does not attempt to dominate its thinking or behaviour. The group that functions under democratic leadership decides its own objectives and policies on the basis of group discussion and decision.

Dachler and Wilpert (1978:23) allege that traditional democratic theory argues that the democratic process not only uses the inherent capacity of participants, but also progressively develops it, giving the democratic process further impetus and direction for improving decisions.

As a democratic leader, the principal will not provide his teachers with detailed instruction or check them frequently; he would depend on their initiative and judgement and give them much freedom in planning their work (Sutermeister, quoted by Herbert, 1976:423). Democratic leadership is in line with McGregor's Theory Y and Likert's System 4, and is congruent to team management. A democratic leader will seek means to develop his team and to improve their decision-making.

#### **(d) Laissez faire leadership**

This style has both a positive and negative connotation. On the positive side this style implies leading by delegation as well as having trust in subordinates. Negatively this style implies that the leader permits subordinates to operate independently without the leader exercising direct influence (Cawood & Gibbon, 1985:59). Herbert (1976:427) maintains that in addition to completely delegating tasks, the laissez faire leader decentralises decision-making to the lowest appropriate level.

The laissez faire leader holds the view that team members possess the ability to solve their own problems and to set their own goals, and that any interference by himself would only restrict team effectiveness (Gorton, 1980:265). However, this style requires a professionally matured and committed staff.

#### **(e) Bureaucratic leadership style**

Principals who adopt this style overemphasise specialisation of tasks, routine operating rules, and formal procedures in organising for teaching and learning (Duttweiler, 1987:7). Sergiovanni (1987), quoted by Duttweiler (1989:7), alleges that bureaucratic schools are characterised by a proliferation of regulations, formal communications, centralised decision-making, and sharp distinctions between administrators and teachers, and between teachers and students.

Owens (quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 1991:8), outlines the characteristics of the bureaucratic leadership style :

- It is effective.
- It is predictive, because it is based on prescribed rules and regulations.
- It is impersonal, because the emphasise is on implementing the letter of the law irrespective of the person involved.
- It is an efficient way of working, because it simply means application of the rules.

Like the other four leadership styles, the bureaucratic style has its advantages and disadvantages. Hoy and Miskel (1987:114-118) list the following :

- Task specialisation and division of labour produce expertise and improved efficiency. However, they can also produce boredom.
- Impersonality may improve rationality in decision-making, but on the other hand it may produce a sterile atmosphere, low morale which in turn mars organisational efficiency.
- Hierarchy of authority does enhance co-ordination, but can also distort and block communication in that it leads to a tendency to communicate only those issues teachers think their immediate managers wish to hear.
- Rules and regulations on the one hand provide for continuity, co-ordination; stability and uniformity whilst on the other, they often produce organisational rigidity and goal displacement. Teachers may become so rule-orientated that they forget that rules and regulations are means to achieve goals, not ends in themselves.

From the preceding discussion it is evident that every leadership style has its advantages and disadvantages. As people, tasks, and environment change, so should styles of directing them. The authoritarian leadership style will be appropriate for submissive and dependent people; while subordinates with a great deal of initiative and need for participation will be satisfied with a democratic leader (Gorton, 1980:265). For team management however, a democratic leadership style will be appropriate in view of its accommodation for subordinate participation and its potential for unlocking untapped human resources and enhancing the morale of the team.\*

## **2.7.2 Communication**

### **2.7.2.1 Definition of communication**

Wynn and Guditus (1984:74) define communication as the process of exchanging information, belief and feelings among people; it may be oral, written or non-verbal. This information may move from bottom-up or top-down, even horizontally. According to Lewis (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:357-358) communication means sharing messages, ideas or attitudes that produce a degree of understanding between a sender and receiver. Wynn (1973:27), on the other hand views communication as the process by which information is gathered, exchanged, digested and tested.

Within the team context, communication would amount to the team leader or principal exchanging information or sharing ideas with other team members to ensure common understanding amongst themselves. For communication to produce this understanding, it must be appropriate, i.e. it should match the purpose, the situation and the audience.

### **2.7.2.2 Communication within teams**

Communication serves as an effective tool for managing a team. It enhances interpersonal relations among team members who are motivated by the sharing of information and requests for their input. Hinds and Pankake (1987:281) opine that climate and productivity in an educational setting are affected by the communication between principal and teachers.

Hastings *et al.* (1986:123) advise that every member of the team or staff share the responsibility for maintaining communication. However, the responsibility of keeping communication channels open rest with the team leader or principal, who should also demonstrate trust by delegating authority to team members (Hastings, *et al.*, 1986:84).

Hastings *et al.* (1986:123) further alleges that through communication, the team is able to iron out misunderstanding, provide clarification and exchange ideas and that it is the responsibility of each member to communicate how he is performing and also to check and monitor how the other team members are functioning. The team atmosphere should be constructive, open and co-operative (Hastings, *et al.*, 1986:112). Communication within the team should be aimed at achieving school objectives.

Downward, upward and horizontal communication should be used. Top-down, one-way, and no feedback communication has no place in team management. Wynn and Guditus (1980:80) recommend that less reliance should be placed on downward communication. Instead, more use should be made of upward and lateral communication. Communication within teams should be similar to the one used in System 4 organisations.

### **2.7.2.3 Forms of communication**

According to Pratt and Bennell (1985:91-92) communication forms can be classified into three main categories:

- *Oral communication:* The main advantage of this form of communication is its directness. Questions are rapidly dealt with while understanding may be relatively easily checked and misunderstanding minimised. However, its nature does not allow

subsequent verification, thus it can result in misunderstanding and it lacks the precision and accuracy of the written form.

- *Written communication:* Its main advantage is its relative permanence. Team members can refer to it at any other time, check and double-check so as to ensure understanding. This form of communication presents a means of evidence and its wider dissemination is possible. However, commitment of communication to paper is more expensive and may lead to the school becoming increasingly bureaucratic. These authors also state that written communication can be inconvenient when for an example an earlier decision is regretted.
- *Non-verbal communication:* These include facial movement, touch, gestures, postures, etc., which convey a message. It is argued that by observing physical movements, gestures, etc., it is possible to understand what is in the mind of a speaker whatever the words he uses. According to Rasberry and Lemoine (1986:123) non-verbal messages are stronger than verbal ones. They contend that when verbal and non-verbal messages clash, the non-verbal is most often accepted.

