THE IMPACT OF EDUCATORS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THEIR ROLES AS MANAGERS OF CHANGE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on the educator's role as a manager of change. The study explored the role of the educator as manager of change, to what extent EI contributes to workplace success and how change impacts disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C schools. The ultimate purpose was to develop a possible framework to assist educators to manage the process of change in an emotionally intelligent way.

In developing such a framework, the focus was on the following aspects:

- To present an overview of the educator as manager of change.
- To delineate EI as important contributor to workplace success.
- To explore the change management process in disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C secondary schools in the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province.

The literature study revealed that the emotional well-being of the educator and the learner is increasingly recognised as an important predictor of success in school, family and work life. Furthermore, EI is widely accepted as foundational to getting along with others in the workplace, as well as being a primary managerial and leadership competency. EI is also believed by many to be the determinant of who advances most quickly in an organization, and EI skills may be particularly useful when the organization is undergoing change. Emotionally intelligent managers are therefore better able to cope with the inevitability of change within the organization, tolerate uncertainty, build employee commitment, motivate others, communicate effectively, manage conflict, reduce employees' anxiety and thus enhance performance.

The empirical study consisted of a structured questionnaire distributed to a sample population of educators and learners in the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province. It was aimed at gathering information about the process of change in six secondary schools and how educators and learners

cope with change. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with members of the School Management Team (SMT) and the School Governing Body (SGB) members at each school. The main findings of the empirical investigation revealed that educators and learners lack the tools to deal with change in school and in their everyday lives effectively.

An EI competency framework for change was proposed to assist educators to deal with change in an emotionally intelligent way. The framework was structured to provide Gauteng and Eastern Cape schools with a usable tool for implementing EI so that they may cope effectively with change.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die impak van Emosionele Intelligensie (EI) op die opvoeder se rol as bestuurder van verandering te ondersoek. Die studie het die rol van die opvoeder as bestuurder van verandering nagespeur, tot watter mate EI bydra tot werkpleksukses en hoe verandering 'n impak op agtergeblewe skole en oud-Model C skole gehad het. Die finale doel was om 'n moontlike raamwerk te ontwikkel om opvoeders te help om die proses van verandering op 'n emosionele intelligente manier te hanteer.

By die ontwikkeling van so 'n raamwerk, was die fokus op die volgende aspekte:

- Om 'n oorsig van die opvoeder as bestuurder van verandering te verskaf.
- Om EI as belangrike bydraer tot werkpleksukses af te baken.
- Om die veranderingsbestuurproses in agtergeblewe sekondêre en oud-Model C skole in die Gauteng Provinsie en die Ooskaapse Provinsie na te speur.

Die literatuurstudie het onthul dat die emosionele welstand van die opvoeder en die leerder toenemend aangewys word as 'n belangrike voorspeller van sukses in skool, familie en in die werkslewe. Verder word EI ook beskou as 'n belangrike grondslag om oor die weg te kom met mense in die werkplek, sowel as 'n primêre bestuurs- en leierskapsvaardigheid. Daar word ook deur baie geglo dat EI kan voorspel wie die gouste in 'n organisasie vooruitgang sal toon en dat EI-vaardighede baie nuttig kan wees wanneer die organisasie verandering ondergaan. Emosioneel intelligente bestuurders is daarom beter in staat om onvermydelikheid van verandering binne 'n organisasie te hanteer, om onsekerheid die hoof te bied, werknemerstoewyding te help bou, ander te motiveer, effektief te kommunikeer, konflik te hanteer, werknemers se angs te verminder en sodoende prestasie te verbeter.

Die empiriese studie het bestaan uit 'n gestruktureerde vraelys wat onder 'n steekproef onderwysers en leerders gesirkuleer is in die Gauteng Provinsie

en die Ooskaapse Provinsie. Dit was gemik op die invordering van inligting oor die proses van verandering in ses sekondêre skole en hoe onderwysers en leerders byhou met die proses van verandering. Semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude is ook gehou met lede van die Skoolbestuurspan en die Skoolbeheerliggaam van elke skool. Die hoof bevindings van die empiriese ondersoek het onthul dat opvoeders en leerders nie die vaardighede het om effektief met verandering in die skool en in hul alledaagse lewe te handel nie.

'n EI vaardigheidsraamwerk vir verandering is voorgestel om onderwysers te help om verandering op 'n emosioneel intelligente wyse te hanteer. Die raamwerk is gestruktureer om aan Gauteng en Ooskaapse skole 'n bruikbare werktuig te verskaf om sodoende verandering effektief te kan hanteer.

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The school is the basic unit of change in education. It stands to reason that the principal plays a crucial role in this, creating an initial stimulus for change within a defined school culture. The principal should therefore be actively managing and supporting the implementation of change, but the educator has an equal role in managing the change.

Busher (2006:9) states that this critical perspective leaves open the possibility of wondering in whose interest principals and senior staff members manage their schools and whether the values they try to project when doing so, reflect the values and needs of all learners. Bourdieu and Passeron (as quoted by Busher, 2006:9) posit that this includes the leadership that educators offer in the classroom through the ways in which they manage their learners and their learning.

For Bear *et al.* (as quoted by Busher, 2006:9) an important implication of this is that each school is unique therefore the process for managing and developing it to make as successful as possible the quality of learning and teaching in it also has to be unique. The author summarizes this anthropological uniqueness of a school as including its history, socio-economic background, traditions, population mix and nature and extent of cultural support through activities within and with its local community.

Altrichter and Eliot (2000:87-88) reiterates that school culture contributes to the uniqueness of a school and that schools in general remain the same, even as changes occur within individual schools. The effect of school culture is visible in such concrete aspects of schooling as the design of the school and the organisation of its classrooms.

Principals and educators alike should therefore be skilled in the handling of relationships to manage the changes experienced within a school successfully.

According to Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002:52), handling relationships involves more than friendliness, it means moving people in the right direction, inspiring and orientating people with a compelling vision. The authors reiterate that relationship skills allow leaders to put their Emotional Intelligence (EI) to work. Once leaders are attuned to their own vision and values, steadied in the positive emotional range and at one with the emotions of the group, then relationship management skills allow them to interact in ways that catalyse resonance (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002:51). The competent leader at the school, the researcher reasons, can bring this to fruition only in a safe, secure learning environment.

To create a secure environment the leader must take account of the relationships between people (Burton & Bundrett, 2005:51), how interaction is developed within the school community and how individuals are enriched.

Jarvis (2001:142) concurs that the school still seems a very traditional institution, although great emphasis is placed on the school as a learning organization, characterized by change. Educators are seen engaging in the same learning activities year after year, hence the author (Jarvis, 2001:142) poses the question whether a schooling system, organized in the traditional way with bells, timetables and the like, can provide a safe learning environment for learners and educators. More importantly, on the face of it, this would seem to provide a stable rather than a changing working environment for educators, which contrasts starkly with the flexibility of the working environment in the 'real world'.

Glasgow (as quoted by Pretorius, 2000:153) regards the traditional role of educators as that of providers of information. In this context, learners were passive listeners into whom knowledge was poured as if into empty vessels. According to this viewpoint, the better the discipline at schools and the quieter

the learners in the educational situation, the more effective the education was perceived to be.

With this study, the researcher aims to highlight the importance of educators engaging in the life and learning of the individual learner and creating a passionate learning environment in which learners can thrive without being afraid to show emotion or vulnerability. This implies that educators themselves have to be emotionally secure in order to create an emotionally healthy school environment.

Wallace and Poulson (2003:220) are of the opinion that the articulation of a vision for the school, setting clear goals and formulating the school's purposes, represent important management functions. Ashkanasy, Zerbe and Hartel (2002:14) argue for the management of emotions in organizations and academic institutions. They refer to the dominant theory of transformational leadership where leaders inspire and motivate their followers through projecting a clearly articulated vision of future goals.

Accompanying this inspiration are aspects of intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Likewise, Bass (1998:134) notes that transformational leaders must be sensitive and empathetic to their follower's emotional needs. Cooper and Sawaf (2000:107) claim that when people embrace change, which requires EI rather than technical rationality as the primary guide, the experience of change enlivens us and growth follows naturally. Magai and McFadden (1996:76) say that the term emotion indicates the bodily and psychological arousal from which it can be inferred that an event has personally affected someone.

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (as quoted by Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2002:13) see EI as a set of abilities dealing specifically with emotion. In this view, EI is defined as the perception, identification, understanding and management of emotion.

Squelch (2000:128) highlights the role of School Governing Bodies (SGBs) at schools as essentially to ensure that educators, parents, learners and non-teaching staff actively participate in the governance and management of their schools with a view to providing better teaching and learning environments.

The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (84/1996; hereafter Schools Act) states that the SGB stands in a position of trust towards the school. To be in a position of trust means that the SGB must act in good faith, carry out its duties and functions in the best interest of the school, not disclose confidential information that might harm the school, not engage in any unlawful conduct and not compete with the school's interest and activities.

According to Swart and Pettipher (2001:35), creating an inclusive learning community requires an inclusive school climate and culture, whole-school development, a shared vision and a culture of collegiality and collaboration. It requires principals and educators to redefine their roles if they are to respond effectively to the challenges of change.

MacGilchrist, Mayers and Reed (2004: 49) argue that schools have the primary task of enhancing and enriching learning, and assert that learning in the intelligent school is a continuous, life-long process. This has profound implications for the organization of a school and the way it provides a nurturing learning environment. The belief that anyone can learn requires principals and educators to lead and mange with emotion. It focuses on the importance of those in leadership positions to demonstrate vision, self-belief and determination, putting the concerns of others first and encouraging others to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations.

It is clear that some jobs require a high EI in order to deal with other people, to empathize with and understand others. It is the researcher's intention to show that educators will have to influence management structures and create a working environment where they are free to express themselves to optimize and deliver quality education. This self-expression will manifest in the utilization of EI to facilitate the change processes within the school.

Based on the preceding information, the following research questions need to be asked:

- What is the role of the educator as manager of change?
- To what extent does EI contribute to workplace success?

- What is the impact of EI on change management at disadvantaged secondary schools, mixed and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province?

- Can an EI Competency Framework be developed to effect change in schools successfully in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province?

The research problems formulated above imply that certain specific aims have to be achieved through this present study.

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to suggest ways to improve change management practices at secondary schools by determining the impact EI has on the educator's role to manage change at these institutions in the Eastern Cape and Gauteng Provinces and to suggest a framework that focuses on EI to effect change.

The overall aim was operationalized by:

- presenting an overview of the educator as manager of change;

- delineating EI as important contributor to workplace success;

- exploring the impact of EI on the change management process in disadvantaged secondary schools, mixed secondary schools and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province; and

- suggesting an EI competency framework to effect change successfully at schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province (*cf.* 8.3).

1.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:12), this refers to the researcher's *general approach ... in carrying out the research project*. The approach taken normally indicates which research strategies or tools need to be selected.

1.3.1 Method

The term *method* is used to indicate which approach the researcher decides to follow in gathering and analysing the data.

1.3.1.1 Review of literature

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:64) state that a literature review describes the theoretical perspectives and previous research findings regarding the research problem. A literature study on what effective school rules comprise of, as perceived by the academic community will be done.

In order to obtain relevant literature, a variety of electronic databases (NEXUS, EBSCO-Host, ERIC and SA e-Publications), internet websites (http://www.lch.ch, http://www.ei-ei.org, http://hrw.org, http://portal.unesco.org/education) and internet search engines (Google, Google Scholar and Yahoo) were utilized, as well as government issued policies and regulations using, among others the following keywords and search phrases: educator, teacher, perceptions, school rules, education, human rights, legislation, regulation, guidelines, structure of legislation, education law, Bill of Rights, policy, government policy, code of conduct, perspectives, learner discipline, effective methods of discipline.

1.3.1.2 Quantitative research method

As pointed out by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:8-9), the aim of this method is to be particularistic in approaching the collection of data. This signifies evaluating objective data which consist of numbers, trying to exclude bias from the researcher's side. Most typically, the quantitative method would make use of a questionnaire.

1.3.1.3 Qualitative research method

The same authors (Welman *et al.*, 2005:8-9) describe the qualitative research method as aiming at determining the *dynamic and changeable nature of reality* by collecting subjective data, presented verbally by people. This refers

specifically to the data which are recorded in the form of language and not numbers, as would be the case with quantitative research method.

1.3.1.4 Mixed method

In life, human sciences research uses both quantitative and qualitative methodology – sometimes consciously, sometimes unconsciously (Fouché & Delport, 2002:81). A mixed method design is useful to capture the best of quantitative and qualitative approaches. As a result, researchers learn more about the world when they have both quantitative and qualitative methodologies at their disposal than when they are limited to only one approach or the other (Creswell, 2003:22).

The mixed method approach is usually applied when a researcher tends to base knowledge on practical foundations. Both quantitative and qualitative data will therefore be collected at the same time. Triangulation is used when the strengths of one method offset the weaknesses of the other, so that they provide a more comprehensive set of data (McMIllan & Schumacher, 2006:28).

This thesis therefore followed a mixed method in order to describe and explore the impact of educators' EI on their roles as managers of change: a questionnaire (quantitative method; *cf.* 5.4.2.1 & 5.4.2.1.4) and focus group interviews (qualitative method; *cf.* 5.7.1.1 – 5.7.1.3) were used to collect data. In the end an attempt at triangulating the data was made (*cf.* 5.4.5.2).

1.3.2 Design

A research design is the general strategy a researcher will follow to solve the research problem, in that it provides the overall structure for the chosen procedures (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:85). Research, as defined by McMillan and Schumacher (2001:9), is a systematic process of collecting and logically analyzing information for some purpose. Research design is the specification of procedures for collecting and analyzing data to help identify or react to a problem or opportunity (Tull & Hawkins, 1993:50).

1.3.2.1 Quantitative design

Quantitative data were collected by means of a survey in the format of questionnaires (*cf.* Addenda D & E) that were handed out the sampled participants. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:108) point out that survey research is chosen when specific traits need to be quantified in terms of incidents, frequency and distribution. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:101) and Crowther, Smit and Herbst (2004:125), survey data are used to describe and explain the status of phenomena, to trace change and to draw comparisons.

This thesis can be considered as being both descriptive and interpretive. However, it could be described as being largely descriptive as the aim was to gain insight into the change management practices at disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape and the Gauteng Province in order to develop new perspectives on the management of change and EI. Research in education includes scientific and disciplined inquiry (Bell, 2004:8).

1.3.2.2 Qualitative design

In the second instance, qualitative data were collected by means of focus group interviews (*cf.* 5.7.1.4). In this thesis, data from focus group interviews could help the researcher obtain information which she had not thought of or had not included in her questionnaires (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:146).

Ultimately the researched must look for convergence (triangulation; *cf.* 5.4.5.2) of the data. Many separate pieces of data must all point to the same conclusion. Triangulation is critical in facilitating interpretive validity and establishing data trustworthiness (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:28) and could require of researchers to check the extent to which conclusions based on qualitative sources are supported by quantitative perspectives, and vice versa. It reduces the risk of chance associated and systematic bias, and relies on information collected from a diverse range of individuals, teams and settings, using a variety of methods (Maxwell, 1996:93).

The researcher was aware of the limitations of both the focus group interview design and the survey design. She attempted to prevent these challenges from affecting the quality of the thesis by eliminating bias views and by monitoring all the interpretations in order to validate and ensure the reliability of the research. The aim of the thesis, however, was not to generalize the participants' perceptions, but to provide a description of them.

The above-mentioned designs were chosen to provide the researcher with an unbiased and true view of real-life events (*cf.* 1.3.3.5.2) experienced and observed by educators and learners.

1.3.3 Empirical investigation

A mixed method design was used for this study. This signifies a combined quantitative and qualitative approach to data collection and analysis. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:95), a quantitative researcher aims at, among other things, establishing, confirming or validating relationships. In this way such researchers hope to gain better insight into complex occurrences, events or situations. In the final analysis, their work is often exploratory in nature and they may even use their observations to build theory from the ground up (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:95).

1.3.3.1 Aim

The empirical investigation was conducted to gather information on educators' responses to statements concerning the management of change at secondary schools, and the impact of EI on their roles in managing change.

In order to attain the aims of this study, qualitative and quantitative research was done (*cf.* 5.4.2; 6.1).

Denzin and Lincoln (as quoted by Christensen, 2001:50) state that qualitative research is an interpretative, multi-method approach that investigates people in their natural environment. For the purposes of this study, different questionnaires were administered to the educators, learners, School Management Team (SMT) members and SGB members at disadvantaged,

mixed and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape and Gauteng Provinces in order to assess current change management practices, EI competencies and the role of educators in effecting change at secondary schools.

In the qualitative research approach, focus group and semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data for this thesis. In the quantitative approach, the researcher developed and used questionnaires to collect data for the study.

1.3.3.2 Measuring instrument

In order to analyse the current change management practices and EI competencies at secondary schools, a structured questionnaire was designed, using the information gathered from the literature, regarding the above-mentioned aspects (*cf.* 1.2 & 1.3.2.1). The structured questionnaires were distributed among identified SMT members, Grade 10 and 11 educators, SGBs, and Grade 10 and 11 learners.

The quantitative method was used to analyse data obtained from questionnaires. The focus was mainly on running frequencies and cross tabulations of elicited responses by making use of the powerful statistical package SPSS10 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; *cf.* 6.2.1.1).

The researcher developed questionnaires for this thesis, which proved to be relatively economical. Participants were assured of anonymity while completing the questionnaires. Semi-structured open-ended interviews with educators, SMTs, and SGBs, as well as focus group interviews with educators and learners were conducted on site to help identify current management practices and EI competencies at these schools.

A comparative study of management practices at the previously disadvantaged secondary schools, mixed schools and ex-Model C-schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province was conducted.

1.3.3.3 Population and sampling

According to Powers (as quoted by Strydom, 2005:193), a population comprises of a set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher are represented. The entities may be people, such as all the clients comprising a particular worker's caseload, or things, such as all the research books housed in a specific library. The study of a population is therefore the study of the whole. Seaberg (as quoted by Strydom, 2005:193) also defines a population as the total set from which the individuals of a study are chosen.

The target population of this study (N=744) comprised secondary school Grade 10 and 11 educators of all races, Grade 10 and 11 learners of all races, four SMT members and two SGB members of each school. Purposive sampling was used as the researcher identified six schools for an in-depth investigation. A comparative study of management practices at one previously disadvantaged secondary school, one mixed and one ex-Model C school in the Eastern Cape Province, Port Elizabeth District and one disadvantaged, one mixed and one ex-Model C-secondary school in the Gauteng Province, Sedibeng West (D7) and Sedibeng East (D8) were conducted, all easily accessible to the researcher.

Sampling refers to the activities involved in selecting a subset of persons or things from a larger population, also known as a sampling frame (Scott & Morrison, 2006:219). Methods used to select the sample will determine the nature and validity of the findings that are generated from the study of that sample.

Sarantakos (as quoted by Strydom & Delport, 2005:328) describes sampling in qualitative research as being relatively limited, based on saturation, not representative, the size not statistically determined, and involving low cost and less time. It can be inferred that in qualitative investigations non-probability sampling is used almost without exception.

Denzin and Lincoln (as quoted by Strydom & Delport, 2005:328) point out that qualitative researchers seek out individuals, groups and settings where the

specific processes being studied are most likely to occur. A process of constant comparison between the individuals and groups being studied is essential, since the researcher is in pursuit of understanding all aspects of the research topic.

Purposive sampling was used for this study. A representative sample of schools was purposively selected for this study. From the sample, three secondary schools were selected in the Eastern Cape Province and three secondary schools in Gauteng Province respectively. Grade 10 and 11 educators and learners completed a structured questionnaire at each school. Focus group interviews with Grade 10 and 11 educators and learners and semi-structured interviews with SMT members and SGB members were also conducted. Four SMT members and two SGB members from each school were selected to participate in the semi-structured interviews.

1.3.3.4 Pilot survey to establish reliability

Before the questionnaires were administered to the sample, a pilot study was conducted with a selected number of respondents form the target population, to determine their qualities of measurement and appropriateness, and to review them for clarity. The respondents did not experience any difficulties.

Royce (as quoted by Strydom & Delport, 2005:331) describes the pilot study for qualitative research as informal, with the participants possessing the same characteristics as those of the main investigation to be involved in the study, merely to ascertain the trends. The purpose is to determine whether the relevant data can be obtained from the participants.

The results of the pilot study of both questionnaires that were developed for this thesis, were summarized according to Cronbach alpha reliability scores and inter-item correlations, which are indicated in 5.5.1.1 (*cf.* Table 5.1).

1.3.3.5 Validity

Validity was arrived at by considering both content validity and construct validity. The content validity was supported by the specific questionnaire

items being constructed strictly according to the definition of each section. The construct validity was underpinned by the fact that although the questionnaire focused on different sections, the items all dealt with aspects which were important concerning the management of the change process at secondary schools.

Two types of validity were developed, namely internal validity and external validity.

1.3.3.5.1 Internal validity

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:97) the internal validity of a research study is the extent to which its design and the data it yields allow the researcher to draw accurate conclusions about cause-and-effect and other relationships within the data.

To ensure the internal validity of a research study, the researcher needs to take whatever precautions necessary to eliminate other possible explanations for the results observed (Leedy & Ormord, 2005:98). For this thesis, the researcher used triangulation to increase the probability that the explanations provided were the most likely ones for the observations which were made.

1.3.3.5.2 External validity

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:99) posit that the external validity of a research study is the extent to which its results apply to the situations beyond the study itself: the extent to which the conclusions drawn can be generalized t other contexts.

The authors outline the following three commonly used strategies when aiming at enhancing the external validity of a research project (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:99):

- A real-life setting: Research that is conducted in the outside world, although it may not have the tight controls that would be in place in a laboratory (*cf.* 1.3.2.2).

- A representative sample: To the extent that research is restricted to people with a particular set of characteristics, it may not be possible to generalize the findings to those with a very different set of characteristics (*cf.* 1.3.2.2). Ideally, the participants in a research study should be a representative sample of the population about which conclusions are drawn.

- Replication in a different context: If a particular study is conducted in a specific context and another researcher conducts a similar study in a different context and reaches the same conclusion, this provides evidence that the conclusion has validity and applicability across diverse contexts and situations.

The next two sections explore the validity of both the qualitative and the quantitative phases which were used while completing the research for this thesis.

1.3.3.5.3 Validity in qualitative research

According to De Vos (2002:351), the strength of the qualitative study which aims at exploring a problem or describing a setting, process, social group or pattern of interaction, would be its validity.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:100) point out that Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Creswell (1998) have suggested that words such as *credibility*, *dependability*, *confirmability*, *verification* and *transferability* be used instead of the term validity.

This thesis employed triangulation to support the validity of especially the qualitative research findings (*cf.* 6.5).

1.3.3.6 Validity in quantitative research

According to Bostwick and Kyte (as quoted by Delport, 2002:1), a valid measuring instrument is described as (a) doing what it is intended to do, (b) measuring what it is supposed to measure, and (c) yielding scores whose differences reflect the true differences of the variable/s being measured.

The authors distinguish between content validity, which is concerned with the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content of the instrument, face validity, which refers to a desirable characteristic of a measuring instrument (without which the researcher may encounter resistance on the part of participants), and criterion validity, which involves multiple measurement and is established by comparing scores on an instrument with an external criterion known to, or believed to, measure the concept, trait or behaviour which is being studied (Bostwick & Kyte, as quoted by Delport, 2002:166-167).

1.3.3.7 Statistical techniques

The Statistical Consultancy Services of the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) were approached for assistance in the analysis and interpretation of data collected. The SPSS statistical package was employed to process data by running frequencies and cross tabulations of elicited responses.

Qualitative data were collected by using a tape recorder to record the responses of the participants. In the analysis of the qualitative data, these responses were transcribed and arranged according to themes which addressed the fundamental aspects of the thesis.

1.4 FEASIBILITY OF THE STUDY

The study was feasible in that:

- The study was conducted in the Port Elizabeth district of the Eastern Cape Province and in the Sedibeng Districts 7 and 8 in the Gauteng Province because the schools were easily accessible. Secondly, the researcher was familiar with the Port Elizabeth region as she grew up and studied there.

- Literature resources used for information gathering were sufficiently available.

- The study was relevant to the current changes taking place in the sphere of management in the world and in South African education transformation, and the results elicited genuine and useful responses from the study population.

1.5 ETHICAL ASPECTS

- Permission was requested from the Department of Education, District office in Port Elizabeth (Addendum A) and the Gauteng Department of Education and the respective schools through consultation with the SGBs and SMTs to distribute questionnaires to educators and learners (Addendum D & Addendum E).

- Appointments were made with the principal of each school to obtain permission to distribute the questionnaires. A letter was addressed to the principal of each school to obtain permission (Addendum B).

- Permission was obtained from the participants, thus obtaining informed consent (Addendum C).

- The participants remained anonymous and the information supplied by them was treated confidentially: only the researcher and the statistician handled the data.

- The researcher also made sure that the collected data were not used to the detriment of those involved in the research project: the data were only used to inform this study in an anonymous manner.

- Interviews were conducted only with people directly and professionally associated with schools (SMT & SGB members), and the researcher assured the participants that all of the information would be treated confidentially.

- The researcher ascertained that the consent of the participants was voluntary and informed.

- The transcription of the interviews was done in an ethical manner, taking care that the transcriptions were only used for the purposes of this research and that the identity of the schools and the participants were protected.

1.6 CHAPTER DIVISION

CHAPTER 1 ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

This chapter provides a brief background to the study and the researcher's intentions with the study.

CHAPTER 2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS IMPORTANT CONTRIBUTOR TO WORKPLACE SUCCESS

This chapter encapsulates the importance of EI as essential skill to enhance workplace success.

CHAPTER 3 THE EDUCATOR'S ROLE AS MANAGER OF CHANGE

In this chapter, the process of change in education is highlighted as well as the role that educators have as managers of the change process.

CHAPTER 4 THEORETICAL EXPOSITION FOR AN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE FRAMEWORK FOR CHANGE

This chapter provides the background necessary to understand the importance of the EI competency framework for change.

CHAPTER 5 A POSSIBLE FRAMEWORK FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EI TO EFFECT CHANGE AT SCHOOLS SUCCESSFULLY

The focus of this chapter is the proposition of an EI competency framework for change for possible implementation at secondary schools.

CHAPTER 6 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter sets out the research design for the study.

CHAPTER 7 DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter, an analysis of the data obtained during the empirical investigation is provided.

CHAPTER 8 SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the main aspects presented and discussed in the thesis and sets out recommendations to steer the change process at schools.

1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

For change initiatives to succeed, it is essential that today's educators acquire emotion management skills specifically to respond to the educational setting's emotional displays. This study provided the educator with possible tools to respond to the demands brought about by change in the educational setting. In so doing, the educator is better equipped to meet personal expectations and goals and align these with the goals of the school.

It became clear to the researcher that a framework for the management of change with EI as cornerstone needed to be devised with the intent of assisting educators to manage change at schools successfully.

1.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the importance of the roles of educators in managing change with EI at secondary schools was highlighted. The primary and secondary literature sources were studied to gather information on the impact of EI on educators' roles as managers of change.

In this research, a mixed method approach (combining qualitative and quantitative research) was followed. The structured questionnaire was used as an instrument to gather information regarding the management of change at secondary schools and focus group interviews were conducted with Grades 10 and 11 educators and learners at six secondary schools. In-depth interviews were conducted with members of the SMTs and SGBs at each

school. A pilot study was conducted to test the appropriateness of the questionnaire.

The following chapter will focus on EI as an important contributor to workplace success.

CHAPTER TWO

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS AN IMPORTANT CONTRIBUTOR TO WORKPLACE SUCCESS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

It is known that teamwork, collaboration, sound interpersonal relationships and effective communication characterize a successful working environment. Emotional well-being is increasingly recognised as an important predictor of success in school, family and work life. Weisinger, Chermiss and Goleman (as quoted by Weare, 2004:14) write that much of the thrust of work on emotional literacy and EI has come from the world of work, from studies on management and leadership, where it is proving to be enormously beneficial. They mention further that the nature of work in the twenty-first century is changing: there is an increasing focus on relationships, team-work, communication and management skills. Work is also more stressful now, rapid technological change produces more pressure, and the need for people to be resilient, flexible and adaptable in the working environment becomes an all-important task.

Rather than biasing and neglecting emotions, Hartel, Zerbe and Ashkanasy (2005:16) argue that emotions are more often seen as an invisible asset for the individual and particularly for the organization. One reason for this change in the view on emotions (from *ugly duckling* to *invisible asset*) seems to be the global ideas of service management, quality and customer orientation and the necessity of these in successful business transactions. Learning and maintaining appropriate emotions through contextually situated *feeling rules* have therefore been argued to be a central component in service work.

Vermeulen (2004:9) states that when it comes to developing relationships that work in the workplace, EI emphasizes the need to get to know people and to create the right conditions for people to motivate and empower themselves.

According to Freshman and Rubino (as quoted by Moss, 2005:51) EI is widely accepted as foundational to getting along with others in the workplace, as well as being a primary managerial and leadership competency. Vermeulen (2004:8) reiterates that EI calls attention to the necessity of emphasizing the human component in business. This author states further that EI is the only western ideology to capture the essence of the ancient African tradition of *ubuntu* (human dignity). This translates into a deep-rooted knowledge of the fact that survival and success depend on the support, care, help and understanding of other people (Vermeulen, 2004:9).

In this chapter, the focus will be on discussing EI as an important contributor to achieving success in the workplace. An exploration into the relationship between emotions and success, emotional competencies that educators should possess, how emotions should be managed in a changing school environment and what constitutes an emotionally intelligent school culture will be undertaken.

2.2 THE VALUE OF EMOTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE

Hartel *et al.* (2005:21) state that emotions are not only present, but are central to being able and willing to do the work in capable ways, especially in work with a high degree of customer interactions. A fundamental question for managers within service organizations is how to facilitate and organize so that the customers feel welcome and cared for, as emotional intensive work such as this is more complex, paradoxical and dependent on knowing, relating and dedicating as a whole person (*cf.* 8.4.6).

An employee with a strong personality may be fun, social, energetic and outgoing, but this does not equate success in the workplace. Goleman *et al.* (2002:8) are of the opinion that emotions at work influence judgement, job satisfaction, helping behaviour, creative problem-solving and decision-making, and how leaders feel affects how well they influence people, which is the core of leadership. The authors reiterate that EI does not equal success; emotionally intelligent people are not necessarily great managers, and not all great managers are emotionally intelligent. However, Cherniss and Goleman

(2001:4-5) point to the role of EI in promoting superior performance at work and they are of the opinion that the most effective bosses are those who have the ability to manage their own emotions, sense how their employees feel about the work situation and intervene effectively when those employees begin to feel discouraged or dissatisfied. In short: bosses who manage with EI.

A person functioning in amorphous situations marked by rapid change needs to be able to form strong teams quickly and efficiently, interact effectively with people, communicate goals, and obtain buy-in from these self-directed, autonomous groups. In such an environment, the leader must lead by using a set of highly sophisticated skills that involve understanding how people think and feel. The emotionally intelligent manager matches the mood to the moment (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:xvii).

Weisinger (as quoted by Moss, 2005:16) adds that EI is believed by many to be the determinant of who advances most quickly in an organization, and that the development of EI theory coincides with the changes in the workplace that intensify the usefulness of emotional skills.

2.2.1 The relationship between positive emotions and success

According to Christenson and Havsy (2004:59), there is little debate that success for all must be a standard in education. Success for all requires attending to the physical, psychological, social, cognitive, language and instructional needs of learners. The debate as the authors state, highlights the intersection of social, emotional and academic learning. School success require learners to take initiative and be responsible for their learning (autonomy), have interpersonal attachments with peers and school staff (belonging) and have a sense of mastery when challenged (competence).

When employees feel positive emotions they are more likely to set higher goals, see and fix mistakes, feel more competent and empowered, have greater problem-solving capabilities, act more flexibly, feel more job satisfaction and loyalty to their organizations, go above and beyond the call of duty, interact with one another more frequently, give and get social support,

share resources, resolve conflict and negotiate more reasonably and rebound from hurdles and crises more quickly (Caproni, 2005:102).

According to Caproni (2005:104), positive emotions in organizations can be a competitive advantage in the workplace. The author highlights the following ways in which positive emotions can be cultivated (Caproni, 2005:104):

- Express positive emotions by showing gratitude, generosity, optimism, and trust at work regularly. Start meetings with sincere appreciation. Positive emotions are contagious, especially when expressed by direct supervisors and organizational leaders.

- Engage in positive deviance. Give unexpected kindness and reach out to others when it is least expected

- Help people find positive meaning in their day-to-day work lives, including in the mundane, the sad and the crises. Help employees see how their work contributes to a greater good and whom they are helping through tire efforts.

- Provide opportunities for people to help one another and to express appreciation for the help they receive form others.

- Celebrate small wins so that employees experience and express what it feels like to rise to the occasion and find the strength and resources they never knew they had.

Caproni (2005:13) is of the view that emotionally intelligent managers who exhibit positive emotions, are better able to cope with the inevitable ups and downs of organizational life, tolerate uncertainty, build employee commitment, motivate others, communicate effectively, manage conflict, reduce employees' anxiety and thus enhance performance.

According to James and Connolly (2000:50), Freud drew attention to the ways in which people try to protect themselves against the pain associated with unpleasant or difficult emotions. These protective patterns of behaviour are called social defences. Social defences are important because of the way

they protect people from the pain linked with strong feelings, but may also obstruct change and block contact with reality. They are often repeated in response to anxiety-laden situations.

The authors state further that anxiety is the dominant and difficult emotion in itself and because of its link with other emotions. Therefore, anxiety and emotion are inextricably intertwined as they may be associated with unpleasant feelings as well as pleasurable feelings. Anxiety can also drive the generation and expression of feelings (James & Connolly, 2000:50).

2.2.2 Managing emotions in the workplace

The workplace is not a setting devoid of emotion. This is the viewpoint expressed by Ashkanasy *et al.* (2001:294), as the writers argue for the recognition and management of emotions as a legitimate role for managers today.

According to Caruso and Salovey (2004:9), emotions are not random, chaotic events that interfere with thinking. Rather, they occur due to some factor that is important to the person and they help motivate and guide the individual to success. At its most basic level, emotions can be viewed as occurring in people due to some sort of change in the world around them. They start automatically, they prepare the person for action and help them cope and thrive in the world (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:9).

Lopes and Salovey (2004:87) state that the ability to manage emotions may even help learners to handle anxiety-arousing situations, such as taking tests or starting creative projects.

2.2.2.1 Managing personal, social and environmental change

Ultimately, to be Emotionally Intelligent means to manage personal, social and environmental change effectively by coping with the immediate situation and solving problems realistically and flexibly. To do this, we need to manage our emotions so that they work for us and not against us, and we need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated (Bar-On, 2003:3). Managing

emotions does not mean repressing or rationalizing emotion; it rather means knowing when to feel and how to use feeling judiciously rather than acting on the impulse of emotion. It involves managing them in oneself and ultimately being able to help other people manage their own emotions (Moss, 2005:56). With respect to interpreting the emotional displays of others, Jones and Rittman (as quoted by Hartel & Ashkanasy, 2002:138) suggest that the individual draws upon his/her understanding of his/her own emotional responses together with his/her interpretation of the cues he/she has about the situation.

2.2.2.2 Emotional identification

Weare (2000:70) states that emotions are never static and having the ability to monitor change in how we feel and recognising what triggers them in our inner world, in our physical actions or in the outside world becomes an important consideration.

Mayer and Salovey (as quoted by Weare, 2000:71) suggest that the emotions often facilitate rational thought, allowing people to prioritize and direct attention towards what matters. Experiencing our own emotions helps us to empathize with others, to imagine what they are feeling, thus enabling us to understand them better and to predict partly what they might do.

Moss (2005:53) views emotional identification, or emotional perception, as the most fundamental of the branches of emotional ability. It involves attending to and decoding emotional signals accurately, in faces, tones of voice and artistic expressions and scenes. Individuals who demonstrate this ability are able not only to recognise and express their own feelings, but also to recognise and appraise those of others around them. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (as quoted by Moss, 2005:57) reiterate that the identification of one's own emotions as well as the emotions and needs of others, is pivotal to other emotional abilities, especially when introducing change in the working environment, as change typically involves emotions that must be dealt with early.

According to Winnicott (as quoted by Weare, 2000:82), the educator has a vital role in 'emotional holding', by which is meant demonstrating that disturbing feelings have meaning and can be tolerated, managed, reflected on and understood. It is then essential that educators themselves are stable, calm and consistent if they are to be good role models for learners in managing their emotions.

2.3 EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE AT SCHOOL

Sylwester (as quoted by Elias, Arnold and Hussey, 2003:6) views emotion as important to the educative process as it drives attention, which drives learning and memory. The author states that emotions allow us to assemble life-saving information very quickly and it is thus impossible to separate emotion from other important activities in life.

Sylwester (as quoted by Elias *et al.*, 2003:6) further outlines six areas in which emotional and social learning must come together for the benefit of learners at schools. These areas are:

- accepting and controlling emotions;
- using metacognitive activities;
- using activities that promote social interaction;
- using activities that provide an emotional context, avoiding intense emotional stress at school; and
- recognising the relationship between emotions and health.

Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) is essential for building and sustaining learning relationships for the kind needed for academic success, citizenship, a civilized and non-violent classroom and effective inclusive education (Elias *et al.*, 2003:9).

According to Zins, Weissberg, Wang and Walberg (2004:3), schools are intrinsically social places and learning is a social process. Learners do not learn alone, but rather in collaboration with their educators, in the company of

peers and with the support of their families. Emotions, the authors posit, can facilitate or hamper their learning and their ultimate success at school.

Elias (as quoted by Zins *et al.*, 2004:4) defines SEL as the process through which people learn to recognize and manage emotions, care about others, make good decisions , behave ethically and responsibly, develop positive relationships and avoid negative behaviours. These characteristics need to be developed for learners to be successful not only at school but in life, those who do not possess these skills are less likely to succeed (Elias, as quoted by Zins *et al.*, 2004:4).

2.3.1 What does it mean to be emotionally and socially intelligent?

Albrecht (2006:3) defines social intelligence as the ability to get along well with others and to get them to cooperate with you. Bar-On (2003:4) says to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to understand and express ourselves effectively, to understand and relate well to others, and to cope with daily demands and pressures. This is based on our interpersonal ability to be aware of ourselves, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our thoughts and feelings non-destructively.

On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses our ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent means to manage personal, social and environmental change effectively by coping with the immediate situation and solving problems realistically and flexibly (Bar-On, 2003:4).

Elias *et al.* (2003:5) identify social and emotional skills as those that underlie the following elements of everyday classroom and school life:

- Communicating effectively
- Participating actively, genuinely and cooperatively in group work
- Expressing and regulating emotions and impulses appropriately

- Resolving conflicts thoughtfully and non-violently
- Living a life of sound character
- Bringing a reflective, learning-to-learn approach to all domains of life.

Comer (2003:21) posits that the school climate creates the learning environment for and promotes character development, particularly in the area of school safety and teaching about non-violence. If the school teaches and models consensus, collaboration and no-fault problem-solving, learners become the proud carriers of their school's culture, a school where emotionally intelligent learners can thrive.

2.3.2 How important is it to be emotionally and socially intelligent?

According to McCombs (2004:27), the concept of SEL derives from the work of Goleman and others on EI. It generally refers to learning those skilled involved in being self-confident and motivated, knowing what behaviours are expected, curbing impulses to misbehave, being able to wait, following directions, knowing how to ask for help, expressing need, and getting along with others.

In the school learning context, McCombs (2004:27) states that SEL is the process for integrating thinking, feeling and behaviour to achieve important social tasks; meet personal and social needs; develop the skills necessary to become a productive, contributing member of society.

O'Brien, Weissberg and Shriver (2003:23) are of the opinion that schools can capitalize on promoting the personal and social development and well-being of learners *en route* to imparting academic skills and knowledge. The authors site Goleman who describes the five basic categories of emotional and social skills core competencies for social and emotional learning to thrive at schools as follows (O'Brien *et al.*, 2003:23):

Self-Awareness: Knowing what we are feeling at the moment and using those preferences to guide our decision-making; having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and well-grounded sense of self-confidence.

Self-regulation: Handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand, being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress.

Motivation: Using our deepest preferences to move and guide us toward our goals, to help us take initiative and strive to improve, and to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations.

Empathy: Sensing what people are feeling, being able to take their perspective and cultivating rapport and attunement with a broad diversity of people.

Social skills: Handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly, using these skills to persuade and lead, to negotiate and settle disputes for cooperation and teamwork (O'Brien *et al*., 2003:23).

According to Knoll and Patti (2003:49), academic achievement and social and emotional competencies form the fabric of school success for each learner by supporting learning for individuals and the group, by building shared responsibility and interdependence, by contributing to knowledge acquisition and retention, and by providing an inclusive learning environment that enhances achievement.

Albrecht (2006:26) is of the view that in order for man as a species to improve or survive in a reasonably peacable state, two things are important:

- Firstly, leaders are needed who model high social intelligence; in particular, leaders who can articulate a positive vision of development and progress and who appeal to higher selves and invite those with whom they interact to grow as individuals and as a society.

- Secondly, an educational system is required that honours the principles and behaviours associated with high social intelligence and that teaches learners to understand the cultures and subcultures through which they must navigate in this modern world that emphasizes the value of

collaboration over conflict. An education system is required that equips learners to express their ideas clearly, to make themselves understood and to seek to understand others before reacting to their behaviour (Albrecht, 2006:26).

2.3.3 Practices for enhancing Social and Emotional Learning in schools

According to Elias *et al.* and Payton *et al.* (as quoted by Zins *et al.*, 2004:6) those competent in SEL are able to recognize and manage their emotions, establish healthy relationships, set positive goals, meet personal and social needs, and make responsible decisions (*cf.* 8.4.5).

Hawkins (as quoted by Zins *et al.*, 2004:8) is of the opinion that effective SEL interventions are provided within supportive environments and they are also directed at enhancing the social-emotional environmental factors that influence learning so that the climate is caring, safe, supportive and conducive to success.

In terms of school safety, Duke (2002:xv) is of the opinion that it entails not only the prevention of inappropriate behaviour, but also the promotion of appropriate behaviour. The author propagates that efforts to create and maintain safe schools must support the academic mission of the school, recognise that learners have rights guaranteed by the Constitution, avoid producing hostile and uninviting environments in which learners feel alienated and distrust, and inspire learners to see the value of order and authority (Duke, 2002:xv).

Social and emotional education, Zins *et al.* (2004:6) state, involves teaching learners to be self-aware, socially cognizant, able to make responsible decisions and competent in self management and relationship management skills, so as to foster their academic success. The authors (Zins *et al.*, 2004:6) present five competencies (outlined in Table 2.1) that make it clear that the learners need to be aware of themselves and others; that they need to make responsible decisions; that they need to be ethical and respectful of others; and that they need to give consideration to the situation and relevant norms. They also need to manage their emotions and behaviour and to

possess behavioural social skills that enable them to carry out solutions effectively with others.

As a result, these skills and attitudes can help learners feel motivated to succeed, to believe in their success, to communicate well with educators to set academic goals, to organize themselves to achieve these goals and to overcome obstacles. In sum, their attachment to school and commitment to academics can be fostered so that they lead to effective school performance (Zins *et al.*, 2004:7).

Table 2.1 below outlines the SEL competencies necessary to promote improved performance at school and in life.

Table 2.1: Person-centred Social Emotional Learning competencies

Self-awareness	**Social awareness**
Identifying and recognizing emotions Accurate self-perception Recognizing strengths, needs and values Self-efficacy Spirituality	Perspective taking Empathy Appreciating diversity Respect for others
Responsible decision-making	**Self-management**
Problem identification and situation analysis Problem-solving Evaluation and reflection Personal, moral and ethical responsibility	Impulse control and stress management Goal-setting and organizational skills

Relationship management	Personal efficacy
Communication, social engagement and building relationships Working cooperatively Negotiation, refusal and conflict management Help seeking and providing	Being valued by colleagues Self-esteem Confidence and diligence Positive thinking

(Adapted from Zins *et al.*, 2004:7)

In an effort to help schools foster social intelligence in learners, Abrecht (2006:276) proposes that three aspects need to be considered:

Provide more instruction in communication skills, especially at the secondary school level. As learners reach puberty, peer pressure, volatile chemicals of hormones and popular culture can create a fairly stressful setting and learners start having problems coping with life, their parents and one another. They may communicate poorly with one another and with their educators, and more structured programmes that teach communication skills might help (Albrecht, 2006:277).

Provide and teach more anti-bullying programmes. Albrecht (2006:277) mentions that the number of incidents of school violence (psychological and physical) involving threats and bullying behaviour is both large and largely unmeasured, but indicates that the impact on fearful learners is like a stone thrown into a pond – lots of ripple effects over time.

Provide more empowerment programmes to help build self-esteem for all students at all levels of schooling. Everything from depression and suicide, to violence and dropout rates, to graduation rates and future college enrolments can be tied back to the self-esteem of the individual learner (Albrecht, 2006:277).

2.3.4 Developing socially intelligent leaders

Albrecht (2006:227) says that there are many people, including those with a strong desire for influence and control, who have no clear idea of how to go about earning authority. They do not understand the strategies for acquiring influence without having formal power. Five types of leadership behaviour is all important in developing authority in socially intelligent leaders.

The author (Albrecht, 2006:277) proposes that *skills,* notably specialized knowledge, manual skills, organizing skills, technical skills and social skills can all serve to earn influence in the minds of others. Furthermore, the socially intelligent leader has a knack for *procedure* in the sense that he/she is quickly able to guide a group who disagree on the process of action. Sometimes the group needs someone to summarize the discussion or thinking process, propose or confirm the favoured option for action or guide the members through some humane process for deciding what to do. The skilful leader will then assist the group to reach *consensus*. *Empathy*, also known as the group climate or sense of team spirit, supports the process of thinking collaboratively, without animosity or undue conflict. Restoring empathy means helping people relate to one another humanely while working out their differences (Albrecht, 2006:227-228).

2.4 EI IN THE WORKPLACE

Educators' workplaces, such as schools, Hall (as quoted by Kaabwe, 2003:99) states, are defined as formal organizations or collectives of individual realities, but with identifiable boundaries and ranks of authority. In modern times these places are usually bureaucratic, having rules and regulations, a division of their labour force based on employees' functional specialization, a hierarchy of authority and interpersonal relationships among members.

According to Bar-On (2003:41), EI is a concept that has become a major topic of interest to the lay public as well as to scientific circles, specifically toward the end of 1995. The author further states that scientists like Charles Darwin

were studying various aspects of this construct as early as 1837 and published the first known work in 1872.

More than 130 years ago, Darwin concluded that emotional awareness and expression play a major role in survival and adaptation, which remains an important axiom of EI to the present day (Bar-On, 2003:42). The perspective was fundamental to Charles Darwin's monumental work, *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals,* published in 1872. Darwin concluded that many of our emotional reactions are rooted in prehistoric patterns of survival, the genetic residue of which is still with us.

2.4.1 The origin of EI

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (as quoted by Moss, 2005:53) state that in the 1970s emotion was studied as a phenomenon that influenced thought and during the ensuing twenty years, the term EI was used sporadically. However, by the last decade of the twentieth century, the field was quickly emerging as its own scientific arena.

The term *EI* entered the mainstream with Daniel Goleman who popularized the term in 1995. Goleman (1995:34) argues that Intelligence Quotient (IQ) contributes only about 20% to success in life, and other forces contribute the rest. He remarks that EI is a new concept indeed, but that the existing data imply that it can be as powerful as IQ and sometimes even more. And, at least, unlike what is claimed about IQ, some crucial emotional competencies can be taught and improved in children and adults.

According to Albrecht (2006:10), Goleman's first attempts to frame a practical model of EI identified five dimensions of competence, namely self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and relationships. By folding motivation into self-awareness, later work streamlined the EI model into four domains namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management.

Bar-On and Parker (2000:146) posit that a limitation of Goleman's use of the term EI is that he attempts to capture almost everything but IQ. The Emotional

Quotient (EQ) framework outlined by Goleman includes emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovation, achievement drive, commitment, initiative, optimism, understanding others, influence, communication and cooperation. This framework, the authors argue, stretches the definition of intelligence beyond its acceptable limits. Under this definition, it is likely that much of the residual variance beyond IQ would be accounted for by EI, because by his definition it seems to capture all the residual factors within the individual (personality traits, motivation) (Bar-On & Parker 2000:146).

Moss (2005:11) warns that showing care and concern toward others or even intensity of feeling is not equivalent to EI. The author states further that EI does not equate with touchy-feely scenes or sentimental moments: it is the ability to understand and respond appropriately to feelings.

Grossman and Valiga (2005:70) highlight Goleman's recommendation that leaders need five skills, namely self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills to inspire followers by effecting change, being creative, articulating visions, networking, taking risks and adapting to new initiatives.

It is evident that EI is not a new construct; therefore it is useful to define EI formally.

2.4.2 Defining EI

Goleman (as quoted by Elias, Arnold & Hussey, 2003:4) identifies the following as core characteristics of EI:

- Self-awareness: the ability to recognize feelings as they occur in real-life situations
- Management and Self-Regulation of Emotions: being able to cope with strong feelings so as not to be overwhelmed and paralyzed by themselves.
- Motivation and Performance: being goal-orientated and able to channel emotions toward desired outcomes

- Empathy and Perspective Taking: being able to recognize emotions in others and to understand others' point of view
- Social Skills: the ability to handle a range of social relationships.

Wood and Tolley (2003:7) state that EI is made up of the following components or areas of competence:

- Self-regulation- being able to manage and control your own emotional state.
- Self-awareness- knowing yourself and what your emotions are telling you.
- Motivation- channelling your emotions to enable you to achieve goals.
- Empathy - recognizing and reading emotions in others.
- Social skills - relating to and influencing others.

Weisinger (as quoted by Möller, 2002:257) says that EI is the intelligent use of one's emotions. It is the application of emotions in such a way that thinking and behaviour enhance abilities such as:

- accurately perceiving, judging and expressing personal emotions;
- accessing feelings of understanding on demand;
- understanding emotions and the knowledge that is derived from them; and
- regulating emotions in order to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

In popular writings, *EI* has come to include assessment of *motivation* non-ability, dispositions and traits, and global personal and social functioning.

Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi and Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (as quoted by Hartel *et al.*, 2005:202) are of the opinion that EI focuses on an individual's ability both to interpret emotional information (both internal and external) and manage it in an adaptive manner. Most importantly, EI is an ability that allows people to regulate their emotions better, compared to others.

Self-discipline is closely linked to emotional competence, or to what in recent years has come to be called EI. EI refers to skills such as recognising emotions in oneself and others, regulating emotions, motivating oneself and handling relationships (Bear, Cavalier & Manning, 2005:174). EI is highly integrated with social and moral competence, thus it is difficult to separate the social, emotional, and moral elements in responsible behaviour, self-control, sympathy, fairness and caring (Bear *et al.*, 2005:174-175).

According to Elias *et al.* (2003:3), a good way to understand EI is to make note of a shorthand acronym: *EQ*. EQ complements the acronym IQ, which has come to be recognized as signifying academic achievement, typically of a cognitive nature. If IQ represents the intellectual raw material of student success, EQ is the set of social-emotional skills that enables intellect to turn into action and accomplishment. EQ is the missing piece in true reform of education and preparation for academic life and success.

EQ, or skills for social and emotional learning, are therefore those skills that underlie the following elements for everyday classroom and school life (Elias *et al.*, 2005:5):

- Communicating effectively
- Participating actively, genuinely and cooperatively in group work
- Expressing and regulating emotions and impulses appropriately
- Resolving conflicts thoughtfully and non-violently
- Living a life of sound character
- Bringing a reflective, learning-to-learn approach to all domains of life

For the purpose of this study, the definition postulated by Calitz *et al.* (2002:258) will be used: EI can be defined as being in possession of knowledge, competencies and skills which influence one's attitude positively towards itself. It leads to an understanding and managing of one's own feelings – motivating oneself and others within a framework of empathy.

According to Weare (2004:4), the popularity of the word *intelligence* is partly due to the influence of Gardner who has worked on the whole concept of intelligence. Gardner (as quoted by Weare, 2004:4) sees intelligence as being much wider than is generally supposed, and as plural *intelligences* rather than just one, all of which cover rather difference capacities. His precise categorization of the various intelligences is constantly evolving, but basically he sees them as including what he calls *conventional intelligence*: the logical, rational, mathematical and linguistic capacities that are familiar through intelligence tests. Gardner (as quoted by Weare, 2004:4) suggests further that there are also two types of what he terms *personal intelligences*: *intra-personal intelligence* (self-understanding), and *inter-personal intelligence* (understanding other people). The umbrella term, which brings together these two intelligences, EI, was supposedly coined by Mayer and Salovey (as quoted by Weare, 2004:4), equating EI with the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion, the ability to access and/ or generate feelings which facilitate thought, the ability to understand emotional knowledge, the ability to regulate emotions to promote educational and intellectual growth.

2.4.3 Why EI is important at work

Fatt (2004:189) emphasizes that IQ has long been considered as the deciding factor in a person's success and that EI has been overlooked as important contributor in determining success in life. He states further that many companies now judge their employees on how well they can understand themselves and handle others as their peers, clients and bosses. It is a lesson clearly seen in a study conducted by the American Express Financial Advisors (AEFA), which found a direct correlation between the EI of financial advisors and their workplace success.

The company then launched a programme to help managers develop greater awareness of their emotional reactions and those of their clients, and to appreciate the role of emotions in the workplace more fully. A subsequent evaluation study shows that participation in the programme led to a higher sales revenue (Fatt, 2004:195).

Reuven-Bar-On (2003:3) states that, for many years, the emphasis in education as workplace has been placed on increasing cognitive capacity, competencies and skills like acquiring new knowledge, recalling facts and figures and applying this information in reasoning, understanding and problem-solving.