Pratt and Bennell (1985:91-92) further argue that each of these forms of communication has its contribution to make to the effective management of teams within schools and to the whole school. An understanding of these different types of communication is equally important if principals are to make a contribution to their different teams.

#### **2.7.2.4 Communication networks**

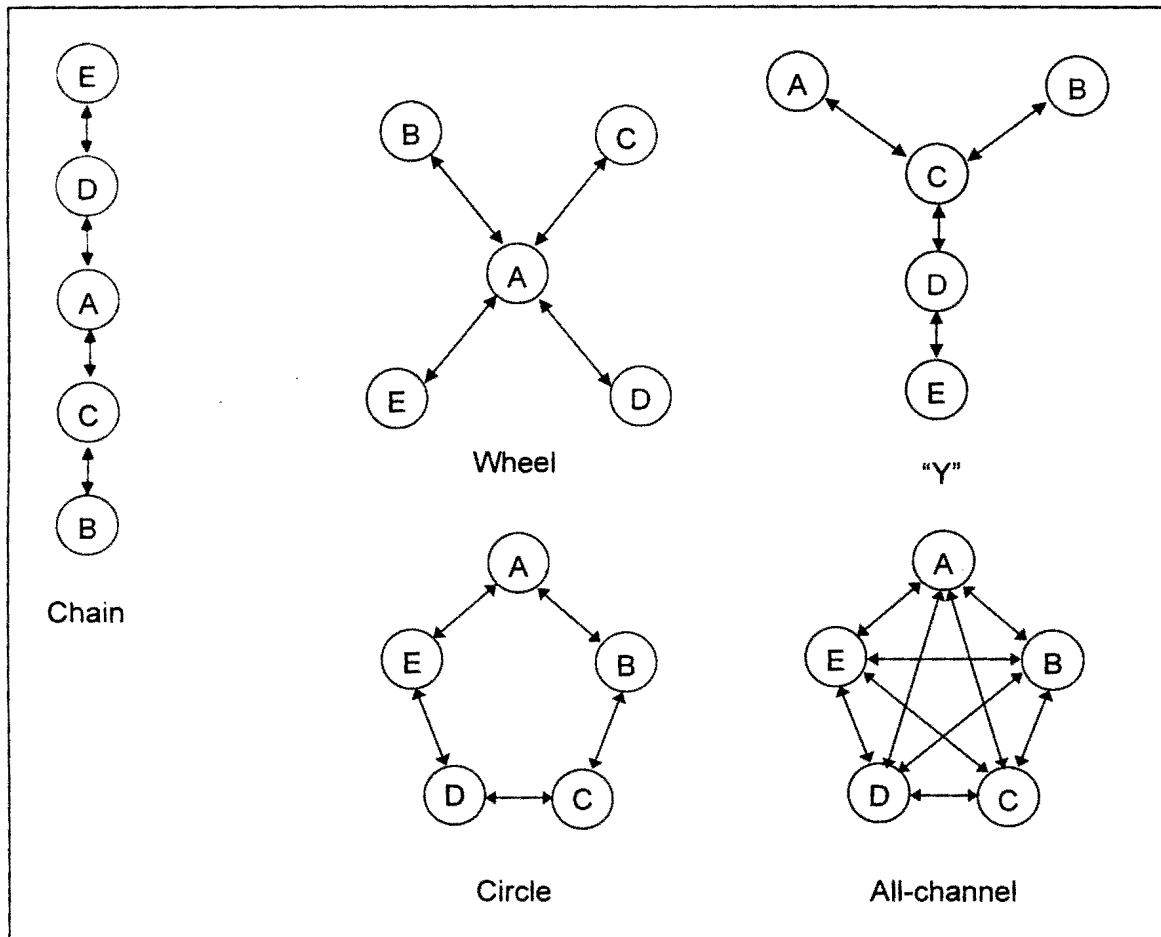
As stated earlier, communication can be transmitted in a number of directions: downward, upward and horizontally. The three directions can be combined into a variety of communication networks. Figure 2.4 shows five of the most frequently used communication networks

The *wheel network* is a two-level hierarchy and the most structured and centralised of the patterns because each team member can communicate with only one other person (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:194). There is no interaction between the team members or subordinates (B, C, D and E). All communication is channelled through the leader, A.

In the *chain network* (also centralised) only two people communicate with one another, and they in turn have only one person to whom they communicate (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:194). Robbins (1989:279) opines that in this network communication cannot move laterally, only upward and downward. In a school situation, a typical chain

network would be one in which a teacher (B) reports to his departmental head (C), who in turn reports to the principal (A), who reports to the school inspector (D), who finally reports to the district director (A). The chain is also a centralised network. According to Torrington and Weightman (1985:204) this network can be inaccurate and slow.

**FIGURE 2.4 : COMMON COMMUNICATION NETWORKS**



(Robbins, 1989:278.)

An example of the "Y" network is the departmental head (C) with two subject heads (A and B). The subject heads can send information to the departmental head but are unable to receive information from any other person. The departmental head and the principal (D) can exchange information; the school inspector (E) can receive information from the principal but cannot communicate with the departmental heads. Robbins (1989:279) regards the "Y" network as a four-level hierarchy. Torrington and Weightman (1985:204) contends that this network combines features of the wheel and the chain in a centralised network.

The *circle network* is a three-level hierarchy in which there is communication between superiors and subordinates and lateral communication at the lowest level (Robbins, 1989:279). Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991:195) argue that the circle provides every member of the team equal communication opportunities and is less restricted than the wheel, chain or Y network.

According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991:195) the *all-channel* or *star network* allows each team member to communicate freely with all other persons (decentralised communication). It has no central position, no restrictions and all members are equal.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991:195) maintain that centralised networks (e.g. wheel, chain and the Y) are more effective in accomplishing simple tasks, whereas decentralised patterns (circle and all-channel or star) are more effective in complicated tasks. These writers further contend that the more decentralised the network, the higher the overall morale of members than those of centralised networks. The principal should therefore know the purpose of the communication so as to utilise the appropriate network.

#### **2.7.2.5 Problems with communication**

Bell (1992:85) alleges that problems with communication tend to be associated with four aspects of the communication process :

- Senders

  - Do they have something to communicate?

  - Do they really want to share it?

  - Do they understand it sufficiently to communicate it?

  - Is it expressed clearly from the receiver's point of view?

- Receivers

  - Have they interpreted the message correctly?

  - Is the message important enough to demand attention?

  - Are they able to respond to the message?

  - Do they want to respond to the message?

- The method of communicating

  - Has the appropriate method been selected?

Has the appropriate time been chosen?

Can the message easily be distorted in delivery?

- The purpose or intended outcome of the communication

Is the purpose clear?

Are the receivers able to carry out the purpose?

Will they want to carry out the purpose?

Are the deadlines realistic?

No matter how satisfied the school personnel is with communication within the school, there is always the need to frequently pay attention to the above problems so as to ensure that they are communicating effectively.

#### **2.7.2.6 Effective communication**

Effective communication is a three way process: downwards, from team leader to team members; upwards from team members to team leader or from staff to principal; and sideways between team members or between the various team leaders e.g. heads of departments. This ensures that everyone knows what is going on, what is expected from him or her and what other members are doing, and thinking (DET, 1986:20).

Fox *et al.* (1974:112-113) provide the following indicators for effective communication :-

- team members know that their opinions are listened to and considered;
- team members communicate freely with other teams and share ideas and feelings;
- individuals solicit help from other team members;
- team members provide opportunities for others to express feelings and ideas that may be contrary to their own;
- the management team is receptive to ideas of individuals who are not part of the team, the leadership team provides opportunities for the expression of feelings and ideas in areas of potential disagreement; and
- a feeling of trust exists among those associated with the team or school.

The absence of these indicators is indicative of poor communication and might affect the exchange of information negatively. For these indicators to manifest themselves, there should be active listening (cf. 4.4.2).

### **2.7.2.7 Communication within System 4 organisations**

According to Likert (Wynn & Guditus, 1984: 75-76) the System 4 communication process is characterised as follows :

- There is much communication with both individual and group aimed at achieving the organisation's objectives.
- Information flows up, down, and amongst peers.
- Downward communication is initiated at all levels.
- Communication is generally accepted by subordinates; but if not, it is openly and candidly questioned.
- A great deal of communication flows upward.
- Subordinates feel responsible for initiating accurate information upward; group communicates all relevant information.
- Virtually no forces distort communication, and powerful forces work to communicate accurately.
- Upward communication is accurate.
- There is no need for a supplementary upward communication system (such as grapevine).
- Sideward communication is very adequate and accurate.
- Both superiors and subordinates usually hold accurate perception of each other.

Since System 4 and team management share certain similarities (cf. 2.4.5) for the school's communication process to accord to that of team management, it will have to accord to the above characteristics

### **2.7.2.8 Barriers distorting communication**

The communication process can be distorted by the presence of certain barriers. These barriers throttle the channel by which team members express their frustrations, hopes and feelings of satisfaction as well as make their contributions. In the process these forces make it difficult for team members and their various viewpoints to converge. These forces not only destroy communication but reduces the effectiveness of other elements of team management.

Some of these communication barriers are erected by principals or team leaders themselves by interrupting, giving advice before a team member has completed expressing his concern and paternalising. Hinds and Pankake (1987:282) maintain that very often principals respond to teachers in ways that actually prevent meaningful communication. Such behaviour does not promote good communication within teams.

These obstacles can be overcome with effort, patience and difficulty, but first they must be identified. Van Niekerk (1988:206 - 208) classifies these obstacles as technical and psychological obstacles. He is of the opinion that some of these obstacles occur of their own accord while others are purposefully created.

### **(a) Technical obstacles**

#### **(i) Communication overload**

Koontz *et al.* (1986:430 - 431) alleges that this obstacle occurs when the principal or team leader supplies team members with too much information at a time. This unrestricted flow results in team members being overwhelmed with information. Team members react by disregarding certain information, making errors in processing it or delay processing the information either permanently or with the intention of catching up in the future.

#### **(ii) Bad timing**

Van Niekerk (1980:206) advises that complicated information should not be given before closing time or when a team member is concentrating on solving a complex problem. One can add that important information should not be presented at the end of a team meeting because at that time every one is thinking about going away.

#### **(iii) Poorly expressed messages**

No matter how clear the idea in the mind of the principal or team leader, it may still be characterised by poorly chosen words, omissions and the inability to clarify the implication of the message (Koontz *et al.*, 1986: 429). Sometimes team leaders use jargon to create an impression of superiority, but it only makes communication the more difficult. These writers argue that this lack of clarity and precision can be avoided through greater care in encoding the message.

### **(b) Psychological obstacles**

#### **(i) Filtering**

Filtering refers to a sender manipulating information so that it will be seen more favourable by the receiver (Robbins, 1989:270). Van Niekerk (1988:207) allege that sometimes when messages are transferred from person to person or from one level in the hierarchy to others some parts of the message is over-emphasised or under emphasised in order to make the information appear either more attractive or weak. This gives a distorted impression of the facts of the case.

(ii) Selective perception

This occurs when a receiver, influenced by earlier experiences, hears only what he expects to hear and not what is actually said (Van Niekerk, 1988:207). Past experience leads team members to expect to hear the same message in similar circumstances. A genuine compliment can be interpreted as sarcasm.

(iii) Concealment of information

If there is a perception among team members that the team leader is not receptive to team proposals, does not permit feedback or questions the information given, they may withhold the information (Van Niekerk, 1988:207). In formal communication in an organisation, information is generally passed from the top down. In a school, if a problem exists between the principal and the head of department or team leader, complete information might not be passed on to team members concerned. The principal or team leader might try to hide some detail or try to treat some part as confidential, this might create an atmosphere of mistrust, which is unhealthy for the team. In some cases the team leader may feel that the team members do not need to know all the details, which also creates problems in some cases (Ingle & Ingle, 1983:48).