According to Wagner (as quoted by Bar-On, 2003:4), while cognitive intelligence is able to predict quite well how one will do scholastically at school, it predicts very little else in the way of human performance after one is out of school. As such, Goleman (1998:240) says, IQ is a rather weak predictor of performance in interpersonal relations at work, and in coping with a wide variety of problems that surface in the course of one's life on a daily basis. The good news about EI is that – unlike IQ itself – it can improve throughout life. In the normal course of a lifetime, EI tends to increase as we learn to be more aware of our moods, to handle distressing emotions better, to listen and empathize – in short, as people become more mature. To a large extent, maturity itself describes the process of becoming more intelligent about our emotions and our relationships (Goleman, 1998:240). This rings true to Caruso and Salovey (2004:211) who reiterate that emotions provide data that assist us in making rational decisions and behaving in adaptive ways.

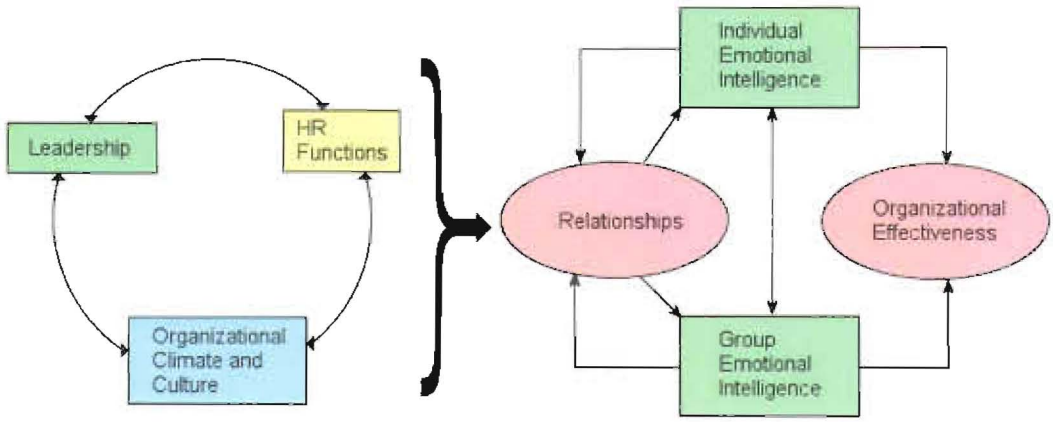
Hatfield, Cacioppo and Rapson (as quoted by Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2002:9) use the term *emotional contagion,* an aspect of emotional expression in the workplace, referring to a tendency of observers to become 'infected' with the emotional state expressed by actors. The authors are of the opinion that emotional contagion may play a role in creating positive emotional environments if one member's positive emotional display can initiate positive emotions among work group members. This inevitably leads to greater group cooperativeness, less group conflict and positive perceptions of individual task performance.

For the emotionally intelligent leader, Caruso and Salovey (2004:8) warn, emotional contagion is of little value unless it is strategically applied. How

leaders feel also affects how and how well they influence people, and this is the core of leadership.

A model, (see Figure 2.1) devised by Cherniss and Goleman (2001:8) captures the important forces that contribute to the development of individual and group EI in organisations. The model suggests two important implications for practice. Firstly, any effort to increase the EI of organizational members will fail unless it affects naturally occurring interpersonal and inter-group relationships among those members. The second implication is that interventions that focus on only one part of the model are not likely to be very effective.

Figure 2.1: A model of EI and organizational effectiveness



(Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:8)

The model suggests that ultimately any attempts to improve EI in organizations will depend on relationships. Even formal training interventions or human resource policies will affect EI through their effect on relationships among individuals and groups in organizations.

The left-hand portion of the model illustrates three organizational factors that are interrelated. Each of these factors influences EI through its impact on relationships and each factor influences the other two. At the same time, the HR functions have a strong influence on leadership.

However, leadership in turn will influence the extent to which HR functions are effective in helping organizational members increase their EI (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:8).

Davies, Ellison and Bowing-Carr (2005:39) emphasize that competencies such as self-confidence, initiative, collaborativeness and conceptual ability seem to be linked with success in times of rapid change. The authors point out that there are similarities between the competency approach and EI and sites Goleman's research which found that EI was twice as important as a discriminator of success in leadership as technical skills and general intelligence.

2.4.4 Emotional competencies: contribution to workplace success

According to Gronn (2003:136), definitions of success form part of the work ethic which originated during the English Reformation. This was a time when the early Puritans interpreted their worldly success and business prosperity as a sign of salvation through God's grace. Later this religious justification was transformed into a social and economic doctrine of individual striving and, even later, a striving for self-achievement and advancement. But, Gronn (2003:136) states, success has a price and this competitive pursuit of career advancement and success breeds a range of emotions.

Goleman (1998:314) posits that a premium on EI can only rise as organisations become increasingly dependent on the talents and creativity of workers who are independent agents. EI skills are synergistic with cognitive ones. Top performers have both (Goleman, 1998:314)

Emotional competence, Goleman (1998:24) maintains, is a learned capability based on EI that results in outstanding performance at work. Emotional competencies cluster into groups, each based on common underlying EI capacities. The underlying EI capacities are vital if people are to learn the competencies necessary to succeed in the workplace successfully (Goleman, 1998:25).

Emotional competence, as defined by Bar-On and Parker (2000:85), entails taking into account the individual's efficacy motivation for engaging in some emotion-eliciting encounter, the unique sorts of contextual beliefs the person brings to the emotional experiences.

Weare (2004: 19) contends that it is important to outline what it is to be emotionally competent, but stresses that this can vary in different contexts or societies:

- The extent to which the focus is on the needs of the individual or on the group: is the emphasis on responsibility or duty?
- The extent to which individuals are encouraged to be autonomous and independent or to follow rules, authority or tradition: is the emphasis on taking a critical stance or on obedience?
- The levels of respect due between different groups, for example young and old, men and women; social groups, classes and hierarchies; educators and learners; and how that respect is expressed.
- The extent to which difference is tolerated.
- How the society thinks it appropriate to express the emotions, whether the emotions are *OK* to express, and how appropriate it is to express them.

Moss (2004:14) argues that the concept of emotions' influence on day-to-day life and even on business is accepted by prominent theorists, such as Gardner (1983) and Goleman (1995). According to Goleman (1998:167), the most effective people in organizations use their emotional radar to sense how others are reacting and they fine-tune their own response to push the interaction in the best direction. Goleman (1998:26-27) describes a set of four EI competencies that have proven to contribute more to workplace achievement than technical skills, cognitive ability and standard personality traits combined. These competencies are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: The Emotional Competence Framework

PERSONAL COMPETENCE	SOCIAL COMPETENCE
Self-awareness: knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions • Emotional awareness • Self-assessment • Self-confidence	**Empathy:** Awareness of other's feelings, needs and concerns • Understanding others • Developing others • Service orientation • Leveraging diversity • Political awareness
Self-regulation: Managing one's internal states, impulses and resources • Self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Innovation	**Social Skills:** Adeptness at including desirable responses in others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Leadership • Change catalyst • Building bonds • Collaboration and cooperation • Team capabilities

(Goleman, 1998:26-27)

The above competencies, Wood and Tolley (2003:7) state, are interconnected in complex ways – the ability to perform effectively in any one of them is related to how capable we are in one or more of the others. Thus, the handling of feelings in such a way that we behave appropriately (self-regulation) is an ability that builds on knowledge of self (self-awareness). Likewise, those who are adept at reading their own emotions (self-awareness) are likely to be able to read emotions of other people (empathy). Being able to relate well to others, sincerely rather than shallowly (social skills) is surely a

function of all of the others. Similarly, without self-knowledge, that which powers us to achieve (what we call motivation), is unlikely to come into play.

Cherniss and Goleman (2001:165-166) provide the following discussion of the Emotional Competence Framework:

Self-awareness: According to Cherniss and Goleman (2001:165) the self-awareness cluster consists of mandatory competence (self-confidence) and two mandatory compensatory competencies, namely emotional self-awareness and accurate self-assessment. In order to meet the algorithm for the self-awareness cluster, that is, in order to be likely to be an outstanding performer, a person must demonstrate self-confidence and either emotional self-awareness or accurate self-assessment.

Self-management: The self-management cluster consists of a mandatory competence and two groups of additional competencies. Self-control must be demonstrated, as it is the core of managing oneself and one's motives. A person also needs to demonstrate trustworthiness or conscientiousness or adaptability. Trustworthiness and conscientiousness may be considered compensatory or alternate manifestations of each other. Trustworthiness tends to be associated with executive and management jobs, whereas conscientiousness tends to be associated with individual contributor and administrative support jobs. Both these competencies are somewhat antagonistic to adaptability.

Whereas trustworthiness and conscientiousness are about stability and reliability, adaptability is about flexibility and openness to change. Finally, a person must demonstrate either achievement orientation or initiative (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:165).

Social Awareness: At the core of the social awareness cluster is the mandatory competence empathy, an awareness if others' feelings, needs and concerns. From empathy are derived two other competencies: organizational awareness and service organization. Cherniss and Goleman (2001:166) state that organisational awareness tends to be used in higher-level management and executive positions where understanding and navigating the organization

is critical for success. Service orientation tends to be important in positions relating directly to customers. Front-line personnel, customer-service representatives, consultants, salespeople, individual contributors and the like hold these positions.

Social skills: The social skills cluster contains competencies that tend to be more situation-specific than competencies in other clusters, that is, more appropriate to certain jobs or roles. However, the influence competence is the core of the social skills cluster and is therefore considered mandatory. The remainder of the cluster is divided into two groups. The first group, leading others and developing others, demonstrates the ability to lead and manage others. The second group, building bonds, teamwork and collaboration and conflict management, demonstrates the ability to work well with others (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:166).

Goleman *et al.* (2002:38) are of the opinion that highly effective leaders typically exhibit a critical mass of strength in half a dozen or so EI competencies and that there are no fixed formulae for great leadership. There are many paths to excellence, and superb leaders can possess very different personal styles, but effective leaders typically demonstrate strengths in at least one competence from each of the four fundamental areas of EI. These EI competencies are not innate talents, but learned abilities, each of which has a unique contribution to making leaders more resonant, and therefore more effective. Each of these abilities is separate from the other abilities and can be defined, studied, measured, developed and used independently, but they can also function together (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:26).

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (according to Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:93) have developed multiple-task ability scales to measure EI, as opposed to emotional competence. The first scale was the Multifactor EI Scale (MEIS), a theoretical framework for understanding EI, its associated abilities and the perception, use and management of emotion. The MEIS is the only measure designed as a true ability measure, tapping intellectual abilities relating to feelings and emotion. Cherniss and Goleman (2001:94) provide the following

outline of an EI Framework that was proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997), which allows for the ability to:

- stay open to feelings. (both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant);
- reflectively engage or detach from an emotion, depending on its judged informativeness or utility;
- monitor emotions reflectively in relation to oneself and others;
- manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones;
- label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves; and
- interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:94).

Undoubtedly, EI has a marked influence on and a discrete contribution to workplace performance. Elias, Arnold and Hussey (2003:6) confirm that our emotions allow us to assemble life-saving information very quickly and thus to bypass the extended conscious and rational deliberation of a potential threat.

2.5 EI AND EMOTIONAL LEADERSHIP

According to MacGilchrist *et al.* (2004:129), EI is concerned with a school's capacity to allow the feelings of both pupils and staff to be owned and expressed.

Herskovits (2004:15) quotes Nicholson who cites the 'big five factors' pertaining to prevalent leadership personality theory, as containing specific elements of extroversion, conscientiousness, openness, emotionality and agreeableness.

Nicholson (as quoted by Herkovits, 2004:15) describes extroversion in individuals who are active, assertive, sociable and energetic, and who tend to

naturally take the lead in social situations. Conscientiousness is described in those who strive for achievement through discipline and control. Individuals high on this drive tend to seek situations where they can impose order and experience success. Openness, according to the author (Nicholson, as quoted by Herskovits, 2004:15) is described in inventive, intelligent and adaptive people who are more willing and interested in the opportunities offered by some leadership situations. Concerning emotionality, Nicholson (as quoted by Herkovits, 2004:15) is of the view that self-confidence is an essential leadership quality, but that it can be undermined by emotional sensitivity. Those who are unwavering in their emotions, have a high self-esteem and are not easily discouraged, may handle leadership positions better than others. Agreeableness, the author (Nicholson, as quoted by Herskovits, 2004:15) states, includes tender-mindedness and nurturing behaviours.

Möller (2002:258) is of the view that the cornerstone of emotional leadership lies in EI. They cite Goleman as describing a few important characteristics of emotional leadership:

- self-awareness to know, recognize and understand one's own emotions (this is the main emotional competency of emotional leadership);
- managing emotions appropriately in order to be in control of one's own feelings;
- motivating oneself towards a productive and effective lifestyle; and
- understanding the feelings of others in such a way that motivates them to become part of a team.

What follows is an exposition of each of the above-mentioned characteristics outlined by Möller (2002:258-259).

2.5.1 Self-awareness

Covey (as quoted by Möller, 2002:258) describes self-awareness as the ability to think about our own thought processes. Self-awareness enables us to

stand apart and examine the way we see ourselves. The ability to sense messages from our emotional memory (intuition) lies at the heart of self-awareness. Self-awareness the author (Covey, as quoted by Möller, 2002:258) states, has as its foundation competencies such as the recognition of one's own emotions, knowledge of one's abilities and limits, and a strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities.

2.5.2 Managing emotions

Emotions are produced by an interaction between cognitive appraisals, physiological changes and behavioural responses to external events. By taking charge of them, emotions are managed positively.

Managing emotions appropriately is manifested in a person's ability to stay composed, positive and focused under pressure.

Archer (as quoted by Thrupp & Willmot, 2003:191) sees emotions as being among the main constituents of our inner lives. They are the fuel of our internal conversations and this is why they matter. Emotions involve a sense of our situation.

According to Möller (2002:258), five emotional competencies form the prerequisites for handling impulses and dealing with upsetting experiences namely self-control, integrity, conscientiousness, adaptability and innovation.

Ashkanasy *et al.* (2001:286) have identified twenty-one tools that managers can use to manage emotions in the workplace:

- Maintain open and quality communication.
- Provide opportunity for stakeholder input into planning.
- Provide appropriate support systems.
- Safeguard organizational history.
- Display interpersonal sensitivity by conveying regret for adversity and social esteem.

- Manage *affective events*.
- Provide training and development to foster emotional display recognition and management skills in managers and employees.
- Teach leaders how to set norms that create positive emotional climates in teams and cultures.
- Teach employees and managers what events are likely to evoke emotional displays.
- Teach employees and managers how to diagnose emotional displays
- Develop EI in employees and leaders.
- Recognize the role of both intuitive and analytical decision-making in management.
- Engender a positive outlook conducive to intuitive decision-making
- Teach managers and employees that effective decisions require an optimum mix of cognitive intellect and emotional regulation.
- Teach managers that the strategic use of emotions by managers requires judicious use of power.
- Align rules for engaging in emotional labour with organizational goals.
- Use direct methods to influence indirect emotional labour.
- Develop specific interventions to improve emotional management: (1) leadership development programmes; (2) stress management and wellness programmes; (3) work redesign to alleviate 'emotional labour dysfunction' and (4) a formal back stage to permit employees to deal with emotions.
- Provide employees with the opportunity to 'restore their own emotions'.
- Design service provider jobs so that they reduce on-the-job hassles.

- Create an organizational culture that recognizes the legitimacy of emotion.

In managing emotions, Anthony (2003:9) states that processes are managed, but people are lead. In the author's view, emotionally intelligent people understand and proceed with a high regard for the emotional impact and consequences of their behaviour on others.

According to Eloff and Ebersöhn (2004:34), in managing emotions, emotionally intelligent individuals can apply a regulatory process which involve believing that they can modify their emotions, monitor their moods and emotional states accurately, identify and discriminate those moods and emotions in need of regulation, employ strategies of alleviating negative feelings or maintaining positive feelings and assessing the effectiveness of those strategies (Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2004:34).

2.5.3 Motivating oneself

Motivating oneself refers to the ability to begin and complete tasks or assignments and deal with any setbacks that may rise from time to time.

In order to motivate oneself and others, one needs optimism as a personal characteristic. Weisinger (as quoted by Möller, 2002:259) emphasizes positive thinking as the most important resource of internal motivation. He describes six techniques to improve positive thinking as using motivational statements which include statements such as *I can do this*; *I won't give up*; playing mental games to fantasize about adventures beyond the scope of reality motivating you to take action in an optimistic way; using productive self-criticism; feeling good about a job well done and being positive about one's abilities, and having confidence and enthusiasm for tasks in the future; setting meaningful goals- internal motivation helps one to define clearly stated goals and visualize success.

According to the authors (Weisinger, as quoted by Möller, 2002:259), motivation is that which provides a motive. In order for educators to motivate their learners and activate emotions of love, preservation, recognition, self-expression and freedom in their learners, they need to act inspirationally and

enthusiastically; be aware of their own emotions and those of the learners; display a positive mental attitude towards life; believe that their learners have untapped potential to cope with and solve the emotional problems that they may have and have a smile on their faces so that the learner can detect emotional wellness and strive to emulate it (Weisinger, as quoted by Möller, 2002:259).

According to Edwards (2005:86), nothing deprives learners of motivation to learn more than being powerless to regulate themselves. When educators provide all the direction, learners who face challenging circumstances are more inclined to shift responsibility to their teachers and assume a role of resistance.

However, according to Kohn (as quoted by Edwards, 2005:86-87), self-determination provides at least five benefits that contribute to greater motivation and to an elevated sense of well-being. These benefits include psychological and health benefits, providing learners more opportunities for self-regulation, promoting greater levels of responsibility, motivation toward academic achievement (depending upon learners having sufficient decision-making power) sharing decision-making power with learners (providing benefits for educators as well as learners) and lastly, allowing youth to make decisions is more respectful and consistent with the basic values to which most of us claim to subscribe.

2.5.4 Understanding the feelings of others

The concept of empathy refers to the ability to understand another's feelings and to re-experience them for oneself. According to Salovey and Mayer (1997:79), empathy is a central characteristic of intelligent behaviour, which includes appraising and expressing emotions, and acting and communicating positively upon this internal experience.

The essence of empathy is not to agree with someone: it is the ability to understand others emotionally and intellectually. Empathy towards others builds self-awareness. The more open people are to their own emotions, the more skilled they will be in understanding others' feelings. In the context of

understanding the emotional lives of others, Radford (2003:259) reiterates that the ability to empathize has been seen as a way of accessing the *inner thoughts and feeling*, of projecting into their mind and *feeling* their feelings, and *thinking* their thoughts. It is a kind of proactive, sympathetic form of understanding.

Hoffman (as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:182) defines empathy as the ability to feel or experience the same or similar emotion as another person. The author continues to say that the experience of empathy requires cognitive as well as affective abilities, including the ability to recognize emotional cues in others, the ability to assume the perspective of others and the ability to share in the emotions of others.

Weare (2000:82) states that it is essential that educators have a high degree of awareness of their own feelings, including accepting their own darker side. Acknowledging this side of themselves they do not like much, helps reduce their own judgementalism and increase their empathy with others.

The author reiterates that learners and educators need to feel that they are as permitted and encouraged to talk about their feelings as they are about their knowledge, skills or understanding. This helps learners to internalize their learning and to make it relevant and meaningful to their everyday concerns (Weare, 2000:82).

2.6 EMOTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

According to Hartel *et al.* (2005:319), various theories of leadership have components that are linked to the display and management of emotions. The authors refer to Bale's early studies of group interactions (Bales, 1950; Bales & Slater, 1955) who identified two emergent leaders within the group; one was primarily task-focused and the other was primarily socio-emotionally focused.

Trait-based theories of leadership include traits such as emotional balance, interpersonal skills, social nearness and maintenance of group cohesion, all of which have a socio-emotional component. The emotional aspect of leadership in the trait-based research often focuses on the promotion of

positive feelings and cohesion within the group, and the control of the expression of negative feelings. As such, the leadership trait literature raises the issue of the management of group emotions by examining how leader personality traits influence the expression of emotion within groups (Hartel *et al.*, 2005:315-316).

The challenge for the successful principal, Herskovits (2004:15) says, is to recognize the situational demands and react appropriately, this ability being a large component of EI. Those with high EI are more likely to recognize the likely implications of their behaviours and alter these accordingly, and display more flexibility, adjusting their emotions, thoughts and behaviours to changing situations. Conversely, those with a low EI are more likely to adhere to their preferred leadership style, regardless of differing circumstances, unable to understand the inappropriateness of their natural style across situations.

According to Loughridge and Tarantino (2005:4), the culture of a school has a direct impact on the success or failure of the implementation of a reform initiative and the principal will have little success unless he/she has the skills to shape that culture to encourage people to change their behaviour.

According to Preedy, Glatter and Wise (2003:96), culture describes how things are and acts as a screen or lens through which the world is viewed. The authors identify four aspects by which school culture is influenced, namely that a school's culture is shaped by its history, context and the people in it; it is further influenced by the school's external context; locally, a school's community, including the pupils' parents, may have their own conceptions of what a *real school* is and lastly it is influenced by the learners at the school and their social class background (Preedy *et al.*, 2003:96).

Loughridge and Tarantino (2005:10) contend that if the change effort is to be successful, cultural norms that support the change effort must be in place. The authors identify four norms as critical to the success of the change effort. These norms are now briefly outlined below:

- A norm of protecting what is important, which is a direct result of having a vision of what is important, shared by staff, learners, and the community;

- a school's continuous critical inquiry of its strengths and weaknesses as a basis of reform, as well as a willingness to continually adapt, experiment and reinvent it;

- continuous improvement within the school that ensures access to information, resources and technical support to address any problems or challenges that arise; and

- active participation in the decision-making process by those who are directly and indirectly affected by the reform effort (Loughridge & Tarantino, 2005:10).

Understanding the school's culture is an essential prerequisite for any internal or external change agent. The role of leadership in relation to school culture is central. Schein and Nias *et al.* (as quoted by Preedy *et al.*, 2003:105), describe principals at schools as culture founders whose contribution or responsibility is that of changing the school culture through the installation of new values and beliefs.

Radford (2003:257) contends that, in order to understand the emotions, it is necessary to look outwards to the social and physical environment and the behaviours in which those emotions are occurring.

According to Morrison (2002:77), effective leadership, devolved from human relations in complexity theory, requires EI. Goleman provides an analysis of leadership which catches the people-centredness and emphasis on interpersonal relationships and new forms of democratic and distributed leadership within the complex organizations. He recognises that much of the leadership agenda concerns establishing the appropriate ethos and climate of the organization (*Ibid.*).

Palmer *et al.* (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:77), holds the view that effective leadership for developing strong relations and connectedness and to facilitate communication for emerging self-organization, requires considerable EI and Goleman's notion of 'EI' permeates his view of effective leadership.

2.6.1 Toward a more emotionally intelligent school culture

According to Diggins (as quoted by Coleman & Earley, 2005:245), effective leaders more than anyone else, determine the culture of their organization by their behaviour, for example by constantly questioning the *status quo* to find better ways of achieving goals, creating environments where positive results and credits are widely dispersed; evaluating and affirming people; thinking positively and realizing that every problem presents a learning opportunity; and seeking to integrate the best ideas in the task of building people and the organization.

According to Albrecht (2006:205), managers tend to ignore or diminish the importance of ritual, ceremony and celebration in their task. Both national-cultural rituals and ceremonies, as well as idiosyncratic organizational ritual and ceremonies help shape the unique culture of any enterprise. As a manifestation of organizational social intelligence, virtually all *strong culture* organizations have highly developed habit patterns that ritualize important experiences, ceremonialize important changes and transitions and celebrate success.

Sterling and Davidoff (2000:63) see organizational culture as an unseen network of feelings, attitudes and behaviours which influence how people think about the school and how they act within it. The school's organizational culture is created and changed by the people who work within it through their feelings, attitudes and beliefs. The task as leader, the authors state, is to assist staff members to have the experience of becoming aware of their unconscious feelings and attitudes about the school. When these hidden or invisible influences at the school become conscious and visible, the leader can work together with educators to transform difficult feelings and attitudes into more creative ones.

In the creation of a positive learning environment, Middlewood, Parker and Beere (2005:76) argue for:

- providing resources for formal and informal learning;

- creating an interactive website and intranet that can be used as a learning tool for educators as well as learners;
- having a *learning* notice-board and newsletter to share good practice informally;
- ensuring that staff training events are at quality venues with a high standard of refreshments and resources to make staff feel training is valued;
- encouraging an ongoing informal debate about learning in *open-door* staffrooms and classrooms; and
- expressing clearly the values of life-long learning.

According to Cherniss and Goleman (2001:41), the benefits of an understanding and empathic school leader are reflected in the educator-learner relationships. In a study conducted by Lees and Barnard (1999) the authors state that the climates of individual classrooms were studied, concluding that educators who are more aware of how learners feel in the classroom are better able to design a learning environment that suits learners and better able to guide them toward success. Educators who have a leader who has created a positive school climate will be better equipped to achieve the same in their own classrooms.

Halpin (as quoted by Morrison, 2002, 82) uses the concept of organizational climate to refer to those types of organizations where change is more or less likely to occur. He suggests that if the climate is not propitious for change, then change is unlikely to be successful. He sets out six climates on a continuum from openness to closure, arguing that the more open the climate is, the more conducive it is to change. Here the distinguishing features are high morale, openness, cooperation, the minimum of bureaucracy and records, high job satisfaction and motivation, mutual respect for all employees and a feeling of genuineness (Morrison, 2002: 82-83).

O'Brien *et al.* (2003:33-34) advocate an approach that understands that what the best leaders can do for learners – academically, socially and emotionally – is to support their full growth and development. In creating knowledgeable, responsible, healthy and caring learners, it requires resourceful, emotionally intelligent leaders who have a vision of what they want to accomplish for 21st century education. This calls for strong, informed visionary leadership.

2.6.2 Creating an emotionally safe school

Bluestein (2001:9) uses the term *emotional safety* to refer to a classroom or school environment in which learners can experience *all* of the following:

- a sense of belonging, of being welcomed and valued; being treated with respect and dignity; acceptance;
- the freedom to *not* be good at a particular skill, make mistakes, forget, or need additional practice and still be treated respectfully and with acceptance;
- encouragement and success; recognition, instruction, guidance and resources according to need and regardless of need;
- having one's own unique talents, skills and qualities valued, recognized and acknowledged;
- understanding and clarity, predictability; freedom from arbitrary, indiscriminate and unexpected punishment and reactivity;
- the freedom from harassment, intimidation, name-calling, ridicule, teasing, criticism and threat of physical harm from adults or peers;
- the freedom to make choices and influence one's own learning, pursue personal interests and control various factors in the process of learning;
- the freedom from prejudice, judgement and discrimination based on physical characteristics and general appearance, religious, racial or cultural background; sexual orientation;

- the freedom from prejudice, judgement and discrimination based on academic, athletic, creative or social capabilities, modality or learning style preferences, temperament, hemispheric dominance or similar profiles; and

- the freedom to have one's own feelings and opinions without fear or recrimination.

Loader and Beatty (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:78) suggest that a leader's EI concerns the ability to foster a safe environment at schools and to put emotions on the agenda of schools. Beatty sees emotions as playing a significant role in the emergent co-construction of meaning at schools. In her view, emotions should not be marginalized to the periphery of leadership, never to be displayed and always to be denied. Rather, they are central at schools and in school leadership (Morrrison, 2002: 78).

2.7 THE EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT SCHOOL

Creating an emotionally intelligent and emotionally literate school environment is vital for learning to take place as the learner needs to feel comfortable and physically and emotionally safe at the school (Weare, 2004:124).

Weare (2000:83) states that for the school ethos to support work on emotional health, the schools, classrooms and staffrooms generally need to become more comfortable with discussing feelings and emotions.

2.7.1 EI and the structure of learning

Middlewood, Parker and Beere (2005:380) argue for schools with learning at the centre, with the best learning experiences starting where the learner is – not where the educator is. The authors state that leaders of 21st century schools will need to have the will and the expertise to recognize, cultivate and encourage effective learning.

Coleman and Earley (2005:215) are of the opinion that in every context, the nature and the pace of change means that learners need to focus more on *how they learn* with others and to be strategic about their learning. The

authors state further that effective learners have gained understanding of the individual and social processes necessary to learn how to learn. Effective learning includes a vital ingredient of learning about learning or what they term *meta-learning*. An effective learner needs an appropriate context which encourages activity, collaboration, learner responsibility and opportunities for reflecting and monitoring their learning.

MacGilchrist *et al.* (2004:49) assert that the primary task of the school is that of enhancing and enriching learning. The authors reiterate that learning is not only an intellectual process, but it critically involves the development of personal, emotional and social skills and its success depends on the feelings, motivation and confidence of the learner.

When leaders lead for effective learning, qualities such as drive, provision of clear direction and the ability to enthuse others are not as significant for improving learning as support, care, trust, participation, facilitation and whole school consensus (Coleman & Earley, 2005:219).

The concept of leadership is used less frequently today. The move away from *management* and towards seeing *leadership* as the key factor underpinning school success was fully realised when in November 2000 the National College for School Leadership was established with the explicit aim of transforming leadership at English schools. *Learning-centred leadership* is a form of leadership with less focus on the leader, an inclusive leadership and one that is distributed throughout the school. It is about learning - learner, adult, organisational learning and leadership networks - and teaching (Earley & Weindling, 2004:14).

Learning is an emotional process. Sharp and Faupel (as quoted by Weare, 2004:14) found that the school is a workplace where educators as leaders can benefit from working on their own emotional literacy, which has shown to enable them to relate more effectively to children, manage the classroom better and teach more effectively.

2.7.2 Emotional literacy and emotionally literate schools

Emotional literacy, according to Brearley (2001:1), allows a person to describe and understand his/her emotions and those of others.

Antidote (2003:2) identifies the four benefits of practising emotional literacy as improved emotional understanding, communicative ability that creates a sense of common direction and emotional well-being in relationships which ultimately leads to richer experiences of learning.

Antidote (2003:2) reiterates that schools need to maximise the opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current teaching and learning relationships and to build such opportunities into every aspect of school life.

Weare (2004:135) argues that the principal plays an essential role in the development of an emotionally literate school. The author holds the view that a proactive concern needs to come right from the top and it needs to permeate into every aspect of school life and learning. It is a two-way relationship: effective leadership requires high levels of emotional literacy, while effective leadership in turn helps create emotional literacy.

MacGilchrist *et al.* (2004:132) posit that the intelligent school recognises that developing emotional literacy is helping learners to learn the essential lessons for life. For the learner it plays a key role in becoming an educated person. This implies an expanded mandate for schools in the sense that the leaders need to go beyond their traditional mission and people in the community need to become more involved with schools.

2.7.2.1 The ambitions of an emotionally literate school

Antidote (2003:3) further stresses the following characteristics of a school that seeks to foster emotional literacy:

Young people

- are given opportunities to explore the emotions they are experiencing at school;
- are engaged in actively building collaborative relationships with their peers;
- have people they can talk to when they are in distress or find themselves caught up in conflicts with others; and
- are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience lessons and other aspects of school life.

Educators and other staff

- have a sense of shared responsibility for supporting and learning from one another;
- feel free to use their creativity in teaching their learners;
- are encouraged to bringing their personal as well as their professional selves into the classroom; and
- have opportunities to explore with colleagues any difficult and confusing experiences they have in their relationships with young people.

Parents

- are welcomed as participants in school life and the education of their children;
- are offered opportunities to share any problems they have in helping their children learn and develop; and
- can air and work to resolve any conflicts they have with the school.

Staff, parents and young people

- are valued for the whole of who they are, rather than simply for the contributions they make to particular aspects of school life; and
- are given reasons to believe that they have a real role to play in shaping how the school is run.

By pursuing these ambitions, the school seeks to ensure that staff and students feel safe so that they can communicate what they think and feel to others, that they are clear about what they are thinking, feeling and doing, that they are accepted for who they are and that they are competent and confident that they are doing well, learning, growing and able to achieve (Antidote, 2003:3).

2.7.2.2 The qualities of an emotionally literate school

According to Antidote (2003:83-84), an emotionally literate school works to realize the following six core values:

Safety

There is a commitment to providing sufficient emotional security to enable people to engage with what they are feeling.

Openness

There is a commitment to openness and honesty in all areas of school life.

Compassion

There is a commitment to taking a genuine interest in the experiences of others and supporting them to become who they are.

Connection

There is a commitment to bringing people together so that they may know and learn from one another.

Reflection

There is a commitment to taking the time to deepen people's understanding of one another and of what is happening in the organization.

Growth- orientation

There is a commitment to actively enabling everyone to achieve their potential and to flourish.

If emotional literacy is to flourish at a school, its staff, learners and parents need to know that they can influence the actions and decisions that are being taken to improve the quality of teaching and learning at the school (Antidote, 2003:87).

According to Möller (2002:262), having the skill of emotional literacy is as important as having other life skills such as reading and writing. The author cites Goleman (1996) who identified the five personality traits that need to be developed to enhance personal leadership capabilities.

The focus will now turn to these five personality traits.

2.7.2.2.1 Developing emotional self-awareness

Stein and Book (2001:53) define emotional self-awareness as the ability to recognise your feelings and to differentiate between them so as to know what you are feeling and why, and to know what caused the feelings.

The authors state further that emotional self-awareness is the foundation on which most of the other elements of EI are built, the necessary first step toward exploring and coming to understand yourself and toward change. Individuals with a strong sense of self-awareness recognise when they feel out of sorts, irritable, sad or seductive and perceive how these feelings alter their behaviour in a way that may alienate others (Stein & Brook, 2001:55).

Möller (2002:262) states that improvement in recognizing and naming one's emotions, being able to understand the causes of feelings better and

recognizing the difference between feelings and action is the essence of emotional self-awareness.

2.7.2.2.2 Managing emotions

Managing emotions implies the ability to tolerate frustration and good anger management, engaging in fewer fights and classroom disruptions, having the ability to express anger appropriately without fighting and fostering more positive feelings about self, school and family (Möller, 2002:262).

Blankstein (2003:54) provides four necessary steps in helping learners to understand and manage their emotions, namely identifying and acknowledging feelings (physical and emotional signs), determining emotional triggers, staying calm and reflecting (debriefing after an emotional outburst).

2.7.2.2.3 Showing empathy: reading emotions

According to Möller (2002:262), empathy signifies the ability to listen better to others and to take another person's perspective into account.

Sylwester (2003:44) says that empathy involves the ability to empathize with a sharing, caring and hopeful sense of how the other person feels about something. Empathy is an important social trait in that it leads to ethical and altruistic behaviours. Helpful activities are those that encourage constant open discussion of how things are going to help learners tune into one another (to develop useful listening, looking and responding skills of converstation).

Stein and Book (2001:111) define empathy as the ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings and thoughts of others. Empathy is being sensitive to what, how and why people feel and think the way they do. Being empathic means being able to *emotionally read* other people (*cf.* 8.4.2).

Albrecht (2006:157) suggests a few practical ideas to increase skills in the dimension of building empathy. These include the following aspects:

- Study a person who seems unable to connect with others easily and make a list of specific behaviours observed that alienate others.

- Study a person who seems to connect with others easily, make a list of specific behaviours observed that seem to attract others and invite them to connect on a personal level.

- If an argument is witnessed (between two or more people) or participated in, make a list afterward of the toxic, empathy-destroying things any of the participants said or did that might have aggravated the situation or made it more difficult to resolve.

- If a close friendship is shared with a person, offer to make a deal with that person to use the four minute rule every time you meet for the next week. Spend the first one to four minutes talking only about one another and not doing any of the day's *business* until you have re-established your personal bond (Albrecht, 2006:157).

According to Du Plessis, Eloff and Bouwer (2002:217), empathy involves an understanding of someone else's behaviour and feelings, looking at a situation from his/her frame of reference. Before empathy can be achieved, good attending, listening and understanding must take place. It entails understanding a person in context. That is, understanding the person's frame of reference, even though you do not necessarily agree with it or the message.

2.7.2.2.4 Handling relationships

The ability to handle relationships is one where the individual is more sought out by peers, more concerned and considerate, is more sharing and co-operative toward others and is more democratic in dealing with others (Möller, 2002:262).

2.7.2.2.5 Harnessing emotions productively

Emotions motivate our behaviour in ways that are beneficial and helpful to us. Möller (2002:262-263) reiterates this by stating that it makes the individual more responsible, more self-controlled and less impulsive.

Blankstein (2003:55) reiterates that emotions can be tapped to enhance learning. The author cites schools in Piscataway, New Jersey that integrate emotions into the curriculum, by asking learners in their social studies class to imagine themselves as part of the culture of studying. The learners are then asked to deduce the reasons for various behaviours of that culture based on how they would feel and respond in that time and setting.

2.7.3 Emotionally literate leaders

Goleman *et al.* (2002:5) state that the emotional task of the leader is primal in the sense that it is both the original and the most important aspect of leadership.

According to Fineman (2003:79), followers are stirred by the leader's passion about ideals, visions or images and showing just the right emotions at the right times. The author refers to this as charismatic leadership which underpins transformational or servant leaders in organizations, who aim to alter the moods and desires of their subordinates towards devotion, piety, love, exuberance or excitement. The charismatic leader has a rich feeling field in which to operate and are said to inspire their followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization (Fineman, 2003:79).

Leaders in learning communities promote a strong sense of shared vision for the future, they lead learning, by being seen to be learning with everyone else, they share and distribute leadership and empower others, and continuous improvement is built into the fabric of the organization. Collaboration and collegiality are seen as contributing significantly to both individual and organizational development. Collegiality can help to develop an emotionally supportive work environment, one that truly engenders significant professional development (Earley & Weindling, 2004:180-181).

Moss (2005:7) states that emotionally literate leaders possess and share a vision of the ideal workplace. They communicate their vision and success, and by doing so, they inspire others to collaborate with them in making the vision a reality. They are planners, developers and motivational managers. Goleman (1998:187) found in his analysis of myriad jobs, that emotional competence makes up about two thirds of the ingredients of star performance in general, but for outstanding leaders emotional competencies – as opposed to technical or cognitive cues – make up 80 to 100 percent of those listed by companies themselves as crucial for success.

When leaders drive emotions positively, they bring out the best in people. Goleman *et al.* (2002:248) refer to these leaders as resonant leaders, who know when to be collaborative and visionary; they naturally nurture relationships and create the human synergies of a group in harmony. They build a fierce loyalty by caring about the careers of those who work for them and inspire people to give their best for a mission that speaks of shared values.

2.7.3.1 Seven characteristics of emotionally intelligent leaders

McBride and Maitland (2002:198) remark that leadership competence in EI is important and identify the *seven characteristics of emotionally intelligent leaders* as follows:

- They have greater flexibility and creativity
- They are committed to continuing professional development
- They empower others at every opportunity
- They treat people equally and fairly
- They are optimistic and concentrate on solutions rather than problems
- They are aware of and involve themselves in current issues while actively pursuing their own interests

- They are aware of their emotional needs and get help in the most appropriate way for every situation.

Mathew Jeucheter, chairman of the American Society for Training and Development, according to Goleman (1998:187), holds the view that almost all leadership is EI, especially in distinguishing between what managers do and what leaders do: things like taking a stand, knowing what's important to you, pursuing your goals in partnership with others.

According to Moss (2005:41), leaders in our day and age need EI skills such as the following nine:

- The ability to grapple with the unknown and its ensuing emotional issues in our current age
- The constantly changing work environment and our emotional response to it being perpetually changed by technology
- Leadership that becomes more influenced by emotion in the face of difficult decisions
- Staff interactions with students who become more influenced by emotion in the face of difficult decisions
- Advances in technology and medicine that result in ethical problems that may have emotional implications
- Elements of emotional awareness, included in issues that used to be more purely scientific
- Situations call on leaders to use their emotions to support, not hinder, their critical thinking ability
- Having a pro-active understanding of emotions and how they develop and interact can prevent crises and undesirable outcomes
- The need to make critical decisions, heightening the advantages of regulating and managing emotions in a critical time of change

Mayer and Salovey (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:78) see the emotionally intelligent person as being skilled in identifying, understanding, using and regulating emotions. They suggest that EI includes self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself (channelling emotions into reaching a goal, self-control, delayed gratification), empathy and effectiveness in handling relationships. This links clearly with the definition of EI supplied by Goleman (*cf.* 2.4.2) who highlights these aspects as the core characteristics of EI.

Goleman *et al.* (2002:248) state that an emotionally intelligent leader uses each of these skills at the right time in the right way and with the right person. Such leadership, the authors state, creates a climate of enthusiasm and flexibility, one where people feel invited to be at their most innovative, where they give their best. These leaders are then more connected to people, they exude resonance: a genuine passion for their mission, and that passion is contagious. Their enthusiasm and excitement spread spontaneously, invigorating those they lead (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:248).

2.7.3.2 Cultivating positive emotions in learners

According to Sylwester (2003:38), emotion is a general term for a complex, critically important, three-part arousal system that unconsciously interprets and evaluates sensory information, thus alerting us to current and potential dangers and opportunities that reach our emotional threshold.

Robert Plutchik (as quoted by Coon, 2005:360) has identified eight primary emotions. These are fear, surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, anticipation, joy and trust, each varying in intensity. These primary emotions can further be distinguished as positive and negative emotions. Positive emotions, according to Bear *et al.* (2005:175), are those that educators desire to develop among learners: happiness, pride, joy, excitement, compassion, gratitude, optimism, serenity, forgiveness and interest. When people feel positive emotions, Caproni (2005:13) states, they tend to think more broadly and creatively, seek out new information and experiences, behave more flexibly, and have more confidence in their own abilities and the abilities of others,

build trust and respect, persist more, get over bad experiences and emotions more quickly, and give and get more social support.

Research links positive emotions to pro-social behaviour, motivation, popularity among peers, high self-esteem, and greater tolerance for frustration (Bear *et al.*, 2005:175). In contrast to positive emotions, negative emotions are those that educators tend to discourage in learners, or try not to induce: anger, fear, jealousy, contempt, and disgust. Among the negative emotions, it is anger and fear that are most relevant to classroom behaviour.

According to Sergiovanni (2005:8), the key to successful schooling is building a covenant comprising purposes and beliefs that bond people together around common themes and that provide them with a sense of what is important, a signal of what is of value. A covenant, Sergiovanni states, is a binding and solemn agreement by principals, educators, parents and learners to honour certain values, goals and beliefs; to make certain commitments to one another; and to do or keep from doing specific things.

Weare (2004:96) reiterates that schools need to meet the basic emotional needs of the learner, paying positive attention to and respecting their learners' basic *survival* needs, such as the need to have their own belongings and space respected, the need for attention and the need to be part of a group, and ensure that these needs are met in ways that are positive and productive, rather than harmful. To ensure that learners respond to an experience, to remember it and to change as a result of it, educators need to make the learning personally compelling, emotionally deeply felt and vividly real (Weare, 2004:96).

The word *emotion* means *to move* and emotions do indeed move us. Reuven-Bar-On and Parker (2000:295) see intelligence, emotion and creativity as forming a trinity and to appreciate this trinity fully they say, emotions should be seen as social and individual constructions that develop over time and not simply as automatic reactions that are distinct from a 'higher' thought process. Emotions are linked to several adaptive behaviours such as attacking, fleeing, seeking comfort, helping others, reproducing and

the like. Such behaviours help us to adjust to changing conditions (Plutchik, as quoted by Coon, 2003:359).

According to Caruso and Salovey (2004:58), emotions convey meaning and if people wish to be understood, they must have a sophisticated emotional knowledge base. On emotion, Cooper and Sawaf (1997:xiii) mention that emotions are inherently neither positive nor negative. They rather serve as the single, most powerful source of human energy, authenticity and drive, and can offer us a wellspring of intuitive wisdom.

Emotions spark creativity, collaboration, initiative and transformation; logical reasoning reins in errant impulses and aligns purpose with process, technology with touch (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997:xxxi).

According to Brearley (2001:43), emotions are imprinted and recurring feelings sustained by a belief, as a response to which we take some form of action.

Feelings, Cooper and Sawaf (1997: xiii) say, provide a person with vital and potentially profitable information every minute of the day. This feedback – from the heart, not the head, is what ignites creative genius, keeps you honest with yourself, shapes trusting relationships, provides an inner compass for a person's life and career, and guides the person to unexpected possibilities. They reiterate that the importance of distinguishing between feelings and emotions at school is to realize how much schools do to turn the feelings learners have, about themselves and their learning, into beliefs and emotions that then dominate the learners' behaviour.

Sylwester (2003:40) suggests that educators can help learners understand emotion by comparing it to a biological thermostat set at a specific temperature. If the temperature suddenly drops below that threshold, the thermostat responds by sending a message to the furnace to send more heat. It does not *know* that an open door caused the drop in temperature. Thermostats and emotions are simply technological and biological arousal systems, but it is important for the learner to understand that arousal

(awareness of the problem) is the first step to the intelligent solution of a problem. So everything begins with emotion (Sylwester, 2003:40).

Educators and schools have both a short-term and a long-term impact on the emotions of every learner and those behaviour problems that are rooted in emotion can be prevented (Bear *et al.*, 2005:175). The whole learner has become the centre of concern, not only his/her reasoning capacities, but also their creativity and emotions. Learners with positive global self-worth tend to perceive their behaviour, in general, to be consistent with their personal standards and the standards others they desire, emulate. Feelings of happiness and pride characterize, if not define, positive self-worth and emotional well-being.

Positive self-worth or self-esteem tends to be associated with high achievement motivation and overall life satisfaction (Dwek, Gilman & Huebner, as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:177). This is done when educators address classroom and school factors that influence whether their learners feel angry, fearful, happy or proud about or responsible for their behaviour. The authors outline three educational goals for educators for developing learners' emotions:

- Develop positive emotions, especially those related to positive self-worth.
- Develop moral emotions, especially those associated with caring and responsibility.
- Develop self-regulation and coping skills (Dwek *et al.*, as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:177).

Develop positive emotions, especially those related to positive self-worth

Feelings of happiness and pride characterize, if not define, positive self-worth and emotional well-being. Positive self-worth or self-esteem tends to be associated with high achievement motivation and overall life satisfaction (Dwek *et al.*, as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:177).

Conversely, low self-esteem tends to be associated with poor achievement motivation and mental health problems, particularly depression. Of practical value to classroom educators concerned about understanding and developing emotions linked to self-discipline, it is important to note that happiness and pride and thus, positive self-worth and emotional well-being, tend to develop among students who (1) perceive their behavioural conduct favourably and (2) perceive others as valuable sources of social support.

Develop moral emotions, especially those associated with caring and responsibility

According to Hoffman (as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:182), what is of equal if not greater interest to educators is fostering emotions among learners that promote the happiness and welfare of others: emotions that motivate caring and responsible behaviour. At the core of caring and responsible behaviour are empathy and guilt.

Empathy is the ability to feel or experience the same or similar emotion as another person. The experience of empathy requires cognitive as well as affective abilities, including the ability to recognize emotional and other clues in others, the ability to assume the perspective of others and the ability to recognize emotional cures in others, the ability to share in the emotions of others (Hoffman, as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:182).

Guilt is the uncomfortable feeling, often stimulated by empathy that an individual experiences after violating a personal moral standard and attributing responsibility or the violation to oneself. Guilt typically occurs when students cause emotional or physical harm to someone else or believe that they could (and should have) done something to prevent such harm. Bear *et al.* (2005:183) warn that educators must be cautious in using techniques, especially over time, that induce strong feelings of guilt. Educators should also be cautious of inducing shame, an emotion closely related to guilt. Shame occurs when students believe that their behaviour fails to meet standards set by themselves or by others and such failure is perceived to reflect a serious deficiency in the self that caused others to view them

negatively. Like all other emotions, shame can serve an adaptive function. As with guilt, the anticipation of shame can be a powerful deterrent against moral transgressions (Harter, as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:183).

Develop self-regulation and coping skills

According to Eisenberg and Fabes, and Lasarus and Folkma (as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:184), learners face significant sources of stress today, distress over their relationships with parents, siblings and friends. Inability to cope with these conflicts renders students prone to social, emotional and academic problems. Coping entails the use of strategies that alleviate stress by addressing either the source of the stress, problem-focused coping or one's reaction to it, called emotion-focused coping.

Problem-focused strategies are typically enacted when students believe that they can modify a situation by changing some aspect of the environment. Because many events are beyond the learner's control, direct problem-solving may not always be feasible, so learners may need to redirect their focus to a control over thoughts and feelings. Regulation of one's cognition and emotions is a critical component of coping and has been identified as a *key to success in life* (Baumeister, Leith, Muraven & Bratslavsky, as quoted by Bear *et al.*, 2005:184).

The above indicates exactly what Lynn (2005:37) reiterates, namely that EI is not about extinguishing our emotions as may be implied by rational brain rules. Instead it is about understanding when our emotions can help us live our intensions and when our emotions may be getting in the way. It is about changing our emotions in a fashion that works to our advantage.

The responsive classroom, as used in a Washington DC elementary school, involves beginning each day with warm-up exercises that ensure that each learner feels connected to the others and to the educator. In doing so, a climate is created in which learning is associated with positive feelings, thus increasing motivation to learn while actually enhancing the learners' memory (Blankstein, 2003:55).

According to Caruso and Salovey (2004:146), emotions are simply not businesslike in most workplace settings. This leads organizations to develop unwritten rules or emotions: those which are okay to recognise and those which are not, which emotions are acceptable to express and which are not. They state further that to use EI successfully, depends in large measure on our desire and ability to understand ourselves. Asking ourselves questions about our approach to situations, especially powerful and meaningful situations, can help people obtain insight into their emotional style (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:213).

2.7.3.3 Leadership competence in EI

It is the task of competent leaders to be in touch with the feelings, expectations and ideals of their staff so that they stay in touch with their own best qualities, having self-confidence and striving toward excellence.

Goleman *et al.* (2002: 217-218) are of the opinion that EI and resonance in the workplace create an atmosphere where people find meaning in their connection and their being attuned with one another, while sharing a special vision of who they are collectively. It is the responsibility of emotionally intelligent leaders to create such resonant organizations. These leaders involve people in discovering the truth about themselves and the organization.

The authors' research (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:217-218) suggests rules of engagement for creating a resonant, emotionally intelligent and effective culture. The research produced three key findings: discovering the emotional reality, visualizing the ideal and sustaining EI. Each is explored in the following sections presented below.

2.7.3.4 Discovering the emotional reality

According to Goleman, Mayer and Salovey (as quoted by Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:137) EI involves a keen awareness of the emotional process and the ability to manage it effectively. Goleman *et al.* (2002:217), identify the following aspects as lessons to building an emotionally intelligent organization.

Respect the group's values and the organization's integrity

Visions change, but as the vision evolves, the leader needs to be sure that the *sacred centre* – what everyone holds as paramount – remains intact. That is the first challenge: knowing what the sacred centre actually is – from the perspective of others, not just of oneself. The second challenge is seeing clearly what must change, even when it is held dear, and getting other people to see it too. If core beliefs, mindsets or cultures really need to change, people need to drive that change themselves. It cannot be forced, so when people enter into such a change process, they need to be personally and powerfully motivated – preferably by hope and a dream, not fear. A visionary leader can impact this process positively by honouring the feelings and beliefs of the people around him, while steadfastly demonstrating the benefit of moving toward the dream (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:219).

Slow down in order to speed up

Goleman *et al.* (2002:219) state that leaders must really be supportive and listen to what people have to say about the culture and emotional reality of the organization. Both the coaching style (where a leader listens deeply to individuals) and the democratic style (where a group in dialogue builds consensus) can ensure that people are brought into the change process and that builds their commitment. Emotionally intelligent leaders rely on these styles as a way to slow things down enough to get a strong sense of exactly what is needed to give people the support they need in order to flourish.

Start at the top with a bottom-up strategy

Top leadership must be committed to facing the truth about the emotional reality of the organization, and they must be committed to creating resonance around a vision of the idea. A bottom-up strategy is needed as well, because resonance only develops when everyone is attuned to the change.

This means engaging formal and informal leaders from all over the organization in conversations about what is working, what is not, and how exciting it would be if the organization could move in the direction of what *is*

working. Transparent goals, an open change process, involvement of as many people as possible, and modelling new behaviours provide a top-down, bottom-up start for resonance (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:219-220).

2.7.3.5 Visualizing the ideal

Look inside

To formulate a vision that will resonate with others, leaders need to pay attention, starting by tuning in to their own feelings and the feelings of others. To do that a leader needs to *see* at the level of emotion, then craft a meaningful vision with which people can identify on a deep and personal level.

Do not align – attune

For a vision to be compelling, it needs to touch people's hearts. People need to see, feel and touch the values and the vision of the organization to make these abstractions meaningful.

People first, then strategy

According to Goleman *et al.* (2002:220), leaders who use resonance building styles, model the norms that support commitment, involvement, active pursuit of the vision, and healthy, productive work relationships. When a leader focuses on people, emotional bonds are created that are the ground in which resonance is sown – and people will follow that leader in good times and bad.

2.7.3.6 Sustaining EI

Turn vision into action

Goleman *et al.* (2002:221) posit that at every opportunity, leaders need to demonstrate what the vision looks like, what it feels like, and how people can live today as well as in the future. They use themselves as instruments of discovery and change, get close to the process, and do not let go until they reach their goal. Leaders thus lead through coaching, vision, democracy and respect for people around them. The call is on others to live up to their own values and the mission of the organization.

Create systems that sustain emotionally intelligent practices

For an organization to sustain emotionally intelligent practices, the rules, regulations and human resource practices have to be totally in synch with the desired outcomes.

Manage the myths of leadership

Leaders have an enormous impact on the overall emotions of an organization. Managing the myths, the legends and the symbols of the office can be a powerful driver of change. By using the symbolic power of their role to model EI, leaders can create new, positive myths through even small gestures and actions (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:222).

Goleman *et al.* (2002: 222) reiterate that it is ultimately the leader's responsibility to create emotionally intelligent organizations. It is up to leaders to help the organization identify its reality, including the cultural norms that hinder it, to explore the ideal vision of what could be and to help members of the organization uncover their own roles in that vision.

Sylwester (2003:43) states that Goleman and others argue persuasively that educational activities can enhance the development and maintenance of our overall emotional system so that it alerts us appropriately to the dangers and opportunities.

2.8 EI AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS

According to Zins *et al.* (2004:87), emotional abilities are likely to be important for academic achievement. For example, perceiving emotions may be important for artistic expression and writing, as well as for interpreting literature and works of art. Using emotions to facilitate thinking may help learners to decide what activities to focus on, depending on how they feel (*cf.* 8.4.6).

The ability to manage emotions may help learners to handle anxiety-arousing situations such as taking tests or starting creative projects. However,

according to the authors, there is no strong evidence linking EI and academic achievement (Zins *et al.*, 2004:87).

Being emotionally competent, however, has been proven to influence academic success and in this regard, Anthony (2003:247) outlines seven habits of people with high EI. These habits include labelling your feelings rather than labelling people and situations; considering the feelings of others when you are sharing your thoughts; taking responsibility for your own feelings; showing respect for other people's feelings, thoughts and opinions; validating other people's feelings and fears; practicing getting a positive value from their negative emotions; and not advising, commanding, controlling, criticising, judging or lecturing others.

2.8.1 The purpose of learning in learning communities

According to Edwards (2005:102), learning purposes are in part defined by the nature of learning itself. Although the learning process is not usually the way in which learning purposes are determined, it cannot be ignored because of its strategic importance.

Ordinarily, the objectives held for schooling consist of outcomes defined by various philosophical positions. One of these, **essentialism**, attempts to transmit cultural heritage to the next generation. A second philosophical tradition, **pragmatism,** rejects the usefulness of transmitting the cultural heritage because the future cannot be known. Therefore adherents maintain there is little certainty that the current canon of knowledge will be viable. It advocates training learners to use their capacities and to prepare themselves with the skills required for a broad range of possible adjustments and adaptations. **Reconstructionism** points to the need for education to prepare learners to reconstruct society and suit it to the needs of society (Edwards, 2005:102).

Lumby, Middlewood and Kaabwe (2003:33) assert that a universal commitment to development and change cannot be assumed. Achieving learning may, as Garratt (as quoted by Lumby *et al.*, 2003:33) suggests, be an essentially political process because before any consideration of how learning

is taking place in an organization can be achieved, a sufficient number of people must be persuaded of the necessity of such a process.

Southworth (as quoted by Lumby *et al.*,2003:33) concludes in his study of *The Learning School* that the principal is the leading learner and must establish the central focus on every level of learning, from that of the learners to all the staff, the organization and his/ her own.

Coleman and Earley (2005:222) posit that the cultural context of an organization affects how far the organization and its leaders promote effective learning. Diggins (as quoted by Coleman & Earley, 2005:245) states that effective leaders help determine the culture of their organization by their behaviour by constantly questioning the *status quo* to find better ways of achieving goals, creating environments where positive results and credits are widely dispersed, evaluating and affirming people, thinking positively while realizing that every problem presents a learning opportunity and seeking to integrate the best ideas in the task of building people in organizations.

Leaders in learning communities are deeply committed to maintaining, developing and promoting the human capital they have and promoting a strong sense of a shared vision for the future. They lead by learning. By being seen by everyone else to be learning, they share and distribute leadership and empower others, while collaboration and continuous improvement is built into the fabric of their organisation (Coleman & Earley, 2005:245).

Moloi (2002:27) states that for learning organizations to thrive requires understanding, knowledge, preparation and collaboration rather than reliance on the principal. For educators to survive in a highly competitive and complex environment requires the ability to anticipate environmental changes and adapt one's thinking and actions.

2.8.2 Three models of learning

Coleman and Earley (2005:223) state that these models help leaders understand how learning occurs and that the leader's view of learning will influence the ways in which he/she carries out his/her leadership role.

2.8.2.1 The learner as receiver

Coleman and Earley (2005:213) describe this model as one in which the learner is a passive recipient of knowledge where essential skills are emphasized while emotional and social aspects of learning are not addressed.

- focus on educators more than learners;
- talk about learning in ways that conflate learning with teaching and with performance;
- view the curriculum as a body of knowledge;
- value concrete products which are easily measurable;
- favour models of assessment which are timed, summative performances; and
- de-emphasise learning (Coleman & Earley, 2005:222).

2.8.2.2 The learner as constructor of knowledge

In this model, Coleman and Earley (2005:213) maintain that the learner actively constructs knowledge through such activities as discussion, discovery, learning, open-ended questioning, usually related to their everyday experiences.

According to Coleman and Earley (2005:222-223) leaders who see learning from this perspective are likely to:

- focus on the way people make sense of their experiences;
- view curriculum as addressing thought–demanding questions;

- value processes which make learning visible;
- favour models of assessment which ask people to explain to one another;
- promote people known as learners; and
- support an encouraging environment (Coleman & Earley, 2005:222-223).

2.8.2.3 The learner as collaborator

The essential features of this model are that it relies on dialogue and that the responsibility for learning shifts from individuals to emphasize collaboration in the construction of knowledge (Coleman & Earley, 2005:214).

Leaders who view learning from this perspective are likely to (Coleman & Earley, 2005:223):

- focus on social and collaborative processes;
- view curriculum as a process of building knowledge;
- view learning as a process of action and dialogue;
- value processes which enhance collaborative outcomes; and
- seek to improve learning by enhancing collaboration enquiry .

2.8.3 The learning organization

Pedler *et al*. (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:96), define a learning organization as one which not only facilitates the learning of all its participants, but also continually transforms itself.

According to Ndhlovu, Bertram, Mthiyane and Avery (2005:93), learning organizations tend to display the following characteristics:

- A shared commitment to a common vision or mission

- Part of the mission will be very active, supportive commitment to lifelong learning and to the school as a whole, to equip it to become more effective in achieving its mission

- Openness to reform within the school community as well as from management and the education department

- A *flat* organizational structure that is more flexible and participative than hierarchical

- Staff may take initiatives and tend to work in teams, rather than as individuals acing on instructions from above.

- Educators are not *checked on* all the time, but tend to be driven by their own commitment to performance and to shared goals.

For Senge (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:99), the learning organization must metamorphose, it must become the butterfly form the caterpillar, it must be generative. For schools, this implies:

- learning which is learner-centred rather than educator-centred;

- encouraging diversity rather than homogeneity – embracing multiple intelligences and a diversity of learning styles;

- understanding interdependency and change rather than the memorization of facts and the striving after *right answers*;

- a continuous exploration of the theories in use by all those involved in education; and

- a reintegration of education within the webs of social relationships, for example linking families, friends and whole communities (Morrison, 2002:99).

Flanagan (1998:19) explains that learning always involves a change between the person who is learning and other people or things. This change can be

brought about by a learner's experience or by a learner's interaction with his/her environment.

The author (Flanagan, 1998:19) states further that the educator has a role in enabling or constraining the learner's learning and proposes two theories of learning that provide an explanation of what changes in the learner, why the learner changes and what kinds of knowledge can be learnt and taught. Each theory also gives educators ideas on how they can bring about change or constrain change in their learners. Let us now briefly turn to a discussion on these theories.

2.8.3.1 Behaviourist theories

According to Flanagan (1998:21), the proponents to these theories focus on what they can observe and believe that learning can only take place through the senses. These theories also provide a focus on the identification of the events which cause new ways of behaving in the learner and stress the belief that what is learnt is the same as what is experienced.

2.8.3.2 Cognitive theories

Cognitive theories, Flanagan (1998:21) states, were developed by a group of researchers who believe that a prerequisite to understanding learning is an understanding of how the mind works. These theories therefore provide a focus on internal cognitive events (acts inside the mind) and put forward a belief that what people learn is not necessarily what they experience. This is because they believe that the content of the mind and the structure of a learner's mind change and shape how that learner understands his/her experiences (Flanagan, 1998:21) The challenge for educators is to become skilled at using the different theories appropriately .

Borich (2004:34) states that the truly effective educator knows how to execute individual behaviours with a larger purpose in mind. This larger purpose requires placing behaviours in sequences and patterns that accumulate to create an effect greater than can be achieved by any single behaviour or small set of them. This is why teaching involves a sense of timing and pacing

that cannot be conveyed by any list of behaviours. The interrelationship among these behaviours giving its proper emphasis in the context of the classroom is important to the effective educator (Borich, 2004:34).

2.8.4 A focus on academic achievement

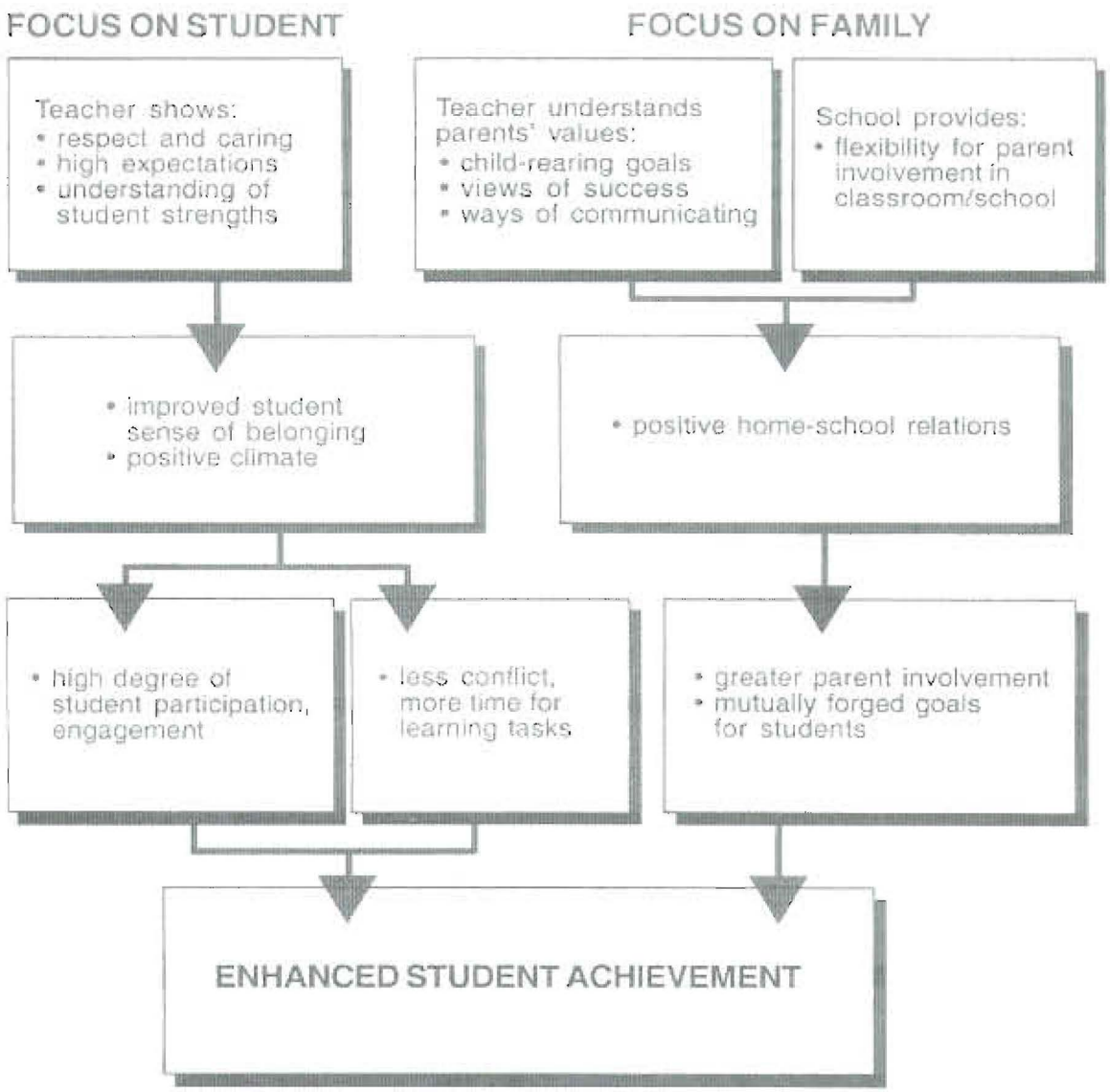
In a project named *Bridging Cultures*, Trumbull, Fisch, Greenfield and Quiroz (2001:132) highlight that educators have a major goal of helping learners maximize their achievement, as well as fostering a positive relationship with their learners and parents and among learners. The educators in this project do not see these as separable elements; learner achievement depends on a sense of belonging and well-being in the classroom (*cf.* 8.4.6).

According to the authors, *Bridging Cultures* is a collaborative research and development project among educational researchers at WestEd (a regional educational laboratory); University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA); California State University at Northridge; and seven elementary educators from six public schools in three school districts in Southern California. The ultimate goal of the project is to help educators teach their learners from diverse backgrounds with greater success (Trumbull *et al.*, 2001:xvii-iii).

Trumbull *et al.* (2001:133) further propose a model (Fig. 2.2) which highlights the conditions for academic achievement. The model depicts educators' increased understanding, their change in stance toward parents and learners and their resulting changes in practice – or rededication to culturally compatible practices they are already engaged in – as establishing the necessary environment for learner success.

The authors (Trumbull *et al.*, 2001:133) state further that academic achievement is only one aspect of success. Nevertheless, all learners should be afforded the opportunity to achieve academically and when classrooms do not engender a sense of belonging and foster learner engagement, academic achievement suffers.

Figure 2.2: Conditions for academic achievement



Donald *et al.* (as quoted by Calitz *et al.*, 2002:70) highlight several key challenges for leaders and managers with regard to establishing an effective learning environment for all learners. These challenges include being sensitive to internal and external forces creating barriers to learning and development, developing personal and interpersonal skills to deal with the barriers to learning and development, having the ability to balance the need to be task-orientated with the need to maintain good relationships and care for all members of the centre of learning.

2.9 EI AND MANAGING CHANGE IN EDUCATION

Fullan (as quoted by Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:45) has argued that educational change is about individuals making sense of a new experience. The author states further that the neglect of the phenomenology of change- that is, how people actually experience change as distinct from how it might have been intended- is at the heart of the spectacular lack of success of most social reforms. It is also about understanding the big picture, because educational change is a socio-political process (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:45).

Evans (as quoted by Coleman & Earley, 2005:205) proposes that leaders in educational institutions should provide a service to those who are being led, which he terms *educator-centred leadership.* In this regard, the author states that leaders and managers have as much responsibility towards the staff whom they lead and manage as they do towards the learners within their institution, and that responsibility extends as far as endeavouring to meet as many individual needs as possible, within the confines imposed by having to consider more corporate needs (Coleman & Earley, 2005:205).

Caruso and Salovey (2004:xvii) state that a person functioning in amorphous situations marked by rapid change needs to be able to form strong teams quickly and efficiently, interact effectively with people, communicate goals and obtain buy-in from these self-directed , autonomous groups.

In such an environment, the leader must lead by using a set of highly sophisticated skills that involve understanding how people think and feel. These skills for the emotionally intelligent manager, the authors (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:xvii) see as identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

2.10 SUMMARY

According to Stein and Howard (2001:14), EI evolved along with humankind, as the need to cope, to adapt and to get along with others. Goleman (as quoted by MacGilchrist *et al.*, 2004:129) describes EI as the capacity for

recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.

Goleman has identified five areas which underpin the concept of EI and in many respects these provide a sound footing for understanding effective change leadership. The first area of emotional intelligent leadership, Hooper and Potter (2000:9) declare, relates to the leaders acquiring self-knowledge. A key part of self-knowledge is the skill of listening. Managing emotions is the second of Goleman's EI areas and this involves the skill in using intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence to motivate others. It focuses on the importance for those in leadership positions demonstrating vision, self-belief and determination, putting the concern of others first and encouraging others to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations. The third area, namely empathy and the understanding of the viewpoint of others, is crucial in change leadership. The fourth competency related to the second area of EI is the harnessing of emotions. In all change situations, one of the most important aspects is managing human energy and ensuring that everyone is geared towards a common aim. The final area of EI is relationship management which is vital for both the school and the individual (Hooper & Potter, 2001:9-10).

EI is thus concerned with a school's capacity to allow the feelings of both learners and staff to be owned, expressed and respected. Such capacity should extend to the parents and the community as a whole.

The emotionally literate school recognizes that developing emotional literacy is helping learners learn the essential lessons of life and it plays a key role in their becoming educated persons.

Principals should consider the dynamic process of change as a *battleground* where staff members go through phases and experience multiple emotions and even resistance to the process. They should provide an environment that encourages and supports learning, build effective teams, motivate people, promote change and create effective interpersonal relations, relying on emotions as a source of inspiration.

The next chapter will focus on the role of the educator as manager of change.

CHAPTER THREE

THE EDUCATOR'S ROLE AS MANAGER OF CHANGE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Managing school change and improvement is one of the most complex tasks of school leadership. It becomes necessary for school leaders to understand the change process in order to lead and manage change and improvement efforts effectively. Calitz *et al.* (2002:17) state that leadership for change must integrate the drive of moral purpose with the creation of social capital as evidenced in the civic capacities of educational leaders and educators at all levels. This implies that principals and other key school leaders should help educators and other stakeholders identify areas of improvement and develop plans to change educational activities and programmes and to implement those plans effectively. This should be accomplished by establishing a clear educational vision and shared institutional mission, and by providing high quality learning for all learners.

Relating to the world of the educator, what needs to be considered are their perspectives of this complex process of educational change and its consequences. Coleman and Earley (2005:69) are of the view that the educational leader acts as an agent of change. The authors reiterate that each class educator as leader and manager of the class also acts as an agent of change to re-culture and restructure the experiences of his/her learners towards establishing an effective learning environment. Swart (as quoted by Coleman & Earley, 2005:69) states that change requires both individual and organizational initiatives and it is often met with resistance and therefore leaders and managers on all levels must deal with change and the emotions which change evokes. In this regard, what is called for is a need for a conception of their understandings and perceptions, an appreciation of their roles and experiences, feelings and emotions, and how these in turn may influence educational practice.

Leaders and managers need to think about the organization in a systemic way, that is, to look at the whole, as well as the parts and their connections. Thinking systemically is the opposite of reductionism which is the idea that something is simply the sum of its parts. Learning communities look beyond the immediate to find patterns over a wider spectrum or longer period of time and encourage feedback to identify problems and successes (Coleman & Earley, 2005:222). They further suggest that the developmental level of the education system, as well as political priorities and cultural values, are some of the core issues about teaching and learning that transcend context.

Riley (as quoted by Coleman & Earley, 2005:116) points out that successful reforms depend on three interlocking elements, namely:

- the skills, capacity and commitment of educators at school and at the local system level;
- the enthusiasm and commitment of parents, learners and educators; and
- the ability of politicians to create the right legislative framework.

Stacey (as quoted by Fullan, 1999:3) is of the opinion that rapid change is endemic and inevitable in post-modern society, a system which self-generates complex dynamics over and over and over again. He remarks further that most textbooks focus heavily on techniques and procedures for long-term planning, on the need for visions and missions, on the importance and the means of securing strongly shared cultures and on the importance of success with consensus, consistency, uniformity and order.

If reforms are to succeed, much needs to be done to reduce the barriers to learning that prevent many children and young people from benefitting from education.

In the following sections, the researcher will provide a review of the South African schools, the role of the principal and educator as managers of change and how to lead change effectively at school.

3.2 SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS IN CONTEXT

According to Mahomed (2001:105), a significant feature of South Africa's transition to democracy is the attempt to restructure its education and training system. The author quotes Brown and Lauder who hold the view that the quality of a nation's education and training system is the key to future economic prosperity.

Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:97) find that the new vision of schools is characterized by less hierarchical structures, more teamwork and commitment to ongoing personal and organizational development.

In view of this, Fleisch (2002:11) posits that the success of large scale educational change rests on what happens as policies are interpreted and adjusted by departments of education to bring about this political transition.

3.2.1 Changing the structure of education

After decades of apartheid, South Africa experienced jubilation of its non-racial democratic elections in April 1994. One of the crucial challenges that the country faces according to Lemon (as quoted by Calitz *et al.*, 2002:237), is the overhaul of education. South Africa's new democracy is faced with the reconstruction, against all odds, of a society (that is parents, educators, learners and wider community) and an education system left in ruins by apartheid.

The promulgation of the Schools Act (84/1996) was an important milestone in the transformation of the education system in South Africa. Originally the main aim of the Schools Act, according to Loock, Campher, Du Preez, Grobler and Shaba (2003:40), was to introduce a system that would promote democratic change in the community, integrating various and diverse school models into one model that should be acceptable to all and grant equal opportunities to all.

Traditionally, South African schools were hierarchically structured organizations in which key decisions were taken by people at the top and

communicated down to ordinary educators. The new vision for schools is characterized by fewer hierarchical structures, more participative decision-making, more flexible job functions, a great deal more teamwork and commitment to ongoing personal and organizational development (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:97).

The school system in South Africa has undergone many reformative efforts. School-by-school reform projects were implemented in particular social and political contexts. In South Africa, the wider context was particularly important as the country as a whole was in the throws of political and social transformation. By the late 1980's, the cycle of struggle and repression gave birth to a culture of resistance at schools (Fleisch, 2002:100).

On the eve of the 1994 election, most disadvantaged secondary schools, particularly in urban areas, were on the brink of collapse. Structural changes became absolutely necessary in the process of educational reform. The main changes according to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2002:19) have involved bringing eighteen widely different education departments under one ministry with one policy: redressing the differences in resources and access to education controlled by these departments and making coherent sense of national education needs in areas such as curricula, qualification structures, support services and teacher education.

The authors further state that, at the centre of transforming the process in education, is the need to change the values, understanding and actions of individual people: parents and members of the community, as well as learners and professional educators (Donald *et al.*, 2002:20).

Inequality in society has resulted in a range of harmful psychological effects on individuals who experienced it. In this regard, Wilkinson (as quoted by Fullan, 1999:8) points out that social feelings (joblessness, isolation, oppression, failure, vulnerability and desperation) cause chronic stress and contribute to social exclusion and devaluation as human beings. Lewin, Samuel and Sayed (2003:130) state that feelings are subjectively experienced physiological sensations and can be clearly distinguished from emotions.

Private feelings, the authors state, become emotions whenever they are expressed publicly.

Kgamphe (2004:72) argues that to manage such a system requires appropriate legislation, policies and guidelines that are transparent, as this would take us to an education system that promotes sustainable human development and significantly alleviates poverty. According to the Employment of Educator's Act 76 of 1998 (76/1998; hereafter Employment Act), the ability of our education system to compete in an increasingly global economy depends on our ability to prepare both learners and educators for new or changing environments.

Of particular importance to this study is the need to manage the educator's emotional response to change, specifically curriculum change, democratic governance, equity and redress.

Management in education should be able to draw on the professional competencies of educators, build a sense of unity of purpose and reinforce their belief that they can make a difference. For educational change to happen, it will require that educators understand themselves before they can understand others (Fullan, 1999:117).

Since South African education organizations and the entire society are transforming, it changes the leader's influence over others, as leaders understand a growing need to recognize educators' experience and expertise by involving them in leadership, taking into account educators' skills, knowledge and attitudes (Calitz *et al.*, 2002:44).

3.2.2 The complexity of the change process

Change is all around us. Successful change initiatives in the educational setting depend on the skills, behaviour and understanding of its managers and leaders.

Theron (2002:182) defines change as the struggle between what is and what is desired. A planned, systematic process that takes time to come to fruition,

is affected by individuals and is a highly personal experience. The author also describes change as a phenomenon that affects all aspects of a person's life, bringing about alterations in both personal and employment spheres.

Christie and Potterton (2002:93) present major findings of a study in which they explore why certain schools succeed while similar schools – often in the same community – do not. The authors identify common features of what they term *resilient schools* (those that succeed against the odds). Most of the schools described struggled with problems in their environments, and almost all of the schools, except for the few historically white schools, were in communities wracked by poverty and unemployment and sometimes by violence. Despite being overwhelmed by the difficulties in their environments and their histories, these schools were resilient.

The authors identify the management and leadership capabilities of the principals of these schools as one of the determinants for success. Their management styles include some sense of accountability to staff, the importance of motivating staff and at least some degree of consultation and participation. All spoke of the importance of dialogue and communication with staff as a feature of managing a functioning school (Christie & Potterton, 2002:95).

3.2.3 Three principles for the management of change

According to Levin (2004:371), schools are facing important external changes. The author identifies these changes as: increases in the proportion of minority children at schools; changes in family structures and parental work patterns; changes in labour market structures and job opportunities; changes in the values of adolescents; changes in the legal requirements and constraints around education and changes in technology.

Responding to change is an educational task, in which schools as institutions need to think through problems, analyse data, debate options and values, develop and test strategies (Levin & Riffel, 2004:367).

In this regard, Theron (2002:198) reflects on different authors' views on the skills, personal qualities and characteristics that the principal should possess in order to initiate and implement change successfully:

- Sound interpersonal relationships and ease of manner
- A grounding in the ethics and philosophy of change
- An understanding of how groups function
- Familiarity with adult education and with running workshops
- Wide teaching experience, a sound knowledge of education management and a good general knowledge of other disciplines
- Initiative and innovative ideas
- Skills in enhancing communication, trust and self-confidence
- The ability to generate effective, positive relationships, give support, and to show empathy and sensitivity
- A willingness to confront people where necessary without generating hostility
- A sound understanding of how to handle conflict and stress
- A flexible and adaptable management style
- The ability to identify his or her own and others' strengths and weaknesses
- Skills in planning for action and implementation

Wallace and Pocklington (2002:58) identify three sequential stages in the change process as follows:

- Initiation is the first stage of the process leading to a decision to proceed with a change.

- Implementation as the second stage covers the experience of attempting to put the change into practice.

- Finally, the institutionalization stage refers to the way the change becomes built into normal practice and is no longer perceived as anything new.

Other outcomes are possible the authors state. Not the least, that the implementation effort may be abandoned. While one stage follows another, the process is not neatly linear, nor is one stage always totally distinct from the next (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:58).

Gultig, Ndhlovu and Bertram (2002:87) suggest three principles for the management of change. Firstly, the process of reform must always expect and even encourage conflict. Whenever people are confronted with change, they need the opportunity to react, to articulate their ambivalent feelings and work out their own sense of it.

Secondly, the process must respect the autonomy of different kinds of experience, so that groups of people can organize their own feelings and responses without the intrusion of alien conceptions (however well-meaning these conceptions may be). Thirdly, there must be some time and patience, because the conflicts involve not only the accommodation of diverse interests, but also the personal realization of continuity in the meaning of individuals' lives.

3.3 CHANGE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES IN EDUCATION

Wallace and Pocklington (2002:212) contend that in the United Kingdom, the term management has been used for several decades to include what is increasingly being given the leadership cachet, especially by central government ministers and their agents. Leadership is integral to the activity of managing change and represents a subset of the activities that it entails. The contribution of leadership is in stimulating and setting the direction for change, gaining acceptance among users first, sustaining an overview of progress, and if necessary, instigating pre-emptive or corrective action to maintain momentum in the chosen direction (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:212).

3.3.1 Identifying change management competencies in education

Benis and Nantus (as quoted by Stuart & Pauquet, 2001:30) define leadership as the competencies and processes required to enable and empower ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity. It is the ability to constantly deliver superior performance to the benefit of oneself and the organization. The above definition includes being skilled in emotional competencies.

Tomlinson (2004:126) identifies the four competencies of a true leader as follows:

- Management of attention: the communication of an extraordinary focus of commitment which attracts people to the leader.
- Management of meaning: the communication of the leader's vision, making his/her dreams apparent to others and aligning people with them.
- Management of trust: the main determinants of which are reliability and consistency.
- Management of self: knowing one's skills and deploying them effectively, without which leaders can do more harm than good.

Sterling and Davidoff (2000:27) reiterate that having leadership potential is not the same as a developed ability. Leadership capacity, according to the authors, does not blossom in a flash once the person has been appointed into a leadership position. Rather, becoming an effective leader requires certain skills and abilities and this implies making a conscious choice to develop these qualities.

3.3.1.1 Critical competencies, leadership skills and attributes

Davies (2004:231) concurs that, aside from leaders at schools developing specific skills, they should endeavour to develop a set of generic core competencies in the organization so that when a new challenge appears, the school can draw on these core competencies to build its own solution. The

author sites examples such as fundamental understanding of learning and differentiation, ability to work as a team in problem-solving, using performance data as a means of improvement, not just assessment and respecting and valuing students and staff (Davies, 2004:231).

To manage change, Winkler (2002:19) sites eight critical competencies required of leaders:

- Change leadership: the ability to communicate a compelling vision of the company strategy that makes adaptive responses appear both feasible and desirable to its many stakeholders and also arouses their genuine motivation and commitment.

- Relationship management: the ability to establish relationships with and influence complex networks of people who can be regarded as co-equals or who are internal or external business associates. Their co-operation is needed for the organization to succeed.

- Team/process facilitation: group process skills needed to get diverse groups of people to work together effectively to achieve a common goal.

- Personal competencies: a personality and know-how respected by top-management, skills in teaching, coaching, communication and a mental habit of breakthrough thinking.

- Strategic-level competencies: knowledge of the strategic options and direction and the ability to participate in management and strategic visioning.

- Knowledge of change methodology: understanding the techniques used in continuous-process improvement.

- Knowledge of technology: understanding IT methods for rapid implementation of systems.

- Cultural skills: understanding changed corporate values and how to instil them, as well as understanding corporate culture issues when culture can be changed and how to change it.

Gultig *et al.* (2002:83) mention that change initiatives do not run themselves, but require substantial effort to be devoted to such tasks as monitoring and implementation, keeping everyone informed of what is happening and taking clear coping action. The authors highlight three essential ingredients in the successful management of change, as discussed below.

In the first instance, the management of change functions at best when it is carried out by a cross-role group (consisting of educators, department heads, administrators and often learners and parents). In such a group different worlds collide, more learning occurs and change is realistically managed. There is much evidence, the authors (Gultig *et al.*, 2002:83) state that steering a change effort in this way results in substantially increased educator commitment.

In the second instance, such a cross role group needs legitimacy. It needs an explicit contract, widely understood at school, as to what kinds of decisions it can make and what money can be spent (Gultig *et al.*, 2002: 83).

In the third instance, everyone has to learn to take the initiative instead of complaining, to trust colleagues, to live with ambiguity, to face the fact that shared decisions mean conflict. Principals have to rise above the fear of losing control and hone new skills such as initiating actions firmly without being seen as controlling, supporting others without taking over for them (Gultig *et al.*, 2002:83).

Embarking on education reform and creating and sustaining significant levels of improvement, Riley (2004:293) says, are not one and the same thing. School reform is about change. Change in its turn depends on the will, capacity and actions of many players at different levels in an education system. The degree of alignment between any reform initiative and the personal goals and aspirations of individuals and organizations engaged in the reform process is a powerful force in school change (Riley, 2004:293).

According to Daresh and Arrowsmith (2003:23), another list of critical leadership skills and attributes that would have an impact on learning at schools has been developed by the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) in the United Kingdom. These skills include (Daresh & Arrowsmith, 2003:23):

- creating and securing commitment to a clear vision for an effective institution;
- initiating and managing change and improvements in pursuit of strategic objectives;
- prioritizing, planning and organizing;
- directing and coordinating the work of others;
- building support and working with high performing teams;
- working as part of a team;
- devolving responsibilities, delegating tasks and monitoring practice to see that they are being carried out;
- setting standards and providing a role model for learners and educators;
- seeking advice and support when necessary; and
- dealing sensitively with people and resolving conflicts.

Davis (2003: xiv) reiterates that being an effective leader implies knowledge and application of certain competencies, cultivating specific skills and abilities and maintaining appropriate attitudes. Knowledge of basic organizational theory, an awareness of what learning is and why it must be guarded as the fundamental purpose of the institution, the ability to communicate effectively in a variety of forms, knowledge of change theories and skill in responding to, initiating and managing change, an awareness of what constitutes a positive work environment and the ability to work with others in creating such an

environment all constitute some of the leadership competencies outlined by the author (Davis, 2003:iv)

Heifetz (as quoted by Fullan, 2001:3) sees leadership not as mobilising others to solve problems they already know how to solve, but to help them confront problems that have never yet been successfully addressed.

3.3.2 Creating and securing an effective school

According to Van der Walt (as quoted by Oosthuizen, 2003:73), the essence of a school as a societal relationship is to develop the logical and analytical faculties of the learner. In order to fulfil this task, these authors point out that a school's primary task is to create a teaching and learning opportunity.

The creation of this opportunity is included in the educational task of a school which is concerned with imparting cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills, as well as the culture of a community to the learner (Oosthuizen, 2003:73).

According to Earley and Weindling (2004:155), the early work on school effectiveness began in the United States of America and consisted of large-scale input-output studies of student achievement. The depressing conclusion drawn from this work was that schools made little or no difference and that home background, IQ and rather surprisingly, luck, were found to be the main variables determining learner achievement.

The most influential advocate of the effective schools movement, Earley and Weindling (2004:156) state, was a black superintendent and researcher, Ronald Edmonds. He defined an effective school as one that brings the children of the poor to those minimal masteries of basic school skills that now describe minimally successful learner performance for the children in the middle class. An effective school, according to Edmonds, must bring an equal percentage of the highest and lowest social class of learners to minimum mastery (Earley & Weindling, 2004:156; *cf.* 7.2.1).

Working in Detroit and New York, Edmonds identified a number of correlates that are associated with effective schools, known as the Five Factor model:

strong leadership, high expectations of learner achievement, an orderly atmosphere conducive to learning, an emphasis on basic skill acquisition and frequent monitoring of student progress which is used as feedback (Earley & Weindling, 2004:156).

Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:77) provide a summary of the characteristics of effective schools in developing countries, based on the work of two researchers, Levin and Lockheed. The summary follows below.

3.3.2.1 Necessary inputs

The researchers highlight that the curriculum content needs to be relevant to the experiences of the learners, properly sequenced and appropriately paced. The availability of textbooks to facilitate learning is also emphasized, as well as spending time on a task, as this promotes learning. Effective schools encourage active learner involvement, including dialogue and debates among learners and educators (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:77).

3.3.2.2 Facilitating conditions

Schools are more effective when the community contributes to the school and participates in school activities. The principal and the educators, according to Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:77), have a crucial role in effectiveness and shaping the school. Effective schools take steps to improve educators' skills and knowledge and educators are jointly responsible for producing good results. Effective schools are also able to adapt to local needs and conditions, especially in making curricula relevant, and organizing flexibly to make the best use of resources.

3.3.2.3 Ensuring a vision

For schools to be effective there needs to be a commitment on the part of the state, political parties, business, parents and learners to work together and to achieve excellence. Effective schools need to have a high degree of autonomy, while being accountable to parents and the local community (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:77).

In the United Kingdom, in contrast with the United States' emphasis on primary schools, Earley and Weindling (2004:156-157) point out, most of the studies have looked at secondary schools using 16+ exam results as outcome variables, rather than standardised tests of reading and maths.

3.3.3 Creating an effective learning environment

Du Plessis, Bouwer and Eloff (2002:70) posit that establishing an effective learning environment presents several challenges to management, therefore educational leaders and managers should be sensitive to internal and external forces which create barriers to learning and development. Managers should also develop personal and interpersonal skills in order to deal with the barriers to learning and development, and be able to balance the need to be task-orientated with the need to maintain sound relationships and to care for everyone at school (Du Plessis *et* al., 2002:70).

Earley and Weindling (2004:156-157) have identified eight characteristics influencing the functioning of effective schools. These will now be discussed below.

3.3.3.1 An emphasis on learning

A curriculum, relevant to all learners and educators who have high expectations that all learners can learn, given the right conditions, is favourable. Regular setting and marking of homework is imperative, as well as visible rewards given for academic achievement (Earley & Weindling, 2004:158).

3.3.3.2 Classroom management

Earley and Weindling (2004:158) state that effective classroom management will ensure that a high proportion of the time is spent on the subject matter of the lesson, teaching strategies are appropriate to the topic and type of lesson, and lessons begin and end on time. Clear and unambiguous feedback is given to learners on their performance and what is expected of them.

3.3.3.3 Discipline and school climate

This implies keeping sound order and promoting a safe and orderly non-oppressive climate that is conducive to teaching and learning. Buildings are kept in good order, repair and decoration (Earley & Weindling, 2004:158).

3.3.3.4 School leadership

According to Earley and Weindling (2004:158), positive leadership by the principal and other senior staffs is necessary to both initiate and maintain school improvement. Leadership functions are widely distributed throughout the school and include the SGB and a management style that encourages collegial work and shared decision-making.

3.3.3.5 Vision and monitoring

A clear vision shared by all, Earley and Weindling (2004:158) state, is needed along with achievable goals for school improvement and regular monitoring of learner results to determine whether goals are realized and implemented.

3.3.3.6 Staff development

To influence the whole school, staff development has to be school-wide, rather than specific to individual teacher's needs and closely related to the curriculum. An effective school development plan is needed which integrates staff development, instructional development and curriculum development (Earley & Weindling, 2004:159).

3.3.3.7 Parental involvement

In an effective school, Earley and Weindling (2004:159) state, parents are viewed and valued as full partners in the learning process and staff work to achieve positive home-school relations in which parents actively support the school.

3.3.3.8 Departmental and outside support

Fundamental changes require support from the education departments and/ or other outside agencies. Consultants employed by education departments can provide valuable information and training to schools and facilitate the school improvement process (Earley & Weindling, 2004:159).

According to a report of the British National Commission of Education published in 1993 (as quoted by De Bruyn *et al.*, 2002:114), some features commonly characterizing effective and successful schools include strong, positive leadership, a good atmosphere generated by shared aims and values, high and consistent expectations of learners, clear and continuing focus on teaching and learning, participation by the learners in the life of the school, parental involvement and rewards and incentives to encourage learners to succeed.

3.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF ROLES IN EDUCATION

Sergiovanni (2005:49) expresses the view that roles are markers that help define what a person should do and definers of covenants, the most sacred obligations and commitments the principal, parents and educators have toward the school and its purposes. These definers of covenants obligate educators to meet, even exceed, their responsibilities toward each other and toward the institutions and communities.

Turner and Hall (as quoted by Bush & Middlewood, 2005:70) argue that the values and beliefs of an institution are expressed in the pattern of role relationships established by the school. A distinction can be made between *role-taking*, accepting the role as it is presented, and *role-making*, actively reconstructing it. In the former model, roles are used to match people with tasks and responsibilities through job descriptions and other formal processes. In the latter approach, individuals behave differently from their job descriptions by responding to both the expectations of their role set and their own interpretation of their role set and their own interpretation of the requirements of the post. Educators and principals, within the framework of their understanding of others' expectations and roles, attempt to interpret

them in ways which are comfortable, rewarding and manageable (Bush & Middlewood, 2005:70).

According to Winkler (2002:16), the skill to lead effective change is at the core of management competencies needed in the 21st century.

For the researcher, the changing role expectations of educators would necessarily include a focus on:

- liberating and empowering educators to build their vision within the school;
- emphasizing teamwork, doing a good job, gaining satisfaction and due recognition;
- collaborating with the external environment to enhance whole school performance; and
- building and fostering a positive learning environment through enhancing social and emotional learning.

3.4.1 The concept of role

According to Coleman, Graham-Jolley and Middlewood (2003:87), the concept of role takes on wider meanings than that of a job description or a list of duties. It can be regarded as the behavioural aspect of position, indicating how the role-holder acts in practice rather than what may be set down in formal documentation. The authors cite Hall who defines roles as constituting the parts people expect and are expected to play in the daily drama of educational life.

Gultig *et al.* (1999:107) consider a healthy school to be one in which the leadership capacity is being developed in all staff members (and other constituencies, like parents and learners) through an ongoing personal development process. This process should be designed to build the capacity of staff members to participate meaningfully in the process of school life and the successful implementation of the process of change.

According to Wallace and Pocklington (2002:590), individuals who participate in the change process may be categorized as change agents, contributing to bringing about a shift in others' practice related to some component of the change, whether inside or outside the institution.

Lumby *et al.* (2003:111) see change as a perceptual motion that will happen, but its direction and speed can only be influenced if the process is led. In this regard, the role of the principal in particular, but also other managers at schools, is critical.

3.4.2 The role of the principal as manager of change

Wilken (as quoted by Grady, 2004:26) describes the school as a knowing network, one where organizational competencies typically reside in the relationships, norms, memories, habits and collective skills of a network of people. The principal, who is only part of this network, has a generalist, not a specialist role. The skilled principal, Grady (2004:26) states, becomes expert at taking in information, asking questions and then searching for answers.

According to Connor, Lake and Stackman (2003:139) change managers, also referred to as change strategists, design, oversee and direct change as part of carrying out their regular duties. They lay the foundation and craft the vision for change, anticipate the elements of change, choosing and guiding those who will participate in the change.

Ferron and Stanton (2004:3) mention previous research as substantiating that there are ten managerial roles namely that of monitor, evaluator, entrepreneur, resource allocator, leader, disseminator, disturbance handler, figurehead, liaison negotiator and spokesperson, which are applicable to managers in every organization. The authors suggest that successful leaders through using different approaches and several leadership styles, can manage relationships at school, but this requires a deep understanding of themselves and the institution (Ferron & Stanton, 2004:5).

According to Shuttleworth (2003:137), the ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal plays. In addition to their

tradition of financial, personnel and other administrative duties, principals are now expected to be systemic change agents, transformation experts and mental health councillors. Reform demands the *powerful principal* as a *heroic*, *take charge leader* who can still share powers with others. As learning leaders, they are expected to expand the school's capacity for learning by creating *learning communities* that collaboratively solve problems facing the school. Schools seeking to improve should support full service leadership, not just management by expedience (Shuttleworth, 2003:137).

Weare (2004:135) highlights the fact that leadership by the principal is essential in the development of an emotionally literate school: a proactive concern with this issue needs to come right from the top and to permeate every aspect of school life and learning. The author states further that principals need to be prepared to be leaders and not just administrative managers, and this involves more than efficiency: they need to have a sense of purpose and the ability to inspire others, to be creative and innovative, and to manage change and uncertainty. They also need to know their own limitations so that they can make sure they have others to take care of the tasks and roles they are not good at, and make sure they look after themselves properly in the process.

Van Deventer, Kruger, Van der Merwe and Prinsloo (2003:44) state that the school principal as an internal change agent is expected to initiate, facilitate and implement change. This must be done by means of determining the outcomes of the proposed change, determining the procedures and methods for implementing change, scrutinizing literature relevant to the proposed change and contacting other school principals who have already had experience of the proposed change (Van Deventer *et al.*, 2003:44).

According to Everard and Morris (as quoted by Van Deventer *et al.*, 2003:45) managers who are effective at managing change possess a distinct mix of knowledge, skills, personal attitudes and values. This mix, the authors (Van Deventer *et al.*, 2003:45) state, demands that:

- school principals know clearly what they want to achieve;

- interpret proposed changes not only from their own viewpoint but also from that of others;
- show irreverence for tradition but respect for experience and insight;
- plan flexibly, matching constancy of ends against a repertoire of available means;
- are not discouraged by setbacks;
- harness circumstances to enable change to be implemented;
- explain change by means of two-way communication and maximum information about possible outcomes; and
- involve their staff in the management of change and make change personally rewarding for people whenever possible (*cf.*4.5.5).

According to Graham-Jolley (2003:109), in the context of curriculum change in South Africa, the role of the principal might be that of a co-ordinator of several innovations required by the new national curriculum. This might include parallel activities such as planning a more integrated school day, developing learning programmes and devising alternative assessment procedures. Each of these initiatives would involve groups of educators working together and evaluating their progress through ongoing critical reflection.

Caldwell (2004:314) comments on the reform in Victoria, Australia, which has occurred since early 1993 under the rubric of Schools of the Future. The author notes that the change in role of the principal has been profound. The traditional role in a highly centralized system that prevailed until the mid 1970s is contrasted with the role that emerged with a parallel increase in decentralized decision-making (Caldwell, 2004:314).

Gurr (as quoted by Caldwell, 2004:326) studied the role of secondary school principals in Victoria's Schools of the Future and identified 17 themes associated with the leadership role of principals. He concluded that leadership which focussed on learning and teaching was important, but less direct than

was practised or advocated in the past, that transformational leadership was evident, marked by a future orientation with cultural and symbolic dimensions and that a capacity for accountability and responsiveness was needed (*Ibid.*).

Davidoff, Kaplan and Lazarus (2002:107) identify the leadership capacity of the principal as being at the heart of a healthy school. Given a broader understanding of the role of the principal, a healthy school, the authors state, is one in which leadership capacity is being developed in all staff members (and other constituencies like parents and learners) through an ongoing personal development process designed to build the capacity of staff members to participate meaningfully in the processes of school life. According to the authors (Davidoff *et al.*, 2002:107) change initiatives at schools are unlikely to succeed without some support and involvement from leadership. More and more, the task of educational leaders is to provide leadership and guidance in terms of organizational support rather than the specifics of classroom dynamics, although the goal of quality teaching and learning remains the central aim of the school.

Virgilio and Virgilio (as quoted by Theron, 2002:198) regard the following skills, personal qualities and characteristics in the principal as necessary to initiate and implement change:

- Sound interpersonal relationships and ease of manner
- A grounding in the ethics and philosophy of change
- An understanding of how groups function
- Familiarity with adult education and with running workshops
- Wide teaching experience, a sound knowledge of educational management and solid general working knowledge of education management and a general knowledge of other disciplines
- Initiative and innovative ideas
- Skills in enhancing communication, trust and self-confidence.

- The ability to generate effective, positive relationships, to give support and to show empathy and sensitivity.
- A willingness to confront people where necessary without generating hostility.
- A sound understanding of how to handle conflict and stress.
- A flexible and adaptable management style.
- The ability to identify his/her own and others' strengths and weaknesses.
- Skills in planning for action and implementation.

According to Tomlinson (2004:210), educators are assets who appreciate in value through the knowledge, skills and experience they acquire during their time at school, through professional development. A key expectation of educators is that principals care about them as individuals. It becomes crucial for principals to create this caring environment in order to retain their services.

In this regard, Beck and Murphy (as quoted by Grady, 2004:24) are of the opinion that principals who are leaders view their schools as communities. They recognize that communities and their occupants flourish in caring, nurturing environments. These principals utilize a caring ethic to guide their decisions, actions and relationships with others.

An important influence on the level of an educator's commitment to a goal of change, Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999:140) contend, is educators' perception of whether they are capable of accomplishing the goal. Those in school leadership roles contribute to such feelings and beliefs to the extent that they provide credible feedback about efforts to accomplish such goals and create opportunities for other respected colleagues to do the same (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:140)

3.4.3 The role of the educator as manager of change

According to James and Connolly (2000:162), thinking about schools and roles within schools, it is obvious that leadership has a special role in that its

purpose is to enable others, both individuals and groupings such as departments and teams, to take up and to enact their roles effectively. The authors (James & Connolly, 2000:162) state further that to carry through a more fundamental change at school, the leaders must bring about change in the way in which others and the school itself view their roles. This fundamental change requires a much deeper shift in individuals, the various sub-systems at the school and the school itself (James & Connolly, 2000:162; *cf.* 4.5.5 & 7.2.4).

Lewin *et al.* (2003:120) outline the role of the educator under the apartheid education policy as a state functionary with limited autonomy. The traditional syllabi, for instance, restricted the educator's role to that of deliverer of the *content* within a prescribed timeframe. The sole requirement of educators was bureaucratic and political compliance with state education. Compliance was ensured through a complex set of instruments, including a system of school-wide and individual educator inspection, and a hierarchy of internal and external controls. The educator was an obedient civil servant who executed the well-defined instructional tasks as per an official syllabus and a *moderated* examination.

Anderson and Bennet (2003:7) draw on the role of the educator as that of someone who engages in the learning process, has expertise and who directly influences the learner through his/her practice. The authors state further that educators are not solitary agents of curriculum delivery, but they are members of teams and of wider systems of more or less collegiality. Overall, Anderson and Bennet (2003:6) reiterate, educators' practices are shaped by their knowledge, attitudes and beliefs.

Levin and Riffel (2004:366) highlight the educational task of educators as that of harmonizing social change and their evolving educational purposes. Their organizational tasks, the author states, are less to make decisions about the future shape of systems and more to create and maintain the conditions that allow a future to emerge.

Spillane (as quoted by Sergiovanni, 2005:47) explains that school improvement literature identifies several functions that are thought essential for instructional leadership, including constructing and selling and instructional vision, building norms of trust and collaboration and academic press supporting educator development and monitoring instruction and innovation.

Leithwood *et al.* (1999:8) state that instructional leadership typically assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviours of educators as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of their learners. Coleman and Earley (2002:14) remark that instructional leadership assumes that the key focus for leaders in education is the learning of their learners, so the influence of leaders would tend to be based in their expert knowledge and intended to improve the effectiveness of educators in the classroom.

Educator leadership, Leithwood *et al.* (1999:116) state, may be formal or informal. Lead educator, master teacher, department head, union representative, member of the SGB, mentor, these are among the formal designations associated with formal leadership roles. The functions educators are expected to carry out, range from representing the school in district-level decision-making, stimulating the professional growth of colleagues, being an advocate of educators' work and improving the school's decision-making processes.

Educators exercise informal leadership at their schools by sharing their expertise, volunteering for new projects and bringing new ideas to the school. They also offer leadership by helping their colleagues to carry out their classroom duties and by assisting the improvement of classroom practice (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:117).

For the purposes of the school, James and Connolly (2000:150) state, leaders must be the leading educators in two senses. Firstly, they have to be the expert in the practice of learning and development at all levels. That is, they need to be proficient in the practice of developing themselves and others (including developing their institutions). Secondly, as leading educators, they

must have expert knowledge about learning and development (James & Connolly, 2000:150).

As leading educators, leaders have to be experts about learning and development and take a leading role in the development of others. In a sense, they have to be the leading 'edge-educators'. They must have authority in their understanding of change, development and learning. Leaders must guide their institution's development, as appropriate to its context, set the direction of its development, and know and understand their short, medium and long term development priorities (James & Connolly, 2000:151).

The Minister of Education has, in terms of section 3(4) (f) and (l) of the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 (27/1996; hereafter Education Policy Act), determined Norms and Standards for Educators as the National Policy. The Norms and Standards describe seven distinct roles and their associated competencies of what it means to be a competent educator:

3.4.3.1 Seven distinct roles of educators

3.4.3.1.1 Learning mediator

The educator will mediate learning in a manner which is sensitive to the diverse needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning; construct learning environments that are appropriately contextualized and inspirational; communicate effectively, showing recognition of and respect for the differences of others.

3.4.3.1.2 Interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials

The educator will understand and interpret provided learning programmes, design original learning programmes, identify the requirements for a specific contest of learning, and select and prepare suitable textual and visual resources for learning. The educator will also select, sequence and pace the

learning in a manner sensitive to the differing needs of the subject /learning area and learners.

3.4.3.1.3 Leader, administrator and manager

The educator will make decisions appropriate to the level, manage learning in the classroom, carry out classroom administrative duties efficiently and participate in school decision-making structures. These competencies will be performed in ways which are democratic, which support learners and colleagues and which demonstrate responsiveness to changing circumstances and needs.

3.4.3.1.4 Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner

The educator will receive ongoing personal, academic and professional growth through pursuing reflective study and research in their learning area in broader professional and educational matters and in other related fields.

3.4.3.1.5 Community, citizenship and pastoral role

The educator will practise and promote a critical, committed and ethical attitude toward developing a sense of respect and responsibility toward others. The educator will uphold the constitution and promote democratic values and practice at schools and in society. Within the school, the educator will demonstrate an ability to develop a supportive and empowering environment for the learner and respond to the educational and other needs of learners and fellow educators.

3.4.3.1.6 Assessor

The educator will understand that assessment is an essential feature of the teaching and learning process and know how to integrate it into this process. The educator will have an understanding of the purposes, methods and effects of assessment and be able to provide helpful feedback to learners.

3.4.3.1.7 Learning area/subject discipline/phase specialist

The educator will be well grounded in the knowledge, skills, values, principles, methods and procedures relevant to the discipline, subject, learning area, phase study or professional or occupational practice. The educator will know about different approaches to teaching and learning and how these may be used in ways which are appropriate to the learners and the context. The educator will have a well-developed understanding of the knowledge appropriate to the specialism (*cf.* 7.2.4).

It follows from the above that the educator has a duty to implement change in as far as it impacts on, among other things, new learning programmes and assessment strategies.

According to Burton and Brundrett (2005:4-5), the process of educating is akin to the management of change in the sense that it also reflects an assessment of the current situation, the identification and dissemination of targets, the selection of appropriate strategies and monitoring and evaluation. The authors indicate further that the deeper, empathetic abilities of educators which enable them to gain insight into the specific needs and strengths of individual learners should be appreciated as a major asset.

3.4.3.2 A legal perspective on the role of educators and principals

According to Joubert and Prinsloo (2001:75), every educator occupies different legal roles at different times. Educators claim certain fundamental rights as ordinary citizens of the country, they have certain rights and obligations linked to their profession and, depending on the position they hold, as an employee of the South African education system, their actions are governed by national legislation pertaining to educators. The following national legislation regulates the legal status of educators:

- Employment of Educators Act (76/1998), especially Section 4 which deals with the terms and conditions of service for educators. In terms of Section 4 of the Act, the terms and conditions of employment of educators was

determined by the Department of Education and published in the Government Gazette of 18 February 1999.

- Labour Relations Act (66/1995)
- South African Schools Act (84/1996) – specifically Section 16: Governance and professional management of public schools, Section 23: Membership of governing bodies of ordinary public schools
- Occupational Health and Safety Act (85/1993) (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:75).