### **2.7.3 Participative decision-making**

#### **2.7.3.1 Definition**

Participative decision-making refers to teacher involvement in the process by which school decisions are made (Duke *et al.*, 1980:93). It does not, however, refer to physical presence but to the involvement of the heart and mind of a person in group situations that motivate that person to contribute to group goals and to share responsibility for them (Owens, 1987:284). Owens further state that it is ego involvement which unleashes creativity and initiative as well as stimulating the development of teamwork.

This mode of decision-making is a collaborative approach, enabling principals and teachers to function as equals rather than as superordinate and subordinates for the

purpose of identifying, analysing and solving problems which face the organisation (Wood, 1984:63). Team management, as a participative structure, allows teachers and principals to meet in an interactive situation where the power tends to be equalised (Blumberg & Feitler, 1972:63). Peterson and Hil Kirk (1991:38) insist that teachers' involvement should emanate from the bottom up, and not from the top down.

### **2.7.3.2 The nature of participation**

If the principal intends involving teachers in decision-making, he needs to consider three basic questions: (a) when others should be involved in decision-making, (b) who should be involved and (c) how they should be involved, i.e. mode of participation (Gorton, 1980:240).

#### **(a) When to involve others**

Barnard (in Gorton, 1980:242) coined the expression "zone of indifference" to refer to issues which team members might not be interested in. On such issues the principal is at liberty to make the decision and the teachers will readily accept it, because it is within his jurisdiction. Simon (in Kuntz & Hoy, 1976:49) maintains that decisions or orders within this zone are accepted by the affected parties without question.

When a decision is within a team members' zone of indifference or zone of acceptance, the principal should not attempt to encourage participation (Owens, 1987:288). Owens warns that to seek active involvement of teachers in matters to which they are essentially indifferent, is to invite resistance in different forms.

The zone of concern is a corollary of the zone of acceptance. Owens and Lewis (in Owens, 1987:289) refer to this zone as the zone of sensitivity. Teachers expect principals to involve them in matters falling within this zone. This zone includes issues such as classroom activities, curricular matters, teaching arrangements and evaluation of professional performance (Owens, 1987:289). Johnson and Germinario (1985), in a survey of 450 teachers, found that teachers' desire to participate in decision-making are strongest in areas closely related to the teachers' work and the learning process.

These are sensitive areas for the teachers. Depriving them of the right to participate might provoke militancy on their part to an extent that they might sabotage the decision. When they are permitted to be involved, they will be self-motivated in their participation because the final determination may affect them in some significant manner (Gorton,

1980:242). Owens (1987:289) recommends a high degree of participation in such matters.

**(b) Who should be involved**

The erroneous impression created about participation is that it intends to involve everyone in every decision (Owens, 1987:288). Inkyen (in Gorton, 1980:242) responds to this assumption by alleging that not every member of the team or staff desires participation, and secondly not all of the decisions under the jurisdiction of a principal will be of concern to the individuals and group with whom he has contact. Nevertheless, the principal will have to decide who should assist him in making a decision in a particular area. Bridges (in Hoy & Miskel, 1987:339) proposes the test of relevancy and the test of expertise as the criteria for deciding who should be involved in decision-making.

**(i) The test of relevancy**

Those teachers who have interest in or are concerned about the problem should be involved. Teachers will certainly display greater concern in problems such as teaching methods and materials, discipline, curricular as well as organising for instruction (Owens, 1987:288). Hoy and Miskel (1987:339) claim that if a member of a team has a personal stake in an issue, his interest in participation will be high.

**(ii) The test of expertise**

This refers to the degree to which a team member possesses the expertise or qualification to make a useful contribution to an improved decision, or solution of the problem (Gorton, 1980:243; Hoy & Miskel, 1987:339). Possessing a stake in the outcome should be coupled with the competency of making an effective contribution (Owens, 1987:288). The principal should identify and utilise teachers who possess special insight, knowledge or skills for improved decision-making (Gorton, 1980:243).

**(c) Modes of participation**

The question of how to involve teachers in decision-making is not a simple one in view of the absence of a universal formula. Nevertheless, several alternatives are usually possible. The choice, however, will hinge on numerous factors like the time available to the management team in reaching the decision and the nature of the problem, the collective expertise of the team, the impact of the decision and the accountability involved (Wynn, 1973:31).

Management teams utilise various techniques or modes for involvement in decision-making. According to Bridges (in Owens, 1987:290) and Conley (1988:268-269) these techniques are the following :

**(i) Discussion technique**

The purpose of this technique is to make team members aware of the problem and the necessity of making a decision concerning the problem. The participation of team members is limited to discussion of the problem. In this way it is hoped that the members will readily accept the decision which is to be made by the principal alone (Owens, 1987:290). This technique can negatively affect the trust and doom to failure any future participation if the team members discover that it is the principal alone who actually makes the decision (Knoop, 1988:8). This author further opines that this technique can be successful if the team leader has been using a rather autocratic leadership style hitherto.

**(ii) Information seeking technique**

This technique is an acknowledgement that one person cannot possess all the varied knowledge and information necessary to manage a complex organisation. The purpose of the technique is not only to discuss the problem, but also to provide the team leader with the information necessary to make a more rational logical decision (Owens, 1987:290).

The above two techniques are essential to assist the principal (team leader) in making a better decision and to improve the possibility of the decision being accepted by the team (Owens, 1987:290). Owens further alleges that the two modes of participation are appropriate for decisions that fall within the team members' zone of indifference.

**(iii) Democratic centralist technique**

This is the most commonly used technique (Owens, 1987:290; Hoy & Miskel, 1987:341). The team leader presents a problem to team members and asks for comments, suggestions, reactions and ideas. The final decision is made by the team leader or principal while reflecting the team members' participation and feelings.