The definition of an educator bound by the Employment Act (76/1998) outlines an educator as any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and education psychological services, at any public school, further education and training institution, departmental office or adult basic education centre and who is appointed in a post or any educator establishment under this Act.

Rossouw (2004:32) provides an outline of the core duties and responsibilities of the educator's job according to the Employment Act (76/1998; *cf.* 7.2.4):

- The maintenance of authority and the exercising of discipline. To be able to maintain authority, it is necessary to apply disciplinary measures in the right way. The immature learner is placed under the authority of the educator as adult to ensure the creation of and maintenance of security and a secure environment.
- Liability for learner safety. The *in loco parentis* function of every educator is determined by common law, leading to the concept of 'duty of care'.
- Professional conduct of educators. In compliance with Section 29 of the Constitution, one of the primary duties of all educators is to protect learners' right to education.

Joubert and Prinsloo (2001:85) state that the duties of the educator involve upholding the learners' constitutional right to education, safeguarding the learners' well-being and safety, consulting regularly with learners' parents, teaching learners the prescribed academic work, guiding them in developing their full potential and maintaining discipline at school.

Joubert and Prinsloo (2001:81) state that the legal status of the principal gives him/her the authority to ensure that general education policy and the particular policy of the school are effectively implemented. Because principals represent educational authority at school, they have the legal status to assign specific tasks and responsibilities to competent staff members. School principals always remain the figures of authority who have to accept accountability for the actions of their staff, even though the task may have been delegated to a staff member (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:81).

The formal legal status of educators depends on their training, ability and professional attitude. Professional attitude comprises capability, ability, a thorough knowledge of his/her subject and teaching competence. Educators enter into a contract of employment which contains specific responsibilities with regard to the well-being of learners placed in their care. The authority of educators is limited to the tasks and duties assigned to them (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:83).

The Employment Act (76/1998) highlights the role of the educator and the principal as follows:

Table 3.1: Roles of principals and educators

Core duties and responsibilities of a principal	Core duties and responsibilities of an educator
General/administrative • To be responsible for the professional management of a public school • Maintaining school accounts • Giving proper instructions and guidelines for timetabling, admission and learner placement • Ensuring proper use and maintenance of school equipment and grounds • Handling all correspondence	**General/administrative** • Co-ordinate and control all the academic activities of each subject taught • Control and co-ordinate stock and equipment • Perform and assist with non-teaching duties such as first-aid, timetabling, accidents
Extra-curricular • To serve on recruitment, promotion, advisory and other committees as required • To play an active role in promoting extra-curricular activities in the school and to plan major functions and encourage learner participation in sports, educational and cultural activities organized by community bodies.	**Extra-curricular** • To assist the HOD to identify aspects which require special attention and to assist in addressing them • To cater for the educational and general welfare of all learners in his care • To assist the principal in overseeing learner counselling and guidance, careers, discipline and general welfare of all learners • To share in the responsibilities of organizing and conducting extra- and co-curricular activities

Teaching	Teaching
• To engage in class teaching as per workload of the relevant post level and the needs of the school. • To be a class teacher if required • To assess and record the attainment of learners taught	• To engage in class teaching, fostering purposeful progression in learning • To prepare lessons, plan, co-ordinate, control evaluate and report on learner progress • To take on a leadership role in respect of the subject • To establish a classroom environment which stimulates positive learning and actively engages learners in the learning process

(Adapted from the Employment Act, 76/1998)

According to Patton (2005:24), an approach which emphasizes an active learner necessitates a new role for learners. Contrary to an information–loaded instructional approach, it is vital that all aspects of the learning process are designed for each individual learner. As such, the author states, the integration of educator role, curriculum, and learning and teaching approaches, needs to be centred on developing active learners, learners who are prepared for a future wherein lifelong leaning is a core competency. The change of focus from teaching to learning, and from education to the learner necessitates more appropriate terms being used to describe the role.

Fullan and Miles (2002:81) reiterate that educators still need to focus on school-wide change to create the working conditions that will be most effective in helping all learners learn. Educators must look for opportunities to join forces with others and must realize that they are part of a large movement to develop a learning society through their work with learners and parents. It is possible, the authors state, for educators to act locally, while conceptualizing their roles on a higher plane.

Reflecting on the roles of educators in the face of change, Fullan (as quoted by Tomlinson, 2004:211) reflects on what he terms change forces:

- Educators of the future will make their commitment to moral purpose more prominent, more active, and more visible.
- Educators must substantially deepen their knowledge of pedagogy.
- Educators must be cognizant of the links between the moral purpose of the school level and larger issues of educational policy and societal development.
- Educators must work in highly collaborative ways.
- Educators will work in new structures.
- Educators must develop the habits and skills of continuous inquiry and learning.
- Educators must immerse themselves in the mysteries, the highs and lows of the dynamic complexity of the change process – how conflict is inevitable, how vision comes later, how individualism and collectivism co-exist in dynamic tension, how arbitrary disturbances in the environment are par for the course, how you never arrive, and how sometimes things get worse, despite your best efforts.

Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:119) site Mbigi who claims that an educator's management role is as complex as that of a business manager. He seems to suggest that the work of educators has always required advanced management skills, which calls for (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:119):

- people management, so that educators can manage learners, organize their classrooms effectively and participate in new decision-making structures at schools; and
- knowledge management, so that educators can access, select and organize the information they need to teach learners.

Leaders, Davis (2003:195) states, play an important role in creating the environments within which they lead. They reflect on the characteristics of

positive work environments and they ponder human motivation. They are aware of basic workplace laws and they go beyond minimum compliance to establish work settings that are fair and that celebrate diversity. They support leadership development and look for ways to promote organizational learning.

3.4.4 The role of the SGB in managing school change

As opposed to the idea of adversarial thinking, school managers operate in a climate of ambiguity and paradox, where simple prescriptions do not work. These ambiguities and paradoxes show up in many aspects of the manager's work. They need to have a right balance between the needs of the people and the needs of the task, but external pressures for results have produced feelings of conflict within their roles (Raynor, 2004:27).

Creese and Earley (1999:11) state that effective SGBs are also efficient, that is, they are organized in such a way as to enable school leaders to devote adequate time to the major educational issues at their schools. Research conducted by Baginsky, Creese, Earley, Bullock and Thomas (as quoted by Creese & Earley, 1999:12) suggest that the attitude of the principal is a crucial factor in determining SGB effectiveness and potential principals need further assistance to appreciate the value that an effective SGB could add to their school (*cf.*7.2.4).

According to Grobler *et al.* (2003:30), SGBs are now legally responsible for the management of the school. This means that such bodies have greater decision-making power with regard to the day-to-day administration and management of the school, financial management and funding, staff management, and management of services, buildings and facilities.

Earley (2004:241) mentions that SGBs have a leadership role and it is largely expressed in the key roles which he identifies as providing a sense of direction for the work of the school (strategic role); supporting the work of the school (acting as a critical friend); and holding the school accountable for the standards and quality of education it achieves (the monitoring and accountability role).

According to chapter 3 of the Schools Act (84/1996), the governance of every public school is vested in its SGB. Subject to this Act, an SGB may apply to the Head of Department in writing to be allocated any of the following functions:

- to maintain and improve the school's property, buildings and grounds occupied by the school, including hostels, if applicable;
- to determine the extra mural curriculum of the school and the choice of subject options in terms of provincial curriculum policy;
- to purchase textbooks, the educational materials or equipment for the school;
- to pay for services to the school;
- to provide an Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) class or centre subject to any applicable law; or
- other functions consistent with this Act and any applicable provincial law.

Creese and Earley (1999:21) have identified five aspects that make SGBs effective in good teamwork, an effective committee structure, the expertise of the principal and his/her attitude toward the SGB, a sound relationship with the staff and a strong commitment to the school.

3.5 LEADING CHANGE EFFECTIVELY IN EDUCATION

According to Gronn (2003:7-8), many reformers identify the key ingredient in the success of restructured schools as the leadership of principals whom they define as leaders rather than managers. Their assumption, the author states, is that leadership, rather than management, is the vehicle for structural change, and that principal leadership drives change.

Loughridge and Tarantino (2005:19) state that the key to being an effective instructional leader is the ability to articulate a clear vision for school improvement. Moreover, it is important that each stakeholder envision his/her role in achieving the school vision. According to Foreman (as quoted by

Coleman *et al.*, 2003:157) contemporary orthodoxy demands that leaders possess personal visions of a brighter future for themselves and their organizations, and the ability to communicate and demonstrate them with vigour, persuasiveness and conviction. Vision, the authors state, is the distinguishing feature of the leadership role.

Blum and Butler (as quoted by Coleman *et al.*, 2003:158) define vision as a desirable future state of the organization. It relates to the intended purpose of the school, expressed in terms of values and clarifying the direction to be taken by the institution. It is closely identified with school improvement. In order to lead effective school change at secondary schools, the principal must provide opportunities for the school leadership, as well as the staff.

3.5.1 Key principles concerning change

Fullan (as quoted by Loughridge & Tarantino, 2005:22) has identified key principles to change that every administrator should know and consider as part of the planning process and incorporated and reviewed often during the implementation of change (Fullan, as quoted by Loughridge & Tarantino, 2005:22):

- Change is a process, not a blueprint. Too often in education, some type of innovation is introduced without considering what needs to happen within the organization to implement it effectively.

- Change takes time. Research indicates it takes from 3-5 years for change to become institutionalized. It is important to recognize the time commitment and build it into the planning process.

- Change is personal and different for each individual based upon his/her own experiences, beliefs and values. Each individual must establish his/her own meaning of the innovation. It will be necessary to include a wide range of risk-free opportunities within the process for this to occur.

- The change that actually occurs will not look like the one you may have originally envisioned. Any change initiative tends to *morph* into something

unique to your own organization, based upon the beliefs, values and experiences of those going through the process.

- Conflict and disagreements are inevitable. They are also essential to the change process as different perspectives are considered.

- Things often get worse before they get better. Fullan points to the *Implementation Dip*, during which anticipated results often go down before they start to go back up when an innovation is introduced, requiring new skills and knowledge.

- Do not expect all (or even most of) the people or groups to change at the beginning of the process.

- No amount of frontloading knowledge or information will ever result in a clear path of action to be taken.

- People need pressure to change, even in directions they support. Principals should articulate and demonstrate a clear expectation that stakeholders fully participate in the process. The key is to take steps that allow people to move through the process at their own rate, react, form their own positions, interact with others, receive technical assistance and so forth.

- Do not try to institute too many changes/innovations at one time. This results in overload, dissonance and general burnout.

Cuban (as quoted by Fullan & Stiegebauer, 1991:29) states that innovations can be categorized into first and second order changes. First-order changes are those that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently done, without disturbing the basic organizational feature, without substantially altering the way that children and adults perform their roles. Second-order changes seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organizations are put together, including new goals, structures and roles such as collaborative work cultures).

Fullan (1999:15) indicates that learning takes place in collaborative cultures and that the secret to success of living companies, complex adaptive systems, learning communities or whatever terms we wish to use, is that they consist of this intricate, embedded interaction inside and outside the organization which converts tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge on an ongoing basis.

On the idea and knowledge side, schools should seek to have access to new ideas. Bryk *et al.* (as quoted by Fullan, 1999:46) reiterate that for schools to restructure and reform, a process of organizational learning must occur. New ideas must enter the school about core matters such as curriculum, instruction, and school organization. In most general terms, the restructuring school is open to its external environment, actively seeking out and trying new ideas about how it might work differently.

In this regard, Davis (2003:195) deems positive working environments as displaying the characteristics of learning organizations. Leaders explore ways to create information-rich environments where people are conscious of the importance of knowledge to their work, where they are encouraged to experiment and learn from mistakes, and where they are brought together regularly to share knowledge that will improve the efficiency and effectiveness of administration.

3.5.2 Lessons to guide thinking and action during change

Fullan (1999:18) proposes eight lessons to present a much deeper and more coherent basis for understanding and acting in complex change situations:

Table 3.2: Lessons to guide thinking and action during change

Lesson 1: Moral purpose is complex and problematic: the more complex the change, the less you can force it.
Lesson 2: Theories of change and of education need each other: notably, what pedagogical assumptions and associated components are essential to the change model and what strategies are formed to guide and support implementation.

Lesson 3: Conflict and diversity are our friends: 'collaborative' diversity' means conflict, but if conflict is respected, it is positively associated with creative breakthroughs.
Lesson 4: Understanding the meaning of operating on the edge of chaos: means getting used to a degree of uncertainty.
Lesson 5: EI is anxiety-provoking and anxiety-containing: complexity creates change, change means facing the unknown and this means anxiety. Emotionally intelligent people handle anxiety better.
Lesson 6: Collaborative cultures are anxiety-provoking and anxiety-containing: for collaboration to be effective it must foster a degree of difference and this causes anxiety. The leadership challenge is to develop and support people's capacity for 'tackling an ongoing stream of hard problems'.
Lesson 7: Attack Incoherence: Connectedness and knowledge creation are critical: principals should be integrators and synthesizers and attack incoherence caused by change, and focus on continuity from one programme to another.
Lesson 8: There is no single solution: Craft your own theories and actions by being a critical consumer: because of the intricacy of the change model, it cannot be captured in any single model.

(Fullan, 1999:18)

The new lessons are theoretically and empirically based and are mutually independent. The purpose of each lesson is in not to provide a recipe for change, but to guide thinking and action. The meaning of each lesson is derived from its interrelationship with the others and the particular context in which change is envisaged (Graham-Jolley, 2003:107).

A discussion on each lesson follows below.

3.5.2.1 Lesson 1: Moral purpose is complex and problematic

According to Graham-Jolley (2003:107), the moral purpose of curriculum transformation in South Africa is located within a broader political commitment

to democracy and equity. This includes the urgent need to address issues of gender and race at schools. The particular values underpinning the new national curriculum, which are intended to foster these goals and to enhance learning, are located in the *Principles Informing Curriculum Development Process* and the *Principles Informing Curriculum Design* within the Curriculum Framework for General and Further Education and Training (National Department of Education, 1996). Fullan (1999:19) states that moral purpose is complex because it involves altering the power structure. While change cannot be achieved in a top-down manner, there is at the same time a need for *pressure* in the form of *mandates* which legitimate local reform.

3.5.2.2 Lesson 2: Theories of education and theories of change need each other

Fullan argues that strategies for change which articulate both the assumptions made about teaching and learning (theories of education) and the strategies adopted for guiding and supporting change are likely to be successful.

3.5.2.3 Lesson 3: Conflict and diversity are our friends

In South Africa the amalgamation of education departments formerly separated by race and the introduction of a new national curriculum, with its wide-ranging implications for teachers and communities, have created an enormous potential for conflict. Fullan (1999:22) argues that reaching consensus and avoiding or smoothing over disagreement is more desirable when seeking to bring about curriculum change. Conflict which arises out of collaborative diversity based on ethnic, cultural and gender differences can also bring benefits. The reason why change is a complex phenomenon is that to be effective, relationships have to be formed with people one might not understand and might not like.

3.5.2.4 Lesson 4: Understand the meaning of operating on the edge of chaos

Graham-Jolley (2003:109) states that this lesson teaches that change should not be managed by excessive rules, rigid structures and formal channels of

communication. Instead, the management practices for navigating the edge of chaos involve the following (Graham-Jolley, 2003:109)

- Foster a culture of frequent change of a few strict rules
- Keep most activities loosely structured but rely on critical structure points of priorities, targeted measures, real deadlines and responsibilities for major outcomes
- Create channels for real-time, fact –based communication within and across groups.

3.5.2.5 Lesson 5: EI is anxiety-provoking and anxiety-containing

Change and anxiety are inextricably linked. According to Fullan (1999:25), facing change means facing the unknown and this inevitably leads to anxiety. Educators in the South African context are no strangers to change, especially with the first introduction to outcomes-based teaching and learning. This was dealt with differently by most: some have adopted a fatalistic approach, others wish it away and some reject it without providing an argument which would justify such a position. Fullan (as quoted by Graham-Jolley, 2003:110) states that emotionally intelligent people acknowledge their anxiety, seek support form and give help to others, persist in the face of challenges and identify with and are sustained by a higher goal (moral purpose).

3.5.2.6 Lesson 6: Collaborative cultures are anxiety-provoking and anxiety-containing

According to Graham-Jolley (2003:110), making curriculum decisions collaboratively, working collaboratively and reflecting critically in a collaborative way are crucial to affecting curriculum change at schools. Educators are exposed to conflicts and tensions in the education system which also incorporates anxiety containing supportive relationships. Fullan (as quoted by Graham-Jolley, 2003:110) stresses the value of collaborative cultures as they provide support, but also because they recognise the value of dissonance inside and outside the organization.

Graham-Jolley (2003:110) states that central to managing curriculum change at South African schools, it is important to take into account the extent to which the fragmentation of the teaching profession has mitigated against the development of such collaborative cultures This has resulted in educators being massively under-prepared to face the challenges of transformation.

3.5.2.7 Lesson 7: Attack incoherence - connectedness and knowledge creation are critical

Fullan's message (as quoted by Graham-Jolley, 2003:111) is that overcoming fragmentation and incoherence is crucial to the task of knowledge creation (innovation). He points out that neither top-down nor bottom-up strategies by themselves can achieve coherence. This leads him to the importance of the role played by principals who can, as managers, intercede and assist their staff *to attack incoherence*.

3.5.2.8 Lesson 8: There is no single solution - craft your own theories and actions by being a critical consumer

Fullan (as quoted by Graham-Jolley, 2003:111) devotes his final lesson to a re-affirmation of the importance of context and a rejection of earlier technical thinking about which gave rise to the notion of *models of change*. According to Fullan (1999:28), the previous seven lessons in combination make it clear that there can be no silver bullet for change. The change process, the author states, is too intricate and organic, differs from organization to organization and therefore difficult to be captured in any single model. Ultimately, lesson 8 says that no-one can solve an organization's change problems but himself/herself.

Van Deventer *et al.* (2003:44) suggest that the principal as internal change agent is expected to initiate, facilitate and implement change by determining the outcomes of the proposed change, determining the procedures and methods for implementing change and contacting other school principals who have already had experience of the proposed change.

3.5.3 The paradox of school change

Hargreaves (as quoted by Levin & Riffel, 2004:356) cites seven key areas of change, all of which affect the needs of students and the situation of schools, namely the flexible economy, globalization, the decline of certainty and knowledge, the need for organizations that are less rigidly structured, changes in people's sense of self and the increasing pressure on individuals to define and create themselves.

Amidst these changes, schools have been criticized as not dealing with the realities of modern life for young people, not instilling firmer discipline and failing to keep pace with social change, and school systems are described as still organized largely on the nineteenth century lines which characterized their beginnings (Levin & Riffel, 2004:357)

Slavin (as quoted by Levin & Riffel, 2004:358) states that others accuse schools of changing too much and too frequently; of being prey to every fad or bandwagon that comes along. According to these critics, new tasks are assigned, new curricula developed; new methods of teaching proposed and new organization forms introduced too often (Slavin, as quoted by Levin & Riffel, 2004:358).

3.5.3.1 Leading the strategic planning process and change

Creese and Earley (1999:13) posit that those managing the change process need to be clear about the nature of the desired outcomes and to be convinced that these will be considerably better than the result of doing nothing and continuing with the *status quo*. They need a clear and accurate picture of the current situation, together with a clear vision of the desired endpoint, and should also consider what will have been learned by themselves and their colleagues as a result of a successful innovation.

According to Haynes (2004:116), all managers have to have a good command of the wider issues affecting their service, in terms of general demographic, social and economic indictors. This, the author states, will enable them to develop strategies that make the most of identified opportunities and to

minimize the threats to the organization. Strategic management is about reconciling external and internal change, with the emphasis on the external environment as a driver, but with an interest in the interaction and feedback between these two parts of the system (Haynes, 2004:116).

Fidler (2004:257) argues that strategic management at school level will be crucial and will require new ways of thinking and acting. Strategic management is important because it is the key to all other management processes. It is the blueprint which informs other decisions on marketing or public relations, staffing and resourcing. Strategic management is concerned with deciding on strategy and planning how to implement it. It consists of analysis, decision-making, implementation and evaluation. Strategic decisions are concerned with the whole scope of the school's activities, the school's long term direction and matching of the school's activities to the environment (Fidler, 2004:258)

Ferron and Stanton (2004:28) posit that strategic planning is fundamentally about leading a significant collaborative change effort. The authors quote Cope who states that if strategic planning works well, it is a collegial process for the design of an imaginable future - one harmonizing diverse activities while providing a good fit between opportunities and strengths.

Leading this collegial effort requires skill in managing the emotional and creative aspects of the process so that participants with diverse perspectives can be productively engaged in what is a practical and rational process (Ferron & Stanton, 2004:28).

Fidler (2004:12) considers the strategic plan as valuable for dealing with unexpected opportunities and threats, identifying assumptions on which it is based and monitoring it for any changes, recognising priorities, synchronizing and co-ordinating efforts to produce a greater effect and engendering a sense of purpose for all staff.

For Fidler (2004:269) the most potent elements in implementing any strategic change are people and systems. The systems make sure that the things

people are doing are co-ordinated and reinforce each other in the direction that the strategy required and other actions are discouraged.

3.5.3.2 Strengthening interpersonal relationships to effect change

According to Fidler (2004:268), the structure of the school, the relationship of people and tasks are intended to facilitate the work of the school.

Cycles of trust and quality relationships form a supportive base within the school for social learning and form a sound background to enable effective self-organization to take place (Raynor, 2004:132).

In the management of change, Haynes (2004:69) calls for a reconciliation of personal, interpersonal and organizational conflicts and indicates that a personal contextual approach is required to effect this. According to Plesk and Wilson (as quoted by Haynes, 2004:69), those seeking change and organization should harness the natural creativity and organizing ability of its staff and stakeholders through such principles as generative relationships, minimum specifications, the positive effectors of change and a constructive approach to variation in areas of practice where there are only moderate certainty and agreement (*cf.* 8.4.8).

3.5.3.3 Sustaining change

Van Deventer *et al.* (2003:44) see the school principal as an internal change agent who is expected to initiate, facilitate and implement change by means of determining the outcomes of the proposed change, determining the procedures and methods for implementing change, scrutinizing literature relevant to the proposed change and contacting other school principals who have already had experience of the proposed change.

To sustain the process of change it has to be successfully managed (*cf.* 4.7 & 7.2.4).

Everard, Morris, Reitzburg and Burrello (as quoted by Van Deventer *et al.*, 2003:45) posit that managers who are good at managing change possess a distinct mix of knowledge, skills, personal attitudes and values. This mix

demands that school principals (Everard *et al.*, as quoted by Van Deventer *et al.*, 2003:45):

- know clearly that they want to achieve;
- interpret proposed changes not only from their own viewpoint, but also from that of others;
- show irreverence for tradition but respect for experience and insight
- plan flexibly, matching constancy of ends against a repertoire of available means;
- are not discouraged by setbacks;
- harness circumstances to enable change to be implemented;
- explain change by means of two-way communication and maximum information about possible outcomes;
- involve their staff in the management of change and protect their security;
- do not pile one change on top of the other, but await assimilation;
- present change as personally rewarding for people, wherever possible;
- show that change is related to survival and developmental excellence;
- set and demand high standards of excellence; and
- have a history of successful change behind them.

3.6 CHANGE, LEADERSHIP AND EI

According to Evans (2001:21), if change is to be strictly defined, it simply denotes a difference in the state or quality of something. It is perceived as something positive, notably in social change, of which school reform is an example. It is phrased primarily in terms of growth and renewal.

In helping learners learn and grow, the educator experiences different emotions during this process of change. In this regard, Barrett and Salovey (2002:60) state that feelings seldom occur in a vacuum. The emotions people feel almost always occur in the presence of a myriad of stimuli that arouse and shape them.

For Mayer and Salovey (as quoted by Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2004:33) EI involves both the capacity to reason about emotions and to use emotions to assist reasoning. It includes the ability to identify emotions accurately in ourselves and in others, understand emotions and emotional language, manage emotions in ourselves and in other people, and use emotions to facilitate cognitive activities and motivate adaptive behaviour (Mayer & Salovey, as quoted by Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2004:33).

3.6.1 Managing complex educational change

The process of change is inevitable in the school as organization, thus making the task of the educational leader more complex. Loock *et al.* (2003:49) contend that new leadership requires that principals become involved as learners in real reform situations, craft their own theories of change, while consistently testing them against new situations. The author states further that leaders need to attend to their emotional health and assist educators, parents and learners to create an environment of support in which people see problems as issues to be solved.

Haynes (2004:69) states that complexity implies that managers and professionals need the openness to challenge events and the ability to reflect on difficult questions. The author sites Plesk and Wilson who comment that leadership inspired by complexity theory recognizes that change occurs naturally within the system and individuals engage in this effort for a variety of reasons. Complexity theory puts great emphasis on understanding the tensions in an organization and their possible causes (Haynes, 2004:69).

3.6.1.1 Themes typical of successful change

Fullan and Miles (2002:78) identify basic themes derived from current knowledge of successful change that form a set and must be contemplated in relation to one another. The authors say flatly that reform will not be achieved until these orientations have been incorporated into the thinking and reflected into the actions of those involved in change efforts. What follows is a brief outline of these themes.

3.6.1.1.1 The more complex the change, the less you can force it

What really matters in the accomplishment of important educational goals and complex goals of change are skills, creative thinking and committed action. Things that can be effectively mandated are things that (a) do not require thinking or skill in order to implement them; and (b) can be monitored through close and constant surveillance. Almost all educational changes of value require new skills, behaviour and beliefs or understanding. A cardinal rule of change in the human condition is that you cannot make people change and they cannot be forced to think differently or be compelled to develop new skills (Fullan & Miles, 2002:78).

3.6.1.1.2 Change is a journey, not a blueprint

Schools are in the business of implementing a bewildering array of multiple innovations and policies simultaneously. Moreover, according to Fullan and Miles (2002:78), restructuring reforms are so multifaceted and complex that solutions for particular settings cannot be known in advance. Even well-developed innovations represent journeys for those encountering them for the first time. Other more complex reforms represent even greater uncertainty because more is being attempted, but above all because the solution is not known in advance.

3.6.1.1.3 Problems are our friends

According to Fullan and Miles (2002:78), it is only through immersing ourselves in problems that we can come up with creative solutions. Problems

are the roots to deeper change and deeper satisfaction. In this sense, effective organizations *embrace problems*, rather than avoid them. Success in school change efforts is much more likely when problems are treated as natural, expected phenomena and are looked for.

3.6.1.1.4 Vision and strategic planning come later

Visions are necessary for success, but few concepts are as misunderstood and misapplied in the change process. Visions come later for two reasons. Firstly, under conditions of dynamic complexity, one needs a good deal of reflective experience before one can hope for a plausible vision. Vision emerges from, more than it precedes action. Secondly, shared vision, which is essential for success, must evolve through the dynamic interaction of organizational members and leaders (Fullan & Miles, 2002:78).

3.6.1.1.5 Change is too important to leave to the experts

The authors identify two basic reasons why every person working in an organization committed to change must be a change agent with moral purpose. Fullan and Miles (2002:78) state firstly that, since no one person can possibly understand the complexities of change in dynamically complex systems, it follows that responsibility cannot be left to others. Secondly, and more fundamentally, the conditions for the new paradigm of change cannot be established by formal leaders working by themselves. Each individual educator has the responsibility to help create an organization capable of individual and collective enquiry and continuous renewal.

3.6.1.1.6 Change is learning and loaded with uncertainty

Change is a process of coming to grips with new personal meaning, and so it is a learning process. An important proposition for success then is to understand that all change involves learning and that all learning involves the coming to understand and to be good at something new. Thus, conditions that support learning must be part of any change effort (Fullan & Miles, 2002:78).

3.6.1.2 Characteristics of change at schools

Change at schools, Creese and Earley (1999:12) state, may involve the introduction of new teaching material – a new curriculum, new ways of teaching – that is, different ways of presenting the material, and it may require educators to change their fundamental ideas about the processes of learning and teaching.

Those who initiate change have to maintain their pressure to change and become embedded in the school's culture. However, if it is to be successful, the change must be *owned* at least partly, by all of those involved and this implies that the originator(s) must be prepared to share their power and allow others to take responsibility (Creese & Earley, 1999:13).

Wallace and Pocklington (2002:37-42) state that to understand school change as a complex phenomenon, it is necessary to identify the five essential characteristics of this complexity:

- Firstly, complex educational change is typically large-sale, impinging on the lives of many people. A multitude of stakeholders with an extensive range of specialist knowledge and priorities will probably be involved or affected, by design.

- Secondly, Wallace and Pocklington (2002:37) state, complex educational change is componential, an entity made up of interrelated and differentiated parts which vary over time. The content of the change is likely to consist of a diversity of sequential and overlapping components affecting different stakeholders at particular times. A variety of components, perhaps coupled with their cumulative impact over time, will dictate that a multiplicity of differentiated but interrelated management tasks must be addressed.

- Thirdly, complex educational change tends to be systemic, taking place across two or more administrative levels of a large education system which both shapes and constrains the ways in which stakeholders interact (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:37).

- Fourthly, complex educational change is differentially impacting on people involved or affected, contributing to the diversity of management tasks. According to (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:37) there will be a variable shift in practice and learning required of different individuals and groups according to the novelty of whatever they do. The change will have a variable reciprocal effect on other ongoing activities. Complex educational change is intrinsically contextually dependent, facilitated and constrained by many aspects of the wider political and historical milieu with which it interacts. The change will interact with an evolving profile of other planned and unplanned change (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:42).

- Fifthly, complex educational change is intrinsically contextually dependent, facilitated and constrained by many aspects of the wider political and historical milieu with which it interacts. The impact of the accretion of past changes affecting resource parameters for the change, may be facilitative or inhibitory (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:43).

The authors (Wallace & pocklington, 2004:43) conclude their discussion stating that the potential capacity to manage complex change is likely to be inherently restricted because there are so many factors impacting change beyond any individual's understanding and control. Yet, while a degree of ambiguity and unpredictability may be endemic, it must still be feasible to maximise a school's capacity for change, where possible (Wallace & Pocklington, 2002:43).

3.6.1.3 Leadership and attitudes to change

Cleveland (as quoted by Tomlinson, 2004:127) explores leadership as a profession with eight attitudes indispensable to the management of complexity:

- A lively intellectual curiosity – everything is related to everything else.

- A genuine interest in what other people think – and why they think in that way – which means you have to be at peace with yourself.

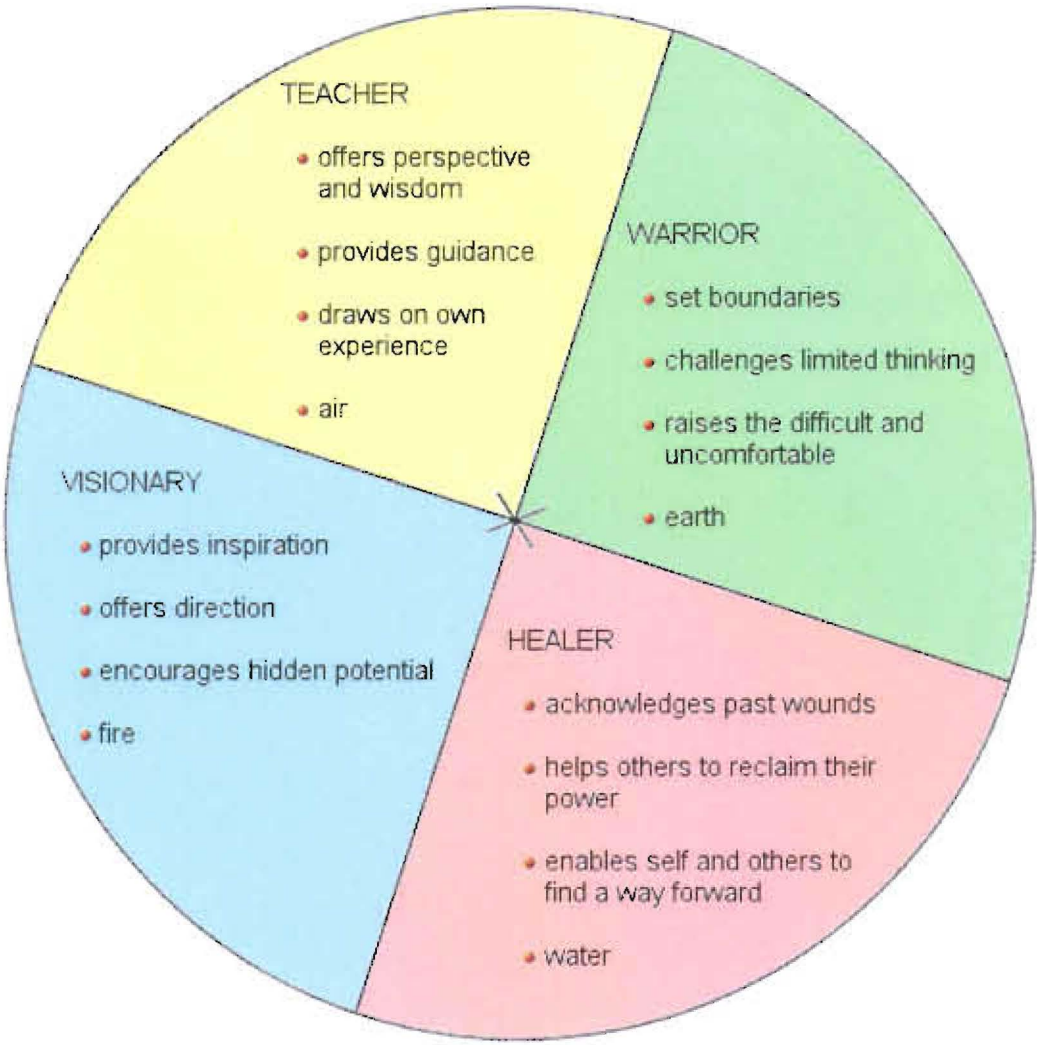
- A feeling of special responsibility for envisioning a future – different from a straight line projection of the present.
- A hunch that most risks are there - not to be avoided, but taken.
- A mindset that crises are normal and self-pity is reserved for those who do not want to be leaders.
- A sense of personal responsibility for general outcomes of your effort.
- A quality named *unwarranted optimism*, some more upbeat outcome from adding up expert advice.

Sterling and Davidoff (2000:32) offers a leadership wheel (*cf.* Figure 3.1) which offers a way of expressing the tension between a range of ways of leading. The wheel focuses on four major roles which the leader can draw on: the healer, the warrior, the educator and the visionary. These are discussed briefly below.

Each of these four roles carries within it the opposites or dualities of leadership. Within the role of the warrior, for example, one will sometimes be directive and sometimes non-directive. Within the role of the educator, one will sometimes need to offer guidance or wisdom, while at other times one will encourage others to take responsibility for uncovering their own wisdom.

The leadership wheel encourages development of the soft aspects of each role, thus facilitating the development of holistic leaders. The leadership wheel is depicted in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: The leadership wheel



(Sterling & Davidoff, 2000:32)

According to Wallace and Pocklington (2002:212), a popular image dictates that leaders make things happen- their agency appears boundless. Effective leaders are seen to be those who have sufficient agency to come up with the big ideas, make their ethical decisions to set the direction for the organization. However, the authors suggest that the converse may equally hold that morally upstanding leadership is not enough. There is much more which is essential to managing complex change than simply proclaiming a general direction and garnering support for it. Sophisticated and differentiated management activity is required to ensure that complex change gets further than a vision.

3.6.1.4 Characteristics of the changing leader

Leithwood *et al*. (1999:3) are of the opinion that the concept of leadership has not been clearly defined over the centuries. If anything, the definition is arbitrary and subjective, some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no *correct* definition.

Sterling and Davidoff (2000:27) state that old notions about leadership drawn from military, colonial and imperial environments are giving way to more democratic and holistic ideas. This new approach implies the following about leadership:

- Effective leaders draw on a wide repertoire of skills to lead appropriately in different situations.
- Effective leaders work together with others to achieve the organisation's dreams and hopes.
- Effective leaders are willing to make mistakes and learn from them
- Effective leaders are adaptable. They are not afraid to change their minds. They can drop ideas, attitudes and roles which prove to be mistaken or push forward at other times.
- Effective leaders reveal their humanness, their doubts and vulnerabilities. They are able to be themselves (real, honest).

Effective leaders affirm and develop the leadership and potential in others (Sterling & Davidoff, 2000:27).

The authors (Sterling & Davidoff, 2000:27) further identify core qualities that are most often associated with leadership: accountability, discipline, flexibility, courage, humility, integrity, tolerance, inner strength, confidence, assertiveness, sensitivity, gentleness, perseverance, compassion, consistency, decisiveness, enthusiasm, honesty, empathy, dedication, loyalty, transparency, staying power, dependability and fairness (Sterling & Davidoff, 2000:22).

According to Raynor (2004:168), the changing face of educational leadership means that principals need greater intellectual ability for management than in the past. The cognitive abilities, ranging as they do, over the kind of rationality needed for financial planning and management to the abstract thinking associated with philosophy, to the wisdom and pragmatism needed for working with people, are unlikely to be simply those measured by intelligence quotients.

Gardener (as quoted by Moss, 2005:45) lists fourteen characteristics of leaders, including ability to motivate, confidence, assertiveness, flexibility and physical stamina, but goes on to say that the required attributes depend on the leader's style, the demands of the situation and the nature of the followers. These characteristics tie in with Sterling and Davidoff's view (2000) that leaders need to draw on these skills to lead appropriately in different situations, always considering the individual.

Reflecting on the change concerning the image of the United States' principal between 1900 and the 1990s, Beck and Murphy (as quoted by Earley & Weindling, 2004:84-85) site a historical approach. They found that in the 1900s principals were seen as educators with administrative responsibilities and as the guardians of accepted values. By the 1920s the dominant view was of the principal as scientific manager, but there were also numerous references to spiritual and religious value images. These disappeared in the 1930s and the stress was on principals as business managers and school executives.

For the 1940s and 1950s principals were leaders of democratic schools while in the 1960s principals were asked to use proven strategies to promote excellence. The 1970s principal should lead the way to promote the development of a stable economy. The early 1990s were part of the second wave of educational reform – the restructuring movement (Earley & Weindling, 2004:84-85).

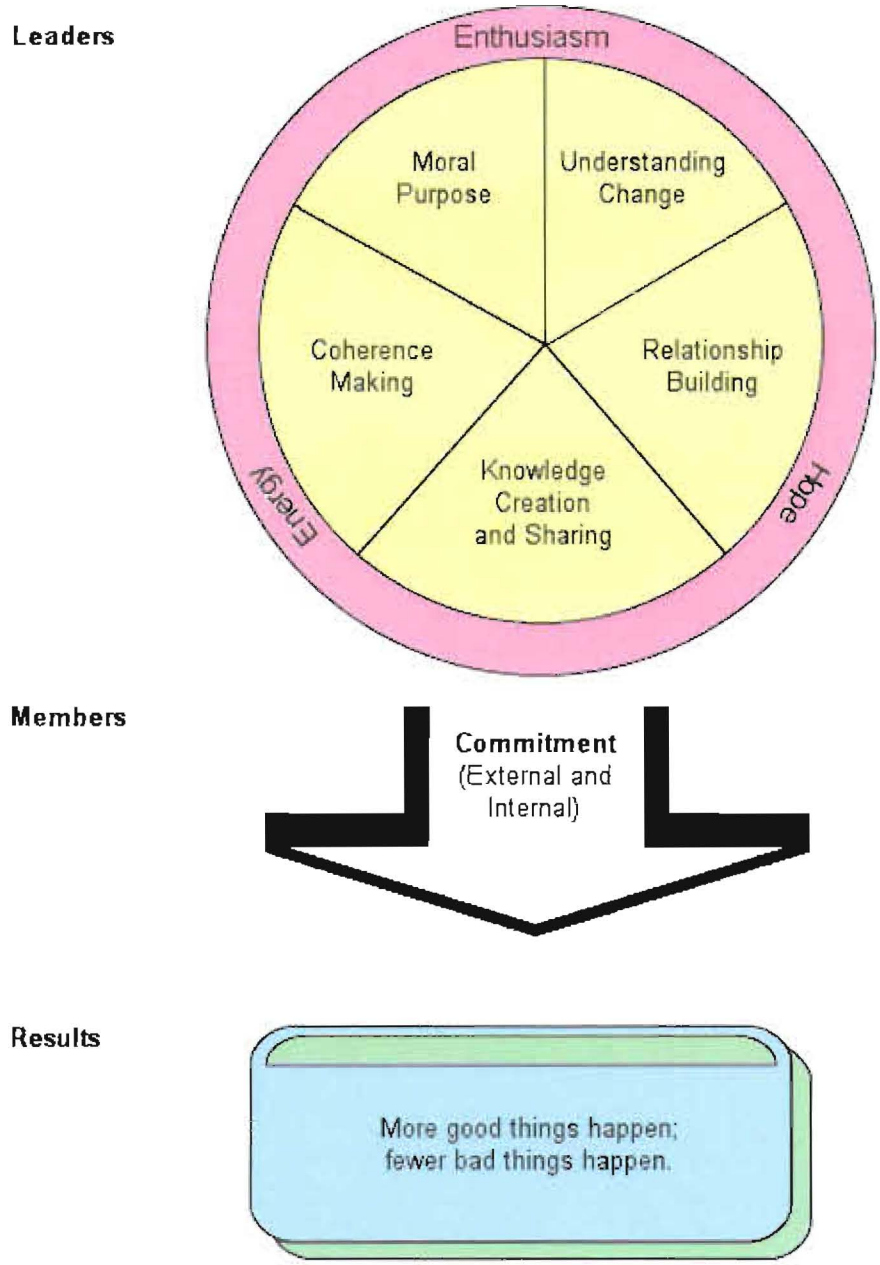
The authors (Earley & Weindling, 2004:84-85) argue that this created new demands on principals and that this can be seen in these metaphors:

- Leader: a move from the manager to the leader.
- Servant: how to lead, not from the top of the organizational pyramid, but from within the web of interpersonal relationships; to use empowerment rather than control.
- Organizational architect: principals have to reshape the school to the changing environment and become proponents of change.
- Social architect: in this role principals have to bridge the connection between the conditions of education and the changing social fabric of society.
- Educator: the principal must become the head learner at the school.
- Moral agent: this concerns the fundamental issue of values and the moral issues of schooling and the principalship.
- Person in the community: principals must continue to remember that their work as an educational leader is first, foremost and always with people. The key concept here is that of equity (Earley & Weindling, 2004:84-85).

Fullan (2001b:11) has identified five essential components of leadership and states that leaders will increase their effectiveness only if they continually work on these.

These components are encapsulated in a framework (Figure 3.2), which the researcher will now discuss.

Figure 3.2: Essential components of leadership



(Fullan, 2001b:11)

According to Fullan (2001b:11), leaders must be guided by moral purpose and this means acting with the intention of making a positive difference in the lives of employees, customers and society as a whole. Secondly, it is essential for leaders to understand the change process. Leaders who combine a commitment to moral purpose with a healthy respect for the complexities of

the change process will not only be more successful, but will also unearth deeper moral purpose. Thirdly, a single factor common to every successful change initiative is that relationships improve. If relationships improve, things get better. Thus leaders must be consummate relationship builders with diverse people and groups - especially with people different from themselves.

Effective leaders constantly foster purposeful interaction and problem-solving and are wary of easy consensus. Fourthly, leaders should commit themselves to constant knowledge creation and sharing. Consequently, what is required to turn information into knowledge is a social process which in turn requires good relationships (Fullan, 2001b:11).

Coherence is seen as part and parcel of the complexity and can never be completely achieved. Leaders in a culture of change value and almost enjoy the tensions inherent in addressing hard-to-solve problems, because that is where the greatest accomplishments lie.

Lastly, leaders should also possess more personal characteristics which the author labelled the energy-enthusiasm-hopefulness constellation. Energetic-enthusiastic-hopeful leaders *cause* greater moral purpose in themselves, bury themselves in change, naturally build relationships and knowledge and seek coherence to consolidate moral purpose.

3.6.2 Changing schools from top-down to participatory management

According to Leithwood *et al.* (1999:12) the term participative leadership was adopted from Yukl's (1994) description to encompass *group*, *shared* and *teacher* leadership. Participative leadership, examined in nine articles in the review, assumes that the decision-making process of the group ought to be the central focus for leaders.

Ncgobo (2003:195) reiterates that staff involvement in decision-making on issues that affect them offers a safe forum for tackling differences before these can lead to conflict.

According to James and Connolly (2000:110), the role of middle-managers and heads of department at secondary schools become increasingly important as they were often viewed as the key people in the change process. In many instances then, the location of leadership moved from top-down to the heads of department. Fullan (as quoted by James & Connolly, 2000:110) subscribes to the view that leadership should be shared across the school.

Steyn (as quoted by Kaabwe, 2003:115) argues that the key to effective school management in South Africa is educator empowerment which involves educators as leaders, rather than as committee members. Effective empowerment leads to meaningful participation in school management because the educators' expertise is acknowledged and utilized to deal with issues in which they have an interest.

3.6.2.1 Specific principles that reflect on managing schools

Grobler *et al.* (2003:30) postulate that, with the introduction of SGBs to public schools via the Schools Act (84/1996), the principal occupies a diverse managerial position. Apart from being the education leader of the school, the principal now acts as the executive officer of the SGB, is accountable to both the educational authorities and the governing body and has to manage in a multi-dimensional environment with unfamiliar role expectations such as entrepreneur, financial executive, marketing manager, legal and public relations officer (Grobler *et al.*, 2003:30)

Gronn (2003:64) refers to this as intensification of work, which has become part of the territory of the educational leader and manager. It is partly about task overload, not just in the sense of occasionally having more things to do than usual, but also the experience of a never-ending treadmill effect in which the awareness of overloading is constant, sustained and compounded by numerous deadlines. In these circumstances, Clarke and Newman (as quoted by Gronn, 2003:65) note that the management of one's emotions becomes vital, as this new work regime becomes emotionally draining for the individual and impacts on his/her own quality of life.

Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:62) identify the following principles that should be borne in mind in the management of schools:

- Principals lead rather than instruct. Principals who operate as leaders realize that their status depends on their ability to lead and motivate their team of educators. At *new* schools, the principal must be seen as leading learners and educators to achieve desired outcomes, rather than as instructing them.

- The decision-making hierarchy becomes flatter.

- In the past, decisions were made at the top and then passed down through a clearly defined hierarchy. *New* schools should be trying to reduce their rungs on the hierarchical ladder to produce flatter, more open and more participative structures. This will allow better information flows, and creates an atmosphere in which all members feel a sense of *ownership*. This in turn, makes it easier for managers to lead rather than instruct (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:62).

- The roles we play at schools become more flexible. Our country is changing rapidly. But many of our schools still lock educators into very fixed roles and responsibilities.

- *New* schools require a much more flexible structure so that they can adapt to change. Roles and functions need to be reassessed so that individuals have the capacity to respond quickly to changing situations and new demands.

- Leadership is about empowering participants, not wielding power. Creating a collaborative management culture requires that those in senior management positions learn to see their leadership role as that of empowering others in the organization, rather than controlling them. Leadership then becomes a process of building and developing participation and collaboration.

- Emphasis is on effective schools, not simply on efficiency. In the past, many schools were not educationally effective and were not producing desired learning outcomes or outputs. Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:62) are of the opinion that producing schools as learning organizations involves a commitment to continuous development and improvement and a constant striving for small, but significant improvements in a process which involves everyone at the school. A school's success will be measured by its meeting pre-defined and measurable performance indicators that must be related to its key function: educating young people.

- A culture of learning should be created, rather than controlling behaviour. In 'new' schools, the approach should be to ensure that the agreed-upon outputs are being achieved by entrusting educators and learners to work towards these without constant supervision. The task of school managers is to create and develop a culture that enables committed educators and learners to do their work (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:62).

This culture of transformation which leaders at educational institutions should subscribe to is essential if sustainable change is to be ensured at schools.

Droppler and Lauterburg (2001:33) argue for a change in emphasis relating to management's tasks, mainly in three directions:

- Securing the future. Looking ahead, ensuring the necessary infrastructure as well as resources for current work.

- Leadership. Training and looking after educators, developing capable teams and providing advice and support on specialized problems.

- Managing constant organizational change. Coordinating everyday business and project work, managing staff allocation; clearing up differences of opinion and conflict situations and ensuring internal and external communication.

3.6.2.2 Managing people in an era of change

Anderson (as quoted by Foskett & Lumby, 2003:189) describes the 'kids come first' mantra, a belief that the central concern of schools should be the individual learner and linked to this, a conviction that the aim of education is to develop the potential of each individual. Leaders are therefore to have a primary role in focusing everything on the development of individual learners.

Antidote (2003:23) argues for creating emotionally literate schools and emphasizes that practising emotional literacy provides everyone in the school community- staff as well as students- with opportunities to manage the difficult emotions they are experiencing. It does so by providing them with opportunities to think about how emotions influence the way they behave and to work out the principles that will guide their dealings with one another (Antidote, 2003:23).

Emotional literacy seeks to create more harmonious interactions at schools by enabling people to understand the causes of their own behaviour and that of others. It seeks to avoid enforcing compliance in ways that restrict the energy which young people bring to learning or their openness to new knowledge (Antidote, 2003:24).

3.6.3 Transformational leadership

Bolman and Deal (as quoted by Earley & Weindling, 2004:85) devised an instrument to explore how school principals and other leaders perceive their leadership style in terms of organizational frames or lenses. Using the frames provides a different perspective on what leadership is and how it operates in organizations. The four frames are referred to as political, human resource, structural and symbolic.

The frames will now be discussed below.

3.6.3.1 The political frame

This frame points out both the limits of authority and the inevitability that resources are too scarce to fulfil in all demands. The principal is power broker

or statesperson. The school is seen as a collection of special interest groups and the task of the principal is to mould these into a school-wide coalition (Bolman & Deal, as quoted by Earley & Weindling, 2004:85).

3.6.3.2 The human resource frame

This frame highlights the importance of needs and motives. In the imagery of the school as extended family, the principal's leadership role is concentrated on meeting individual needs. According to Bolman and Deal (as quoted by Earley & Weindling, 2004:85), the principal communicates praise and constructive feedback for the sake of promoting both satisfaction and growth. The principal listens and helps educators, and learners grapple with personal strengths and weaknesses.

3.6.3.3 The structural frame

This frame emphasizes productivity and assumes that organizations work best when goals and roles are clear, and when the efforts of individuals and groups are well coordinated. Bolman and Deal (as quoted by Earley & Weindling, 2004:85) say that the school-as-factory image emphasizes the principal's role as engineer and supervisor. As an engineer, the principal focuses on designing a system of roles and relationships that uses the talents of staff, supports the instructional programme and allows the school to deal with the environment. As a supervisor, goals are clearly defined and the principal sees to it that these are translated into objectives for educators and non-educators.

3.6.3.4 The symbolic frame

This frame centres attention on symbols, meaning and faith. Seeing the school as drama or theatre requires a principal to be a poet or symbolic leader. The principal spends time building the culture of the school – sharing and articulating shared value, celebrating heroes and heroines, orchestrating key rituals dramatizing the school's identity and working hand in hand with the priests and priestesses, storytellers and gossips to keep the spirit of the school alive (Earley & Weindling, 2004:85-86).

Transformational leadership, Leithwood *et al.* (1999:9) state, has been used to signify an appropriate type of leadership for schools taking up the challenges of restructuring. It refers explicitly to charismatic, visionary, cultural and empowering concepts of leadership. This form of leadership assumes that the central focus of leadership ought to be the commitments and capacities of organizational members.

According to Hallinger and Heck (2004:231), a synthesis of several studies on the impact of the principal from a transformational leadership perspective, Leithwood *et* al. highlight *people effects* as a cornerstone of the transformational leadership model. Within this model proposed by Leithwood and his colleagues, many of the outcomes of interest in terms of restructuring schools are educator effects (such as changes of behaviour, adoption of new programmes and teaching techniques). They therefore suggest that a major impact of principal efforts is to produce major changes in people. A conclusion drawn from Leithwood's studies (as quoted by Hallinger & Heck, 2004:231) is that transformational leadership has an impact on educators' perceptions of school conditions, their commitment to change and the organizational leaning that takes place (Hallinger & Heck, 2004:231).

Earley (2004:238) cites Bass, Campbell and Gold who recognize that transformational leadership models conceptualize school leadership along a number of dimensions and give emphasis to building vision, establishing commitment to agreed goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, and explicating and encouraging high expectations for the staff.

Silins and Mulford (as quoted by Foskett & Lumby, 2003:172) reiterate that the leadership characteristics of a school are important factors in promoting structures and systems that enable the school to operate as a learning organization. School leaders need to be highly skilled in transformational leadership practices which work, directly and indirectly, through others towards bringing about: consensus in the organization's mission, structures for shared decision-making, continual learning through reflective practice, high

standards of professionalism and a supportive and appreciative climate that promotes a culture of trust and collaboration.

3.6.4 Managing the educator's emotional response to change

Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:115) posit that change is difficult and prone to resistance from those affected, even when it is regarded by most people as good and beneficial. Thus, to sustain change successfully, the authors state, it seems important to find out why this is so and to develop strategies for dealing with it.

Coping with school change, Levin and Riffel (2004:366) say, is often a way of avoiding disaster or at least minimizing the effects of unwanted external changes on the organization. Educators might think of themselves as engaged in a process of finding a future for schools and view their educational task as that of harmonizing social change and their evolving educational purposes. The organizational tasks are less to make decisions about the future shape of systems and more to create and maintain the conditions that allow a future to emerge.

Leithwood *et al.* (1999:142) believe that it is not enough for educators to have goals compatible with the school's change initiatives, rather educators must believe that they are personally labelled to achieve those goals and that their school environment will provide the support that they require.

In this context, according to Leithwood *et al.* (1999:142) the main function of emotion is to create a state of action readiness, to stimulate immediate or vigorous action by reducing the salience of other competing issues or concern and to maintain patterns of action.