**(iv) Parliamentarian technique**

When unanimity or consensus appears unlikely among team members this technique is employed (Owens, 1987:291). It binds team members to whatever the majority regards as an acceptable decision. All members of the team, including the leader, have an equal

vote (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:341). Its disadvantage is that it creates winners and losers (Owens, 1987:291).

The minority or losers however, might not be happy to execute such a decision and may thus display hostility if they believe theirs was a better solution than that of the majority (Knoop, 1985:8). According to Young and Storm (1980:66) this resentment might manifest itself in the form of sabotage, slow-down, protest, apathy or indifference. The leader must therefore expect a lesser degree of commitment from this section.

#### **(v) Consensus (participant-determining) technique**

According to Hoy and Miskel (1987:341) this technique requires complete consensus of the team on the decision to be taken. Owens (1978:291) maintains that this mode of participation should be utilised when the issues are considered very important to the team members and when it appears likely that consensus can be reached.

Knoop (1985:8) alleges that the consensus technique is the most time-consuming and most costly procedure, and that it requires great skill in interpersonal relations. Knoop nevertheless, regards it as the ideal group decision-making procedure and that those organisations who have mastered using it, will be more effective than those using the other group methods.

#### **(vi) Traditional technique**

Teacher participation in school decisions is not a new phenomenon. Traditional mechanics of participation such as departmental structures, staff meetings and ad hoc committees have existed for many years and constitute important potential vehicles for teacher involvement and influence (Conley *et al.*, 1988:268 - 269).

Conley *et al.* (1988:268 - 269) maintain that school staff meetings and ad hoc teacher committees are expressly created for teacher participation in decision-making. These authors opine that traditional forms of participation are limited by the fact that they are chaired by principals who also determine the agenda, thus constraining teacher participation.

On the question of departmental teams, Conley *et al.* (1988:268 - 269) perceive these structures as having a potential to improve vertical and horizontal participation in management decision-making. They further allege that these departmental structures could play a significant role in the direction, organisation, support and maintaining of teaching and learning, and in assuring co-ordination of those processes.

### **(vii) Quality Circles**

Quality Circles (QC) satisfy Maslow's highest level of needs i.e. self-actualisation (Rendal, 1981:30). According to Lindner (in Conley *et al.*, 1988:269) QC in schools function best when participation is voluntary, team members are trained in problem solving, and the efforts of the participants receive meaningful recognition.

Conley *et al.* (1988:269) argue that QC addresses some of the weaknesses of traditional forms of teacher participation such as ad hoc committees and departmental structures. To support these assertions, they state that the actual agenda items for QC are not pre-set by the principal. It is the circle members themselves who are solely responsible for determining the issues or problems to be addressed. Furthermore, they also conduct their own investigation to identify causes of various problems, and similarly generate a list of proposed solution.

#### **2.7.3.3 Participation barriers**

##### **\* Participation costs**

Some managers argue that there are significant costs associated with introducing any system of management which involve teacher participation. Hube (1980:146) provides the following:

- Groups tend to consume more personal time in making a decision than does an individual.
- Organisational members may come to expect to be involved in all the decisions. They may then resist subsequent decisions that are appropriately but unilaterally handed down from higher organisational levels.
- Disagreements among the members may result in the group's being unable to reach a decision, thus delaying progress on solving the problem and leading to ill will among the group members.

##### **\* Tradition-bound managers**

Managers may resist participative decision-making or team management because they are tradition-bound. They see no reason to change their old habits to new ones. They rebuff any new suggestion made by teachers which is different from the present way of doing things (Anthony, 1980:34).

Anthony (1980:34) argues that if tradition is valued and maintaining the status quo is more important than innovation, any suggestion for a new style of management will be rejected outright. The writer further states that more often managers respond to new ideas by saying "it won't work here, we tried that once before and it failed."

\* **Failure to understand team management**

Whilst other managers may wish to use team management they do not understand and appreciate the function and processes of participative structures. They may be aware of the advantages of team management and believe that it can be used to make them and their schools more effective. However, they do not know how to apply it (Anthony, 1980:32).

\* **Lack of security**

Many principals feel insecure about new systems like team management. They fear that it will expose their incompetence as a result they might lose out on the required system. They prefer to go through the motions of an effective administrator, writing memos, letters, etc., regardless of the need or purpose of the motions (Anthony, 1980:40). Such incompetent principals feel threatened by team management. Anthony alleges that participation can reveal a lack of knowledge. This exposure is a real threat to their security.

\* **Fear**

Many principals do not understand sharing of authority. They fear that a system like team management will reduce their power. These managers thrive on authority and view with suspicion any attempt to share this authority. They also fear that they will be overshadowed by their teachers who might come up with better methods and decision than the principals are capable of coming up with alone and this will cost them credibility in the eyes of their seniors (Anthony, 1980:40).

The existence of these barriers constrains the implementation of teacher participation. Some of the barriers militate against the introduction of the team management system. The last element of team management concerns the sharing of authority.

#### **2.7.4 Sharing authority**

Sharing authority is the final essential ingredient of team management. This does not, however, imply that it is of lesser importance than the other three. By authority is meant the power to take decisions and issue commands (Adams, 1987:36). Traditionally and

legally power in the schools is vested in the principal. Adams maintains that the extent to which authority is dispersed throughout the school, is dependent on the manner of delegation and the leadership of the principal. Due to demands by teachers in decision-making, it has become necessary to share this authority.

Team management promotes the sharing of power and authority between the principals and teachers in a non-threatening way. This sharing strengthens their commitment to the school while reinforcing their organisational goals and adding power in their respective domains (Grindle, 1982:30).

Karant (1989:29) argues that by sharing power and authority with teachers through delegation of responsibilities, the principal will be promoting ownership within the school. This ownership will stimulate and boost teacher morale. Delegation and decentralisation require that authority should be pushed downward as far as possible. Karant further opines that the pay-off of shared authority is effective management. Increasing teachers' responsibilities in a manner that gives them significant influence, is the key to developing better schools.