As educators engage from day to day in efforts to restructure, those efforts will be sustained by a positive emotional climate which includes frequent and positive feedback from parents and students about their experiences with the school's change initiatives, feedback from colleagues and other school leaders about one's successes in achieving gaols associated with change initiatives and a dynamic and changing job (Leithwood *et al.*, 1999:142-143).

According to Grobler *et al.* (2003:40), resistance to change is a fundamental block to change and a prime reason why change does not succeed or is not implemented. The authors cite Martin, Forgeson and Green who have identified three factors causing resistance, namely individual factors, referring to a need for control and achievement, group factors which refer to group cohesiveness, social norms and participation in decision-making and organizational factors signifying threats presented by the unknown, challenges to the unknown and workload consequences (Grobler *et al.*, 2003:40).

Fineman (2003:127) notes that signs of resistance indicate important differences in the way a change is seen, presented or negotiated. Resistance, if accurately *read*, provides important diagnostic information on the way change is being introduced, delivered and supported. It also indicates the feelings that have to be addressed if operational continuity, a semblance of normal organizational service, is to be sustained during the change.

Huy (as quoted by Fineman, 2003:127) refers to this process as emotional balancing. It falls upon managers, he argues, to work with their own and their subordinates' feelings, if both change and continuity are to be achieved.

Responding to change is an educational task in which schools as institutions need to think through problems, analyse data, debate options and values, develop and test strategies and learn from experiences (Levin & Riffel, 2004:367).

3.7 LEADING CHANGE WITH EI

EI is increasingly recognised as an important ingredient of a successful school. Given this importance, it becomes necessary for the educational leader to engage in emotional intelligent leading.

Managing emotionally means putting a high priority on re-culturing, not merely restructuring. Re-culturing involves changing the norms, values, incentives, skills and relationships in the organization to foster a different way of working together (Loock *et al.*, 2003:50).

Tomlinson (2004:22) states that, for change management, the application of emotional intelligent leadership can:

- adapt to changing circumstances and lead others through the personal discomfort of change;
- offer innovative solutions, identify key issues, simplify problems and find a way through unclear situations;
- have confidence in their own abilities to enable them to encourage the team and keep them motivated and productive; and
- remove barriers to change as others are enabled to overcome the fear of risk and failure which can produce defensive and cautious behaviour.

Moss (2005:41) posits that times are replete with change and the need to make critical decisions. This heightens the advantages of regulating and managing emotions and the importance of leaders in our age needing EI skills. Among others, the author states that the current age requires people to grapple with the unknown and its enduring emotional issues. Leadership becomes more influenced by emotion in the face of difficult decisions, therefore a proactive understanding of emotions and how they develop and interact can prevent crises and undesirable outcomes.

According to Moss (2005:52), a correlation has been shown between EI and leadership style, specifically among health care leaders. In a study of health care executives who self-assessed their leadership style through a series of descriptors, those choosing a team management style garnered higher mean scores on the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI Test than did those choosing other categories. The author sites Goleman who points out that leaders could increase their flexibility within a leadership style by learning about and developing EI (Moss, 2005:52).

Earley (2004:239) contends that the modern conception of leadership, be it within schools or elsewhere, is dispersed throughout the whole organization. The leadership demonstrated by principals, deputy principals and others at

the apex of organizational structures, is critically important, but part of that leadership is to distribute or disperse responsibility and to empower others to give of their best. Goleman, (as quoted by Earley, 2004:239) reiterates that leadership is distributed and does not reside solely in the individual at the top, but in every person at every level, who, in one way or another, acts as a leader to a group of followers.

According to Haynes (2004:68), studies of leadership place an emphasis on the need for leaders to demonstrate key traits in their personalities such as strength of character and self-belief, enabling them to deal with periods of criticism and diverse circumstances. Recent literature on EI, the author states, makes a strong case for teaching such personal awareness and implies that this will result in better social and working relationships.

According to Kaabwe (2003:115), effective education managers will not only seek to produce leaders with inspiration and wisdom, but will also seek to use available administrative knowledge to empower colleagues to share school management. If in the process, great leaders emerge, this will add value to the functioning of schools, allowing them to develop excellent working places for all stakeholders, and making them better able to cope with the ever increasing demands of the future.

3.7.1 Creating an environment for change

According to Levin and Riffel (2004:361), the environment could be understood to include anything which might affect the school. The author states that there is a general consensus in the literature that schools must adapt to changes in their environments if they are to survive. This is the essence of an open systems model of organization, which remains the standard conceptualization.

In a period in which schooling is under attack from so many sources, it is hardly surprising that people inside the system see the merits of stability and conserving that seem to them to have worked well. If educators are inclined sometimes to blame the problems of education on parents and learners or on government policies, this is not much different from governments blaming the

problems of the economy on educators and schools (Levin & Riffel, 2004:364).

Change always requires a balance between idealism and realism. Levin and Riffel (2004:366) argue for a better understanding both of what schools currently do and of what they might realistically do better. Responding to change is an educational task in which schools as institutions need to do the same things educators say they want to do with learners - think through problems, analyse data, debate options and values, develop and test strategies and learn from experience.

3.7.2 The role of emotions in educational change

Claxton (as quoted by Möller, 2002:263) regards worrying and anxiety as two of the most frequently experienced emotional problems for both educators and learners. In order to gain control over them, the author states, educators and learners must become proactive, which assumes that human beings have the ability to rise above conditions by making responsible decisions. The manager (educator) who acknowledges and controls his emotions can make responsible choices with an appropriate response. To expand the circle of control, Möller (2002:263) states, people need to be aware of their feelings and how to manage them proactively, have well-structured value systems as the foundation for their aims and show empathy towards others (*cf.* 4.3).

3.7.3 Emotional skills required for effective leadership

According to Calitz *et al.* (2002:54), leadership relies on personal bonds within a team environment. Foundation skills establish the basis of this bond, yet the leader's constant reflection develops the bond further.

Effective leadership is linked to EI, which is exemplified in the leader's self-confidence and self-awareness, integrity, enthusiasm and drive, empathy and social skills (Calitz *et al.*, 2002:54). The authors emphasize a close link between EI and intellectual skills and reiterate that leaders need to know their jobs and must have knowledge and experience to deal with situations that they are likely to face (Calitz *et al.*, 2002:54).

Coleman and Earley (2005:13) state that using empathy and social skills is one aspect of emotional leadership, but there is a growing body of research into the emotional aspect of being a principal which has identified how leaders may experience a range of negative emotions associated with their role.

These emotions, according to the above-mentioned authors, include anger caused by carrying the weight of other peoples' emotions, behaviour, demands and expectations; distress created by their own and others' expectations added to an overdeveloped sense of personal responsibility; anxiety associated with enacting their role and the consequent tendency to avoid anxiety by accentuating the positive, and anger about the isolation that they experience and the pressure they feel to be *perfect* managers (Coleman & Earley, 2005:13-14).

According to Grady (2004:40), principals of effective schools continually model the value they place on accomplished teaching and powerful learning by observing classes, conferring with educators, learners and families about curriculum and instruction; and by acting on policy decisions that support the school's short and long-term goals. Effective leaders, the author states, carefully and consistently model interpersonal behaviours that lead to a shared sense of care and concern.

3.8 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND SCHOOL CHANGE

Theories of school leadership emphasize the influence of organizational culture on the meaning people associate with their work and willingness to change. According to Hallinger and Heck (2004:232), this is the view expressed by Ogawa and Bossert, Leithwood, Bolman and Deal who argue that leaders operate within environmental and organizational cultures and affect how their participants interpret organizational events and thus influence how they behave. This focuses on the importance of developing shared meanings and values (*cf.* 7.2.5 & 8.4.7)).

Similarly, in earlier effective schools studies, culture was perceived as *climate*. The authors (Hallinger & Heck, 2004:232) cite Weil who found that effective and typical schools differed in several organizational processes. They termed

these processes school learning climate (for example collaborative processes, open communication), social climate (for example sense of community, student involvement).

Grobler *et al.* (2003:25) state that the school climate focuses on interpersonal relationships as it affects educators, principals and learners. To highlight this relationship, the author refers to *humanistic schools* which place greater emphasis on developing self-discipline in learners. They involve learners in decision-making and educators co-operate with one another so that a sense of achievement motivates them (Grobler *et al.*, 2003:25).

Bush (as quoted by Lumby *et al.*, 2003:58) suggests that one tangible way for leaders to generate culture is to focus upon the aims of a school since these are meant to be the key ways in which values and beliefs of an organization are reinforced.

3.8.1 Conceptions of culture

Hughes (2004:130) loosely defines organizational climate as that set of internal characteristics which distinguishes one school from another and which influences the behaviour of people at each school. The author refers to an open climate as being characterized by *authenti*city on the part of both the principal and staff: the principal leading by example and the staff showing commitment and working well together so that acts of leadership emerge naturally as needed. The closed climate is in stark contrast: the principal provides no effective leadership and is preoccupied with formalities and trivia, while the educators are frustrated and apathetic, responding at a minimum level.

A few years later, Leithwood *et al.* (as quoted by Hallinger & Heck, 2004:233) conceptualized school culture as widespread agreement about norms, beliefs and values. They proposed that school culture was central to achieving the coordination necessary to implement change. Principals were found to impact on school culture, which, in turn, impacted on a range of restructuring outcomes including programme, policy, educator behaviour and learners (*cf.*7.2.5).

Torrington and Weightman (as quoted by Ncgobo, 2003:223) view organizational culture as the characteristic spirit and belief of an organization, demonstrated, for example, in the norms and values that are generally held about how people treat one another, the mature working relationships that should be developed and attitudes to the process of change.

Stoll, MacBeath, Smith and Robertson (2004:268) see the essence of school culture as the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs shared by members, operating unconsciously and defining the organization's view of itself and its environment. Ndhlovu *et al.* (2005:38) define culture as the way of life of the people at a particular school. It refers to the underlying beliefs and assumptions, norms and values, relationships and interactions, shared by people at a school (*cf.* 7.2.5 & 7.2.5.1-7.2.5.5).

The authors (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:38) cite David Hopkins, a British researcher studying school change, where he explains the various dimensions of culture at a school as follows:

- Observed behavioural irregularities. These describe educator interaction in a staffroom – the language they use and the rituals they establish.
- Norms. These evolve in working groups of educators in terms of lesson planning or monitoring learner progress.
- Dominant values. These are espoused by a school in its aims or mission statement.
- A philosophy. This guides the dominant approach to teaching and learning of particular subjects at a school. Depending on the dominant philosophy, the 'culture' of one school will differ from another.
- The rules of the game. These must be learnt by new educators in order to get along at the school and in their department.
- The feeling climate. This is conveyed by the entrance hall to a school, or the way in which learners' work is displayed (or not displayed) (Ndhlovu *et al.*, 2005:39).

According to De Bruyn *et al.* (2002:120), culture is related to the Latin word ***colo*** which means to build and to develop and it includes everything people do and create as members of a specific society, which is a body or people with similar knowledge and convictions.

Bates (2004:5) posits that culture gives meaning to life and the cultural baggage (beliefs, values, conventions) of any group are the resources from which the individual and social identities are constructed. They provide a framework upon which individuals construct their understanding of the world and of themselves.

Fidler (2002:16) regards organizational culture as having a powerful influence on the thinking of the school and the staff. The author reiterates that it has a powerful conditioning effect and unless cultural influences are made explicit, they may lead to strategic possibilities being prejudiced with the rejection of those that are not consistent with the prevailing culture.

Schein (as quoted by De Bruyn *et al.*, 2003:143) argues that to establish a healthy organizational culture at a school, the principal must constantly be aware of:

- the things to which he/she must pay attention, measure and control;
- his/her response to crises, which can erupt at any moment;
- staff development;
- the buildings and other facilities of the school;
- stories, legends and myths about people related to the school; and
- the formal policy and philosophy of the school.

3.8.2 The significance of culture in educational change

According to Middlewood and Lumby (2003:56), a large number of changes that schools had to undergo in the late 1980s and in the 1990s have accentuated the emphasis on organizational culture because of the increased

understanding of the complexity of change management in education. The increased awareness that real change only occurs through the extent of the educators' absorption of the changes underlies the importance of those factors which constitute culture.

Eloff and Ebersöhn (2004:259) are of the view that professionals need to observe and study others, but they need to examine themselves first and should recognise their lack of knowledge about what is different to them so that they can begin to ask the right questions of learners and their families. Viewing culture as a social context, the authors state, guides future health care and education professionals to develop cultural competence, which in turn directs their actions to develop the best practice (Eloff & Ebersöhn, 2004:259).

3.8.3 Characteristics of culture

Olie (as quoted by Ngcobo, 2003:223) highlights the following characteristics of culture:

- Culture is not characteristic of individuals, but of a collection of individuals who share common values, beliefs and ideas. Each group has ways of thinking, behaving and perceiving that are common to all its members or its category, but which differ from those of other groups.

- Culture is learned. Children are taught the norms, beliefs, traditions and values of these societies and families they are born into by parents, while learners learn their school culture from teachers and senior learners.

- Culture develops over time and is partly the product of a group's history, its demographic and economic development, its ecological environment and its geography.

- Culture has different layers and is divided into subjective and objective sub-cultures.

In a study of effective schools and departments, Sammins, Thomas and Mortimore (as quoted by Lumby *et al.*, 2003:58) identified three broad

categories of culture at both levels which could act as guidelines for the manager to focus upon in influencing culture at schools The categories will now be discussed.

3.8.3.1 Order

This encompasses a common vision and goals to develop a positive environment, both within and outside the classroom. Patterns of acceptance, punctuality, behaviour and motivation affect order (Lumby *et al.*, 2003:58).

3.8.3.2 Task achievement

The key emphasis is on a shared agreement that achievement outcomes (such as examination results) are important in assessing effectiveness. High expectations and consistency in approach are typical features of emphasis (Lumby *et al.*, 2003:58).

3.8.3.3 Relationships

This focuses on the learners' actual experience of learning and indeed of being at school. Learners feeling valued as people. Feeling cared for and being satisfied with the experiences are all aspects of this (Lumby *et al.*, 2003:58).

3.8.4 Leading a culture of change

According to Davidoff *et al.* (2002:67), schools in South Africa were previously run with a focus on management rather than on leadership. Effective principals were efficient bureaucrats who ensured that the school functioned as smoothly as possible. Systems for covering for absent teachers, invigilation schedules, procedures for disciplinary problems and systems of reporting were all regarded as essential aspects of a well-run school. As a result, most schools have been rigid in form and slow to respond to challenges (Davidoff *et al.*, 2002:67).

Riley (2004:293) states that to embark on education reform and to create and sustain significant levels of improvement are not one and the same thing.

School reform is about change. Change in its turn depends on the will, capacity and actions of many players at different levels in an education system. The author sites Silver who argues that school reform is an inherently political process and that notions of what constitutes a 'good' school are bound in culture and context (*cf.* 8.4.7).

Davis (2003:157) sees the nature of change as being influenced by the size and diversity of the organization. Before embarking on the change initiative, effective leaders ask what kind of change is contemplated. A leader's strategy for bringing about change will vary according to the type of change undertaken.

3.8.4.1 Four theories for viewing change

Sparks (2005:32) proposes improvement efforts which are shaped by theories of action which he describes as a set of underlying assumptions about how the organization will move from its current state to its desired future. The author states further that once school leaders and educators have a theory of action that is sufficiently robust to produce the desired result, that theory must be repeatedly shared in many places over a long period to motivate and guide change efforts.

According to Kotter and Cohen (as quoted by Sparks, 2005:105), emotion underlies lasting change and emotion, the authors believe, is generated more by vivid stories and images- even images that disturb rather than uplift- than it is by research and analysis that provide logical reasons for change.

Connor *et al.* (2003:31) propose that some characteristics prepare an organization to be innovative and receptive to change, and some tend to cause it to resist or avoid change. The authors reiterate that there are structural and cultural characteristics of importance to how an organization views change.

Kezar (as quoted by Davis, 2003:157) presents four theories for viewing change. A discussion on these theories follows.

3.8.4.1.1 Teleological theories

These theories assume that organizations are purposeful and adaptive, and that at the centre of the change process one can find leaders who set goals and are influential in bringing about change. These theories, Davis (2003:157) posits, are also known as planned change, scientific management or rational models and employ techniques such as strategic planning, organizational development or continuous quality improvement. Teleological theories stress the importance of leaders, change agents, vision and persistent pursuit of goals.

3.8.4.1.2 Evolutionary theories

According to Davis (2003:157), these theories draw on change as dependent on situational variables and as greatly influenced by the environment. These models focus on the inability of the organization to plan for and respond to change, and their tendency rather to manage change as it occurs.

3.8.4.1.3 Life cycle theories

These theories stress organizational growth, maturity and decline. Change occurs as individuals within the organization adapt to its life cycle. Because the environment is ambiguous and threatening, people in organizations must fight off its decline through change processes that create new organizational purposes and identities (Davis, 2003:157).

3.8.4.1.4 Cultural theories

These theories emphasize that cultures are always changing, but the change process tends to be long term and slow. Change proceeds through the alteration of values, beliefs, myths and rituals and the leader's role is to use symbolic actions, language and metaphors to influence cultural change. Leaders become change masters by creating new myths and rituals (Davis, 2003:157).

De Bruyn *et al.* (2002:143) state that, in order to lay down an effective organizational culture, principals must understand the power of symbols, and

the elements of organizational culture and the impact and influence of these on their schools. The authors cite Schein who states that establishing a healthy culture is not an easy task and the principal should constantly be aware of the things to which they must pay attention, measuring and controlling, staff development, the formal policy and philosophy of the school, the buildings and other facilities and how they respond to crises which can erupt at any moment (De Bruyn *et al.*, 2002:143).

According to Kaabwe (2003:115), culture can be shaped in desired ways to meet organizational objectives, thus the changes in all aspects of education provide opportunities for managers with vision to shape the cultures for their organizations.

3.9 EFFECTING CHANGE AT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Creese and Earley (1999:12) state unequivocally that the complexity of the change process should not be underestimated and those responsible for planning change should always consider what it means for those who will have to implement it. For managers, the authors state, the key to successful change lies in helping others to understand what change really means (*cf.* 7.2.4 & 8.4.3).

Kanter, Stein and Jick (as quoted by Connor *et al.*, 2003:188) have identified ten commandments for executing change. These commandments include analysing the organization and its need for change, creating a shared vision and common direction separate from the past, creating a sense of urgency, supporting a strong leader role, having political sponsorship, crafting an implementation plan, developing enabling structures, communicating and involving people and reinforcing and institutionalizing change.

Benne and Birnbaum (as quoted by Connor *et al.*, 2003:188) are of the view that there are five principles of strategy that are necessary for effecting institutional change. Firstly, recognising that, in order to change a subsystem or any part of a subsystem, relevant aspects of the environment must also be changed. Secondly, to change behaviour on any level of a hierarchical organization it is necessary to achieve complementary and reinforcing

changes in organization levels above and below it. Thirdly, to effect change involves emotion and causes stress and strain. Fourthly, in diagnosing the possibility of change in a given situation, it is always necessary to assess the degree of stress and strain at the points where change is sought. Fifthly, both the formal and informal organization of an institution must be considered in planning any process of change. Lastly, the effectiveness of planned change is often directly related to the degree to which members of all levels of an institutional hierarchy take part in the fact-finding and in the diagnosing of needed changes and in the formulating and reality testing of goals and programmes of change (Connor *et al.*, 2003:188).

3.9.1 Important change factors

From the preceding sections it is evident that in order for educational leaders to be effective, they should acknowledge and address the challenges of change (*cf.* 7.2.4).

Stoll and Fink (as quoted by Thrupp & Willmott, 2003:186) state that change is relentless and emphasise the necessity for change at schools. The authors reiterate that in terms of change, it is vital to understand underlying values and surface behaviours and how they motivate norms and actions. This is particularly significant in that norms, beliefs and values also influence educators' perceptions and definitions of what it means to be effective. The principal therefore plays a crucial role in shaping the culture of the school (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003:201).

In this regard, Sparks (2005:xiii) highlights one of the most important responsibilities of school leaders as the development of a high-performance culture that has at its heart mutual respect and trust, collaboration and continuous improvement and in which generative human connections can thrive.

According to James and Connolly (2003:30), the politics of change will be closely linked to emotions, especially anxiety and managing the non-rational, emotional dimension as a crucial determinant in the leadership of change.

Change managers will thus have to manage the emotional responses of individuals and groups during change.

3.9.2 Resistance to change

According to Lucas and Associates (2000:51), change is usually resisted, either actively, through protest or sabotage, or passively, with an expectation that the request for change is simply a whim, because individuals feel they know what they have and they believe the results of change could make matters worse.

According to Kane (2005:29), leaders must face resistance. For any change effort to be successful, it is critical to keep communication channels open so that resistance is transparent and leaders can intervene.

Hoskins (as quoted by Calitz *et al.*, 2002:230) identifies three levels of dealing with resistance to change by collaborating with resistant people. These are briefly discussed below.

According to Hoskins, the first level of dealing with resistance to change entails observing the behaviour of the resistant person. Types of resistance include bullying behaviour, poor-me syndrome, too-busy-for-anything-else behaviour and back-stabbing behaviour (Calitz *et al.*, 2002:230).

At the second level, dealing with resistance to change requires determining what holds the resistant person's behaviour in place. Usually resistant behaviour is used to protect a person from perceived danger, such as fear of failure, or of losing status or control. By acknowledging his/her fears and concerns, one makes the resistant person realise one is sensitive to his/her feelings (Hoskins, as quoted by Calitz *et al.*, 2002:231).

Hoskins (as quoted by Calitz *et al.*, 2002:231) emphasises that the third level is to determine what the resistant person really wants. For example, a person who fears failure may really want to be successful, and a person who fears losing control, may actually want to be in control. Since wanting to be successful and wanting to be in control are actually reasonable desires,

effective interactions to mange the resistance can be implemented at this level. By focusing on the individual's goals and what the resistant person wants, collaboration and participation in the change may be achieved.

3.9.3 Embracing change in education

According to Evans (2001:63), change redefines proficiency. It devalues current skills, even if they have been applied artfully and even if those who have been applying them still see them as valid and successful. The author states that the implementation requires staff to move from what has become at least old competence (if not incompetence) to what is now defined as new competence. This need to help staff acquire new skills is an area where principals should play a crucial role (Evans, 2001:63).

Yukl (as quoted by James & Connolly, 2003:29) outlines a set of guidelines which provides a checklist of prompts for principals managing change at schools. These guidelines are discussed below (*cf.* 7.2.4).

3.9.3.1 Generate a sense of urgency about the need for change

As the change progresses, the perception of its need could fade. Creating a sense of urgency can energize those participating in the change and help to reassert the need for the change (Yukl, as quoted by James & Connolly, 2003:29).

3.9.3.2 Prepare people to adjust to the proposed change

Yukl (as quoted by James & Connolly, 2003:29) states that even if the change is beneficial and the need for it widely accepted at the school, those participating still need to be prepared for it. The most important preparation work will have to be done on the emotional dimensions of change.

3.9.3.3 Help people cope with emotional pain of change

Because so many of the responses to change are emotional, the change process can cause real pain. The author reiterates that the sense of loss,

even a feeling of bereavement at the loss of the *old ways* can be very powerful (James & Connolly, 2003:29).

3.9.3.4 Tell people about the progress of change

Telling people what is happening can help to maintain commitment to the change especially if work on the change process is going on behind the scenes. It can also help reduce anxieties that may be the result of fantasies created by not knowing what is going on (Yukl, as quoted by James & Connolly, 2003:29). According to Sparks (2005:32), change efforts are shaped by theories of action and once school leaders have a theory of action that is sufficiently robust to produce the desired result, such a theory must be repeatedly shared in many places over a long period to motivate and guide change efforts.

3.9.3.5 Show continued commitment to the change at all stages

According to Yukl (as quoted by James & Connolly, 2003:29), an essential task for the leaders of change is to continually express their commitment to it. Evans (2001:69) states that although the ultimate goal may be a true school-wide consensus for change, the first and most crucial target is a critical mass of committed supporters. Change agents need ways to help key participants reach a consensus for change and then, with their help, expand this consensus throughout the school community (Evans, 2001:70).

3.9.3.6 Empower people to implement change

Change that is imposed on the school only for the top is less likely to be successful than change that is driven from all parts of the school. Empowering educators, parents and the SGB to implement the change is a way of releasing energy from within the school (Yukl, as quoted by James & Connolly, 2003:29).

In this regard, Moloi (2002:49) advocates for a shared vision within the school and states that this will only emerge if the educators truly care about one another and about their current practices and the future of their learners.

According to the author, successful transformation depends on a powerful and shared vision. Change is not possible unless educators are willing and motivated to help in the change efforts. However, the most powerful medium of communicating the school's vision is the strategic leadership position as a principal.

3.10 SUMMARY

Schools serve the needs of the present and the future generation. Significant changes in education raise questions about the appropriateness of the ways in which schools are currently led and managed.

The process of change is a complex phenomenon and change at secondary schools is particularly complicated. James and Connolly (2000:141) believe that effective leadership is essential in effecting change at secondary schools. In attempting to identify the essence of that leadership, the authors state that it is important to consider the role the principal and educators play in the change process.

The traditional view of leadership is based on assumptions of people as powerless beings and lacking an ability to manage the forces of change. The contemporary role of the leader is to assist people to deal with reality in a more insightful, challenging way. Leaders need to have a vision for the school, but more importantly, must listen to others' visions and lead in an emotional intelligent way.

Being emotionally intelligent implies having the ability to manage emotions, develop emotional literacy and an awareness of self and others.

In order to meet the demands of the complex changes in education, these four concepts underpinning EI may significantly assist leaders and managers in education to manage the school in an emotionally intelligent way.

The next chapter provides the theoretical background for the proposed EI competency framework for change (*cf.* Chapter 7), in order to assist educators to tackle change in an emotionally intelligent way.

CHAPTER FOUR

A POSSIBLE FRAMEWORK FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EI TO EFFECT CHANGE AT SCHOOLS SUCCESSFULLY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Educators face the challenge of being skilled in a multitude of areas. Change initiatives at school may be one of those areas where some educators do not want to venture for fear of being unskilled to deal adequately with the demands placed on them as mentors to learners. Being an emotionally intelligent adult in the school setting will certainly enhance the practice of every educator in an ever-changing school environment.

In this regard, Bluestein (2001:304) urges educators to climb out of the confines of a power-based, win-lose tradition and to embrace and create a win-win and peace-promoting environment for all learners. These, the author states, are process changes that require time, faith and energy, as safety at the level of learner behaviour is crucial in creating the kind of environment and power dynamics that inspire co-operation and a sense of community.

4.2 EXPANDING UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHANGE PROCESS

Evans and Schaefer (2001:107) define any process as simply a transformation or conversion of something into something else. The process can be relatively small or large.

Duke (2004:16) stresses that the process by which a change is accomplished is referred to as the change process. The author states further that the object of the change process can be characterized by various dimensions, including purpose, unit, nature, magnitude, extent and duration. The change process - the process by which an individual group or organization attempts to achieve change- is also complicated (Duke, 2004:31).

According to Balogun and Hailey (2004:7), change needs to be context-specific. This implies that the design and management of any change

process should be dependent on the specific situation or context of each organization or institution. The authors reiterate that it is a dangerous exercise to apply change formulae that worked in one context directly into another (Balogun and Hailey, 2004:7).

Bascia and Hargreaves (as quoted by Hoban, 2002:29) state that the educational landscape is not static as the context of change operates as a complex and interrelated system where everything depends on everything else.

Similarly Goodson (as quoted by Hoban, 2002:29) recently defined segments of the change process as internal, being the change agents within the schools, external being the outside forces that mandate change such as a new curriculum, and personal being the individual beliefs and experiences that are brought to the change process. He concluded that change is more likely to occur when these segments are 'integrated and harmonised' leading to a new balance to promote a social movement for change.

Educational change may be defined as any intentional change designed to improve teaching and learning. More specifically, educational change is a change intended to alter the goals of education and to improve what learners are expected to learn, how learners are instructed and assessed, and how educational functions are organized, regulated, governed and financed (Duke, 2004:31).

Hargreaves (2004:558) states that when writers consider educational change in general, most of them ignore or underplay one of the most fundamental aspects of teaching and how educators change: the emotional dimension. Emotions are virtually absent from the literature and advocacy of educational change. Strategic planning, cognitive leadership, problem-solving, educator reflection, higher-order thinking and standards-based reform, have virtually nothing to say about emotion. It is as if educators think and act; but they never feel.

Peters (as quoted by Mulford, 2004:616) regards the core paradox of massive change as creating stability at the school in order to encourage the pursuit of

constant change. Schools should thrive on change and not leave many educators confused, disillusioned and exhausted. Educators should rather be enthusiastic contributors to any change initiative.

4.2.1 Approaches to change at schools

According to Balogun and Hailey (2004:10), it is commonly accepted that during change it is necessary to consider three states: the current, the future and the transition. Essential inputs to the diagnosis of the current organizational state are an understanding of the organization's need for change and an understanding of the internal organizational context. It is also necessary to develop some sort of vision of the desired future organizational state. The transition state, the process of changing the organization from what it is now into the desired future organization, can only be designed once the current organizational state is understood (Balogun & Hailey, 2004:10).

In his analysis of educational change, Duke (2004:29) identifies the common elements of the change process as follows:

- Discovery: The initial phase of the change process during which a need for change is identified.
- Design: The phase during which a new or improved way to address the need is created or chosen.
- Development: The phase during which planning related to implementing change is undertaken and support is secured.
- Implementation: The phase when the change is introduced and adapted to a particular setting.

It is the researcher's view that if the above process is to be followed when initiating change, what needs to be considered are the emotional investments educators make in their relationships with their learners, parents of these learners and one another, and the role of the principal when providing strategic direction and development of the school. The challenge for principals as educational change leaders, together with the SGB's as school

governors, is to define what core competencies exist in their school and those that need developing.

Leithwood and Duke (2004:91) describe three stages in approaching school leadership. The first stage documents failure and draws general implications or guidelines for success; this stage assumes that the seeds of success are evident in failure. Stage two involves sharing successful best practices to be used by others. At the third stage there are efforts to prescribe a set of sequenced tasks to be carried out in order to manage the change process in an orderly fashion.

MacGrath (2002:43) states that there are many ways in which individual learners may become demoralized by their experience at school. Educators are sometimes perceived as *always correcting* learners and not acknowledging what has been done. The author reiterates that if educators trust that young people, by their very nature, tend to learn that the environment is conducive to expressing themselves naturally, the information or skill has some relevance to them, they are interested by the subject matter or process of learning, and they become relaxed enough in order to concentrate. Then perhaps educators too can relax a little and sometimes allow a short period of triumph before moving on.

Hochschild (as quoted by Hargreaves, 2004:561) refers to this as *emotional labour* which requires the educator to induce or suppress feelings in order to sustain the outward countenance that produced the proper state of mind of others.

Emotional labour can thus be positive as it involves sincere emotional giving, and negative as it also exposes educators, making them vulnerable when the conditions and demands of their role as managers of change impede on responding adequately to the change process.

4.2.2 Responding to change

Burdett (as quoted by Paton & McCalman, 2000:262) argues that organizations are approaching a new era and that this era requires a new

response. In particular, he argues that organizations need insightful thinking and that there are three potential means to respond to change better. These aspects are discussed below:

- At the centre of every storm there needs to be an area of calm – a need to define and manage with a set of well-stated organizational values.
- At all times keep it simple – complex theories and solutions take time and lose context.
- There is the need for and the benefits of systems thinking – a holistic perspective on change.

According to Burns and Bass (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:64), leadership of the emergent, self-organizing school, resonates with certain aspects of transformational leadership as the emergent organization transforms itself over time. Here the leader provides platforms for change and self-organization. Kelly and Allison (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:64) state that this includes articulating the vision and identity of the school, creating new initiatives at school, developing the expertise of the school, increasing communication, and seeing and articulating opportunities for learning development.

Central to transformational leadership is the empowerment of others. This implies that the principal as manager of change should create a supportive, encouraging and challenging learning environment for both learners and staff members.

Bryman (as quoted by Fiddler & Atton, 2004:270) identifies the particular contribution of charisma within transformational leadership as being associated with organizational change. He points out that transformational leadership *per se* was originally concerned with transforming followers, not the organisation. Transformational leadership, it is claimed, ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspirations of both leader and led, and thus has a transforming effect on both.

Bluestein (2001:350) mentions that change happens best in supportive environments; educators tend to function effectively, grow professionally and personally and avoid stress and burnout when they can create a support network for themselves. Change is also most effective when individuals take responsibility for their own growth and when it is encouraged, rather than coerced.

In creating a positive school climate, the principal has a pivotal role to play. Bluestein (2001:354) highlights that principals who demonstrate high levels of interpersonal functioning, cultivate respect for learner and educator, show empathy and use praise, have the ability to change their schools into productive sites of learning.

There are many terms that have been used to denote those responsible for the effective implementation of change: for example, problem owners, facilitators, change agents or project managers. For the purposes of this study, the person or persons ultimately accountable and responsible for managing change will be referred to as change agents.

What needs to be considered is that schools derive their ability to function effectively from their human resources. Therefore change agents need human relations skills to transform their environment. According to Rusaw (1998:15), change agents are people who have an interest in transforming schools and who use skills of thinking holistically, planning, coordinating, and facilitating to enable transformation to occur. The key factor is being concerned about making changes in cultural work processes and having a desire to create a work environment that is more effective and efficient, provides more control and self-actualization and promotes community and commitment among staff members (Rusaw, 1998:15).

Buchanan and Huczynski (as quoted by Paton & McCalman, 2000:49) suggest the need to encourage participation and involvement in the management of the change by those who are affected. The aim is to stimulate interest and commitment and minimize fears, thus reducing opposition. It may also be necessary to provide facilitating and support

services. These could assist in promoting an individual's awareness for the need for change, while counselling and therapy could be offered to help overcome fears.

Geertz (as quoted by Rusaw, 1998:20) compares the change agent to an anthropologist who enters a foreign culture and *soaks* up what people say, what they do, how they interact and how they carry on their interactions at the school on a daily basis. Denhardt (as quoted by Rusaw, 1998:223) says that change agents create settings in which people are stimulated to learn, settings in which learning is the norm and settings in which learning is valued above anything else.

Balogun and Hailey (2004:8) identify four managerial skills for change agents. These managerial skills are outlined below:

4.2.2.1 Change agents need to develop their analytical, judgemental and implementation skills

Without analysis, the temptation is to draw upon readymade change recipes, without judgement. After contextual analysis, change agents can miss the most crucial aspect of the change context; without action, the process can remain a planning exercise (Balogun & Hailey, 2004:8).

4.2.2.2 Change agents need to possess analytical abilities

According to Balogun and Hailey (2004:8), they need to be able to dig deep into an organization, to understand its culture and the motivations of its staff, to develop a full and holistic picture of the organization concerned.

4.2.2.3 Change agents should have the ability to judge

The change agent has to prioritise or weight the organizational features he/she uncovers in terms of how critical they are to the process. The key skill for a change agent is to be able to recognize what is critical in the particular change context. (Balogun & Hailey, 2004:8).

4.2.2.4 Change agents need to develop the ability to manage the implementation of change

Balogun and Hailey (2004:8) state that management is practice, not just analysis – it is about making things happen. Two key aspects of implementation that have to be addressed are which interventions to make in a change situation, and in what order to apply them. The change agent may recognize that a reward system must be changed within an organization along with changes roles and responsibilities.

For Paton and McCalman (2004:197), the mechanisms used during the process of change and the efforts of the change agent to ensure participation and involvement in the changes being contemplated can increase the likelihood of a successful intervention. The authors reiterate that the most effective change agent needs to find a balance between being the technical expert - the person assumed to have the answers – and the process facilitator – the person with the techniques to allow the organization to find its own answers (Paton & McCalman, 2004:197).

4.3 BUILDING AND CREATING SCHOOLS THAT ARE PASSIONATE FOR CHANGE

According to Deming (as quoted by MacGrath, 2002:50), 'joy in learning' is a key necessity for improvement in education, namely that learners learn best when they enjoy it. Educators should thus encourage learners to enjoy learning by applying the two major motivating factors of achievement and establishing, and improving the relationship between themselves and their learners. The learning process should encourage learners to be independent, and enjoy a degree of responsibility towards their own learning. If this is not done, it may lead to frustration, demoralization and conflict. It is therefore helpful if the individual educator can create opportunities for learners to have some influence over how learning takes place (MacGrath, 2002:50).

Hargreaves (as quoted by Beatty, 2004:179) states that if education reformers ignore the emotional dimensions of educational change, emotions and feelings will only re-enter at the back-door. Beatty (2004:181) reveals further

that in the education and administration literature, leadership behaviours that have emotional implications are repeatedly recommended: lending support, exhibiting moral integrity, providing safety, fostering collaboration, offering intellectual stimulation, encouraging organizational learning and practising consultative and shared decision-making. Optimally, it is theorized that these features combine to create cultures at schools that generate and sustain the energy necessary for change and transformation (Beatty, 2004:181).

From what is mentioned above, it is clear that emotions cannot be dismissed or set aside in the management of change. As the emotional nature of work itself can be overwhelming, influencing the actions of principals and educators who work at schools, it is important to explore how the emotions of the principal as leader influences his/her ability to manage the change process (*cf.* 3.7.2).

4.3.1 The human side of school change

According to Hargreaves (2004:558), emotions are at the heart of teaching, but they are usually only acknowledged and talked about in so far as they help administrators and reformers manage and offset educators' resistance to change or help them set the climate in which the business of cognitive learning or strategic planning can take place.

4.3.2 Achieving educational change

From the literature presented in this study it is evident that for schools to change, it becomes necessary for educators and learners alike, to change from the inside out. This implies that the self requires nourishing through developing skills in EI.

To achieve change in education successfully, Silins *et al.* (2004:424) advocate that schools that function as learning organizations in a context of rapid global change are those that collaboratively and continuously learn and put new innovations to use.

Rusaw (1998:54) states that building trust during the process of change is vital as this prepares the individuals involved mentally and emotionally for undertaking change. Because of the human subjective basis of school systems and relationships, having high levels of confidence that change will succeed is a vital precursor to success.

4.3.3 The challenges of leading successfully at secondary schools

Owens (as quoted by Van Wyk, 2000:74) outlines the purpose for secondary schooling as preparing learners for admission to higher education, preparing learners for the world of work and seeking to fuse academic studies with practical, work-orientated studies.

Van Wyk (2000:79) states that schools situated in a particular district or area often reflect the characteristics of that area. Schools in urban, particularly inner-city areas face tremendous challenges in providing successful schooling experiences for the culturally, ethically, racially, economically and socially diverse learners they serve.

Lightfoot (as quoted by Van Wyk, 2000:81) highlights that problems faced by inner-city schools include high learner numbers; largest educator and administrator turnover; tendency to place the greatest demand on educators' time and energies in terms of discipline, instruction, lesson planning and class sizes; highest absentee rates among personnel of any urban school and greatest amount of educator burnout of any type of school.

According to Hall and Southworth (2004:89), being a principal has less to do with managing a steady state school and more to do with anticipating and responding to new initiatives, challenges and opportunities. Brighouse (as quoted by Hall & Southworth, 2004:89) regard such change as learning and connect it to notions of learning organizations and lifelong learning for all.

Silins *et al.* (2004:427) propose that the transformational nature of the principals' leadership practices that promote organizational learning may be described by six factors. These factors are:

- Vision and goals: the extent to which the principal works toward whole-staff consensus in establishing school priorities and communicates those priorities and goals to learners and educators, giving a sense of overall purpose.

- Culture: the extent to which the principal promotes an atmosphere of caring and trust among staff, sets a respectful tone for interaction with learners, and demonstrates a willingness to change his or her practices in the light of new understandings.

- Structure: the extent to which the principal establishes a school structure that promotes participative decision-making, supports delegation and distributive leadership, encourages educator autonomy for making decisions.

- Intellectual stimulation: the extent to which the principal encourages educators to reflect on what they are trying to achieve with learners and how they are doing it, facilitates opportunities for educators to learn from one another and models continual learning in his/her own practice.

- Individual support: the extent to which the principal provides support, shows appreciation for the work of individual educators, takes their opinion into account when making decisions.

- Performance expectation: the extent to which the principal has high expectations for educators and for learners to be effective and innovative (Silins *et al.*, 2004:427-429).

Van Niekerk (2000:204) posits that dramatic social change requires all people to become lifelong learners and that this has created a new role for educators as well. The current paradigm shift requires a learner-centred approach and a *deconstruction* of the educator's role. Traditionally, educators were viewed as the experts who made their knowledge known to learners through lecturing. According to the new paradigm, the educator must create the conditions for learning and should be instrumental in establishing a learning culture (Van Niekerk, 2000:204; *cf.* 7.2.1).

Spector (as quoted by van Niekerk, 2000:205) aptly illustrates this shift in the role of the educator by contrasting educators in the still dominant paradigm against educators in the new paradigm. The author describes the new paradigm educator as one who views learners as equal partners, adopt teaching methods that are congruent with the way learners learn the subject, collaborate with other educators as equals to determine options for practice and serve as change facilitators, designing and implementing strategies for improvement in education (*cf.*7.2.1).

4.4 THE EMOTIONAL PROCESSES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Leadership as a topic has been discussed widely in literature and aspects of research. Welter and Egmon (2006:21) regard leadership as acting with foresight in the best interest of the organisation's value chain, in line with personal and societal values. The authors reiterate that for leaders to bring about effective opportunity and change, some core ideas in the current system need not change. In fact, they need to be reinforced and built on as foundational to success (Welter & Egmon, 2006:20).

To ensure success at schools, Benus and Nanus (as quoted by Sergiovanni, 2005:44) caution school principals to provide the management support to ensure that people do things right while they focus on the leadership they provide and on doing things right for teaching and learning.

Leiding (2004:34) states that leaders can visualise a purpose and generate value in work, are imaginative, passionate, nonconforming, risk takers and often need to achieve control of themselves before they can control others. This calls for leaders to be emotionally intelligent and to understand themselves and their emotions, have self-awareness and handle relationships with others within the school (*cf.* 7.2.2.3).

The emotions of the leader are likely to be fundamental to his/her practice. McCluskey (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:78) suggest that a leader's EI is a key feature in regarding schools as organic wholes that grow and develop, in which all participants and their knowledge are interrelated, and where this interaction extends to the surrounding environment. Loader and Beatty (as

quoted by Morrison, 2002:78) suggest that a leader's EI concerns the ability to foster a safe environment and the authors see emotions as playing a significant role in the emergent construction of meaning at schools (*cf.*7.2.2.3).

From a study undertaken at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, reflecting on how leaders experience, express, reflect upon and understand the emotionality of their work, Beatty (2004:186) concludes the following:

- Leaders' emotional responses to perceptions about others' emotions and lack thereof, shape their behaviours and attitudes
- Passion, purpose and determination are crucial to providing the emotional drive and force necessary to lead, even if you are the only one who can see the goal line.
- Sustaining passion is often intertwined with troubling anxiety associated with vulnerability and need for approval and success.
- The handling of the fear of loss of control can be a significant part of the emotional experience of a leader. It is illustrative of the leader's emotional coping strategies and indicative of the style of leadership 'in use'.
- Managing others' emotions is seen as essential to leadership.
- An internal emotional management system is important to sustaining confidence and commitment (*cf.* 7.2.2.3).

Taylor (as quoted by Moss, 2005:96) describes the currency of leadership as having a vision. It is what sets the leader apart from the manager whose emphasis is on the implementation of someone else's ideas (*cf.* 7.2.3).

According to Leiding (2004:35), managers prefer working with others, are collaborative, maintain a low level of emotional involvement in relationships and may be viewed by others as inscrutable, detached and manipulative. Leaders, on the other hand, maintain inner perspectives that they can use in their relationships with others, relate to people in intuitive, empathic ways, focus on what it means to participate in events and decisions and create

systems where human relations may be turbulent, intense and at times even disorganized.

Moss (2005:93) identifies the effective leader as someone who is not only creative, but is also able to share a vision with followers. The author states further that change in and of itself is futile unless it leads to the fulfilment of a defined purpose or vision. Effective leaders influence change deliberately, they know what they want to achieve and are skilled at achieving it through people (*cf.* 7.2.3).

In forming and promoting a vision, it is important that school leaders and followers realise how emotions are affecting the will and ability to innovate and support the vision wholeheartedly.

James and Vince (as quoted by Fidler & Atton, 2004:212) refer to a small scale study of Welsh principals who gave insights into the nature of stress which they felt and some ways of lessening it. The principals suggested four areas to help develop principals' emotional understanding. These areas were:

- Learning how to *give back* the projections and expectations that the role attracts
- Learning how to make choices about what the role involves and to establish clear boundaries around what it does not
- Learning about the function of the role of principals in containing the emotions that are generated as an everyday aspect of organizing
- Learning how to accept being *good enough* rather than trying to be perfect.

For leaders to be successful in the learning environment, Roper, Pettit and Eade (2003:100) propose that the conventional notions of leadership need to be replaced from authoritative to facilitative leadership, from vertical, unilateral accountability within a work group to multilateral accountability and from a manipulative orientation to a collaborative orientation towards people (*cf.* 7.2.3).

James (2004:264) notes that in educational institutions, emotions and the feelings they engender, flow back and forth- sometimes dangerously. Emotion is how power is experienced and interpreted within the system. Over time, the author states, the continual flow of power and the experience of emotion create ways of working. It could either create in the mind a school that is stable, permanent and enduring or entrap those who work there, block creativity and neutralize the passion required to undertake good educational work. Such institutions become very resistant to change.

4.5 AN EI FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINED SCHOOL CHANGE

According to Moss (2005:98), one of the distinguishing features of EI is the multitude of variables that could be present in a situation and the ability of those involved to process the scenario intelligently. This implies that understanding of the interactions of emotions, of people and their emotions and of oneself and one's emotions can be a key element in sound decisions that involve the future of a school (*cf.* 7.2.2).

Anthony (2003:243) outlines the principles of EI as follows:

- Individuals with high EI place the emotional impact of their words and actions at the forefront.
- An individual's tone defines the emotional current for the message that is spoken.
- Emotionally intelligent individuals carefully rehearse the responses they utilize in emotionally charged and negative situations.
- The emotionally intelligent individual pursues personal growth as an end, not a means (*cf.* 7.2.2).

Emotions typically arise in response to a person's changing relationships. Thus, for the researcher, EI is an imperative prerequisite for leaders to venture into the future with confidence. EI is the capacity to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships and understand the information of those emotions and manage them.

According to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (as quoted by Moss, 2005:99) emotionally skilled school principals have insight into how their emotions influence their thoughts and affect particular behaviours. As they envision the ideal, their emotions may either be motivating or discouraging.

Caruso and Salovey (2004:66) state that the emotionally intelligent principal leverages the data of emotions and the wisdom in feelings while recognising that moods arise for unknown reasons. How people deal with emotional events makes a difference in how successful they are in achieving objectives and how information is remembered and processed (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:66).

For Morrison (2002:77) effective leadership requires EI. According to Palmer *et al.* (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:77), effective leadership for developing strong relations and connectedness, and to facilitating communication for emerging self-organization, requires considerable EI. For Beatty (as quoted by Morrison, 2002:77), EI comprises the ability that participants have to handle themselves and relationships sensitively and effectively (*cf.* 7.2.2).

Anthony (2003:251) stresses that EI is the result of self-discipline in an arena where people are fighting the raging bulls within themselves. Positive intent, the author states, can lead to practised responses and practised responses can lead to behaviour habits which ultimately lead to what is called character and character defines our destinies (cf. 7.2.2).

As education change influences many elements of classroom and school organization, a framework is needed to guide long-term and sustained change. This framework, with an emphasis on developing responsible and emotionally healthy learners and educators, focusing on school change, will assist principals to achieve the primary objective of schools, namely cognitive and academic development, while addressing the complex issues facing education.

4.5.1 Create the right setting

Schlechty (2001:87) states that learning is to schools as profit is to business. Businesses cannot survive unless profits are made; schools should not survive if learners fail to learn.

For Schlechty (2001:63), the art and science of teaching are found in the ability of an educator to invent things that learners will do and from which they will learn those things educators and other members of the adult world believe they need to learn. The author states further that it is necessary that educators become discerning and systematic in assessing the level of engagement in their classrooms because without engagement, there is little likelihood that learners would learn that which is intended they should learn.

MacGrath (2002:vii) is of the opinion that emotions and relationships cannot be ignored, since teaching is, at a fundamental level, about relating to other people. Real improvement in the quality of learning, the author states, comes about when discipline is firm yet respectful and learning is enjoyable. This is possible only when educators are highly skilled, supported, at ease with their work and able to relate positively with the learners in their classes (MacGrath, 2002:viii).

Bluestein (2001:346) notes that healthy school environments promote educator morale, while at the same time physically and psychologically healthy educators help create a positive, healthy school environment. Mosely (as quoted by Bluestein, 2001:346) suggests that adults in a school system need to feel emotionally safe within themselves to be grounded and healthy and capable of meeting their own needs, before they can implement the kinds of programmes that would promote emotional safety throughout the system.

According to Leiding (2004:ix), schools are first and foremost learning communities that should be carefully led and managed. They should be aesthetically pleasing, offering beautiful images and language that nurture learners and educators. Schools should be democratic and emphasize moral connections, which means taking responsibility for one's actions and doing the right thing (Leiding, 2004:ix).

Paton and McCalman (2000:36) state that managing change is a multi-disciplinary activity. The authors reiterate that those responsible, whatever their designation, must possess or have access to a wide range of skills, resources, support and knowledge. These are cited below:

- Communication skills are essential and must be applied both within and outwith the managing team.
- Maintaining motivation and providing leadership to all concerned is necessary.
- The ability to facilitate and orchestrate group and individual activities is crucial.
- Negotiation and influencing skills are invaluable.
- The ability to manage on all planes, upward, downward and within the peer group, must be acquired.
- Knowledge of and the facility to influence the rationale for change is essential (Paton & McCalman, 2000:36) (*cf.* 7.2.1).

According to Sergiovanni (2005:42), teaching can be thought of as a practice shared by educators and principals. In each case, sharing is a characteristic of the practice itself. It is not a separate decision controlled by a person. Principals as well as educators are entitled to assume leadership roles as long as the roles they assume are matched with their levels of competency and commitment (Sergiovanni, 2005:42).

South African schools face the challenge of having to provide a multicultural setting where teaching and learning are central as well as providing a learner-centred, emotionally supportive learning environment with the ultimate goal of improving learner achievement. Ndhlovu *et al.* (2002: 97) identify the new vision for South African schools as characterized by less hierarchical structures, more participative decision-making, more flexible job functions, a great deal of teamwork and a commitment to ongoing personal and organizational development (*cf.* 7.2.1).

Roper *et al.* (2003:26) describe this adequately as organizational learning (OL) which is defined as a process of developing new knowledge that changes an organization's behaviour to improve future performance. For the educators and learners at school, such learning is not simply about making better decisions, but also about making sense of their perceptions and interpretations of their environment.

These authors (Roper *et al.*, 2003:26) further state that, fundamentally, transformation needs to take the cultural level as it touches on the beliefs and value system of individuals. In this respect, the leadership of the school plays an important role in developing an appropriate value system of the school. Such a value system is not necessarily imposed form the top, but needs to evolve gradually in response to the school's processes of sharing learning (*cf.* 7.2.5).

MacGrath (2002:2) identifies some of the elements that help create ordered procedures and a calm environment as having routine procedures in the classroom, asserting limits in the form of rules and expectations, rewarding positive behaviour, implementing consistent sanctions for negative behaviour and training learners how to sit quietly and listen attentively.

At the same time, MacGrath (2002:74) suggests that cooperative relationships among learners lead to three major advantages:

- The greater the cooperation between learners, the less conflict is likely between them.
- In an atmosphere of relative harmony, one potential source of anger which could be directed towards an educator is eliminated.
- Learners can either help or hinder one another. If the former, more learners can succeed and will have a greater investment in making school work for them and their behaviour will improve. The latter results in learners disengaging from their learning (MacGrath, 2002:74; *cf.* 7.2.5).

4.5.2 Follow a programme

Every management system within a school has ideas of what the school is all about and how it functions.

Roper *et al.* (2003:90) define a management structure as the critical mass of decision makers who influence the school's strategic perspective and policies. A management system in contrast, refers to the formal, codified set of procedures that determine the processes of decision-making (*cf.* 7.2.3).

In Chapter 3, reference was made to the school as a learning organization. Paton and McCalman (2000:201) posit that the learning organization concept has been suggested as a way of moving an organization towards improved performance on the understanding that improvement depends on learning something new, on seeing through things with a different perspective and that continuous improvement requires a commitment to learning. The risk of not learning is that old practices will be repeated and any changes would be merely cosmetic.

Roper *et al.* (2003:103) stress that the creation of a learning organization is a task that requires a process of organizational transformation. The authors suggest a flow chart that indicates four stages in the process (*cf.* 7.2.4).

4.5.2.1 Stage 1: Exploration

Roper *et al.* (2003:104) indicate that the main purpose of this stage is for school principals to explore ideas and concepts about human schools as organizations. Exploring ideas and concepts means employing a vocabulary and syntax that is simple, jargon-free and that refers to people's common experiences. This is best done in a non-invasive, non-intrusive manner such as in seminars where there is ample opportunity for all to express opinions and experiences without having to defend any particular position. The general theme for the seminar in stage 1 may be called *exploring school effectiveness.*

According to Fink and Stoll (2004:304), schools are perceived differently by learners, educators, principals, parents and communities. Effective schools are the result of the interactions of innumerable individuals and groups. The authors reiterate that in order for a school to be perceived as effective or ineffective, exploring questions such as the following becomes all-important: *What are educators doing? How are learners involved? How does the principal contribute? What are the roles of parents and communities? How do the individuals and groups relate to one another?*

4.5.2.2 Stage 2: Organizational analysis

It is only at this stage that the team is encouraged to examine its own organization in terms of understanding structures and procedures within the school, as well as its value systems and culture.