The tendency to decentralise authority and invest it in teachers is a prerequisite for team management, since distancing teachers from decision-making concerning school activities is costly and dysfunctional. However, the assignment of tasks and responsibilities to be shared, should be done in accordance with the expertise each teacher has, to execute the job effectively (Grindle, 1982:32).

Principals or team leaders can share their authority with teachers by delegating a part of this authority for a specific set of work duties or function (Anthony, 1984:5). Delegation raises the issue of accountability. The principal or team leader should not try to retain control of those functions he has delegated to his team members. He nevertheless, remains accountable for the execution of these delegated functions (John, 1980:72).

Teachers or team members as holders of delegated authority are also accountable to the principal or team leader for exercising the delegated authority. They should display responsibility in executing their authority. Anderson (1969:113) views delegation without accountability as inconsistent with administrative theory.

Estes (1971:72) argues that since the amount of power and authority is not constant, increasing the authority and power of teachers and team members does not necessarily imply decreasing that of principals or team leaders. Estes maintains that the authority of the manager is not reduced but it is made stronger, more resilient and more effective.

When team leaders and members share authority, a synergistic effect manifests itself. According to Anthony (1984:14) the authority of the manager and the team is greater than the combined authority of the manager and the team viewed separately. This indicates that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Since the principal, deputy principal and heads of departments work as a team, they will possess greater power and influence in dealing with other teams in the school. Salmon (in Grindle, 1971:72) in support of the synergistic effect, allege that more power could be gained by giving a certain amount of clout to others. Increased authority at all levels increases organisational effectiveness.

Sharing authority and responsibility with the management team is a manifestation of faith in team members and the democratic process (Wynn, 1973:39). Wynn alleges that faith in the democratic process is dependent upon trust in people. He warns managers that they cannot enjoy the advantage of the management team without investing in trust in the team.

A team leader cannot be trusted by team members if he does not trust them in return. When authority and power is combined with trust and commitment, team management becomes an effective mechanism of managing schools (Grindle, 1982:32).

Herlihy and Herlihy (1985:96) warn that if principals impose their power and authority on teachers instead of sharing with them, they do so at the sacrifice of a positive climate and at the expense of the teachers whom they work with. They recommend an empowering approach whereby principals are given power with, rather than power over, their teachers.

## **2.8 FACTORS INFLUENCING TEAM MANAGEMENT**

In addition to the aforementioned prerequisites for team management, there are other factors which influence team management e.g. commitment, training, and cohesion.

### **2.8.1 Commitment**

According to Coley (1980:33) commitment is characterised by at least three related factors, viz.,

- a strong belief in and acceptance of the school organisation's goals and values;
- a willingness to exert a great deal of effort to achieve school goals, and
- a strong desire to maintain membership in the school.

Commitment viewed this way, suggests individual loyalty to execute tasks and participate in school or team activities. Commitment can be obtained from a team member if he understands clearly what he is doing and why he is doing it (Bell, 1992:48). In this manner he will identify himself with the team activities or decisions.

Team members who solve problems, develop a sense of commitment to and concern for the team. If members have invested in decisions, they have a stake in ensuring that solutions to problems work; conversely, uninvolved members may wish that the solutions fail. Team management not only taps the resources of team members to solve specific problems, but engages their willing co-operation and commitment (Duttweiler, 1989:10).

A committed team member is usually motivated to put in extra energy and initiative towards team goals. An uncommitted team member generally gives an average performance in accordance with what is expected of him. On the other hand, the committed member is not satisfied to perform at expected level. His goal is to achieve the end result with which he strongly identifies, even if it means some sacrifice on his part (Herbert, 1976:416).

Herbert (1976:426) further states that members who cannot identify with, or are not committed to organisational goals cannot meaningfully participate in democratic management. Such a situation can become quite dangerous when team members see democratic management as a way to satisfy their own personal or work objectives, without attempting to integrate themselves into the broader purposes of the entire work group and its manager.

## **2.8.2 TRAINING**

Effective participation requires certain skills, understandings and knowledge, participants at all levels can benefit from training aimed at developing their capacity to participate effectively (Wood, 1984:62). The acquisition of knowledge and skills through training are essential in that they empower the team members to participate on equal terms with their leaders. Alvarez (1992:70) states that training and staff development are necessary not only as a prerequisite step to shared decision-making, but as a concurrent element of shared decision-making structures.

The principal or team leader must ensure that team members are provided adequate training for participation in decision training as well as providing enough information on which to make a decision before putting them through the process (Gorton, 1980:248). Failure to do this will result in poor decisions, confusion, frustration and disillusionment.

Once the team members have been trained, they can be creative and innovative and master how to handle disagreements and dominant personalities constructively (Schmuck & Blumberg, 1969:90).

Margerison and McCann (1990:79-80) opine that training brings 'competence' which in turn brings 'confidence' both for the individual concerned and for the manager. 'Confidence' allows 'trust' to be established and 'trust' in turn allows tasks to be 'delegated', with both parties happy that successful outcomes will be achieved.

Dillion and Brown (1983:52) suggest that leaders and members alike may need training in techniques like brainstorming and group discussion. These authors recommend that potential leaders should receive training in the control of meetings, counselling techniques, discussion group leadership, identifying and promoting individual potential and the problem solving process. Problem solving skills, according to Robbins (1989:435), include activities to sharpen logic, reasoning and skills at defining problems, assessing causation, developing alternatives, analysing alternatives and selecting solutions.

Anderson and Anderson (1982:18) lament the absence in the past of training programmes in interpersonal skills. They maintain that programmes should assist team members in developing team spirit. Robbins (1989:435) explains that interpersonal skills include learning how to be a better listener, how to communicate ideas more clearly, and how to reduce conflict. For team management to succeed, training programmes should encourage an open and healthy sense of *esprit de corps*, and not competitiveness and aggressiveness because the latter has a dysfunctional effect.

Grosso and Robertson (1992:45) on the other hand recommend the development of consensus-building skills. The significance of this skill is in opening up the potential of team members to solve school-related problems. These authors maintain that problem solving and decision-making skills must be developed as well because increased awareness of decision-making reduces frustrations as well as tensions and enhances the execution of the decisions.

A training programme should do the following things if it is to enhance learning and development (Porter *et al.*, 1975:211) :

- Provide for the learner's active participation.
- Provide the trainee with knowledge of results (feedback) about his attempts to improve.

- Provide a meaningful integration of the learning experience so that the trainee can transfer the new behaviour to the job situation.
- Provide some means for the trainee to be reinforced for appropriate behaviour and
- Provide for practise and repetition in a situation that is similar to the job situation.

Team management therefore cannot be effective if those involved, i.e. team leader and members, have not gone through a training programme to familiarise them with the process and activities like problem solving and decision-making. Training enables team members to understand their roles and what is expected of them. This minimises role conflict and can enhance cohesion.

### 2.8.3 COHESION

Group cohesion has been defined in various ways by different authors. Robbins (1989:252) defines it as the degree to which group members are attracted to each other and share common goals. According to Siegel and Dnen (1974:38) group cohesion exists when the forces acting to hold the group together are stronger than the forces acting to break the group. Bateman and Zeithmah (1993:480) refer to the attractiveness of the group to its members, motivation of members to stick to the group and the extent to which members influence one another.

All these definitions refer to how tight the team members keep together and work or operate as a close knit unit rather as a group of unfamiliar individuals. A cohesive team motivates its members to maintain their membership in the team. According to Fox, *et al.*, (1974:8) cohesiveness is measured by the person's feelings toward the school (team). Members prefer to stay with it and have an opportunity to influence it in collaboration with other team members.

Bateman and Zeithmah (1993:480) elaborate further that the significance of cohesiveness is in its potential to contribute to member satisfaction. In such a team, members communicate and work well with one another, while enjoying being a part of the team. These authors argue that even if team members' jobs are unsatisfactory or the organisation is oppressive, employees gain some satisfaction from enjoying their co-workers. This means the interaction provides the motivation (social need satisfaction) to remain.

The second significance refers to the powerful effect cohesiveness has on team performance. The success of the team is interpreted as indicative of team members

being close, getting along well, understanding one another's game. On the other hand, defeat is attributed to infighting and divisions (Bateman & Zeithmah, 1993:480).

Cohesiveness can also produce poor performance due to group thinking. Group thinking takes place when team members decide not to disagree or raise objections even if there is need for disagreement, because they don't want to destroy a positive team spirit. In cohesive teams the desire for consensus by members becomes more critical than evaluating problems and solutions realistically (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991:174).

Bateman and Zeithmah (1993:98) opine that pressure to conform to the teams preferred solution stifles creativity. Cawood and Gibbon (1985:90), on the other hand, allege that the more cohesive and secure the group is, the greater the tendency of individual members to restrict any doubts they have.

The significance of cohesiveness to team management lies in the fact that it elevates the possibility of team members co-operating to achieve team goals.

The next subsection will focus on the composition and structure of team management.

## **2.9 COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE OF TEAM MANAGEMENT**

### **2.9.1 Introduction**

This section reviews the different teams which could be formed in a secondary school; the membership of these teams as well as their tasks and role, characteristics of an effective team and team building.

### **2.9.2 Composition and structure**

The last two decades have ushered an information explosion on the school front. This has complicated the management of schools. The creation of management teams in the schools is intended to promote effectiveness and efficiency as well as to allow the principal to focus on long term issues of the school.

#### **2.9.2.1 *The principal's management team***

Gorton (1983:100) is of the opinion that the principal should decide on the membership of his management team, i.e. the cabinet, since he is administratively in charge of the school. According to Pellicer and Nemeth (1980:99) the principal will include those individuals who spend at least one half of their working hours managing other staff members or school program.

The cabinet will include the following personnel : the principal, the deputy principal, the departmental heads, the chairman of the Parent-Teachers' Association (PTA) and two senior teachers. The size of the team exerts certain influences. Petersen and Hillkirk (1991:43) recommend a size of between six and twelve members, while Littlejohn (1982:22) recommends 12 to 15 members. Littlejohn opines that bigger teams tend to encourage the formation of competing subgroups, while smaller groups may result in a loss of synergism that is vital to a team's success. Another view is that few people are unable to generate adequate ideas, while too many can lead either to a baffling excess of suggestions or to some more cautious members being inhibited (Torrington & Weightman, 1985:205).

The task of the cabinet team is to perform managerial functions so as to underpin the functional task of the school. According to Van Rooyen (1984:191) the duties of this team concern administration, logistics, academic training, staff provision, sport and cultural formation.

#### **2.9.2.2 *The departmental head's management team***

The departmental head also performs managerial functions in his department. He has subject teachers and subject heads reporting to him. The task jurisdiction of the departmental head's team is to establish academic educational and administrative objectives to facilitate the effective functioning of each department in the school (Van Rooyen, 1984:193). The leader of this team is also responsible for class visits and evaluation of teachers in his department. According to Adam (1987:171), this team discusses internal matters relating only to the department and takes decisions on those matters. It would also discuss issues concerning overall curriculum and formulate opinions.

Teachers may be members of several teams at any one time because of the existence of various teams at school. Some of these teams may be temporary with specific and limited tasks such as planning a school concert, while others may be permanent with responsibilities concerning a subject or discipline (Bell, 1992:46).

#### **2.9.3 *Team roles***

According to Everard (1985:126), the mixture of personal characteristics in members of a team is a major determinant of the team's success. Consideration should be given not so much to the technical expertise of members but to the way they interact.

Everard (1985:126) further states that when intelligent people are brought together they tend to suffer from 'analysis paralysis' : anyone putting forward an idea finds it gets chopped to bits by his or her colleagues, without progress being made. By contrast, winning teams consist of members who fit into one or more of certain team roles which are indispensable to the successful completion of the task. Everard (1985:127), and Torrington and Weightman (1985:207) have identified eight such roles : company worker, chairman, shaper, plant or ideas man or creative catalyst, resource investigator, monitor or evaluator, team worker and completer or finisher.