The methodology used will change from seminars to workshop exercises, relying on experiential methods with the theme *purpose and performance*. The objective of this stage would be to achieve a firm understanding of the school and its change processes and options available to school principals to sustain long-term performance and change (Roper *et al.*, 2003:104).

4.5.2.3 Stage 3: Managing performance

According to Roper *et al.* (2003:104), the team takes on the responsibility of conceiving, designing and introducing helpful structures for the transformational process. At this stage, the team will readily see the interconnections across structures, processes and values. This may be completed in a relatively short time or extended over a considerable period. This is the stage in which participants would discover several interconnected school processes to be dealt with that had not been foreseen. The critical requirement is to examine the performance of learners and the entire school constantly, reinforcing conditions for achievements and addressing conditions for shortfalls.

Hopkins (as quoted by Fink & Stoll, 2004:307) proposes that different change strategies, leadership styles and communication networks may be required to

effect change at a school. Dalin and Rust (as quoted by Mulford, 2004:632) warns that it is fatal to assume that the school is learning only if it is undergoing change. More crucial is its ability to monitor its own system constantly, and accept as well as reject new practices and new products as they are found to be appropriate and inappropriate.

4.5.2.4 Stage 4: Internalization

This stage involves recognizing the systems needed to aid the outcomes sought. Notably documentation and information systems, systems for reinforcing the value premises underlying the new practices, both rewarding and corrective mechanisms and training and development measures should be considered. This includes both the technical skills and the soft skills to help educators adopt the new practices more effectively. It will be seen that training *follows* changes in structures and processes (Roper *et al.*, 2003:106).

Silins *et al.* (2004:430) posit that active leadership represents the extent to which the leaders at the school are perceived by educators as visible, accessible and actively involved in the core work of the school, including monitoring and reviewing the change process and the progress of learners.

The focus now turns to a more detailed discussion of monitoring and evaluating the process of change.

4.5.3 Monitor and evaluate

Balogun and Hailey (2004:209) outline the following techniques as important when monitoring and evaluating change progress:

Hold focus groups and workshops. Workshops could become a way of sharing learning when educators are drawn together to discuss the change process, contribute ideas on how problems may be solved and perhaps help one another with problems they are encountering.

Manage by walking about and following an open-door policy. Senior managers could make a point of being visible and available for staff to talk to.

They could visit departments and classrooms and discuss the progress of change with the staff.

Organize team briefing. Many organizations use team briefing to keep staff appraised of the progress made with the process of change. These meetings could be made two-way so that comments that staff members make are collated by specially nominated staff and passed back upwards.

Host question and answer sessions. Managers host a question and answer session for staff. These may take the form of informal staff/management meetings such as special breakfast or lunchtime meetings, or more formally organized meetings.

Call in external consultants to monitor progress. External consultants could be engaged to run focus groups or workshops, or conduct staff surveys. Staff may be more prepared to be open and honest about what they say in front of an outsider, particularly if guaranteed some level of autonomy.

Implement staff suggestions or commentary schemes. This could be used to gather feedback on things that need changing or improvement. This could be done through e-mail or intranet discussion groups or having a suggestion box (Balogun & Hailey, 2004:209).

In order for the school to experience change positively, it becomes important for educators to monitor learner progress and performance within the school. According to Hart, Dixon, Drummond and McIntyre (2004:171), educators can positively contribute to the progressive transformation of their learners' capacity for learning. The authors reiterate that one central priority for educators is to try to increase the extent to which learners feel emotionally safe, comfortable and positive about their participation in learning activities. Central to their professional thinking should be the recognition that capacity to learn is affected by emotional states, and that the common classroom reality for many learners is one of feeling disengaged, insecure and alienated.

A necessary ongoing task for educators is therefore the transformation of these emotional states (Hart *et al.*, 2004:171). This will foster greater learner

participation at the school which will ultimately result in less likelihood of alienation which could have dire consequences for the learner, the school, the community and society as a whole.

For the purpose of this study an *EI Competency Framework* (*cf.* Chapter 7) is proposed to assist educators and principals to effect change in their schools successfully.

The researcher of this thesis created the framework to address the question of how schools can become emotional change sites of teaching and learning delivery. This implies that the role of each participant in the change process and in the establishment of a sound learning culture of the school is important. Managers of change therefore need to steer the school, considering the feelings and emotions of those involved in the change process.

What is important to consider when thinking about educational change is that these frames act collectively, not individually, to influence the change process. Consequently, educational change behaves as a complex system with multiple frames or elements interacting together as a system to produce non-linear interactions. Furthermore, these interactions are complex, meaning that the system can respond with inertia to resist change and stay the same, or dynamically self-adjust to a new order or balance (Hoban, 2002:36).

Significant educational change (Hargreaves, as quoted by Hoban, 2002:19) can no longer be achieved in a step-by-step linear process. School improvement processes are not implemented smoothly through locked-in five year development plans. Schools do not have the luxury of being able to focus on a singular goal and go through stages of achieving it over several years while the rest of their world stands still.

Attempts at managing change need to consider the multiple influences collectively and focus on the whole dynamics of the change process (Hoban, 2002:36).

The next few paragraphs provide an exploration of the EI Competency Framework postulated by the researcher of this thesis, for possible implementation at schools undergoing change.

Schools implementing the framework could possibly enhance the education experiences of learners and educators. Implementation of this framework could have a positive impact not only on classrooms, but also on how principals lead and manage, how educators teach, how learners learn and how parents participate in their children's learning. This could also enhance the functioning of SGBs at such schools.

Making the commitment to implement the framework is a huge step for a school. It is agreeing to make basic changes in the way the school does business and to open up classroom procedures, activities and assessments to collective reflection (Allen, Rogers, Hensley, Glanton & Livingston, 1999:1). Roles of educators, learners, administrators, parents and community members will change, and people will be asked to act in different ways. Schools must therefore respond to providing support to all learners and educators to create a setting of collaboration and collective responsibility.

In addition to focusing on learners' cognitive development, educators must also be prepared to address learners' continuing physical, emotional and social growth. Educators should therefore be equipped to meet the value-related expectations of the external school environment as well as imparting knowledge to learners.

To contribute, the learners need to feel safe, not only with the educator but with one another. What should be reflected at the school is respect for individuals' ideas which they are expected to show for one another. The expectation is that individuals do not disregard others' contributions, that each learner experiences himself/herself equal to the rest of the group. The learners' readiness to contribute to collective work is affected by awareness and appreciation that their educators always try to set work where everyone can get involved (Hart *et al.*, 2004:108).

School change emphasizes the need for strong, effective transformational leadership. Leaders have a primary influence over the opportunity to reframe the school setting and the receptivity from stakeholders to alternative interpretations of their experience of the change. Systemic change also demands more central direction in the form of formal and informal communication and influence, largely because the process is fraught with anxiety and conflict (Seashore Louis, 2004:406). Thus, transformational change appears to demand influence from both leaders and subordinates, and frequent adjustments between the degree of decentralization versus coordination and integration.

For the researcher of this thesis, *successful schools* signify a learning environment where the educators and learners are motivated by personal influence, incentives and concern for physical and emotional needs, health and safety, and are encouraged to grow and improve continually. This learning environment also encourages active participation with and concern for the community of which the school forms part.

In order for the school to survive, the challenge for today's secondary schools is to be sites of *emotionally intelligent* interactions. According to Fisher, Ashanasy and Mehrabian (as quoted by Coon, 2003: 371), people who excel in life tend to be emotionally intelligent. The costs of poor emotional skills can be high. A lack of EI can ruin careers and sabotage achievement. For learners, having poor emotional skills can contribute to depression, eating disorders, unwanted pregnancies, aggression and violent crime. The researcher deems all of these possible consequences resulting from a lack of EI as possible threats to a stable, safe school environment for the learner.

According to Duke (2004:30-31), *educational change* is a change intended to alter the goals of education and improve what learners are expected to learn, how learners are instructed and assessed, and how educational functions are organized, regulated, governed and financed.

Sergiovanni (2005:103) is of the opinion that leadership emerges as a powerful force and provides the conditions and support that schools need to succeed and educators need to be effective.

The changing situation in education places particular demands on the principal and other senior managers at the schools of South Africa. Tsukudu and Taylor (as quoted by Coleman, 2003:181) sum these up as:

- to try and introduce strategies to restore a positive learning environment to their schools;
- to restore authority and discipline;
- to work with parent teacher associations in order to create conditions of stability;
- to make schools a safe place for educators and pupils;
- to develop a professional culture of learning; and
- to encourage parental participation in the education of their children (Tsukudu & Taylor, as quoted by Coleman, 2003:181).

Dalin (1998:1065) states that learners are faced with an ever increasingly complex world in which they need to define their lives. Schools should not prepare for a given future, but first and foremost help students prepare for the unknown. There should be time for personal growth and development. Learning is taking place much more in a workshop setting than in a classroom. The school is full of activities, it is a meeting point for people of all ages, its members have a role in decision-making and take responsibility for implementation. The role of learners has to change dramatically by bringing them into aspects of school development, both at the classroom level as well as at the school level. They need to experience the change process, learn the skills of solving problems, of communication in groups, of leadership and membership. It is by practising change process in the 'school laboratory' that they can gain the security and strength to face an uncertain future.

4.5.4 Guide school change

According to James and Connolly (2000:16), change is complex because it is inextricably linked to our emotions. Imposed as well as self-imposed change could call up a whole range of emotions: anger at the imposition and the denial of personal autonomy, sorrow at the sense of loss of the old and anxiety at the uncertainties that the new would bring. Anxiety is likely to be the dominant emotion in the management of both imposed and self-imposed change (James & Connolly, 2000:16).

The authors state further that emotional responses are essentially non-rational by definition, and managing these non-rational responses to change, especially anxiety, is crucial to change management as such (James & Connolly, 2000:16).

Based on a framework for secondary school reform, produced by Brown University the following guiding phases were identified (http:www.alliance.brown.edu/programs /lab2000/secondary):

Phase 1: Establishing an improvement team. The improvement team serves as a core group in facilitating communication about the improvement process throughout the school. The team could include educators, learners, parents and other designated staff.

Phase 2: Mapping current school improvement initiatives through self-assessment. A *taking stock* process is used to identify school improvement initiatives currently occurring at the school and how they can be integrated.

Phase 3: Compiling ongoing data on student achievement. The school should have performance indicators for learners and record data about student achievement and performance. This allows educators to identify areas for improvement and to document changes in learner performance over time.

Phase 4: Having an implementation plan. Based on the results and analysis of learner performance data, each school develops a plan indicating priorities

for improvement, defines action steps for implementation and describes evidence for determining progress and success.

Phase 5: Implementing the plan: School structures for implementing the plan are established, there is ongoing data collection on learner performance and the plan is updated regularly to support continuous improvement.

For the researcher of this thesis, the purpose of applying these steps would be to *engage* the entire school as a team in the change effort.

In this regard, Cherniss and Goleman (2001:251) write that relationships are an essential part of our environment and that our most crucial relationships are often in groups that have particular importance to us, such as the school. These relationships and groups, the authors state, give educators and learners a sense of identity, guide them to appropriate behaviour and provide feedback on their behaviour.

4.5.5 Outline the educator's role as facilitator of change

According to Schlechty (2001:101), the primary product of the school today is academic work that, if properly pursued, results in academic learning. What is also going on at schools is a transaction between learners and educators. What learners want from schools and their educators are activities that respond to their needs and satisfy their motives and values. What educators want from learners is their attention and commitment.

Gardner (2004:135) states that one of the challenges for educators is to socialize learners into the school's setting: helping learners to progress from learning through observation to learning through formal tuition.

Douglas and Wykowski (1999:8) believe that effective change in organizations is a process, which is in contrast to the traditional view of change as an event followed by another state of business as usual. Effective and enduring change, according to the authors, is seen as the analogue to effective organizational learning.

While educators have certain rights that are protected by the Constitution, they also have the obligation to protect learners' right to education (1996:sect.29), learners' rights to freedom and security of the person (1996:sect.12), and learners' right to a safe environment (1996:sect. 24) in terms of the common law principle of *in loco parentis.* According to Shaba, Campher, Du Preez, Grobler and Loock (2003:74), this principle means *in the place of parents*. For the duration of the learner's stay at school, the educators and the principal act as parents to such a learner. These officials are vested with parental authority for as long as learners are under their control. Learners, in turn, are expected to subject themselves to the authority and control of those acting in the place of their parents and obey all reasonable and lawful instructions.

According to Rusaw (1998:181), individual responsibility for learning depends on motivations, opportunities, rewards and satisfaction at school. In performing direct roles (involving teaching skills in a structured format to achieve outcomes) and indirect roles (influencing learning by modelling certain behaviours), Rusaw (1998:182) states that change agents accomplish four primary objectives: to equip people with skills, attitudes and abilities; to connect people with resources for putting new ideas, information and strategies into action; to influence motivation to learn; to encourage people to take certain responsibility for making specific changes in their work environment.

Connor *et al.* (2003:140) highlight different demands that are made on the educator as change agent, as this role requires a temporal capability, which is the ability to comprehend various temporal conceptions (such as time perspectives, including clock, inner and social time) and dimensions (such as. sequencing, time and pacing) of change (*cf.* 3.4.3).

According to Connor *et al.* (2003:141), change agent roles include *catalysts* who precipitate change by acknowledging, and sometimes encouraging dissatisfaction with the *status quo*. *Solution givers* offer suggestions about what could be done to solve the problems the catalyst has made obvious. To make useful and appropriate suggestions for solutions, change agents in this

role must understand the intricacies of the organization as it currently stands and the extent of its available resources. *Process helpers* advise change managers and organization members on how the change process works in aspects such as communication skills, securing cooperation and persuasion in accomplishing these processes. To successfully carry out the role, process helpers must not only have skills, but also credibility with the participating individuals and groups. *Resource linkers* bring together various financial, people and knowledge resources. Change agents effective in this role know where the necessary resources are, how to avail themselves of them and apply them to the present case. Once the change is implemented, the school must be stabilized around it. *Stabilizers* do not play a change agent role, but a management role and management may appoint stabilizers to work with the recipient group. However, they serve as an extension of the manager, not as change agents (Connor *et al.*, 2003:142-143).

Woodman and Pasmore (2005:198) state that the role of an effective principal or change agent begins to shift from one of knowing the answers and directing planned change aimed toward specified outcomes, to one of creating a context for self-organizing change in which purposeful outcomes are jointly created by diverse members of the system. Principals and other change agents in the school must become adept at engaging the wisdom within the system in the ongoing process of co-creating meaningful action that serves the whole system (Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:198).

In the educational context, schools traditionally provided the intellectual capital, literacy, numeracy and scientific understanding, while the family provided the social capital. The change in employment patterns, the breakdown of traditional family groupings, the decline of religious practice and the growth of consumerism have all impacted on the social capital supporting the child. The change affects many schools so that they now need to provide the social, the emotional as well as the intellectual capital for learners (Davies, 2004:221).

Evans and Schaefer (2001:103) stress the fact that although roles are created in the change process and designate some people to work in the change,

everyone in the school plays some part in the overall effort and everyone is ultimately a target of the change.

4.5.6 Key factors for effective change management

Leithwood and Duke (2004:118) advocate an attempt to simplify the complex processes of change at school to make them more manageable for school principals. This means conceptualizing the change process as a series of temporarily sequenced stages, each focused on a key set of functions or tasks such as diagnosing readiness for change, developing goals for change and choosing programme to achieve the goals.

Boss and Golembiewski (as quoted by Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:179) state that while principals and other change agents often assume that change is something that someone with power and authority *does* to someone who has less power and authority (logic of replacement), the view of continuous and emergent change requires a form of leadership that shows people *how to be* (logic of attraction). It assumes that people change to a new position because they are attracted to it, because they choose to engage in a process of co-creating intentions and actions that have meaning for them. The energy of attraction that sustains self-organizing change is fuelled by the quantity and quality of connections among people at the school (Quinn & Dutton, as quoted by Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:179) and by their belief in the possibilities of what they can create together (Ludema, Wilmot & Srivastva, as quoted by Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:179; *cf.*3.4.2).

Schlechty (2001:161) states that, from the perspective of principals, guiding change is largely a matter of effective communication, monitoring, evaluation and enforcement. The new procedure must be described and communicated to those who need to use it through writing, workshops and one-on-one conversations. To be sure, this communication must be persuasive, because old habits are typically valued highly, no matter how inefficient they might be.

Paton and McCalman (2000:265) call for the consideration of ten key factors prior to initializing change. Those factors would enable the change agents to confidently manage the process of transition from that which is inadequate to

that which is desired. A discussion of the ten factors follows in the next few paragraphs.

4.5.6.1 Change is all-pervasive

Any change impacts on people, therefore a holistic view of change must be taken to ensure that the full environmental impact is understood (Paton & McCalman, 2000:265).

4.5.6.2 Effective change needs active senior management support

Paton and McCalman (2000:266) state that it is vital for senior management to support the change process. Without this support, the change will lack vision and senior management will not get the backing for change from staff. To achieve this, Fidler and Atton (2004: 58) highlight competencies they regard as vital for senior managers such as self-confidence, achievement focus, influencing others, having a strategic perspective and communication.

4.5.6.3 Change is a multi-disciplinary activity

Successful change projects are conducted via a project team. Therefore, for the successful management of change, a multidisciplinary approach is necessary (Paton & McCalman, 2000:266). Fink and Stoll (2004:301) propose that change for the sake of change is a related issue that can be a cause of overload. Not all change is improvement and the pace, timing and appropriateness of each particular change needs to be considered carefully.

4.5.6.4 Change is about people

According to Paton and McCalman (2000:266), when contemplating change, management should involve the people in the process from the outset. Change management is about people management and concepts of openness, communication and involvement are vital.

4.5.6.5 Change is about success

Schools must be flexible enough to rise to the challenges of today and tomorrow. Creating a school culture which is receptive to change should

enable the school to reach its goals for success (Paton & McCalman, 2000:267).

4.5.6.6 Change is a perceptual process

Paton and McCalman (2000:267) reiterate that change is about identifying triggers, seeking vision, recruiting converts to the vision and maintaining and renewing the need for change on an ongoing basis. The effective management of change demands management action on all these fronts.

4.5.6.7 Effective change requires competent change agents

Change can upset people; they can become overjoyed, be overenthusiastic or shy away from it. The change agent therefore needs to feel comfortable in dealing with interpersonal relationships, coping with conflict and ambiguity and the thousand and one different emotions that staff could display as a result of the change process itself. The change agent has to be able to facilitate those involved through this process by taking their feelings and emotions into account, getting them to address how these emotions relate to change itself and steering the school forward (Paton & McCalman, 2000:268).

4.5.6.8 In terms of methodology, there is no best way

The authors warn that there is no singular approach to change. Change agents must not be too blinkered about change management. What works for one change situation might not be fully appropriate to another (Paton & McCalman, 2000:269).

4.5.6.9 Change is about ownership

The management team of the school must feel that they are responsible for the successful implementation of the change. This responsibility is best discharged through a desire to succeed rather than to survive. There should be a movement from control to commitment. When people feel ownership of the change process, and feel that it offers opportunity, they are committed to its satisfactory accomplishment. Get ownership by getting involvement; get

involvement by openness and communication; get people to live the change (Paton & McCalman, 2000:269).

4.5.6.10 Change is about fun, challenge and opportunity

Management of change should be challenging and faced positively. Senior management should provide those involved in it with the opportunity to develop themselves and the rest of the school. Make it a fun experience for all (Paton & McCalman, 2000:270).

Molinsky (as quoted by Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:49) suggests that principals leading change at schools are often in a win-lose situation. Early wins result in advancement being made before change projects have been completed. Thus rotation may prevent managers from having to take long-term responsibility for any potential failure.

The role of the principal as change agent in continuous change is not necessarily one of creating or initiating change in a linear, planned fashion. Instead, it is one of facilitating increased awareness of the patterns of existing change (Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:172).

According to Stickland (1998:164), any change intervention aimed at improving organizational effectiveness - in whatever area - must attempt to understand the meaning and importance which organizational members attach to what constitutes successful change.

4.6 OVERCOMING OBSTACLES TO CHANGE

Over the past few decades, schools have been marked sites of change and educators have been on the receiving end of these new innovations.

Doyle and Ponder (as quoted by Stoll & Fink, 2004:299) view resistance as a natural and predictable response as change has usually been something *done to* educators, as opposed to something *done with* them.

Gustavson (as quoted by Stoll & Fink, 2004:299) explains that people are afraid of drastic innovations partly because they prefer the familiar, and partly

because the vested interests of most people are normally bound-up with the existing set-up.

According to Evans and Schaefer (2001:2), the prospect of change confronts people with the reality that they are not separate from their work, that in a deeper sense they are what they do and they are defined by how they do it.

Evans (2001:92) supports this statement, adding that one's openness to innovation depends on a combination of factors, including personality, life experience and career experience. The author states that too often, when educators prove reluctant or unwilling to change, their behaviour is interpreted psychologically as a kind of character flaw *(She's a resistant person; He is rigid)*.

Paton and McCalman (2000:49) state that change needs to be portrayed in positive terms, and this is regarded by the authors as a necessity to ensure long-term survival of an organization. In so doing, the authors argue that gurus, executives, governments and principals must be aware that not all resistance to change needs to be negative. Rational, principled and shared resistance to proposed developments may well signal that acting in everyone's best interest may not be best served by implementing change.

Resistance to change, Balogun and Hailey (2004:214) state, should be expected at schools as an emotional process and should be seen as natural. The key, however, is to help people through their resistance so that they can move on to accept the changes (*cf.*3.9.2).

James (2004:267) states that resistance is a social defence which maintains the *status quo* by opposing change. In this way, the anxiety associated with the change is reduced. Importantly, resistance, especially when it is given a gloss of rationality, also reduces anxiety associated with revealing that a response to the proposed change is essentially emotional and not rational (James, 2004:267).

According to Sikes, Huberman and Acker (as quoted by Hoban, 2002:35), educators are often more receptive to change up to the age of 40, but then tend to resist change or even become disenchanted due to educator burnout.

Loyalty, a positive response that is expected to result in implementation of the change projects, leads to burnout or change fatigue. Shiron (as quoted by Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:47) defines burnout as a chronic condition of physical and emotional reduction that is a result of extensive demands in work. Pettigrew (as quoted by Woodman & Pasmore, 2005:48) uses the term change fatigue to describe change programmes that appear to be all input and process without achieving change.

Gardner (2004:125) posits that those affected by change may be excited or left unmoved by innovations, but they may also be repelled by them. The author states that while resistance is usually seen as negative, it can also play a more positive role: It is valuable to wrestle with ideas that were initially resisted, to show where they are inadequate or wrong. Such struggle can strengthen the perspective, help the person to understand it better and, at times, stimulate a change of mind (Gardner, 2004:125).

Connor (as quoted by James & Connolly, 2000:19) states that people respond to change both in a logical way and in a way which is clearly underpinned by emotions. The author sites the main reasons for resisting change as follows:

- *Lack of trust*. Those individuals who are resisting change may not trust the change initiators' interpretation of the need for change. Those resisting a proposed change may feel that is has hidden, ominous and serious consequences that will only become apparent at a later time.

- *Belief that change is unnecessary*. If there is no clear evidence that the need for change is high, then resistance will also be high.

- *Belief that change is not feasible*. Although the need for change may be recognized, resistance to it may be justified on the grounds that the proposed change will not work.

- *Economic threats*. Proposed change is likely to be resisted if it threatens the job security of those affected by it. Changes in ways of working might make existing skills redundant. Changes in structure may make particular posts redundant. The change may signal a shift, the future implications of which may affect job security.

- *Fear of failure*. Change requires adaptation to a new way of working. The anxieties that individuals may have about their capability to adapt to these cause resistance to change. They may also be anxious that they will not be as effective in the new situation as they are at present (James & Connolly, 2000:19-20)

Gardner (2004:127) states that people's thought processes sharpen when they wrestle with the idea of change and it is even possible that they might eventually find merit in the ideas that they once rejected. For the researcher, the principal is therefore a key figure in understanding and influencing the environment while setting the example and gaining commitment for the change process from the school community (*cf.* 3.4.2).

4.7 ELEMENTS THAT MAKE FOR LASTING CHANGE

The Oxford English Dictionary defines change as *making or becoming different; difference form previous state; substitution of one for another*. According to Stickland (1998:61), this captures two contrasting attributes: firstly, that of *making* or *becoming* which implies process and activity over time; secondly, *substitution*, suggesting that change can also be more of an instantaneous event, in which a physical switch-over takes place at a discreet moment in time. Dissecting the definition further, *making* can imply a planned and directed change endeavour, whereas *becoming* suggests a more natural, unconscious change which is intrinsically part of the life cycle of the entity or system concerned (Stickland, 1998:61).

In enhancing the management of schools, Drucker (as quoted by Leiding, 2002:55) states that schools must be transparent and this implies that educators have to know and understand the school structure they are supposed to work in. Someone in the school must have the authority to make

the final decision and someone must be in command in a crisis. The writer reiterates that one does not *manage* people. The task is to lead people. The goal is to make productive the specific strengths and knowledge of each individual. Management exists for the sake of the school's results. It has to start with the intended results and has to organize the resources of the school to attain these results. The goal is to make the school capable of producing results outside of itself (Leiding, 2002:56).

According to Allen *et al.* (1999:89), there are several elements that support the change process. What follows is an exploration of each element (*cf.* 3.5.3.3)

4.7.1 Educators must be active in the change process, as well as principals and parents

Allen *et al.* (1999:89) state that for real change to occur, the ways decisions are made must themselves be changed. It makes common sense to have decisions made by those who will be most involved in implementing them. The greater the involvement of those who will affect the change, the greater the chance for achieving success. Therefore, a shared governance process allowing for school-based decisions about teaching and learning will make for more effective change.

4.7.2 Educators need to be in touch with new ideas, effective practices and the latest methodologies

Implementing change requires that the school community think in new and different ways. Educators and administrators need access to new concepts, the latest information and opportunities to interact with other educators. This may include seeking outside information, support and resources and interactions with other educators at conferences, active participation in professional organizations, acquiring up-to-date literature, participating in electronic discussions and identifying outside experts (Allen *et al.*, 1999:90).

Schon (as quoted by Hoban, 2002:62) sees reflection as the hallmark of a professional and saw it inappropriate to treat teaching as a craft based on a

prescriptive knowledge base to apply in a recipe-type fashion to practice. Instead, professionals need to recognize the complexity, uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value-conflict of a work setting and have reflective conversations about a situation that is consistent with a conception of teaching as an art or profession.

Barnes (as quoted by Hoban, 2002:62) states that to achieve change, educators' need to discover their existing frame for understanding what happens in their classes is only one of several possible ones, and this, according to Schon, is likely to be achieved only when educators themselves reflect critically upon what they do and its results.

4.7.3 For educators to change, they need new skills and access to knowledge and training, including research skills

According to Maeroff (as quoted by Allen *et al.*, 1999:91), to change learners, educators must change. Most educators attend an assembly at the beginning of the school year, a session generally meant to pat participants on the back and charge them up for the new school year. There is nothing wrong with a motivating pep talk, Allen *et al.* (1999:91) state. However, the general pattern of staff development as practised in many schools does not have a direct impact on learners' achievement because it is unfocused; it is not connected to the needs of educators or learners or to the real work of the school. This kind of staff development ignores the complexity of teaching and learning – and also ignores what is known about learning and implementing complicated and elaborate new curricular programmes or instructional strategies. Staff development must be tied to the school's covenant. Educators need the technical knowledge to employ new methodologies based on the needs of learners and to put in practice curricular, instructional or organizational changes.

Wohlstetter and Mohrnan (as quoted by Allen *et al.*, 1999:92) state that educators need knowledge about curriculum development and what teaching should look like when geared toward independent learning. Without expertise, educators have little authority in decisions they make. Putting in place

governance and research processes also requires that educator leaders know how groups work, how to assess anxiety levels and how to reduce conflict. Such skills allow faculty and staff to deal with problems immediately- an essential trait for success- and to build the capacity for coping with the exigencies of the change (Allen *et al.*, 1999:92).

4.7.4 Educators need real authority to make things happen and a support system for their well-being

Nothing can demoralize a school community more than to see its efforts rejected. Glickman (as quoted by Allen *et al.*, 1999:93) reiterates the importance of having school management approval and support in implementing any change. It is also wise to have any exemptions from District or National Education Departments policy in writing. Class scheduling and homework policies are examples where assurances may need to be secured before the school begins extensive effort in implementing different programmes or policies (Allen *et al.*, 199:93).

4.7.5 To promote sustainable change, build a collaborative school culture where educators do not just share decisions, but actually work together

Joyce and Showers (as quoted by Allen *et al.*, 1999:93) found that establishing a school culture in which educators work collaboratively is a necessary component of school success. Professional growth is bound to be impaired in a setting where practitioners do not see their colleagues practise their profession and hardly ever teach one another techniques (Maeroff, as quoted by Allen *et al.*, 1999:93).

4.7.6 Change must be relevant

Miles and Louis (as quoted by Allen *et al.*, 1999:94) found that for schools to change, the change must be meaningful and the entire school community must be motivated to change. If a proposal is not meaningful, it is met with reluctance and cynicism. The value is for the school to initiate change through a process of study and a driving focus (Allen *et al.*, 1999:94).

4.7.7 Do not change for the sake of change

According to Allen *et al.* (1999:94), whatever the focus of the school, it should be tied to the covenant and restated at all meetings, even listed at the top of the agenda. Without focus, meetings and conversations can become unglued and result in nothing but gripe sessions. Without a focus on what a school wants for its learners, decisions are not related to an ultimate goal.

For the researcher of this thesis, a few core elements are vital to ensure lasting change at schools. These elements are discussed in the next few paragraphs:

Principals have to recognize that educators have a contribution to make to the change process. This implies that it is the principal's responsibility to share leadership at the school to effect lasting change. According to Sergiovanni (2005:41), this implies that leadership belongs to a designated leader. It is the leader's choice to share or not to share. The dictionary defines *to share* as *to grant or give a share* and *sharing* as *the original holder grants to another the partial use, enjoyment and possession of a thing*. The author states further that there is wide agreement that effective practice requires principals and other designated leaders to share the leadership responsibilities they have by virtue of their rank or position.

James (2004: 271) states that the principal has a role with others in containing anxiety and emotion and sustaining the transitional zone, thereby transforming anxiety and emotion into creativity. This can be done by employing the following strategies:

- The principal providing a secure framework within which the work of the school and the change process takes place.
- In times of change, continually explaining to the school community what is really going on, especially in terms of internal and external realities.
- Modelling - *walk the talk*, not falling prey to their own emotional mismanagement

- Learning to identify the defensive behaviours - in others
- Identifying and rectifying anti-task behaviour.
- Encouraging colleagues to talk about how they feel.
- Facing up to and resolving conflict
- Being constantly aware of their own feelings and sensitive to others' feelings.

Fullan and Hargreaves (as quoted by Busher, 2006:83) offer eight guidelines for action that principals as leaders may employ to sustain successful schools. These guidelines are as follow:

- Understand the culture
- Value each educator by promoting professional growth
- Extend what you value (breath of vision that is inclusive of all good practice, not just including the leader's preferences)
- Express what you value(remember the importance of using symbols to reflect values)
- Promote collaboration, not co-optation (principals do not have a monopoly of wisdom, therefore vision building is a two-way process with staff, learners and parents)
- Make menus, not mandates (offer a choice of ways in which people can engage with teaching, learning and management successfully)
- Use bureaucratic means to facilitate, not constrain, people's actions
- Connect with the wider environment (Fullan and Hargreaves, as quoted by Busher, 2006:83).

According to Duke (2004:174), sustaining change requires that reforms be integrated into the regular operations of the classroom, school or school

system. For the author, it is imperative that principals mobilize broad-based support for the change process, continue to emphasize the benefits of change and maintain a sound facilitative organizational structure in order to ensure sustained change at their school.

Hall and Southworth (2004:90) state that because of the constancy of change at schools and in society, and the acceleration of educational developments, principals need to be: future-orientated, capable of being sophisticated managers of multiple changes; able to live with change in proactive and productive ways; aware of the professional learning needs of themselves and the school community, active in orchestrating development activities which support educators and learners and which advance the school's capacity to improve.

4.8 SUMMARY

Change comes about in schools because people set out to develop all groups within the school. The assumption therefore follows that change should be beneficial to all participants. Busher (2006:149) posits that change and development may not benefit all groups at a school equally and may even result in educator's spending more time on developing the changes and less time on working with particular learners. The role of the educator as facilitator of change therefore becomes crucial as one which should enhance the quality of learner's learning and EI.

The chapter explored the approaches to change, the responses to change and the educator's role as facilitator of change (*cf.* 3.4.3). The key factors for effective change management (*cf.* 3.2.3) and the elements that make for lasting change (*cf.* 3.5.3.3) were also scrutinized.

The next chapter will focus on the empirical research design.

CHAPTER FIVE

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The framework for the empirical research was provided in chapters two and three which formed the literature study for this research. The focus of this chapter is on the research instruments which were central to the gathering of data for this research. This includes, among others, a discussion on the research concerning the measuring instruments themselves, reasons for selecting a questionnaire as quantitative instrument, and selecting, focus group discussions and structured interviews as qualitative instruments. The construction of question items is provided and the format of the final questionnaires is included. This chapter also outlines how the sample was determined and how the questionnaires were distributed. The North-West University Information Technology (Vaal Triangle Campus) was consulted to analyse the data collected.

Chapter one outlined the overall aim of this study as follows (*cf.* 1.3): To investigate the impact of EI on educators' roles as managers of change.

This was undertaken by

- delineating EI as important contributor to workplace success (*cf.* Chapter 2);
- presenting an overview of the educator as manager of change (*cf.* Chapter 3);
- exploring the change management process in disadvantaged secondary schools and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape and Gauteng and the effect of these management practices on educators and learners (*cf.* Chapter 6); and
- suggesting an EI competency framework to effect change at schools in Eastern Cape and Gauteng successfully (*cf.* Chapter 7).

The empirical investigation aimed at gathering information to the background of these aims, i.e. the current change management process at disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C secondary schools, perceptions regarding the effect of the process on educators and learners and the impact of EI to manage the change process successfully.

According to Verma and Mallick (1999:187), there are two ways of considering the value of school-based research. A professional researcher might well assess its value in terms of its methodological rigour, the extent to which it builds on the body of existing knowledge and extends it, and its generalizability, that is, the extent to which its findings can be applied to wider populations. For much educational research, these are valid criteria (Verma & Mallick,1999:187).

Verma and Mallick (1999:187) state further that if the effectiveness of classroom research is to be improved, it is essential that the research community involves educators as partners in the research process. Both communities need to embrace this modern professionalism. If research and development work is to become relevant to educational advancement, researchers must understand the point of view of the classroom practitioners (Verma & Mallick, 1999:190).

According to Mayer (2005:67), educational practice should be guided by scientific evidence, or evidence-based practice. For the author, the quality of research is tied to the adequacy of the research methods - that is, the research methods must be able to help test the research hypothesis or question (Mayer, 2005:71).

Ranson (as quoted by Verma & Mallick, 1999:71) states that an agenda for educational research in and for the future needs to be shaped by a distinctive theoretical frame which theorizes the values, purposes, conditions and practice of active learning, which can be brought to bear upon and refined as a result of analysing the issues of learning embedded in the layers of historical change affecting individuals, institutions and communities.

This study was conducted following the principles of school-based research. The theoretical framework which forms the basis of this study will now be presented.

5.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Verma and Malick (1999:6), the main role of the term theory is to help guide the researcher. In the social sciences, it usually implies a set of statements describing and explaining the relationship between human behaviour and the factors that affect or explain it.

Best and Khan (2003:90) describe a theory as an attempt to develop a general explanation for some phenomenon. A theory, according to the authors, defines non-observable constructs that are inferred from observable facts and events and are thought to have an effect on the phenomenon under study. A theory describes the relationship among key variables for purposes of explaining a current state or predicting future occurrences. A theory is primarily concerned with explanation and therefore focuses on determining cause-effect relationships.

Thus, a theoretical framework helps the researcher summarize previous information and guide the future course of action. Sometimes the formulation of a theory may indicate missing ideas or links and the kinds of additional data required. A theory is therefore an essential tool of research in stimulating the advancement of knowledge still further (Verma & Mallick, 1999:6).

The research philosophy that underpins this study reflects the principles of positivism and post-positivism.

5.2.1 Positivism

According to Remenyi *et al.* (as quoted by Saunders *et al.*, 2000:85), the positivist researcher prefers working with an observable social reality and the end product of such research can be law-like generalizations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists. The researcher in this tradition assumes the role of an objective analyst, making detached

interpretations about those data that have been collected in an apparently value-free manner.

Gill and Johnson (as quoted by Saunders *et al.*, 2000:85) state that for the positivist, there will be an emphasis on highly structured methodology to facilitate replication and quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis. The assumption is that the researcher is independent of and neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the research.

Welman *et al.* (2005:6) state that the positivist approach underlies the natural-scientific method in human behavioural research and holds that research must be limited to that can be observed and measured objectively, that is, what exists independently of the feelings and opinions of individuals.

In this study, the researcher distributed a questionnaire to Grades 10 and 11 educators and learners at secondary schools in the Gauteng and Eastern Cape Provinces and assumed the role as observer of phenomena in a natural setting.

5.2.2 Post-positivism

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2003:14), post-positivism relies on multiple methods as a way of capturing as much of reality as possible. At the same time, emphasis is placed on the discovery and verification of theories. Traditional evaluation criteria, such as internal validity, are stressed, as is the use of qualitative procedures that lend themselves to structured (sometimes statistical) analysis. Computer-assisted methods of analysis that permit frequency counts, tabulations and low-level statistical analyses may also be employed.

Muijs (2004:5) posits that post-positivists accept that the world cannot be observed by totally objective and disinterested outsiders, and that the natural sciences do not provide the model for all social research. However, they do believe in an objective social reality. Rather than focusing on certainty and absolute truth, the post-positivist will try and represent reality as best he/ she

can and will focus on confidence: How much can the researcher rely on his/her findings? How well do they predict certain outcomes?

Scott and Usher (2000:3) state that proponents of post-positivistic research argue that research, even *scientific* research, is a product of certain kinds of social, historically located practices. Post-positivism reflects a distrust of absolutes and foundational truths. No longer does following the correct method guarantee true results. Instead of only one truth, there are many.

Educational research literature reveals that truth is fundamentally dependent on language, a socially constructed phenomenon and as such, post-positivists believe, this distorts reality on which positivism is built.

In this study, a mixed method of data collection was used. The researcher employed focus group interviews, in-depth interviews and survey questionnaires to collect data for the investigation.

An exploration of the research design employed by this study will now be provided.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

For the purpose of this study, the researched used survey research and phenomenology to gain insight into the typical experiences of the participants in order to arrive at sound conclusions.

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:139), a phenomenological study is one that attempts to understand people's perceptions, perspectives and understandings of a particular situation. By looking at multiple perspectives on the same situaiotn, the researcher can then make some kind of generalization of what soemthing is like from an insider's perspective.

5.3.1 Survey research

Scott and Morrison (2006:232) provide Denscombe's (1998) definition of a survey as an approach in which there is empirical research pertaining to a given point of time which aims to incorporate as wide and inclusive data as

possible. The authors reiterate that survey is an approach or strategy rather than a single method or technique which draws upon a range of methods that include the questionnaire and interview survey.

According to Best and Khan (2003:300), a questionnaire is used when factual information is required. Welman *et al.* (2005:152) state that survey questionnaires may be used to obtain information from participants such as biographical details, typical behaviour, opinions, beliefs, convictions and attitudes.

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:43) state that interviews are used in research as a way of obtaining detailed information and it is far more resource-intensive. It requires the researcher to elicit information from respondents and provides the researcher more of an insight into the meaning and significance of what is happening.

According to Scott and Usher (2000:88), survey researchers choose to concentrate on a group of seemingly like cases, for example secondary schools in a locality or country and then work backwards so that the case is defined by the characteristics of the parent population as it is presently understood. The authors state that it is important to note that the case is still treated in the same way as in ethnographic research, but with less attention to detail, context and presentation. The implication is therefore that different methods are appropriate in survey research because researchers have to handle a large number of cases which, for the sake of comparison, have to be expressed in a standardized way.

Fraenkel and Wallen (as quoted by Scott & Morrison, 2006:233) posit that the most commonly identifiable characteristics of survey research is collecting information from a group of people in order to describe characteristics such as attitudes, opinions, beliefs, attitudes, abilities or knowledge; asking questions in which the responses or answers to those questions constitute the data of the survey and collecting data from a sample rather than from every member of the population.

For the purposes of this study, the cross-sectional survey type was used. The first step was to identify the research population, thereafter interviews and questionnaires were used to gather data.

5.3.2 Phenomenology

According to Fouché (2002:273), this approach aims to understand and interpret the meaning that participants give to their everyday life. Creswell (as quoted by Fouché, 2002:273) regards a phenomenological study as one that describes the meaning which experiences of a phenomenon, topic or concept has for the various individuals.

For the purpose of the qualitative phase of this study, the researcher utilised semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews as data collection methods. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with SMT and SGB members of the disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C schools in the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province, and focus group interviews were conducted with Grades 10 and 11 educators and learners at the schools.

Throughout the research, the researcher suspended any preconceived notions or personal experiences which could unduly influence what the researcher *heard* the participants saying (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:139).

5.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The research was conducted by means of a literature review (*cf.* 1.4.1) and empirical research (*cf.* 1.4.2).

5.4.1 Literature review

Primary and secondary literature sources were studied to gather information on EI, transformational leadership and change management, how change has taken place at secondary schools and how this impacts on educators' roles as change managers. This was done by exploring the value of emotions in the workplace (*cf.* 2.2), describing what emotional and social intelligence implies at school (*cf.* 2.3), focusing on what it means to be emotionally and socially intelligent (*cf.* 2.3.1), highlighting EI in the workplace (*cf.* 2.4), investigating

why EI is important at work (*cf.* 2.4.3), reflecting on EI and emotional leadership, and how to manage emotions (cf. 2.5.2), investigating what emotional leadership in the school context implies and how to create an emotionally safe school (*cf.* 2.6.2), pointing out what signifies an emotionally intelligent school (*cf.* 2.7), discussing seven characteristics of emotionally intelligent leaders (*cf.* 2.7.3.1) and the importance of EI in ensuring academic success (*cf.* 2.8).

Information was also gathered from primary and secondary sources to present an analysis of the educator's role as manager of change. This was done by providing an overview of the South African school context (*cf.* 3.2), highlighting the complexity of the change process (*cf.* 3.2.2), reflecting on the change management competencies in education (*cf.* 3.3) and the importance of roles in education (*cf.* 3.4), notably those of the school principal (*cf.* 3.4.2) and of the educator (*cf.* 3.4.3), discussing how to lead change effectively in education (*cf.* 3.5), exploring change, leadership and EI (*cf.* 3.6), pointing out how to manage the educator's emotional response to change (*cf.* 3.6.4), how to lead change with EI (*cf.* 3.7), how to create a sound organizational culture along with school change (*cf.* 3.8) and how to effect change at secondary schools (*cf.* 3.9).

The information gathered during the literature review informed the construction of the questionnaires, i.e. the quantitative empirical research instrument.

5.4.2 Empirical research

The research design used for this study was a combination of the qualitative and the quantitative approaches (*cf.* 1.4.2 & 6.1). For the purpose of this thesis the researcher selected structured questionnaires as the research instrument for the quantitative part.

The rationale for choosing a structured questionnaire will now be presented.

5.4.2.1 The questionnaire as research instrument

The *New Dictionary of Social Work* (as quoted by Delport, 2005:166) defines a questionnaire as a *set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondent in respect of a research project.* The basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on the particular issue (Delport, 2005:166).

According to Scott and Morrison (2006:189), questionnaires are rooted in the positivist paradigm and questionnaire surveys have been used as mantras for positive and negative critiques of quantitative research. Underpinning both, however, is the sense in which the questionnaire is appropriate in both the natural and social sciences, and the fact that the researchable is only that which is amenable to our senses and capable of measurement.

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:8) posit that an effective questionnaire is one that enables the transmission of useful and accurate data from the participant to the researcher. This is a complex process which involves presenting questions in a clear and unambiguous way so that the participant may interpret them, articulate his or her response and transmit it effectively to the researcher.

5.4.2.1.1 The design of a questionnaire

Welman *et al.* (2005:174) are of the opinion that when designing a questionnaire, the concepts and variables involved and the relationships being investigated - possibly in the form of hypotheses, theories, models or evaluative frameworks - should be clear and should guide the questionnaire design process (*cf.* 1.3.1.4).

Scott and Morrison (2006:192) cite Fowler and Oppenheim who posit that *the* key issue is that questionnaires are designed to provide measurement. Above all, this requires questions that must be judged in terms of the question's capacity to promote responses that are linked directly to that which the researcher set out to measure, and an equivalence in each question and its asking.

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:19) state that when designing questionnaires, it is easy to overlook mistakes and ambiguities in question lay-out and construction. Piloting the instrument with colleagues or a small sample of those who will eventually complete the questionnaire will allow 'fresh eyes' to comment on its suitability and clarity. Usually mistakes are quickly spotted through piloting and can be rectified relatively easily. In the same way, ambiguous questions can be re-stated or re-developed. During the piloting stage, the interviewer can observe how long it takes respondents to complete the instrument (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003:19).

Muijs (2004:45) points out that it is important for researchers to take heed not only of the way questionnaires are designed, but also of how questions are worded as these aspects will affect the answers participants give. It is therefore important; the author states that researchers think carefully about what kind of questions are asked.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2000:278) state that the design of the questionnaire will affect the response rate, the reliability and the validity of the data collected. Response rates, validity and reliability can be maximized by:

- careful design of individual questions;
- clear layout of the questionnaire form;
- lucid explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire; and
- pilot testing.

The focus now turns to the advantages and disadvantages of using the questionnaire as research instrument.

5.4.2.1.2 Advantages of a questionnaire

A solid questionnaire, Best and Khan (2003:307) state, deals with a significant topic, seeks only information that cannot be obtained from other sources, is attractive in appearance, neatly arranged, clearly duplicated or printed, and contains clear directions to objective questions.

Using the questionnaire as research instrument has the following advantages (Best & Khan, 2003:301; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003:390; Muijs, 2004:41):

- It is familiar to users and allows them to complete the questionnaire at their own convenience, while allowing them some time to think about their answers.
- Questionnaires can facilitate the collection of vast amounts of data with minimal effort.
- Well-designed questionnaires can allow relationships between data to be identified. They are particularly useful for showing relationships with data that are easily quantifiable.
- As research instruments, questionnaires can be used time and time again to measure differences between groups of people. They are reliable data-gathering tools.
- The person administering the instrument has the opportunity to establish rapport, explain the purpose of the study and elaborate on the meaning of items that may not be clear.
- The availability of a number of participants in one place makes possible economy of time and expense and provides a high proportion of useable responses.

However, using the questionnaire as research instrument also has its disadvantages, as will be pointed out below.

5.4.2.1.3 Disadvantages of a questionnaire

The questionnaire as research instrument has the following disadvantages (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003:39; Muijs, 2004:41):

- Questionnaires often provide low response rates, time-consuming follow-up and data entry.

- Ease of production and distribution can result in the collection of far more data than can be effectively used.
- Questionnaires are everywhere, competing for participants' time.
- Lack of adequate time to complete the instrument may result in the return of superficial data.
- Lack of personal contact (if the questionnaire is mailed) may mean that response rates suffer, necessitating the expense of follow-up letters, telephone calls and other means of *chasing* the participant.

5.4.2.1.4 Suitability of the questionnaire as research instrument for this study

Questionnaires were appropriate as research instruments for this study since they helped elicit responses connected to specific attitudes, perspectives or perceptions.

The participants were learners, educators, SMTs and SGBs who were involved in the management of change at school level. Their responses led to identifying the urgency to develop an EI framework as a possible solution to assist educators and school managers in managing the change process successfully.

The questionnaires comprised three sections (*cf.* Appendix C & Appendix D):

- Section A: This section collected biographical information of educators and learners pertaining to aspects such as gender, culture, position and grades taught.
- Section B: This section collected responses relating to the school environment, aspects of learners and educators' EI, notably how they perceived themselves and how they reacted in certain situations and what the relationships were between learners and educators within the school.

- Section C: This section explored educators and learners' perceptions on leadership and change within the school and the role of the principal as agent of change in the school setting.

The questionnaires used in this study were constructed using the *partial agreement statement or question* described by Scott and Usher (2000:69) as a questionnaire type where respondents are asked to state their own degree of agreement or disagreement with a statement or in answer to a question.

One questionnaire was developed for Grades 10 and 11 learners and another questionnaire was developed for Grades 10 and 11 educators. Both questionnaires were made available in Afrikaans and English (*cf.* Appendix C & Appendix D).

5.4.2.1.5 The need for a pilot study

Saunders *et al.* (2000:305) state that the purpose of a pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that participants will experience no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems when recording the data. In addition, it will enable the researcher to obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected.

Janesic (as quoted by Strydom & Delport, 2005:331) concurs that the pilot study in qualitative research allows the researcher to focus on specific areas that may have been unclear previously or to test certain questions. By testing the nature of questions in an interviewing schedule or for focus groups in the pilot study, the qualitative researcher will be able to make modifications with a view to quality interviewing during the main investigation. A pilot study also contributes to the establishment of relationships with the respondents or with the community and to obtaining permission for the project. The pilot study assists, moreover, in estimating the time and costs that may be involved as well as in pre-empting the problems that may arise during the actual qualitative interviews (Janesic, as quoted by Strydom & Delport, 2005:331).

According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:52), the researcher can begin to identify and correct imperfections by piloting or testing a questionnaire with

a select few people in order to establish their clarity. Piloting further assists in eliminating ambiguous questions, as well as in generating useful feedback on the structure and flow of the intended interview.

Welman *et al.* (2005:148) summarize the purpose of a pilot study as follows:

- To detect possible flaws in the measurement process (such as ambiguous instructions, instructions and inadequate time limits.
- To identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items. In such a pilot study the actual questions are put to the 'participants' and they are then asked to indicate how they have interpreted the formulated questions.
- An opportunity for researchers and assistants to notice non-verbal behaviour (on the part of participants) that may possibly signify discomfort or wording of the questions (Welman *et al.*, 2005:148).

The purpose of pre-testing the questionnaire was to determine if there were any flaws in the measurement procedures, notably ambiguous instructions, inadequate time limits and whether the wording of questions was understood.

The pilot study (*cf.* 5.4.2.1.5) was conducted at three secondary schools in the Eastern Cape Province and three secondary schools in the Gauteng Province. Schools that were piloted were not included in the actual population that was used in conducting the research.

The pilot study was useful in identifying defects in the question items and these were subsequently changed. The final questionnaires were discussed with the Statistical Consultation Services (SCS) at the Vanderbijlpark Campus of the North-West University, to ensure that the data would not be problematic when it had to be analysed.

For this study, the interview schedule was piloted by the researcher as interviewer and the fieldworker as participant, with the purpose of determining clarity and interpretation of the proposed questions. Comments were also elicited on the wording, sequence, possible redundant questions, and missing and/or confusing questions.

5.4.3 Quantitative research

According to Verma and Mallick (1999:26) quantitative research, as its name suggests, refers to any approach to data collection where the aim is to gather information that can be quantified; that is to say, it can be counted or measured in some form or another. Maykut and Morehouse (as quoted by Verma & Mallick, 1999:26) state that quantitative research is concerned with the acquisition and interpretation of data which can be presented in the form of discrete units that can be compared with other units by using statistical techniques (*cf.* 6.2.1).

Suter (1998:87) describes quantitative research as studies that test specific hypotheses, usually stated in advance, and that incorporate measures which can be analysed statistically. This type of research, the author states, uses tables or charts to display findings which can be generalised beyond the sample to a wider population. The researcher is distant in a sense, and guards against bias and other influences which may skew the results.

Robson (2002:99) points out that there is currently an anti-quantitative vogue in some quarters, asserting or implying that quantitative research is necessarily alienating, positivistic, dehumanising and not 'spiritual'. In fact, it is clear that using quantitative methods to identify causes of human and social problems and suffering can be of immense practical, human and emancipatory significance and are not necessarily positivistic in orientation.

Oakley (as quoted by Robson, 2002:99) suggests that this antipathy to quantitative research derives in part from the influence of feminist methodologists who have viewed quantitative research as a masculine enterprise, contrasting it with qualitative research which is seen as embodying feminine values.

5.4.4 Qualitative research

Bell (1999:4) states that when researchers adopt a qualitative research perspective, they are more concerned with understanding individuals' perceptions of the world. They seek insight, rather than statistical analysis.

According to Saunders *et al.* (2000:188), qualitative research can be described as an approach rather than a particular design or set of techniques. Van Maanen (as quoted by Saunders *et al.*, 2000:188) describes it as an umbrella phrase covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world. Therefore the qualitative approach is also fundamentally a descriptive form of research (*cf.* 6.3.1).

Saunders *et al.* (2000:188) state further that qualitative field studies can be used successfully in the description of groups, (small) communities, and organizations.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003:9-11) concede that qualitative research, as a set of interpretive activities, privileges no single methodological practice over another. The authors explain that qualitative research, as a set of practices, embraces within its own multiple disciplinary histories constant tensions and contradictions over the project itself, including its methods and the forms its findings and interpretations take. The field sprawls between and crosscuts all of the human disciplines and its practitioners are sensitive to the value of the multi-method approach.

Bogdon and Biklen (as quoted by Jones & Kottler, 2006:82) identified five elements that are characteristic of qualitative research procedures:

- Usually conducted in natural settings. Natural settings (such as classrooms and schools) are the overwhelming preference for such studies, based on the belief that separating the phenomena being investigated from the site at which they occur diminishes the quality of the information provided.