Everard (1985:130) opines that the most crucial roles are probably those of chairman and plant (creative catalyst), and that those members who play these roles need to relate to each other well because should they fail the team will never achieve its goal. The team leader should recognise the potential of the member who will play the plant role by giving him space and not allowing him to pursue unrewarding lines of thought (Everard, 1985:130).

Gorton (1983:102) maintains that for the team to operate effectively, each member of the team should be informed about his task and the responsibilities and the roles of the other members, and how the members can assist each other and work together co-operatively. Team members should not only know their tasks but should be informed about the scale and urgency of the task to be performed (Bell, 1992:50). The team leader should accept the responsibility for providing that information; for checking that it has been assimilated and understood, and ensuring that the appropriate actions are taken.

Team members are not expected to push all their responsibilities away from themselves onto the leader. They are expected to be active contributors and initiators (Hastings *et al.*, 1986:96-97). These authors maintain that team members' readiness to follow should not emanate from their passive obedience to the leader but from their active loyalty, respect and personal commitment to the team and all its members.

Howard (1973 : 114) asserts that the first task for the management team should be to establish its aims, goals and objectives, decide what should be performed, ascertain what is being done, evaluate and set priorities. According to Wilhelm (1984:28), some of the tasks which are likely to be given to the management team are :

- the improvement of communication among school staff members;
- the formulation and interpretation of rules and regulations governing school operations;

- the analysis of data on the appropriateness and effectiveness of the school's curriculum; and
- the job of clearing house for current issues in the school.

Each member in the team has a role to play which is described in general terms and not in inhibiting details (Hastings *et al.*, 1986:99). Should a problem arise which cannot be attended collectively, it is assigned to the members with time, interest or expertise. The main concern of the team, according to these writers, is what needs to be done and who is available and able to do it. There is no such attitude as "it's not my job".

Tasks within the team should be shared and responsibilities distributed. Team leaders should therefore distribute the work load evenly and match the strengths of team members with the task areas where these strengths can best be utilised (Pellicer & Nemeth, 1980:100). This teamwork should be based on good working relationships and not on good social relationships. Nevertheless, teams need both members who are effective in the task area and those who are effective in the social and emotional area (Torrington & Weightman, 1985:205).

The leadership of the team is not static. It will change frequently depending on the tasks and the expertise of the members. It will not depend on factors such as position in the school, experience or seniority (Bell, 1992:47). A junior teacher might occupy the leadership position during the discussion of a particular topic while the team leader (e.g. departmental head) assumes the status of an ordinary member. Bell concludes that this makes it imperative for all team members to comprehend the process involved in managing and leading teams.

According to Everard (1985:131), knowledge of one's colleagues' preferred team roles, and of the roles that have to be played in effective teams, will assist the team leader both in composing teams and in helping them to work effectively once they are formed. For example, if the team cannot meet its deadlines, it could utilise its completer-finisher to facilitate a sense of urgency.

Effectiveness has to do with achieving agreed objectives (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:81; Robbins, 1989:29; Bell, 1992:25). A team is effective insofar as it attains its goals. This indicates the necessity of involving team members in the setting of goals to ensure their acceptance and commitment to their attainment. Effective teamwork will not materialise automatically by putting together groups of individuals. It requires a set of management strategies (Bell, 1992:46). These must be employed by the team leader whether he is the

principal working with the whole staff, his cabinet or departmental head using her expertise and working with his team. However, there are stages through which a team must develop before it can be effective.

## 2.10 STAGES OF TEAM DEVELOPMENT

Building an effective team takes time. Nevertheless, some teams gel faster than others, while some never really develop to their full potential, and a few other teams are a disaster from beginning to end (Kemp & Nathan, 1989:139). According to these authors, teams develop through four stages namely, *forming*, *storming*, *norming* and *performing* (Torrington & Weightman, 1985:202).

*Forming* is the first stage during which the team is assembled. The stage is characterised by anxiety and dependence on the leader while the members are trying to establish which behaviour is acceptable (Kemp & Nathan, 1989:202).

At the *storming* stage there is jockeying for position which can result in tension, conflict, mistrust, rebellion against the leader, polarisation and resistance to control. Because of low co-operation, the leader might resort to a telling style (Kemp & Nathan, 1989:139; Torrington & Weightman, 1985:203).

According to these writers, the next stage, *norming*, is characterised by the development of group cohesion and the emergence of norms, decrease in tensions, clarification of the roles of team members, mutual support and sense of group identity. Kemp and Nathan (1989:139) opine that during this stage the leader can begin to delegate more responsibilities.

The *performing* stage is characterised by a high level of trust and support within the team and openness in discussion. Conflict and disagreement are not suppressed or avoided but are brought into the open and resolved. The team recognises its strengths and uses them to achieve its objectives (Kemp & Nathan, 1989:139). According to Torrington and Weightman (1985:202) at this stage the roles of team members are flexible and functional.

Torrington and Weightman (1985:203) alleges that if the team leader pushes on more quickly than the members are ready for, then norming and performing may be delayed as the early unresolved uncertainties will crop up again. Kemp and Nathan (1989:139) maintains that some few teams quickly skip through the early stages to reach full

potential, some never reach the latter stages, while others go through all the four stages. Nevertheless, the length of time required for this team building process varies.

## **2.11 SUMMARY**

The nature of team management was the theme of this chapter. The distinction between team management and participative management was made so as to clarify the usage of these two concepts. From the discussion of the nature of team management it is evident that this approach is based on the theories of McGregor, Herzberg, Maslow, Likert and Argyris. It is also evident that the advantages of team management outweigh its disadvantages.

For team management to be successful, a democratic leadership style or a team management style which encompasses two-way communication and promotes teacher involvement in decision-making is necessary. However, teacher involvement should not be construed as meaning involvement of all the teachers, all of the time.

In a school, the principal and his heads of department are leaders of their respective teams. However, they should share their leadership and authority with their members so as to help develop them for possible future promotion. The composition and structure of teams as well as the roles team members are expected to play, were discussed. Attention was also given to the stages through which teams develop.

Arising from the discussion of the nature of team management is the question of the role and task of the principal in facilitating team management. The next chapter attempts to provide an answer to this question.