- Extensive use of descriptive data. Although qualitative researchers are likely to describe a phenomenon with words rather than with numbers, the researcher may also include every type of date even remotely associated with the phenomenon, whether it could be reduced to a number or not.

- Emphasis on process more than product. The emphasis in qualitative research is much more on process than it is on outcome, on the level of the deeper process taking place.

- Often based on inductive logic. Most, though not all, qualitative research emphasizes inductive reasoning and analysis, going from the specific to the general. The researcher often uses extensive and detailed analysis in a specific setting to construct a theory explaining what was found.

- Search for meaning is often evident. The *search for meaning* focus in qualitative research is the deliberate attempt to learn how people try to make sense of their lives. *How it is* may be nearly as important in a qualitative study as *how the participants think it is*.

The focus now turns to the elements of the qualitative research used in this study

For the purposes of this study, focus group interviews were conducted with the Grades 10 and 11 learners of six schools in the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province (1 disadvantaged school, 1 ex-Model C school and 1 mixed school in each province). Welman *et al.* (2005:201) state that focus groups are also described as group in-depth interviews. These groups consist of a small number of individuals or interviewees who are drawn together for the purpose of expressing their opinions on a specific set of open questions.

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2004:97) summarize the purpose of focus-group interviews as follows:

- To gather insight into, or raise awareness of an issue or topic

- To uncover complex motivations, attitudes or behaviours

- To prepare for a larger study

- To interpret previously obtained research results

- To stimulate new ideas and creative concepts

- To identify problems with existing services
- To learn how participants talk in their own words about the researcher's focus of interest.

Group interviews are essentially a qualitative technique for collecting information. The researcher directs the interaction and inquiry either in a very structured or unstructured manner, depending on the aim of the investigation. The aim of using such group interviews is not to replace individual interviewing, but to gather information that can perhaps not be collected easily by means of individual interviews (Welman *et al.*, 2005:201).

Krueger and Casey (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:300) state that the purpose of focus groups is to promote self-disclosure among participants. It is to know what people really think and feel. Focus groups are useful when multiple viewpoints or responses are needed on a specific topic. Focus groups are fundamentally about listening to people and learning from them, and about creating lines of communication.

According to Morgan and Krueger (as quoted by Greeff, 2005: 301) focus groups create a process of sharing and comparing among participants. The researcher creates the groups for a well-defined purpose and they produce large amounts of concentrated data in a short period of time.

Morgan (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:312) states that the strength of relying on focus groups is their ability to produce concentrated amounts of data on precisely the topic of interest. An additional strength is the reliance on interaction in the group to produce the data. Also, the comparisons the participants make between one another's experiences and opinions are a valuable source of insight into complex behaviours and motivation.

Greeff (2005:312) states that focus groups can also be quite costly and require researchers who are skilled in the group process. Bias may be a problem. Nyamathi and Shuler (as quoted by De Vos *et al.*, 2005:312) mention that a disadvantage is that findings cannot automatically be projected onto the population at large. If the group facilitator is unskilled, expressions of

only the active participants may be voiced. This creates the risk that passive participants may be unduly influenced or inhibited by active participants. Another criticism of focus groups cites participants' social posturing or desire to be polite and fit in with the norm, or else their forced compliance (Nyamathi & Shuler, as quoted by Greeff, 2005:312).

The focus group interviews conducted for the study comprised a mixed group of ten Grades 10 and 11 educators and a mixed group comprising ten Grades 10 and 11 learners at each school. According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:98), the focus group need not contain a fixed number of participants, though fewer than four may jeopardize the valuable group dynamic the researcher seeks, and more than twelve may make the group unwieldy. Greeff (2002:311) states that groups which include six to ten participants allow everyone to participate while still eliciting a range of responses.

5.4.5 Rationale for choosing the qualitative as well as quantitative methods

Muijs (2004:11) refers to quantitative research as explaining phenomena by collecting quantitative data which are analysed using mathematically based methods, in particular statistics.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003:13) contrast qualitative and quantitative research by stating that the word qualitative implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on processes and meanings that are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency. Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape enquiry. Such researchers emphasize the value-laden nature of enquiry. In contrast, quantitative studies emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. Proponents of such studies claim that their work is done from within a value-free framework.

Scott and Morrison (2006:186) provide a number of key features about quantitative research, notably that it is interested in causality, making frequent

use of variable measurement, associated with cross-sectional and longitudinal surveys; quantitative researchers have a key interest in demonstrating that their findings can be generalized beyond the location of the project and while quantitative researchers accept that research can never be entirely value-free, they are specifically interested in whether the research can be replicated.

Jones and Kottler (2006:86) state that the key determinants for quantitative studies are essentially the mirror opposites of those used to identify a qualitative study and mention that quantitative studies place more emphasis on numerical than on narrative data and that participants in quantitative studies are usually selected with the expectation that their results would be generalized to a larger target population.

Furthermore, the authors state that qualitative studies place more emphasis on narrative than on numerical data and the participants in qualitative studies are more likely to be selected by using purposive rather than random techniques (James & Kottler, 2006:82).

To ease of the interpretation of the findings, the researcher will now briefly present the main characteristics of qualitative and quantitative methods as outlined by Neuman (as quoted by Fouché & De Vos, 2005:102).

Table 5.1: Characteristics of qualitative vs quantitative methods

Qualitative	Quantitative
Construction of social reality	Measurements of objective facts
Focus on interactive processes, events	Focus on variables
Authenticity as the key criterion of scientific excellence	Reliability as the key criterion of scientific excellence
Situationally constrained	A value-free stance Research conducted independently of context
Few cases or subjects involved	Many cases or subjects involved

Thematic analysis as the method of choice	Statistical analysis as the method of choice
Researcher is involved	Researcher maintains detached attitude

(Taken from Neuman, as quoted by Fouché & De Vos, 2005:102)

Table 5.1 aptly sets out the characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative research used in this study. In terms of analyzing data, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:96) state that quantitative researchers tend to rely more heavily on deductive reasoning, beginning with certain premises and then drawing logical conclusions from them. They also try to maintain objectivity in their data analysis, conducting predetermined statistical procedures and using objective criteria to evaluate the outcomes of those procedures (*cf.* 6.2).

In contrast, qualitative researchers make considerable use of deductive reasoning: they make many specific observations and then draw inferences about larger and more general phenomena. Furthermore, their data analysis is more subjective in nature: they scrutinize the body of data in search of patterns- subjectively identified – that the data reflect (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:96).

It is the researcher's intention to analyse the data for this study using both these methods, hence a sound understanding of the concepts is deemed necessary.

For the purposes of this study, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research, or the mixed-method, was used.

5.4.5.1 Mixed-method research

Mouton and Marais (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:357) are of the opinion that the quantitative approach is highly formalized, as well as more explicitly controlled than the qualitative, with a range that is more exactly defined, and that is relatively close to the social sciences. In contradistinction, qualitative approaches are those in which the procedures are not as strictly formalized,

while the scope is more likely to be undefined, and a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted (Mouton & Marais, as quoted by De Vos, 2005:357).

De Vos (2005:358) states that a combined-method study can be described as one in which the researcher uses multiple methods of data collection and analysis. According to the author, mixed-method studies are those that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study or multi-phased study.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:361) thus define mixed-model studies as studies that are products of the pragmatist paradigm and that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches in different phases of the research process.

In this study, the researcher provided a qualitative data collection method and reporting, followed by quantitative analysis after the data had been converted using the SPSS statistical package.

Muijs (2004:9) refers to this combination of qualitative and quantitative methods as a *mixed method* design. Mixed method, the author states, is a flexible approach where the research design is determined by what the researcher wants to find out, rather than by any predetermined epistemological position. In mixed method research, qualitative or quantitative components can predominate, or both could have equal status (Muijs, 2004:9).

Scott and Morrison (2006:158), advocates of mixed method research, argue that:

- a combination enhances triangulation;
- qualitative research could be used to facilitate quantitative research;
- quantitative research could be used to facilitate qualitative research;
- a combination gives a fuller overall research picture;

- a combination facilitates both *outsider* and *insider* perspectives and the research is thus improved;
- a combination may facilitate a better understanding of the relationship between variables; and
- a combination allows appropriate emphases at different stages of the research process.

Saunders *et al.* (2000:98) state that there are two major advantages to employing multi-methods in the same study. Firstly, different methods can be used for different purposes in a study. This would give the researcher confidence that he/she has addressed the most important issues. The second advantage of using multi-method approach is that it enables triangulation to take place.

5.4.5.2 Methodological triangulation

According to Creswell (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:360), the concept of triangulation is based on the assumption that any bias inherent in a particular data source, investigator and method would be neutralized when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators and methods. Padget (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:360) describes triangulation in qualitative research as the convergence of multiple perspectives that can provide greater confidence that what is being targeted is being accurately captured. Thus the concept of triangulation is sometimes used to designate a conscious combination of quantitative and qualitative methodology.

Saunders *et al.* (2000:98) define triangulation as the use of different data collection methods within one study in order to ensure that the data are telling the researcher what he/she thinks it is telling them.

Denzin (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:361-362) sites four methods of triangulation:

- *Data triangulation*. This denotes the use of more than one data source.

- *Investigator or observer triangulation*. This is the use of more than one observer in a single study to achieve intersubjective agreement.

- *Theory triangulation*. This indicates the use of multiple theories or perspectives to interpret a single set of data.

- *Methodological triangulation*. This denotes the use of multiple methods to study a single topic, for example combining qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study.

For the purposes of this study, a combination of data triangulation and methodological triangulation was used.

Jick (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:362) discusses the following **advantages** of using triangulation in qualitative research:

- It allows researchers to be more confident of their results. This is the overall strength of the multi-method design. Triangulation may also stimulate the creation of inventive methods and new ways of capturing a problem, to balance with conventional data collection methods.

- It may also help uncover the deviant or off-quadrant dimension of a phenomenon. Different viewpoints are likely to produce some elements which do not fit a theory or model. Thus, old theories are refashioned or new theories developed. Moreover, divergent results from multi-methods can lead to an enriched explanation of the research problem.

- The use of multi-methods can also lead to a synthesis or integration of theories. In this sense, methodological triangulation closely parallels theoretical triangulation, i.e. to ring diverse theories to bear on a common problem.

- Triangulation may also serve as the critical test, by virtue of its comprehensiveness of competing theories (Jick, as quoted by De Vos, 2005:362).

Harrison (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:364) notes that it is important to recognize that technical quantitative and qualitative methods are inextricably intertwined. They are indeed two different perspectives, but each perspective exists only artificially: in the sense of being manufactured rather than as an independently existing natural entity.

5.5 MEASUREMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF A QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Two key concepts in quantitative research methods will be explored in this section, namely reliability and validity. Both concepts have to do with measurement.

5.5.1 Reliability

Fouché and De Vos (2005:162) concede that the reliability of a measurement procedure is the stability or consistency of the measurement. This means that if the same variable is measured under the same conditions, a reliable measurement procedure will produce identical (or nearly identical) measurements. In other words, it refers to a measuring instrument's ability to yield consistent numerical results each time it is applied, it does not fluctuate unless there are variations in the variable being measured.

Suter (1998:159) states that reliability tells us how well an instrument is measuring whatever it is measuring. If it is measuring whatever it is measuring, with little error, then it may be deduced that it is reliable. Reliability does not tell us what is being measured; only how well it is being measured.

According to D'Agostino (2005:116), reliability typically refers to the consistency of test results, but has at least two relevant factors: consistency of results over the testing period (assuming no change on the latent variable) and consistency among scores on component parts (e.g. internal consistency of test items).

Muijs (2004:71) states that whenever researchers want to measure something, there is some element of error called *measurement error*. Reliability then refers to the extent to which test scores are free of measurement error.

5.5.1.1 The pilot study's role

To test reliability for this study, a pilot study (*cf.* 1.3.2.4 & 5.4.2.1.5) was conducted at three secondary schools in the Eastern Cape (Port Elizabeth district) and three secondary schools in Gauteng (Sedibeng East and West, Districts 7 & 8). Schools that were piloted were not included in the actual population that was used in conducting the research.

According to Pietersen and Maree (2007:216) the coefficient that is used to measure the internal reliability of an instrument is called Cronbach's alpha coefficient and is based on the inter-item correlations. If the items are strongly correlated with each other, their internal consistency is high and the alpha coefficient will be close to one. If, on the other hand, the items are poorly formulated and do not correlate strongly, the alpha coefficient will be close to zero. According to UCLA Academic Technology Services, the Cronbach alpha measures how well a set of items or variables measures a single construct.

Guidelines for the interpretation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient have been suggested and the following seem generally accepeted by researchers:

- 0.90 - high reliability
- 0.80 - moderate reliability
- 0.70 – low reliability

Depending on what an instrument has to be used for, different degrees of internal reliability are required. Relaibility estimates of 0.80 are regarded as acceptable in most applications while values lower than 0.60 are regarded as unacceptable (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:216).

The calculated value (0.92) for the learner questionnaire and that of the educator questionnaire (0.94) in the pilot study, indicated that the questionnaires complied with reliability criteria. Validity was arrived at by considering both content validity and construct validity. The content validity was supported by the fact that the specific questionnaire items were constructed strictly according to the definition of each section. The construct validity was underpinned by the fact that although the questionnaire focused on different sections, they all dealt with aspects which were important in determining the impact of EI on the educator's role as manager of change.

Having completed the actual study, the Statistical Consultancy Services of the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) analysed the questionnaires and found the Cronbach alpha reliability scores (*cf.* 1.3.2.4) as indicated below.

Table 5.2: Calculated values for the actual study

Population category	Sections	Cronbach alpha	Inter-item correlation
Educators	Section B	0.954966	0.250513
	Section C	0.983726	0.438554
Learners	Section B	0.900427	0.168991
	Section C	0.936234	0.224674

The four reliability coefficients were higher than 0.9 and ranged from 0.90 to 0.98. These exceptionally high values indicated sound internal consistency among the items. The inter-item correlations revealed acceptable results (0.15-0.5).

5.5.2 Validity

Suter (1998:158) states that validity is the primary concern of all researchers who gather educational data. Validity, he states, is considered the most important quality of a measured dependent variable. This is because validity

is concerned with whether the instrument used actually measures what it is supposed to measure.

Muijs (2004:65) reiterates that validity asks the question: *Are we measuring what we want to measure?* Creating the right measurement instrument with the right manifest measures is of crucial importance, as most concepts in educational research that researchers want to measure are abstract and cannot be measured directly. Therefore, the author states, researchers need to develop instruments that measure these concepts indirectly, by using a questionnaire for example. Every question then becomes a manifest variable, a variable we actually measure, designed to tease out an underlying latent concept (Muijs, 2004:65).

According to Babbie (as quoted by Fouché & De Vos, 2005:160), validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. Thus the definition of validity has two aspects: that the instrument actually measures the concept in question, and that the concept is measured accurately. Obviously, it is possible to have the first without the second, but not vice versa. That is, a concept cannot be measured accurately if some other concept is being measured instead (Fouché & De Vos, 2005:160).

5.5.2.1 Internal validity

According to Welman *et al.* (2005:107), the term internal validity describes the degree to which changes in the dependent variable are indeed due to the independent variable rather than to something else. Internal validity is therefore crucial to experimental research designs and may be obtained using at least two groups that are equal in respect of both the dependent variable and all nuisance variables.

To test the internal validity for this study, the questionnaire was distributed for completion among colleagues at the North-West University.

5.5.2.2 External validity

Suter (1998:132) states that educational researchers reserve the term external validity to refer to how well the findings in a sample can be generalized to a larger population. If a study lacks external validity, then one is not confident that the findings can be applied beyond the narrow confines of the study. One especially common threat to external validity is lack of random selection. When the sample does not fairly represent the population, external validity is lacking (Suter, 1998:132).

Stanley (as quoted by Scott & Usher, 2000:55) has suggested four areas of doubt concerning the ability to generalize findings:

- The researcher's inability to conceptualize performance indicators, so that other researchers can replicate the experiment.
- The researcher's inability to ensure that the experimental and control groups are representative of larger populations.
- The researcher's inability to be confident that the operationalized variables in the experimental setting can be replicated in real-life situations.
- The researcher's inability to be certain that internal validity variables such as history, maturation, pre-test sensitization, test reliability and selection will not detrimentally affect external validity.

The strategy used in this thesis, to pay special attention to its external validity, was that of the representative sample (*cf.* 1.3.2.3; Scott & Morrison, 2006:219).

5.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLE SELECTION

Kerlinger (as quoted by Strydom, 2005:193) states that sampling means taking any proportion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe. This definition implies that the sample is *considered* representative. A population is the totality of persons, events, organization

units, case recordings or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned (Strydom, 2005:194).

5.6.1 Sample selection

The target population comprised of secondary school educators of all races, learners, SMTs and SGB members. To achieve the aims of this study, a representative sample, was purposively selected (*cf.*1.3.2.3). Purposive sampling was used as the researcher intended to identify six schools for an in-depth investigation.

According to Welman *et al.* (2005:69), purposive sampling is the most important type of non-probability sampling. Researchers rely on their experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population.

Jones and Kottler (2006:66) states that in quantitative studies, purposive samples may be chosen because the researchers know (or at least think they know) things about the characteristics of people in the sample that would probably make them reflective of the target population. The adequacy of this kind of sampling for quantitative studies rests on the judgement of the researchers and is sometimes even called *judgement sampling*.

Silverman (as quoted by Strydom & Delport, 2005:329) states that in purposive sampling, a particular case is chosen because it illustrates some feature or process that is of interest for a particular study. In purposive sampling the researcher must first think critically about the parameters of the population and then choose the sample case accordingly. Clear identification and formulation of criteria for the selection of participants is, therefore, of critical importance.

Scott and Usher (2000:71) reiterate that purposive sampling is used much in case study work, where the design is considered to be emergent. Sampling decisions within the case are made in terms of the developing theory. Thus sampling and theory are understood as dialectical and symbiotic.

5.6.2 Choice of schools

Six secondary schools were used for an in-depth investigation, three schools in the Gauteng Province and three schools in the Eastern Cape Province. This comprised one school in a disadvantaged community, one ex-Model C school and one *mixed* or coloured school for each of the afore-mentioned provinces.

The study was conducted in Port Elizabeth because the schools were easily accessible. Secondly, the researcher is familiar with the region as she grew up and also studied there. As the researcher currently resides in the Sedibeng East District, Gauteng Province (*cf.* 1.5), this made the selection of schools in this province equally easy and accessible.

5.6.3 Response rate

Verma and Mallick (1999: 202) posit that any tendency causing an individual to give different responses to test items than he/she would when the same content is present in a different form, is known as a response set.

Welman *et al.* (2005:73) state that non-responses occur because participants have refused to be involved in the research for various reasons. Non-response may occur due to inter-related problems such as:

- Refusal to respond
- Ineligibility to respond
- Inability to locate participant
- Participant located but unable to make contact.

For this study, questionnaires were distributed to Grades 10 and 11 educators and learners of six secondary schools. Three of the schools were located in the Eastern Cape Province and three in the Gauteng Province. In each province, the schools used for the study, were categorised as either ex-Model C, mixed or disadvantaged. Table 5.3 illustrates the return rate of the questionnaires per population category.

Table 5.3: Questionnaire return rate

Population category	Distributed	Returned	% returned
Educators			
Gauteng	110	16	15
Eastern Cape	120	63	53
Learners			
Gauteng	660	471	71
Eastern Cape	470	273	58

5.7 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Quanlitative data-collection methods often employ different measuring instruments. To yield data for the qualitative investigation, a combination of interview types was used.

5.7.1 Interviews

Scott and Usher (2000:108) regard interviewing as an essential tool of the researcher in educational enquiry. This is because the preconceptions, perceptions and beliefs of social actors in educational settings form an inescapably important part of the backdrop of social interaction (*cf.*1.3.2.2).

Powney and Watts (as quoted by Verma & Mallick, 1999:122) define an interview as a conversation between two or more people where one or more of the participants take the responsibility for reporting the substance of what is said. It represents an interaction between three elements: the interviewer, the interviewee and the context of the interview including the issues/questions raised in the interview. Thus the role of the interviewer is a demanding one as they have to ask questions, record answers and try to keep the interview session interesting and worthwhile for the interviewees (Verma & Mallick, 1999:122).

Kvale (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:287) defines qualitative interviews as attempts to understand the world from the participant's point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences and to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations.

Robson (2002:271) identifies circumstances in which a qualitative research interview is most appropriate and these are highlighted in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4: Circumstances in which a qualitative research interview is most appropriate

- Where a study focuses on the meaning of particular phenomena to the participants
- Where individual perceptions of processes within a social unit – such as a work group, department or whole organisation are to be studied prospectively, using a series of interviews
- Where individual historical accounts are required of how a particular phenomenon developed: for instance a new shift system
- Where exploratory work is required before a quantitative study can be carried out
- Where a quantitative study has been carried out, and qualitative data are required to validate particular measures or to clarify and illustrate the meaning of the findings

(King, as quoted by Robson, 2002:271)

Typically, research texts highlight three types of interviews used in educational research, which are discussed in the following paragraphs.

5.7.1.1 Standardized open-ended interviews

According to Best and Khan (2003:256), the exact wording and sequence of questions are pre-determined in advance. All interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order. Questions are worded in a completely open-ended format.

These authors (Best & Khan, 2003:256) highlight a few strengths of this interview type which include:

- Participants answer the same questions, thus increasing comparability of responses, data are complete for each person on the topics addressed in the interview.
- Using this interview type reduces interviewer effects and bias when several interviewers are used.
- Standardized open-ended interviews permit evaluation users to see and review the instrumentation used in the evaluation. Organization and analysis of data are facilitated when using standardized open-ended interviews.
- Data analysis is simple, responses can be directly compared and easily aggregated; many questions can be asked in a short time.

Weaknesses attached to the use of standardized open-ended interviews include the following two aspects (Best & Khan, 2003:256):

- Little flexibility in relating to the interview to particular individuals and circumstances
- Standardized wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of questions and answers (Best & Khan, 2003:256).

The researcher of this thesis found that while interviews provide highly valuable data, the latter may be compromised if the use of the tape recorder during the interview is not adequately explained. Some participants were reluctant to express their feelings as soon as they realized that their responses were going to be recorded. In order to gain the confidence of the participants, the researcher had to explain the purpose of the recording even more carefully than was planned, thus minimizing any undesirable effects of having the interview recorded.

A brief discussion of the semi-structured interview follows.

5.7.1.2 Semi-structured interviews

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:45) state that the semi-structured interview allows the interviewer and participant more flexibility. The interviewer directs the interview more closely. More questions are pre-determined though there is sufficient flexibility to allow the participant an opportunity to shape the flow of information.

According to Welman *et al.* (2005:148), semi-structured interviews offer a versatile way of collecting data. They can be used with all age groups. This method may often be used when no other is available or appropriate. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher has a list of themes and questions to be covered, although these may vary from one schedule to the next (Welman *et al.*, 2005:148). The researcher uses an interview guide which involves a list of topics and aspects that has bearing on the given theme that the interviewer should raise during the course of the interview. The order of the questions may also be varied, depending on the way in which the interview develops.

Scott and Usher (2000:109) posit that in a semi-structured interview, participants are encouraged to set the agenda of the interview, though the presence of an interviewer and other forms of control exerted by them means that the participant never has full control of the setting. The interviewer sets up the interview, is involved in the negotiation of place, purpose and agenda at the initial stages and asks questions, prompts answers and elicits reformulations of responses. Participants provide answers and give accounts of their lives in terms of their understanding of the settings in which they are located. Thus, gender, race, class and other types of power relations are conveyed by the researcher and form an essential backdrop to the answers that participants provide (Scott & Usher, 2000:109).

5.7.1.3 Structured interviews

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:45) state that the structured interview is sometimes regarded by researchers as a mere questionnaire that is completed face-to-face. The interviewer has control over the order of questions, all of which are predetermined. There is an element of

predictability to the structured interview which allows the event to be timetabled with some precision. Unlike other models for interviews, the structured interview may provide an easier framework for analysis.

May (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:287) states that the challenges faced by the researcher when using qualitative research interviews are establishing rapport in order to gain information from participants, coping with the unanticipated problems and rewards of interviewing in the field, and recording and managing the large volume of data generated by even relatively brief interviews on behalf of the researcher.

Greeff (2005: 299) states that interviews have particular strengths. They are a useful way of getting large amounts of data quickly and are an especially effective way of obtaining depth in data. However, interviews also have limitations, since they involve personal interaction, and cooperation is therefore essential. Participants may also be unwilling to share information, and the researcher may ask questions that do not evoke the desired responses from participants. Furthermore, the responses could be misconstrued, and at times even untruthful (Greeff, 2005: 299).

According to Verma and Mallick (1999:128), critics of the interview as research instrument state that the collection of data by interview involves a complex set of social relationships that can contaminate the final product. The social relationship may result in the distortion of the information supplied as well as being open to unconscious bias on the part of the researcher in assessing it.

The fact remains that interviews can yield rich material unobtainable in any other way and which can support or be supported by other data from questionnaires or standardized test responses. The interview is wonderfully adaptable and flexible (Verma & Mallick, 1999:128).

Seidman (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:293) provides the following interviewing techniques and tips for the researcher to keep in mind to ensure an effective interview:

- Ask clear and concise questions. Questions should be easy to understand, short, and devoid of jargon.
- Ask single questions. Ask one question at a time.
- Ask truly open-ended questions. Truly open-ended questions do not predetermine the answers and they allow room for the participants to respond in their own terms.
- Avoid sensitive questions. The participant might feel uneasy and adopt avoidance tactics if the questioning is too deep without the necessary rapport.
- Sequence questions. Funnel questions from general to specific, from broad to narrow.
- Ask questions when you do not understand.
- Avoid leading questions.
- Encourage a free rein, but remain in control
- Allow for pauses in the conversation. Do not let periods of silence fluster you.
- Conclude the interview with general questions such as: *Is there anything further you feel is important?*
- End the interview at a reasonable time.
- Do not use the interview to show off your knowledge, vocabulary, charm or other abilities. Good interviews do not shine; only their interviewers do.

For the purposes of this study, the *semi-structured interview* and the *standardised open-ended interview* were used to collect data.

5.7.1.4 Focus group interviews

Powney and Watts (as quoted by Verma & Mallick, 1999:122) define an interview as a conversation between two or more people where one or more of the participants take the responsibility for reporting the substance of what is said. It represents an interaction between three elements: the interviewer, the interviewee and the context of the interview including the issues or questions raised in the interview (*cf.* 1.3.2.2).

Robson (2002: 284-285) describes a focus group as a group interview on a specific topic, which is where the *focus* comes from. It is an open-ended group discussion guided by the researcher, typically extending over at least an hour, possibly two or more. In terms of the size of the group, Stewart and Shamdasani (as quoted by Robson, 2002:285) state that figures of eight to twelve are usually thought suitable although smaller group sizes have been used.

Krueger and Casey (as quoted by Greeff, 2005: 306) site the purpose of focus group interviews as promoting self-disclosure among participants, to know what people really think and feel and to obtain a variety of viewpoints or responses on a specific topic.

Morgan (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:306) provides three basic uses of focus groups:

- Firstly, they are used as a self-contained method in studies in which they serve as the principle source of data
- Secondly, they are used as a supplementary source of data in studies that rely on some other primary method, such as a survey
- Thirdly, they are used in multi-method studies that combine two or more means of gathering data in which no one primary method determines the use of the others.

Furthermore, focus groups offer many advantages and also pose a few disadvantages. These are discussed below.

5.7.1.4.1 Advantages and disadvantages of focus groups

According to Morgan and Krueger (as quoted by Greeff, 2005:307) focus groups create a process of sharing and comparing among the participants and should be seen as a way of closing the gap between the people. They are a powerful means of exposing reality and of investigating complex behaviour and motivation.

Table 5.5: Advantages and disadvantages of a focus group

Advantages
• A highly efficient technique for qualitative data collection since the amount and range of data are increased by collecting from several people at the same time.
• Natural quality control on data collection. For example, participants tend to provide checks and balances on each other and extreme views tend to be weeded out.
• Group dynamics help in focusing on the most important topics and it is fairly easy to assess the extent to which there is a consistent and shared view.
• Participants tend to enjoy the experience.
• The method is relatively inexpensive and flexible and can be set up quickly.
• Participants are empowered and able to make comments in their own words, while being stimulated by thoughts and comments of others in the group.
• Contributions can be encouraged from people who are reluctant to be interviewed on their own, feel they have nothing to say or may not usually participate in surveys
• People who cannot read or write or who have other specific difficulties are not discriminated against.
• Facilitation can help in the discussion of taboo subjects since less inhibited members may break the ice or provide mutual support

Disadvantages

- The number of questions covered is limited. Typically fewer than ten major questions can be asked in an hour.
- Facilitating the group process requires considerable expertise.
- The interview process needs to be well managed or the less articulate may not share their views, extreme views may predominate, and bias may be caused by the domination of the group by one or two people.
- Conflicts may arise between personalities. Power struggles may detract from the interview and there may be conflicts of status within the procedure.
- Confidentiality can be a problem between participants when interacting in the group situation.
- The results cannot be generalised as they cannot be regarded as representative of the wider population.
- The live and immediate nature of the interaction may lead a researcher or decision-maker to place greater faith in the findings than is actually warranted.

(Adapted and abridged from Robson, 2000:284-285)

The focus now turns to the advantages and disadvantages of using interviews.

5.7.1.5 Advantages of using interviews

According to Robson (2002:269), interviewing as a research method involves the researcher asking questions and hopefully, receiving answers from the people being interviewed.

Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:63) highlight some of the **advantages** as follows:

- Because of the direct involvement of the interviewer, 100% response rate for the questions can be achieved.

- The interviewer can decide on follow-up questions (considering whether they are appropriate or if the interviewer can glean any further useful information by asking them).
- The interviewer *hears* far more than just what the participant *tells* him. The interviewer can observe body language and interpret the tone of a response to a question.
- Participants often see interviewers as opportunities to voice opinions and *let off steam* about subjects.
- In most cases, they provide vast amounts of rich and useful data for further analysis.

The disadvantages of using interviews follow.

5.7.1.6 Disadvantages of using interviews

According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:63-64), the following disadvantages may be noted:

The disadvantages of using interviews follow.

- A good interviewer requires considerable training in interview techniques.
- Interviews are time-consuming and costly to conduct. Data-generated interviews can prove difficult for the lone researcher to analyse.
- Interpretations of interview data may differ between researchers: Whose interpretation should be applied?
- Unless strictly controlled, interviews can easily meander from the main subject.

5.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Permission was obtained from the participants, notably the SMT and SGB members, to conduct the necessary interviews. They were contacted telephonically and convenient times were scheduled for the interviews to take

place. The participants remained anonymous and the information supplied by them was treated confidentially: only the researcher and the fieldworker handled the data.

The researcher also ensured that the collected data were not used to the detriment of those involved.

The researcher ascertained that the consent of participants was voluntary and informed (*cf.* 1.5).

5.9 SUMMARY

This chapter set out the methods for data collection and enquiry. The study incorporated a combination of the qualitative and quantitative research methods in an investigation into the change management practices at secondary schools in the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003:13) state that qualitative research signifies many things to many people and that its essence is twofold: a commitment to some version of the naturalistic, interpretive approach to its subject matter and an ongoing critique of the politics and methods of post-positivism. Quantitative research emphasizes the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes.

To gather data for this investigation, focus group interviews were conducted with Grades 10 and 11 learners at six secondary schools from two provinces and these learners also completed questionnaires. Focus group interviews were also conducted with Grades 10 and 11 educators, and semi-structured open-ended interviews with the SMT and the SGB of each school. The educators also completed questionnaires.

The data analysis was done by running frequencies and cross tabulations of elicited responses by making use of the statistical package SPSS10 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

The next chapter explores the data analysis for this study.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was conducted in two provinces – namely the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province. Three schools were selected in each province, one being a disadvantaged school, one mixed school and one ex-Model C school.

This thesis followed a mixed-method approach as outlined in Chapter 5. This mixed-method research design signifies combining elements of both qualitative and quantitative methods in the same study *(cf.* 5.4.5 & 5.4.5.1).

Marshall and Rossman (as quoted by Best & Khan, 2003:254) point to three techniques, among others, that are critical procedures for collecting qualitative data, namely observation (which they separate into direct observation and participant observation), document review, and in-depth interviewing.

The *data collection* for this study took place in July and August 2007 and was carried out by the researcher and one trained fieldworker. The fieldworker had extensive experience in conducting research and was recruited on the basis that he lived in the areas in which the sample schools were located and was familiar with all languages.

The researcher and the fieldworker visited schools together to ensure that the interviews could be conducted quickly and efficiently, and to minimize the disruption caused at the schools. The researcher supervised the fieldworker and ensured that the selection procedures and interview guidelines were followed correctly.

The following empirical methods were used to collect data for this study:

- *Questionnaires* – For both provinces the questionnaires were delivered to the schools. Each school had to complete two questionnaires – one for

the educators and one for the learners (*cf.* 5.4.2.1; 5.4.2.1.1; 5.4.2.1.2; 5.4.2.1.3 & 5.4.2.1.4).

- *Semi-structured interviews* – conducted with four SMT members of each school and two SGB members of each school (*cf.* 5.7.1; 5.7.1.2 & 5.7.1.5).

- *Focus group interviews* – conducted with Grade 10 and 11 educators and Grade 10 and 11 learners at each school (*cf.* 5.7.1.4 & 5.7.1.4.1).

The focus now turns to the interpretation and analysis of the data for this study.

6.2 ANALYSING AND INTERPRETING THE DATA

Marshall and Rossman (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:333) describe data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data and as a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative and fascinating process. It does not proceed in a linear fashion and signifies a search for general statements among categories of data.

Best and Khan (2003:334) posit that the analysis and interpretation of data represent the application of deductive and inductive logic to the research. Verma and Mallick (1999:29) state that the interpretive approach, which involves deduction from the data obtained, relies more on what it feels like to be a participant in the action under study and this is part of the qualitative research. Very often, the researchers rely on their experience of particular settings to be able to *read* the information provided by the subjects involved in the study.

While this thesis employed the combined method of data collection, namely the quantitative and qualitative methods (*cf.* 5.4.5 & 5.4.5.1), it focused on the phenomenological approach.

Antonius (2003:2) states that the word *data* points to information that is collected in a systemic way and organized and recorded in such a way that it can be interpreted correctly. Data are therefore not collected haphazardly but in response to some questions that the researcher wishes to answer.

Procedures and techniques used to analyse data numerically are called *quantitative methods*.

De Vos (2005:335) states that a qualitative study involves an inseparable relationship between data collection and data analysis in order to build a coherent interpretation of the data. An assumption of the qualitative researcher is that the human instrument is capable of ongoing fine-tuning in order to generate the most fertile array of data.

Morgan and Krueger (as quoted by Greeff, 2002:318) reiterate that the analysis of *qualitative methods* must be systematic, sequential, verifiable, continuous, requires time, is jeopardized by delay, is a process of comparison, is improved by feedback, seeks to enlighten and should entertain alternative explanations.

Robson (2002:387) posits that the process and products of analysis provide the bases for interpretation and analysis. It is therefore not an empty ritual, carried out for form's sake between doing the study and interpreting it, nor is it a bolt-on feature which can be safely ignored until all the data are collected. Robson (2002:459) forthermore states that the central requirement in qualitative analysis is clear thinking on the part of the analyst.

Miles and Huberman (as quoted by Robson, 2002:459) provide a sequential list of what they describe as a fairly classic set of analytic moves:

- Giving codes to the initial set of materials obtained from observation, interviews and documentary analysis
- Adding comments and reflections (commonly referred to as *memos*)
- Going through the materials trying to identify similar phrases, patterns, themes, relationships, sequences and differences between sub-groups
- Taking these patterns and themes, out of the field to help focus the next wave of data collection

- Gradually elaborating a small set of generalizations that cover the consistencies you discerned in the data
- Linking these generalizations to a formalized body of knowledge in the form of constructs or theories.

In the next few paragraphs, the researcher will explore the interpretation of quantitative data and the quantitative analysis of the data collected for this thesis.

6.2.1 Interpreting quantitative data

Best and Khan (2003:277) state that quantification has been defined as a numerical method describing observations of materials or characteristics.

Antonius (2003:7) states that the term *quantitative methods* is used to refer to methods and techniques of statistics which are applied to concrete problems. It includes practical concerns such as finding solutions to the problems arising from the collection of real data and interpreting the numerical results as they relate to concrete situations (*cf*.5.4.3).

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:96) posit that quantitative researchers tend to rely heavily on deductive reasoning, beginning with a certain premise and then drawing logical conclusions from them. Researchers also try to maintain objectivity in their data analysis, conducting predetermined statistical procedures and using objective criteria to evaluate the outcomes of those procedures.

According to Kruger, De Vos, Fouché and Venter (2005:218) data analysis in the quantitative paradigm does not in itself provide answers to research questions. Answers are found by way of interpretation of the data and the results. To interpret is to explain and to find meaning. Analysis means the categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of data to obtain answers to research questions. The purpose of analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems

can be studied and tested and conclusions can be drawn (Kruger *et al.*, 2005:218).

Interpretation, Kruger *et al.* (2005:218) posit, takes the results of analysis, makes inferences pertinent to the research relations studied and draws conclusions about these relations. The researcher who interprets research results searches them for the meaning and implications. The authors site Kerlinger (1986) who reasons that this is done in the following two ways:

- The relations within the research study and its data are interpreted. This is the narrower and more frequent use of the term interpretation. Here interpretation and analysis are closely intertwined. One almost automatically interprets as one analyses, with a view to eventually reaching meaningful conclusions.

- The broader meaning of research data is sought. Researchers compare the results and the inferences drawn from the data to theory and to research results. Their aim is to learn more about the population from which the samples were drawn.. Here the researcher seeks the meaning and implications of research results within the study results, and their congruences or lack of congruence with the results of other researchers (Kerlinger, as quoted by Kruger *et al.*, 2005:218).

At this stage it is important for the researcher to emphasize that the questionnaire were not designed to *measure* the EI of the participants, but to look into whether they possess emotional competencies, how they manage emotions in a changing school culture and how they experience and interpret their own school environment in the face of change.

6.2.1.1 Analysis of the questionnaire

The data for this study was analysed using the statistical package SPSS which stands for *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* The statistical consultancy services of the North-West University Vaal Triangle Campus were approached for assistance in the analysis and interpretation of data collected

from the questionnaires. Frequency statistics were computed and these were scheduled in tabular and graphic form where necessary.

Antonius (2003:6) states that the term *statistics* is used in two different meanings: it can refer to the *discipline of statistics* or it can refer to the *actual data* that has been collected. As a scientific discipline, the object of *statistics* is the numerical treatment of data that pertain to a large quantity of individuals or large quantity of objects. It not only includes a general, theoretical aspect which is very mathematical, but it can also include the study of the concrete problems that are raised when we apply the theoretical methods and techniques of statistics which are applied to concrete problems (Antonius, 2003:6).

SPSS is a powerful programme which provides a very wide range of statistical procedures. Creating a data set with SPSS simply involves defining the characteristics for each column in the data set. SPSS v. 10 differs from previous versions in that the researcher defines the characteristics of the data. SPSS provides a wide range of summary statistics also commonly known as *descriptive statistics*, while at the same time also providing for incorporating summary statistics into graphical displays (Robson, 2002:407).

Graphic representations will be used to illustrate data. Royer (as quoted by Kruger *et al.*, 2005:227) states that graphic displays are visually effective and easy to interpret and they are often used instead of tables for frequency distributions.

Frequencies were run to interpret the data for this study (*cf.* 1.3.2.2). According to Robson (2002:403), a simple means of exploring many data sets is to recast them in a way which counts the frequency (such as the number of times) that certain things happen, or to find easy ways of displaying that information. Antoinus (2003:2880 defines a frequency as the number of items or cases, falling (or expected to fall) into a category or classification. This is usually presented as a table and called a *frequency table*.

The analysis for the *quantitative data* for this thesis will now be presented.

6.3 ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA FOR THIS STUDY

Participants, educators and learners respectively at the six schools used in the investigation, were requested to complete two questionnaires, Questionnaires were handed to the participants personally and the responses were collected at a given time.

Table 6.1: Participating learners at Gauteng schools

Secondary schools	Total distributed	Total returned	% returned
School 1	350	208	59
School 2	160	150	94
School 3	150	113	75
Total	660	471	71

Table 6.1 depicts the number of learners who participated in the completion of the questionnaire. 71% of the questionnaires distributed to learners at Gauteng schools were completed and returned. Learners completed the questionnaire during their Life Orientation period.

Table 6.2: Participating learners at Eastern Cape schools

Secondary school	Total distributed	Total returned	% returned
School 1	150	104	69
School 2	150	71	47
School 3	170	98	58
Total	470	273	58

Table 6.2 depicts the number of questionnaires distributed to and returned by learners at Eastern Cape schools. On average, 58% of the questionnaires were returned.

Table 6.3: Participating educators at Gauteng schools

Secondary school	Total distributed	Total returned	% returned
School 1	30	2	7
School 2	40	9	23
School 3	40	5	13
Total	110	16	15

Table 6.3 depicts the number of questionnaires distributed to and returned by educators at Gauteng schools. Most of the educators were not keen to complete the questionnaire and this may be interpreted as a lack of interest in research. Some educators explicitly stated that it was not worthwhile for them to complete the questionnaire. Only 16% of the educators completed the questionnaire. Although this was at first disturbing to the researcher, it became clear that several other post-graduate students are experiencing similar occurrences with research studies which include Gauteng educators as participants.

Table 6.4: Participating educators at Eastern Cape schools

Secondary schools	Total distributed	Total returned	% returned
School 1	40	16	40
School 2	40	18	45
School 3	40	29	73
Total	120	63	53

Table 6.4 depicts the number of educators at Eastern Cape schools who completed the questionnaire. 51% of the number of questionnaires that were distributed, were completed. Educators at these schools showed more participation and were eager to contribute to the research amid curriculum time constraints.

Both the educator and learner questionnaires were divided into three parts which dealt with:

- SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA
- SECTION B: HEALTHY SCHOOLS
- SECTION C: LEADERSHIP AND CHANGE (*cf.* ADDENDA C & D.)

6.3.1.1 Data on the general information

The quantitative phase of research provides for the presentation of data on general information regarding the participants in the study. The aim of the items in this section (*cf.* Section A) was to gather information which could possibly be used when interpreting data.

6.3.1.1.1 Review of participants

A total of 1130 learner questionnaires were distributed among six schools, three in the Eastern Cape Province and three in the Gauteng Province. From the above-mentioned questionnaires, 744 participants returned the questionnaire. (*cf.* Tables 6.3 & 6.4)

A total of 230 educator questionnaires were distributed among six schools, three schools in the Eastern Cape Province and three schools in the Gauteng Province. From the above-mentioned questionnaires, 79 participants returned the questionnaire (*cf.* Tables 6.5 & 6.6).

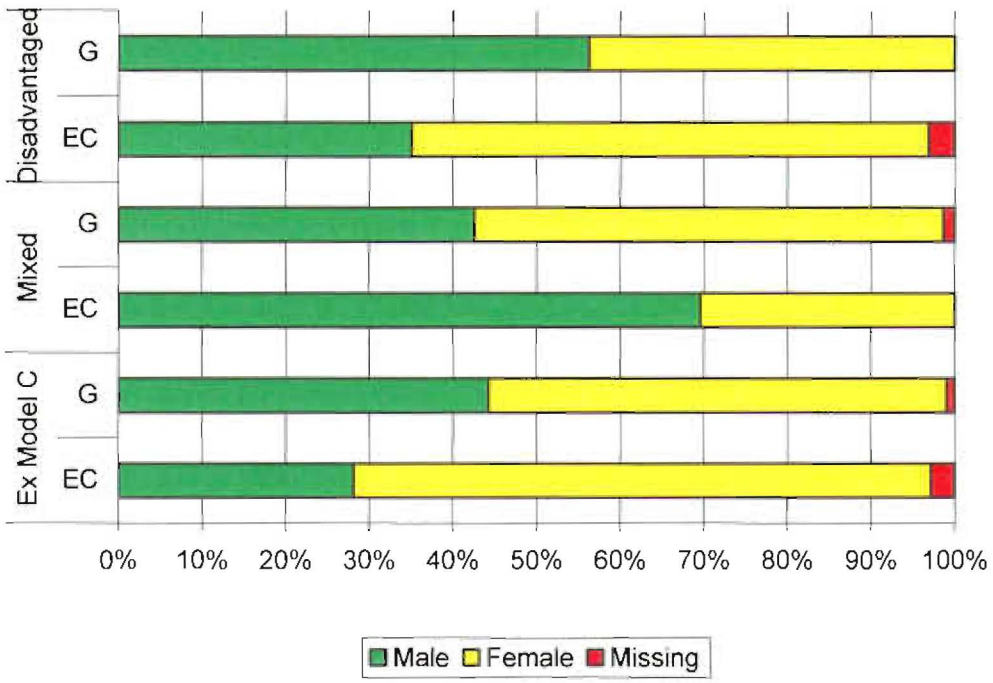
6.3.1.1.2 Section A: Biographical data of learner participants

The quantitative phase of research provides for biographical data of the learners. The aim of the items in this section (*cf.* Section A of the questionnaire, items 1 to 4) was to gather information which could possibly be utilized when interpreting data.

Item A1: Gender of learner participants

Table 6.5: Gender of learner participants at Gauteng (G) and Eastern Cape (EC) schools

	Ex Model C				Mixed				Disadvantaged			
	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%
Male	20	28	92	44	71	70	63	42	34	35	63	56
Female	49	69	114	55	31	30	83	57	60	62	49	44
Missing	2	3	2	1	0	0	2	1	3	3	0	0
Total	71	100	208	100	102	100	148	100	97	100	112	100



Column 1 and 2 of Table 6.5 depict the participants' gender at an ex-Model C school in the Eastern Cape Province. The majority of the participants (69%) were female, while males accounted for 28% of the total participants. Females therefore had a greater representation at these schools than their male counterparts. Two of the participants did not indicate their gender on the questionnaire.

Column 3 and 4 of Tabe 6.5 depict the participants' gender at an ex-Model C school in the Gauteng Province. The majority of the participants (55%) were female, while males accounted for 44% of the total participants. Females therefore had a greater representation at these schools than their male counterparts. Two of the participants did not indicate their gender on the questionnaire.

In columns 5 and 6, the participants' gender at mixed schools in the Eastern Cape Province is represented. The majority of the participants (70%) were male, while females accounted for 30% of the total participants. Males therefore had a greater representation at these schools than their female counterparts, which is different from the situation at the ex-Model C school which participated. All the participants indicated their gender on the questionnaire.

Column 7 and 8 depict the participants' gender at a mixed school in the Gauteng Province. The majority of the participants (57%) were female, while males accounted for 42% of the total participants. Females therefore had a greater representation at these schools than their male counterparts. Two of the participants did not indicate their gender on the questionnaire.

Column 9 and 10 of Table 6.5 depict the participants' gender at a disadvantaged school in the Eastern Cape Province. The majority of participants (62%) were females, while males accounted for 35% of the total participants. Females therefore had a greater representation at these schools than their male counterparts. Three of the participants did not indicate their gender when completing the questionnaire.

Column 11 and 12 represent the participants' gender at a disadvantaged school in the Gauteng Province. The majority of the participants (56%) were male, while females accounted for 44% of the total participants. Males therefore had a greater representation at these schools than their female counterparts which is similar to the situation at mixed schools in the Eastern Cape. All the participants indicated their gender on the questionnaire.

Item A2: Age of learner participants

Table 6.6: Age of learner participants at Gauteng (G) and Eastern Cape (EC) schools

	Ex Model C				Mixed				Disadvantaged			
	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%
15-17 years	262	94	193	93	210	83	122	81	89	43	66	59
18-21 years	14	5	14	7	40	16	7	18	108	52	41	37
Older than 21 years	0	0	0	0	1	0.3	0	0	6	3	2	2
Missing	3	1	1	0.5	2	0.7	2	2	6	2	3	3
Total	279	100	208	100	100	100	151	100	209	100	112	100

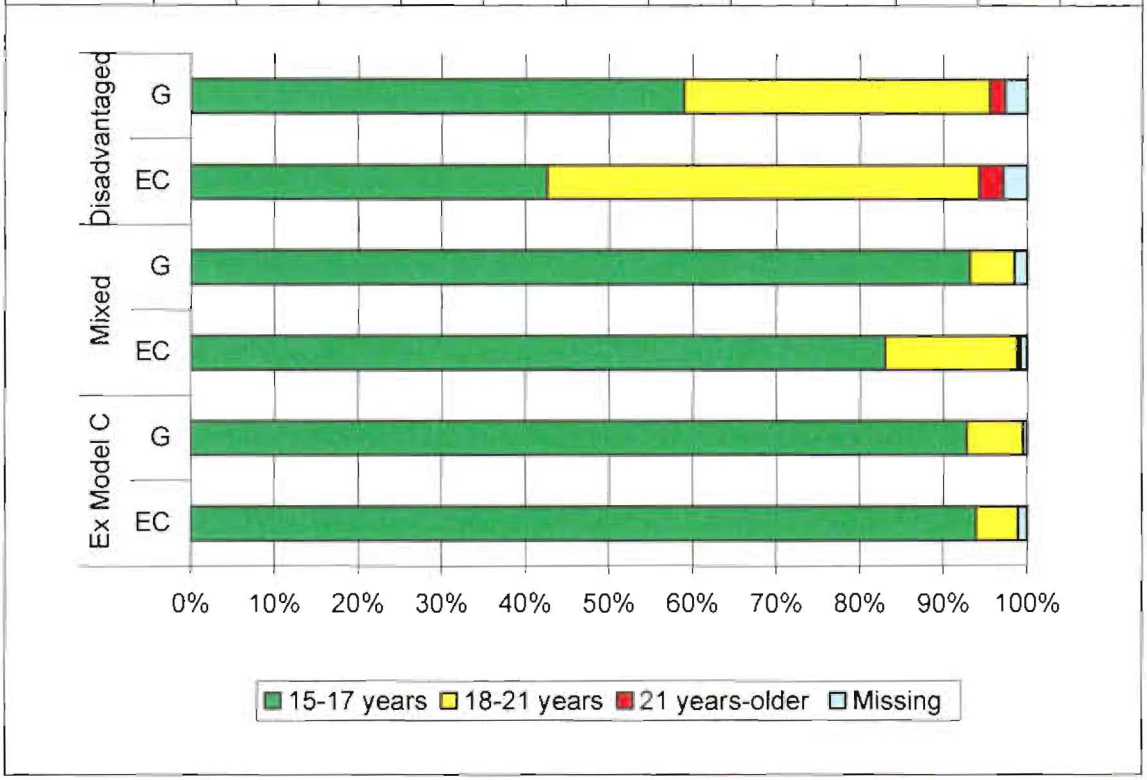


Table 6.6 depicts the ages of the learner participants for this study. Three age categories were represented. The data revealed that ages for learners at the Eastern Cape schools were as follows: The distribution for learners at the ex-Model C school was 94% for category one, 5% for category 2 and 0% for category 3. 1% of the participants did not indicate their age. The mixed school

revealed the number of learners for category 1 as 83%; 16% for category 2 and 0.3% for category 3. At the disadvantaged school, learner participants for category 1 totalled 14%. For category 2 it was 52% and 3% for category 3.

At the Gauteng schools, the ages of learner participants may be summarized as follows: The distribution for the ex-Model C school was 93% for category 1 and 7% for category 2. At the mixed school it was 81% for category 1 and 18% for category 2. The percentages for the disadvantaged school were 43% for category 1, 52% for category 2 and 3% for category 3. 2% of the participants did not indicate their age.

Most of the learners who participated in the study were between 15 and 17 years of age.

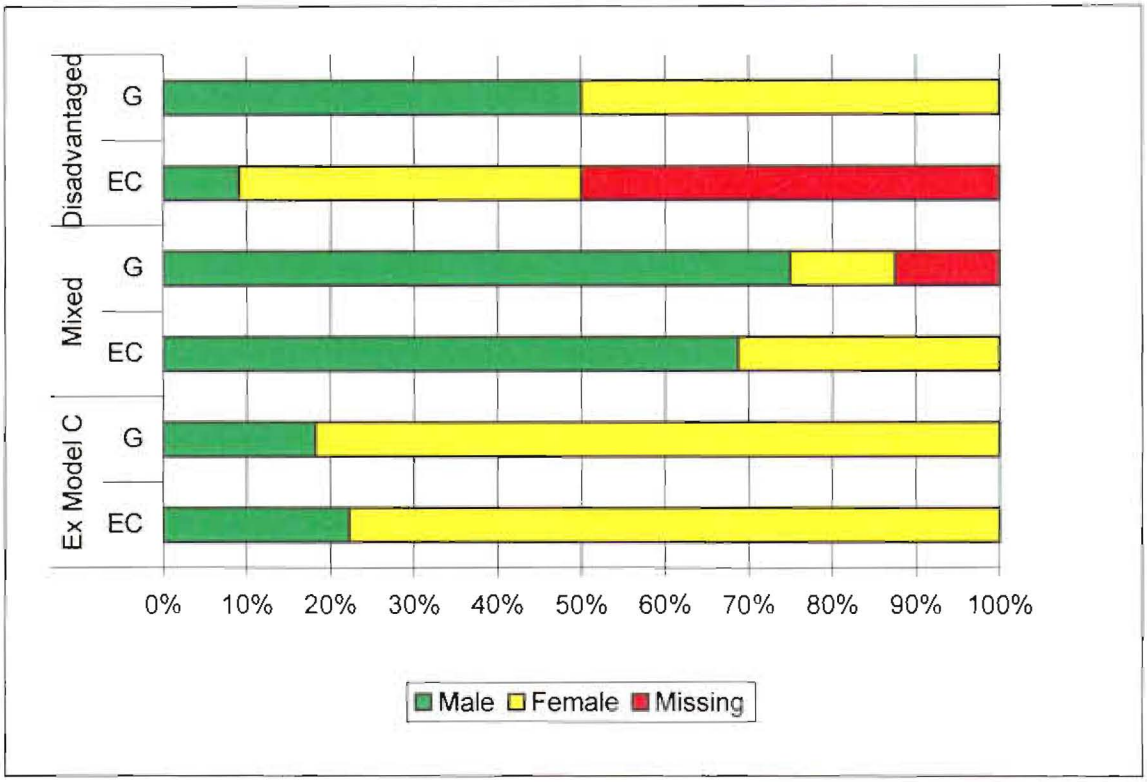
6.3.1.1.3 Section A: Biographical data of educator participants

Item A 1: Gender of educator participants

The quantitative phase of research provides for biographical data of the educators. The aim of the items in this section (*cf.* Section A of the questionnaire, items 1 to 4) was to gather information which could possibly be utilized when interpreting data.

Table 6.7: Gender of educator participants at Gauteng (G) and Eastern Cape (EC) schools

	Ex- Model C				Mixed				Disadvantaged			
	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%
Male	4	22	4	22	11	69	6	74	2	9	2	50
Female	14	78	18	78	5	31	1	13	9	41	2	50
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	13	11	50	0	0
Total		100		100		100		100		100		100

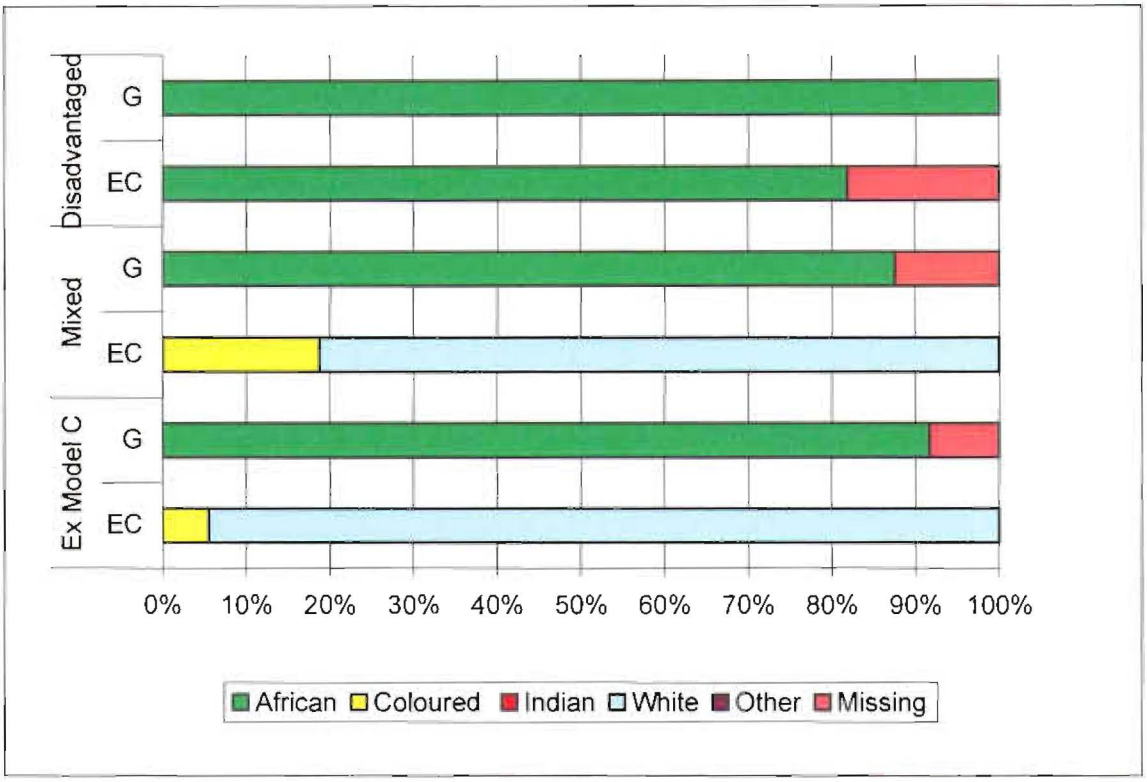


It is evident that while there were more female participants on average at the ex-Model C and disadvantaged schools which participated in both provinces, this situation was reversed at the mixed schools of both provinces.

Item A2: Culture of educator participants

Table 6.8: Culture of educator participants at Gauteng and Eastern Cape schools

	Ex Model C				Mixed				Disadvantaged			
	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%	EC	%	G	%
African	0	0	11	92	0	0	7	87	9	82	4	100
Coloured	1	6	0	0	3	19	0	0	0	0	0	0
Indian	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
White	17	94	0	0	13	81	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Missing	0	0	1	8	0	0	1	13	2	18	0	0
Total	18	100	12	100	16	100	8	100	11	100	4	100



The culture of educators in the Eastern Cape Province may be summarized as follows: no educators of African decent completed the questionnaire at the ex-Model C school, while the table indicates that 6% of the educators who completed the questionnaire were coloured and 94% were white.

At the mixed school, 16 educators completed the questionnaire. 19% were coloured, 81% were white and 0% were of African decent. The figures for the disadvantaged school indicated that 82% of the educators who completed the questionnaire were African and 18% did not indicate their culture.

The culture of educators in the Gauteng Province may be summarized as follows: at the ex-Model C school 92% of the educators of African decent completed this section and 8% did not complete it. 87% of educators at the mixed school were of African decent while 100% of the educators who compeleted the questionnaire were also of African decent at the disadvantaged school.

What follows is the analysis of educator perceptions of Sections B and C of their questionnaire.

6.3.1.1.4 Section B: Educators and healthy schools

This part of the data analysis reflects on the role of the educator as manager of change, EI and workplace success and change management at ex-Model C schools, mixed schools and disadvantaged schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province.

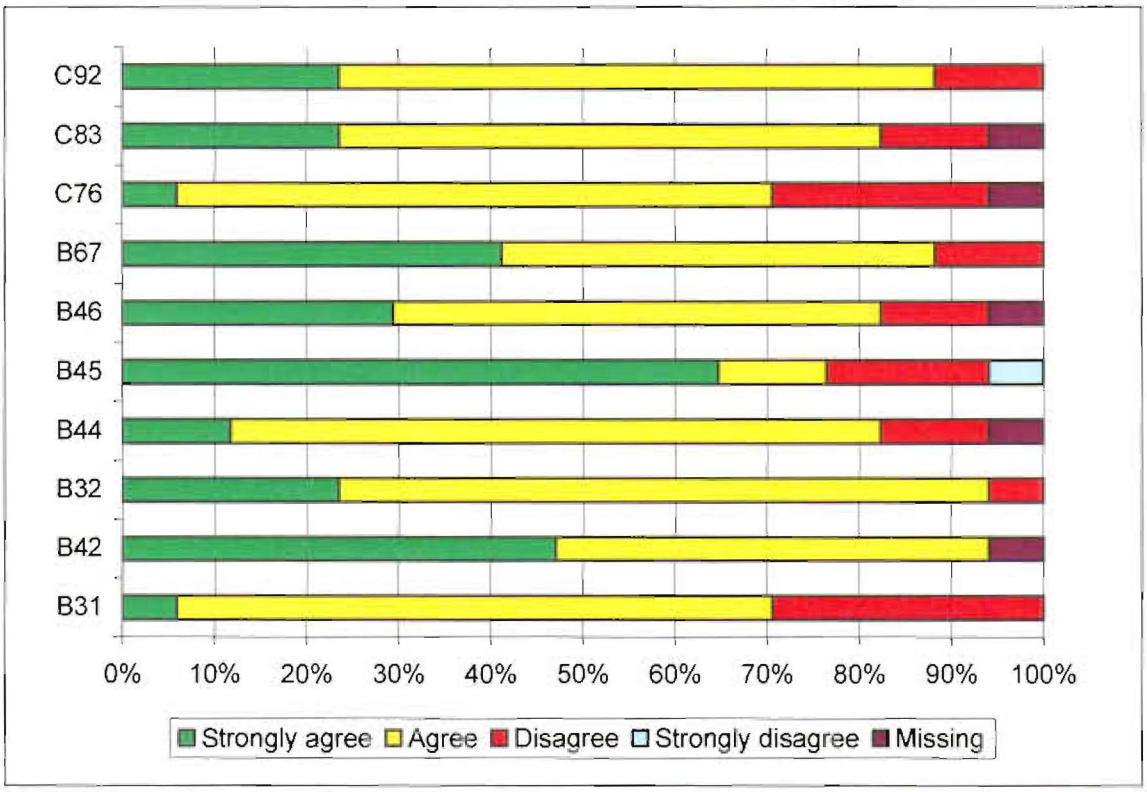
6.3.1.1.4.1 Role of the educator as manager of change

Table 6.9: Educators at an ex-Model C school in the Eastern Cape outline their role

Item	Activity		F	%
B31	Learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 11 5 0 0	6 65 29 0 0
	Total		17	100
B42	I feel free to contribute to the school in ways which are meaningful to me	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	8 8 0 0 1	47 47 0 0 6
	Total		17	100
B32	The principal fosters a positive learning environment where change is likely to occur	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 12 1 0 0	24 71 5 0 0
	Total		17	100

B44	The leadership of the school convinces staff, parents and learners that change is necessary and achievable	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	2 12 2 0 1	12 71 12 0 6
	Total		17	100
B45	The level and extent of the imposed change in recent years have increased levels of anxiety for educators at this school	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	11 2 3 1 0	65 12 14 6 0
	Total		17	100
B46	Leaders at the school allow staff to grow as individuals	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	5 9 2 0 1	29 53 12 0 6
	Total		17	100
B67	I am encouraged to bring my personal as well as my professional self to the classroom	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	7 8 2 0 0	41 47 12 0 0
	Total		17	100

C76	The principal assists educators and learners in understanding what change really means	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 11 4 0 1	6 65 24 0 6
	Total		17	100
C83	Before implementing any change initiative, the principal first gains acceptance from educators	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 10 2 0 1	24 59 12 0 5
	Total		17	100
C92	The school has an effective school development plan which integrates staff development, instructional development and curriculum development	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 11 2 0 0	24 65 12 0 0
	Total		17	100



6.3.1.1.4.2 EI and workplace success

In Table 6.11 most of the respondents (65%) indicated that they strongly agreed that the level and extent of imposed change at their school in recent years have increased levels of anxiety for the educators at the school. Only 14% of the educators disagreed with this statement. About 47% of the educators agreed that they feel free to contribute to the school in ways they deem meaningful and 41 % strongly agreed that they were encouraged to bring their personal as well as their professional self into the classroom. What is encouraging to note, is that the principal of the school endeavours to create a stable emotional climate at the school and this is evident from the responses which indicated that 65% of the educators agreed that the school had an effective school development plan which integrated staff development, instructional development and curriculum development. However, 12% disagreed with this statement.

The leadership of the school apparently also tries to convince staff members, parents and learners that change is necessary and achievable. 71% of the educators agreed and 12% disagreed with this statement. 53% of the

educators agreed that the leaders of the school allowed staff members to grow as individuals, while 29% of the educators strongly agreed with this statement (*cf.* 8.3.1).

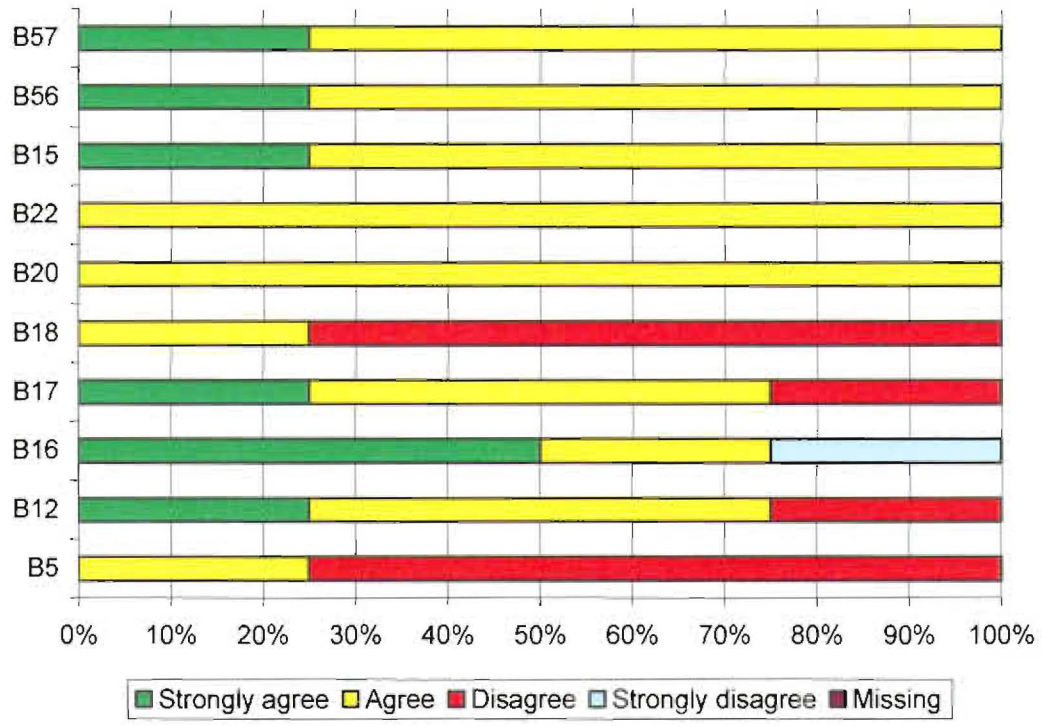
Educator questionnaires at the ex-Model C school in the Gauteng Province were declared void by the Statistical Services as the educators only completed section A of the questionnaire.

Table 6.10: EI and workplace success at a disadvantaged school in the Gauteng Province

Item	Activity		F	%
B5	Expressing emotions is a sign of weakness	Strongly agree	0	0
		Agree	1	25
		Disagree	3	75
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		4	100
B12	I am able to express my personal emotions	Strongly agree	1	25
		Agree	2	50
		Disagree	1	25
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		4	100
B16	When I am under pressure, I have the ability to stay positive and focused	Strongly agree	2	50
		Agree	1	25
		Disagree	0	0
		Strongly disagree	1	25
		Missing	0	0
	Total		4	100

B17	I allow learners to express their feelings	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 2 1 0 0	25 50 0 25 0
	Total		4	100
B18	Learners are encouraged to build collaborative relationships with peers	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	0 1 3 0 0	0 25 75 0 0
	Total		4	100
B20	Learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	0 4 0 0 0	0 100 0 0 0
	Total		4	100
B22	The school encourages active learner involvement	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	0 4 0 0 0	0 100 0 0 0
	Total		4	100
B15	Worrying and anxiety are two of the most frequently experienced emotional problems for both educators and learners	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 3 0 0 0	25 75 0 0 0
	Total		4	100

B56	The principal develops specific interventions in order to permit educators to deal with emotions	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 3 0 0 0	25 75 0 0 0
	Total		4	100
B57	The principal creates an organizational culture that recognizes the legitimacy of emotions	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 3 0 0 0	25 75 0 0 0
	Total		4	100



From the responses gleaned, educators emphasized the importance of emotions at the workplace and therefore 75% of educators disagreed with the statement that the ability to express emotions is a sign of weakness, while 25% of the respondents agreed with the statement. 50% of the educators declared that they were able to express their personal emotions, while 25%

strongly agreed and 25% disagreed with the statement. 50% of the educators confirmed that they allowed learners to express their personal feelings in the classroom. All the educators (100%) indicated that learners were encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience their school life.

However, to the question of whether learners were encouraged to build collaborative relationships with their peers, 75% of the respondents responded negatively while and 25% agreed. 75% of the educators agreed and 25% strongly agreed when asked to indicate if the principal of their school developed specific interventions to permit educators to deal with emotions. 75% agreed that the principal created an organizational culture that recognized the legitimacy of emotions at the school.

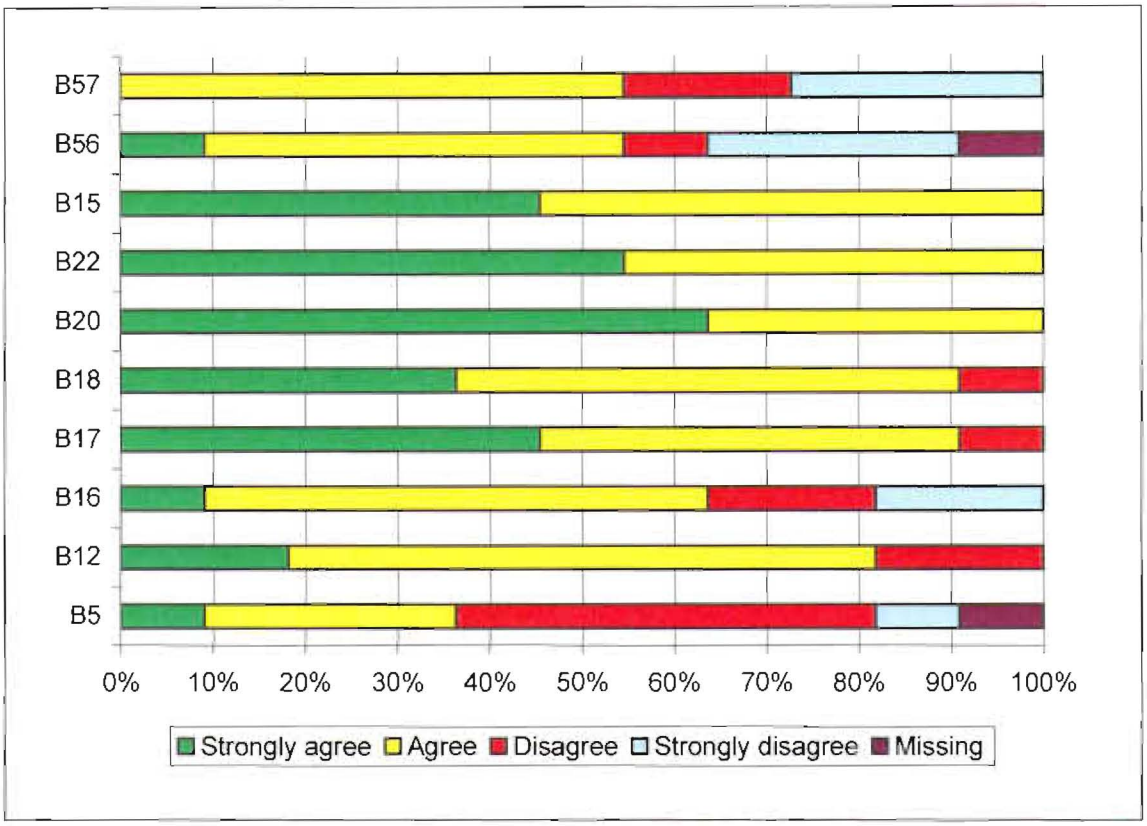
In executing change successfully at schools, principals will have to take into account the emotions of their educators and learners and provide mechanisms for them to cope with the imposed changes.

Table 6.11: EI and workplace success at a disadvantaged school in the Eastern Cape Province

Item	Activity		F	%
B5	Expressing emotions is a sign of weakness	Strongly agree	1	9
		Agree	3	27
		Disagree	5	46
		Strongly disagree	1	9
		Missing	1	9
	Total		11	100
B12	I am able to express my personal emotions	Strongly agree	2	18
		Agree	7	64
		Disagree	2	18
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		11	100

B16	When I am under pressure, I have the ability to stay positive and focused	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 6 2 2 0	9 55 18 18 0
	Total		11	100
B17	I allow learners to express their feelings	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	5 5 1 0 0	45 45 9 0 0
	Total		11	100
B18	Learners are encouraged to build collaborative relationships with peers	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 6 1 0 0	36 55 9 0 0
	Total		11	100
B20	Learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	7 4 0 0 0	64 36 0 0 0
	Total		11	100
B22	The school encourages active learner involvement	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	6 5 0 0 0	55 45 0 0 0
	Total		11	100

B15	Worrying and anxiety are two of the most frequently experienced emotional problems for both educators and learners	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	5 6 0 0 0	45 55 0 0 0
	Total		11	100
B56	The principal develops specific interventions in order to permit educators to deal with emotions	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	1 5 1 3 1	9 45 9 28 9
	Total		11	100
B57	The principal creates an organizational culture that recognizes the legitimacy of emotion	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	0 6 2 3 0	0 55 18 27 0
	Total		11	100



In order for educators to manage their classrooms and the change process, the way they manage their emotions becomes vital. 27% of the educators agreed that expressing emotions is a sign of weakness, while 46 % disagreed with this statement, 9% strongly agreed and 1% strongly disagreed. 64% of the educators agreed that they were able to express their personal emotions, 18% strongly agreed and 18% disagreed with this statement. 45% agreed that the principal developed specific interventions to permit educators to deal with emotions, while 27% strongly disagreed. Educators (55%) also indicated that their principal created an organizational culture that recognizes the legitimacy of emotion, but 27% strongly disagreed with this statement.

As this aspect is of vital importance for the creation of a successful school, principals need to direct urgent attention to this aspect (*cf.* 8.3.2).

6.3.1.1.5 Section C: Leadership and change

The focus now turns to presenting the data analysis for Section C of the educator questionnaire which dealt with EI and change management

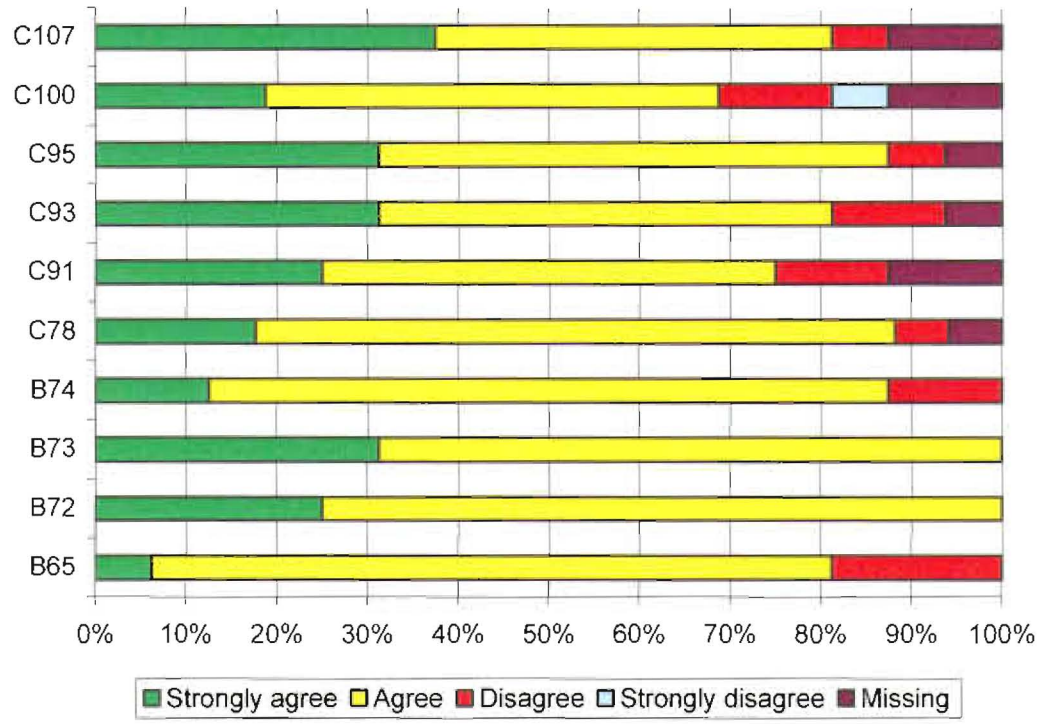
6.3.1.1.5.1 EI and change management

Table 6.12: EI and change management at a mixed school in the Eastern Cape Province

Item	Activity		F	%
B65	Educators have a sense of shared responsibility for supporting and learning from each other	Strongly agree	1	6
		Agree	12	75
		Disagree	3	19
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		16	100
B72	I believe that I have a real role to play in shaping how the school is run	Strongly agree	4	25
		Agree	12	75
		Disagree	0	0
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		16	100
B73	The educators at the school are committed to the change process	Strongly agree	5	31
		Agree	11	69
		Disagree	0	0
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		16	100
B74	There is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of educators	Strongly agree	2	12
		Agree	12	75
		Disagree	2	13
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		16	100

C78	The principal recognizes educators' expertise by involving us in leadership	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	3 12 1 0 1	13 75 6 0 6
	Total		16	100
C91	The principal creates a supportive open climate for all	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 8 2 0 2	25 50 13 0 13
	Total		16	100
C93	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	5 8 2 0 1	31 50 13 0 6
	Total		16	100
C95	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal plays	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	5 9 1 0 1	31 57 6 0 6
	Total		16	100
C100	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	3 8 2 1 2	18 50 13 6 13
	Total		16	100

C107	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners	Strongly agree	6	37
		Agree	7	44
		Disagree	1	6
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	2	13
	Total		16	100



Most of the educators (75%) agreed that they had a shared responsibility for supporting and learning from each other. While 19% disagreed and 6% strongly agreed with this statement, 75% of the educators also declared their belief in the role that they have to play in shaping how the school is run. However, 25% did not share this belief. With change being a process that educators have to cope with and manage, only 69% indicated that they agreed that educators were commited to the change processs, while 25% indicated that they strongly agreed with this statement. 75% of the participants agreed that there is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of educators, while 13% disagreed and 13% strongly agreed with this statement. 75% of the educators agreed that

their principal recognises educators' expertise by involving them in leadership. Yet 19% strongly agreed and 6% disagreed with this statement.

According to 50% of the participants, the principal creates a supportive, open climate for all, while 25% strongly agreed and 13% disagreed with this statement. 31% of the participants declared that they strongly agreed that the ultimate success of the school (*cf.* 7.2.1) depends on the quality of the role the principal plays, while 56% agreed and 6% disagreed with this statement. Sustained change (*cf.* 7.2.5; 7.2.5.1 – 7.2.5.4) is important for the success of any school. The largest percentage of the educators (50%) agreed that the management of their school prepares educators to face the challenges of change, while 13% disagreed and 19% strongly agreed with this statement. 44% of the educators agreed that the leadership of the school manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during the process of change. Moreover, 38% strongly agreed and 6% disagreed with this statement.

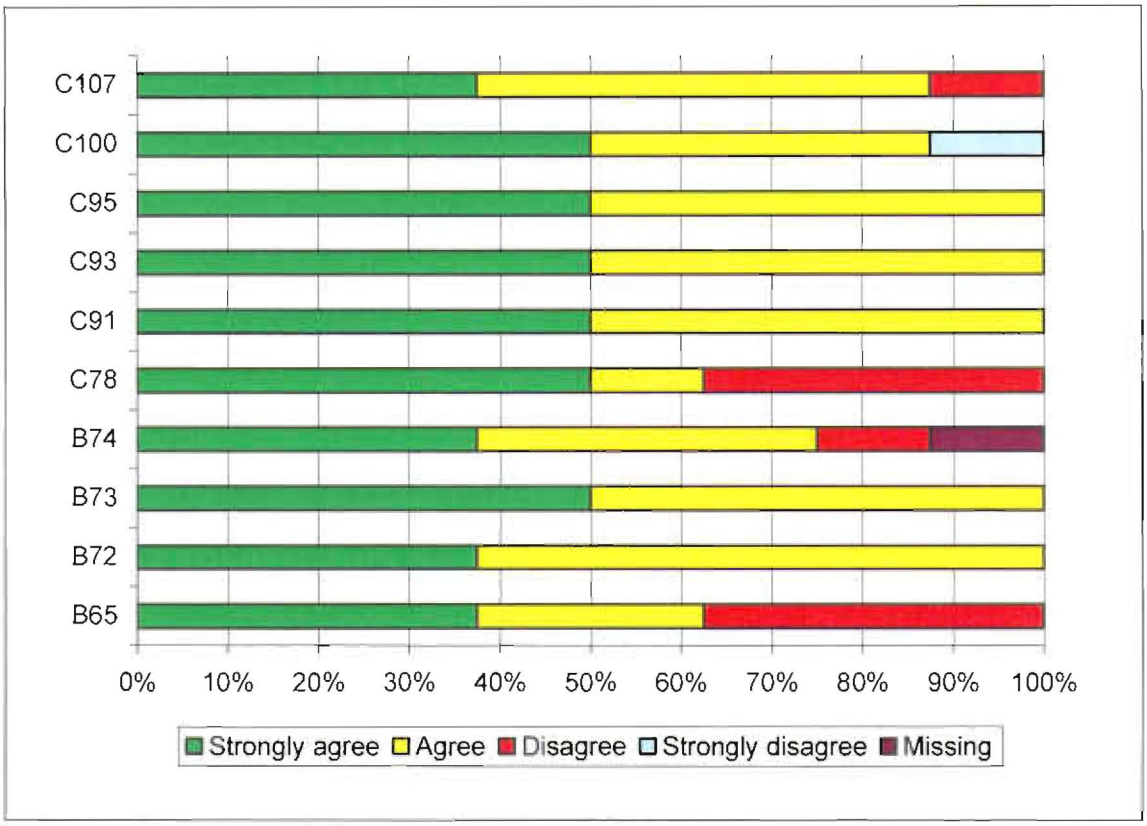
The responses of participants at a mixed school in the Gauteng Province are represented below.

Table 6.13: EI and change management at a mixed school in the Gauteng Province

Item	Activity		F	%
B65	Educators have a sense of shared responsibility for supporting and learning from each other	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	3 2 3 0 0	38 25 38 0 0
	Total		8	100
B72	I believe that I have a real role to play in shaping how the school is run	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	3 5 0 0 0	38 63 0 0 0
	Total		8	100

B73	The educators at the school are committed to the change process	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 4 0 0 0	50 50 0 0 0
	Total		8	100
B74	There is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of educators	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	3 3 1 0 1	38 38 12 0 12
	Total		8	100
C78	The principal recognizes educators' expertise by involving us in leadership	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 1 3 0 0	50 12 38 0 0
	Total		8	100
C91	The principal creates a supportive open climate for all	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 4 0 0 0	50 50 0 0 0
	Total		8	100
C93	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 4 0 0 0	50 50 0 0 0
	Total		8	100

C95	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal plays	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 4 0 0 0	50 50 0 0 0
	Total		8	100
C100	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	4 3 0 1 0	50 38 0 12 0
	Total		8	100
C107	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	3 4 1 0 0	38 50 12 0 0
	Total		8	100



Most of the educators (63%) strongly agreed and agreed that they have a shared responsibility for supporting and learning from one anther. However, it is discomforting to note that 38% disagreed with this statement. A probe into the culture and values of the school seems imperative to determine where and how this belief came about. 63% of the educators also agreed with the role that they have to play in shaping how the school is run, while 38% strongly agreed with this belief.

With change being a process that educators have to cope with and manage, it is comforting to note that 50% indicated that they agreed that educators are commited to change processs, and that 50 % indicated that they strongly agreed with this statement. 76% of the participants agreed and strongly agreed that there is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of educators. Educators were consistent in voicing their experience of the values of the school and the need to change the actions and understanding of educators, as only 13% disagreed with this statement. While 62% of the educators agreed that their principal recognizes

educators' expertise by involving them in leadership, a disturbing 38% disagreed with this statement.

It is clear that educators would like to play a more significant role in influencing the leadership and the decision-making at their school. The leaders should therefore recognize that engaging educators in leadership activity could only maximise educator and learner performance, enhance the emotional climate and lead to the ultimate success of the school.

According to all the participants, the principal creates a supportive, open climate for all. 50% of the participants declared that they strongly agreed that the ultimate success of the school (*cf.* 7.2.1) depends on the quality of the role the principal plays and 50% agreed with this statement. Sustained change (*cf.* 7.2.5; 7.2.5.1 – 7.2.5.4) is important for the success of any school. Most of the educators (88%) strongly agreed and agreed that the management of their school prepares educators to face the challenges of change, while 12% strongly disagreed. 50% of the educators agreed that the leadership of the school manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during the process of change, while 38% strongly agreed and 13% disagreed with this statement.

The focus now turns to presenting the analysis of the data for the *learner questionnaire*, presented in the themes as outlined for the educator data.

6.3.1.1.6 Learners and healthy schools

The following section highlights learner perceptions regarding the role of the educator as manager of change, EI and workplace success and EI and change management.

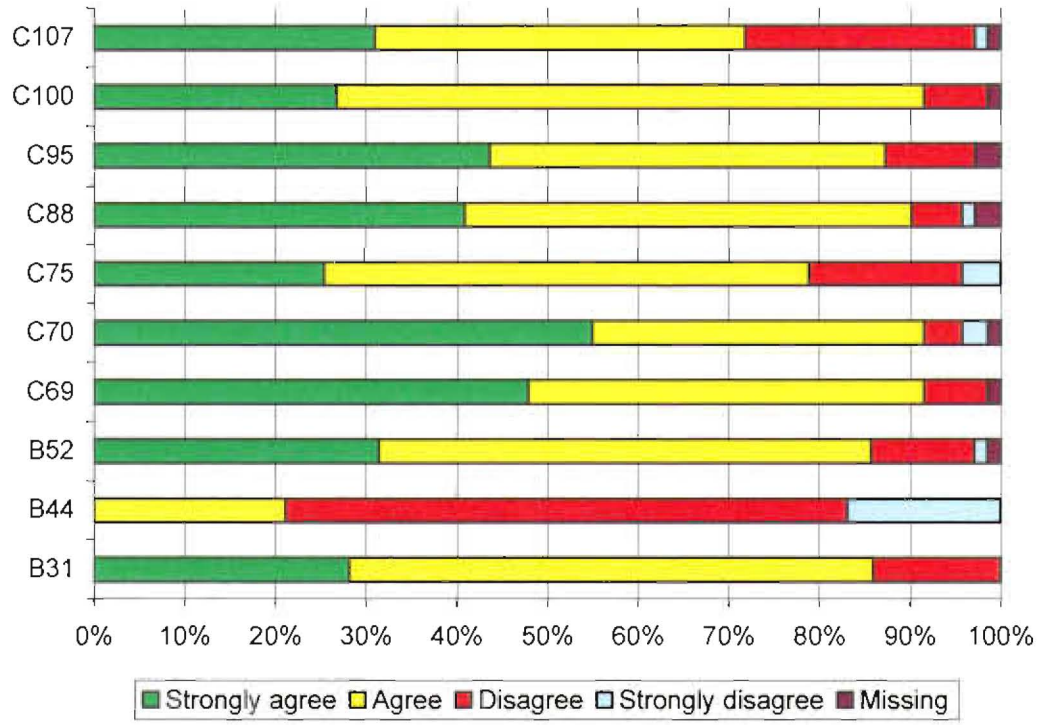
6.3.1.1.6.1 Role of the educator as manager of change

Table 6.14: Learners at an ex-Model C school in the Eastern Cape Province outline the role of the educator as manager of change

Item	Activity		F	%
B31	Learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment	Strongly agree	20	28
		Agree	41	58
		Disagree	10	14
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	0	0
	Total		71	100
B44	Apart from imparting academic skills and knowledge, the school promotes the personal and social development of learners	Strongly agree	0	0
		Agree	15	23
		Disagree	44	62
		Strongly disagree	12	17
		Missing	0	0
	Total			100
B52	Educators show care and concern toward learners at this school	Strongly agree	22	31
		Agree	38	55
		Disagree	8	11
		Strongly disagree	1	1
		Missing	1	1
	Total		71	100
C69	The leadership espouses an open learning environment, conducive to change	Strongly agree	34	48
		Agree	31	44
		Disagree	5	7
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	1	1
	Total		71	100

C70	The leadership of the school supports the full growth of learners academically, socially and emotionally	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	39 26 3 2 1	55 37 4 3 1
	Total		71	100
C75	I feel comfortable and physically and emotionally safe at the school	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	18 38 12 3 0	25 54 17 4 0
	Total		71	100
C88	Before implementing any change initiative, the principal gains acceptance from educators and learners first	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	29 35 4 1 2	41 49 6 1 3
	Total		71	100
C95	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal displays	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	31 31 7 0 2	44 44 10 0 3
	Total		71	100
C100	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	19 46 5 0 1	27 65 7 0 1
	Total		71	100

C107	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during change	Strongly agree	22	31
		Agree	29	41
		Disagree	18	25
		Strongly disagree	1	1
		Missing	1	2
	Total		71	100



28% of the learners strongly agreed that that learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment, while 58% of the learners at the school agreed with this statement. Yet 14% did not share this experience. A disturbing result is that most of the learners (62%+17%=79%) did not believe that the school promotes the personal and social development of learners, with only 23% agreeing with this statement. 86% of the learners indicated that the educators show care and concern toward them. Only 12% did not share this view.

It is evident that educators aspire to create more caring classroom environments which are commendable, as this improves learners' social-emotional skills and they feel more comfortable to approach and interact with educators.

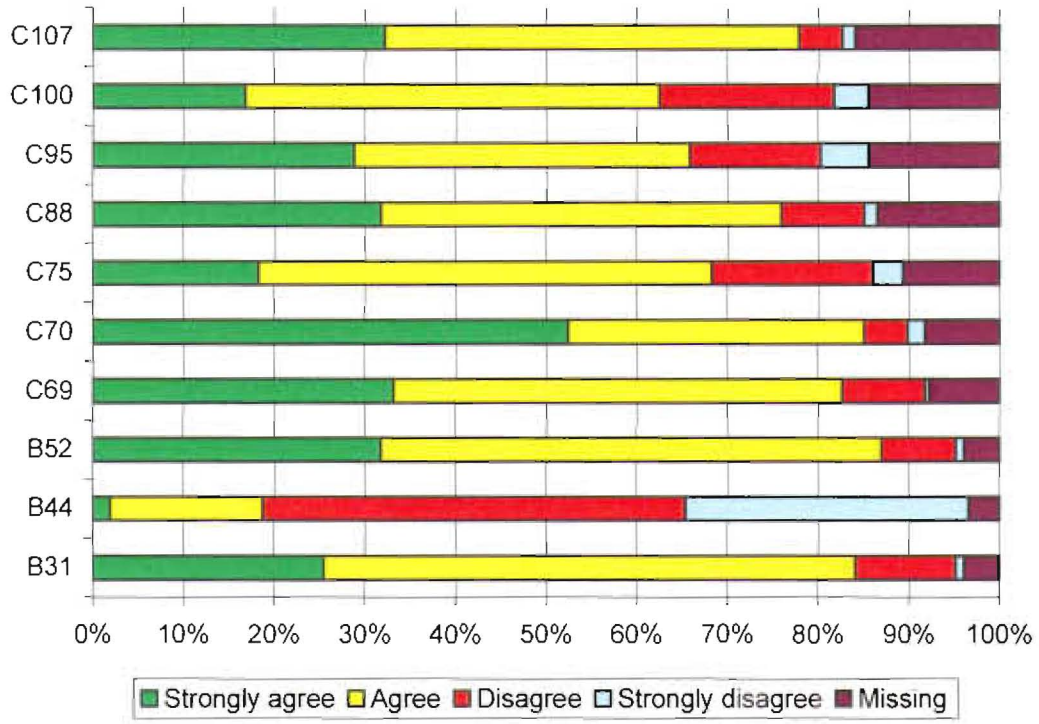
It is also clear that the leadership at this school espouses an open learning environment which is conducive to change. 48% of the learners strongly agreed with this statement, 44% agreed and only 7% of the participants disagreed with this statement. Learners also indicated that the leadership of the school supports the full growth of all learners academically, socially and emotionally: 55% strongly agreed, 37% agreed and only 4% disagreed with this statement. Physical and emotional safety ranked high with the learners, as 54% agreed that they generally feel safe at the school and 25% strongly agreed. However, 17 % disagreed with the statement.

Table 6.15: Learners at an ex-Model C school in the Gauteng Province outline the role of the educator as manager of change

Item	Activity		F	%
B31	Learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment	Strongly agree	53	25
		Agree	122	59
		Disagree	23	11
		Strongly disagree	2	1
		Missing	8	4
	Total		208	100
B44	Apart from imparting academic skills and knowledge, the school promotes the personal and social development of learners	Strongly agree	4	2
		Agree	35	17
		Disagree	97	47
		Strongly disagree	65	31
		Missing	7	3
	Total		208	100
B52	Educators show care and concern toward learners at this school	Strongly agree	66	32
		Agree	115	50
		Disagree	17	9
		Strongly disagree	2	1
		Missing	8	8
	Total		208	100

C69	The leadership espouses an open learning environment, conducive to change	Strongly agree	69	33
		Agree	103	50
		Disagree	19	9
		Strongly disagree	1	1
		Missing	16	7
	Total		208	100
C70	The leadership of the school supports the full growth of learners academically, socially and emotionally	Strongly agree	109	52
		Agree	68	33
		Disagree	10	5
		Strongly disagree	4	2
		Missing	17	8
	Total		208	100
C75	I feel comfortable and physically and emotionally safe at the school	Strongly agree	38	18
		Agree	104	50
		Disagree	37	18
		Strongly disagree	7	3
		Missing	22	11
	Total		208	100
C88	Before implementing any change initiative, the principal gains acceptance from educators and learners first	Strongly agree	66	32
		Agree	92	44
		Disagree	19	9
		Strongly disagree	3	1
		Missing	28	13
	Total		208	100
C95	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal displays	Strongly agree	60	29
		Agree	77	37
		Disagree	30	14
		Strongly disagree	11	5
		Missing	30	14
	Total		208	100

C100	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change	Strongly agree	35	17
		Agree	95	46
		Disagree	40	19
		Strongly disagree	8	4
		Missing	30	14
	Total		208	100
C107	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during change	Strongly agree	67	33
		Agree	95	46
		Disagree	10	5
		Strongly disagree	3	1
		Missing	33	15
	Total		208	100



Most of the learners (59%) at the ex-Model C school in the Gauteng Province agreed that apart from imparting academic knowledge, the school promotes the personal and social development of learners. 82% indicated that educators generally show care and concern toward learners as the school and 10% disagreed with this statement. 83% of the participants declared that the leadership of the school espouses an open learning environment which is

conducive to change. Yet 10% did not agree. 52% strongly agreed and 33% agreed that the leadership of the school supports the full growth of learners academically, socically and emotionally. However, while 68% of the participants also indicated that they feel comfortable and physically and emotionlly safe at the school, 21% did not agree with this statement.

When probed about change at the school and whether the principal gains acceptance from learners and educators first, before implementing change, 76% agreed that this was the case and 10% disagreed. 79% indicated that management prepares educators to face the challenges of change, while 6% disagreed and 15% did not respond to the question. As change impacts on the ultimate success of the school, the leadership team needs to consider this aspect carefully.

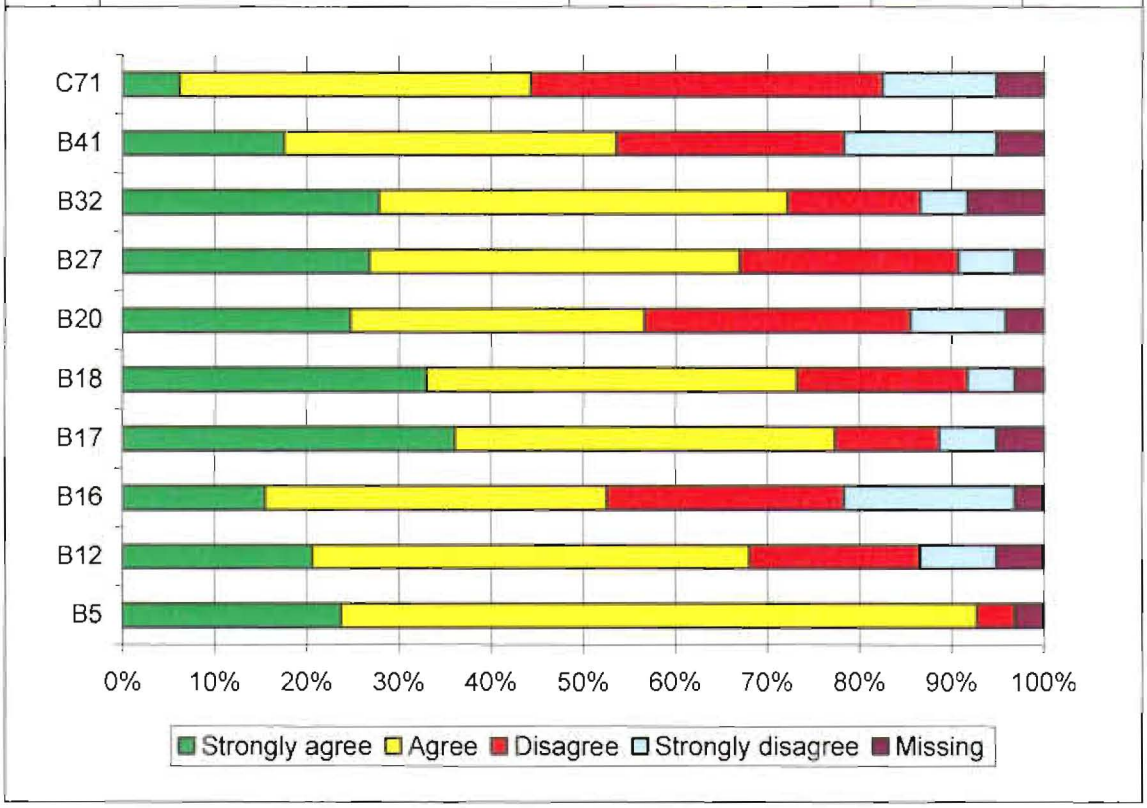
6.3.1.1.6.2 EI and workplace success

Table 6.16: EI and workplace success at a disadvantaged school in the Eastern Cape Province

Item	Activity		F	%
B5	Expressing emotion is a sign of weakness	Strongly agree	23	24
		Agree	67	69
		Disagree	4	4
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	3	3
	Total		97	100
B12	I am able to express my personal emotions	Strongly agree	20	21
		Agree	46	47
		Disagree	18	19
		Strongly disagree	8	8
		Missing	5	5
	Total		97	100

B16	When I am under pressure, I have the ability to stay positive and focused	Strongly agree	15	15
		Agree	36	37
		Disagree	25	26
		Strongly disagree	18	19
		Missing	3	3
	Total		97	100
B17	I am encouraged to talk about my feelings at school	Strongly agree	35	36
		Agree	40	41
		Disagree	11	11
		Strongly disagree	6	6
		Missing	5	5
	Total		97	100
B18	I have stable relationships with my peers at school	Strongly agree	32	33
		Agree	39	40
		Disagree	18	19
		Strongly disagree	5	5
		Missing	3	3
	Total		97	100
B20	Learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life	Strongly agree	24	25
		Agree	31	32
		Disagree	28	29
		Strongly disagree	10	10
		Missing	4	4
	Total		97	100
B27	Educators deal immediately with negative incidents such as learners fighting	Strongly agree	26	27
		Agree	39	40
		Disagree	23	24
		Strongly disagree	6	6
		Missing	3	3
	Total		97	100

B32	Educators create a positive emotional environment at the school	Strongly agree	27	28
		Agree	43	44
		Disagree	14	14
		Strongly disagree	5	5
		Missing	8	8
	Total		208	100
B41	The leadership of the school constantly motivates learners	Strongly agree	17	18
		Agree	35	36
		Disagree	24	25
		Strongly disagree	16	16
		Missing	5	5
	Total		208	100
C71	I have the freedom to make choices and influence my own learning	Strongly agree	6	6
		Agree	37	38
		Disagree	37	38
		Strongly disagree	12	12
		Missing	5	5
	Total		208	100



It is disconcerting to note that learners feel that expressing any kind of emotion is a sign of weakness: 69% agreed, 24% strongly agreed and only 4% disagreed with this statement. 68% indicated that they are able to express their personal emotions, yet 19% disagreed and 8% strongly disagreed. Learners also confirmed that 45% of the participants do not handle pressure well. However, 52% of them indicated that they can stay focused under pressure.

76% of the learner participants at this school indicated that they are encouraged to talk about their feelings at school and 73% of them indicated that they have stable relationships with their peers. Yet 24% of these participants did not agree with the latter and 17% of them did not agree with the former.

While 57% of the learner participants at this school indicated that they are encouraged to be open with their educators about school experiences, 39% did not agree with this statement and 30% of them also did not agree that educators deal immediately with negative incidents. It would appear that the educators at this disadvantaged school are not successful in influencing their learners positively regarding EI.

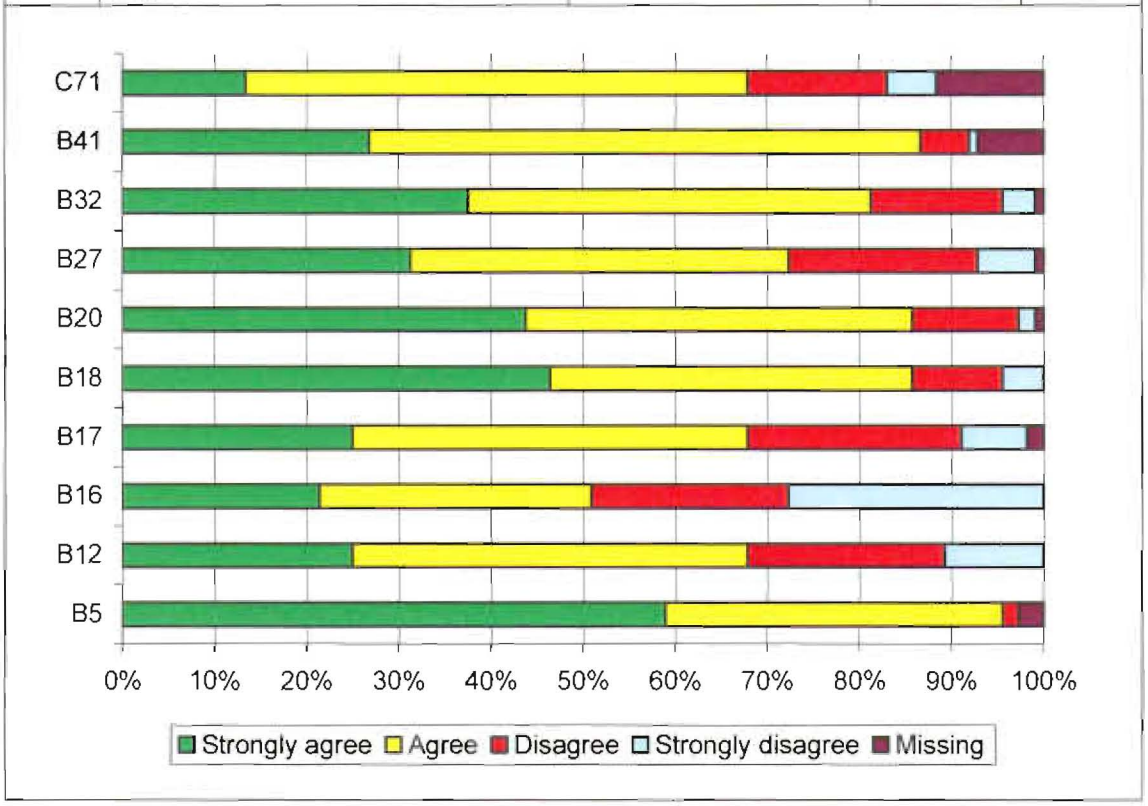
The majority of the learners (44% agreed & 28% strongly agreed) concurred that educators create a positive emotional environment at this school. However, 41% of these learners did not agree that school leaders motivate learners. It stands to reason that the leadership of the school needs to create an atmosphere and culture for change and needs to communicate continually and provide assistance to their learners.

Table 6.17: EI and workplace success at a disadvantaged school in the Gauteng Province

Item	Activity		F	%
B5	Expressing emotion is a sign of weakness	Strongly agree	66	59
		Agree	41	37
		Disagree	2	2
		Strongly disagree	0	0
		Missing	3	3
	Total		112	100
B12	I am able to express my personal emotions	Strongly agree	28	25
		Agree	48	43
		Disagree	24	21
		Strongly disagree	12	11
		Missing	0	0
	Total		112	100
B16	When I am under pressure, I have the ability to stay positive and focused	Strongly agree	24	21
		Agree	33	29
		Disagree	24	21
		Strongly disagree	31	28
		Missing	0	0
	Total		112	100
B17	I am encouraged to talk about my feelings at school	Strongly agree	28	25
		Agree	48	43
		Disagree	26	23
		Strongly disagree	8	7
		Missing	2	2
	Total		112	100

B18	I have stable relationships with my peers at school	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	52 44 11 5 0	46 39 10 4 0
	Total		112	100
B20	Learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	49 47 13 2 1	44 42 12 2 1
	Total		112	100
B27	Educators deal immediately with negative incidents such as learners fighting	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	35 46 23 7 1	31 41 21 6 1
	Total		112	100
B32	Educators create a positive emotional environment at the school	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	42 49 16 4 1	38 44 14 4 1
	Total		112	100
B41	The leadership of the school constantly motivates learners	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	30 67 6 1 8	27 60 5 1 7
	Total		112	100

C71	I have the freedom to make choices and influence my own learning	Strongly agree	15	13
		Agree	61	54
		Disagree	17	15
		Strongly disagree	6	5
		Missing	13	12
	Total		112	100



Similar to the learner participants at the disadvantaged school in the Eastern Cape, (93% of them), learners at this school also indicated that to express any kind of emotion is a sign of weakness: 59% strongly agreed and 37% agreed with this statement (96%). Despite this, most of the learners (25% strongly agreed & 43% agreed) indicated that they have the ability to express their personal emotions. However, 32% did not agree with this statement.

49% of these participants indicated that they could not stay positive and focused under pressure. This is reminiscent of the 45% of the participating learners at the disadvantaged school in the Eastern Cape.

68% of the learners agreed that they are encouraged to talk about their personal feelings at school, but 30% did not concur with this statement.

Educators should encourage learners to learn to recognize and manage their emotions and to handle interprersonal situations effectively. It is evident, however, that learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life, since 86% reacted positively to this statement.

While 72% of these learner participants reacted positively to educators' dealing with negative incidents, 27% of them reacted negatively to this statement.

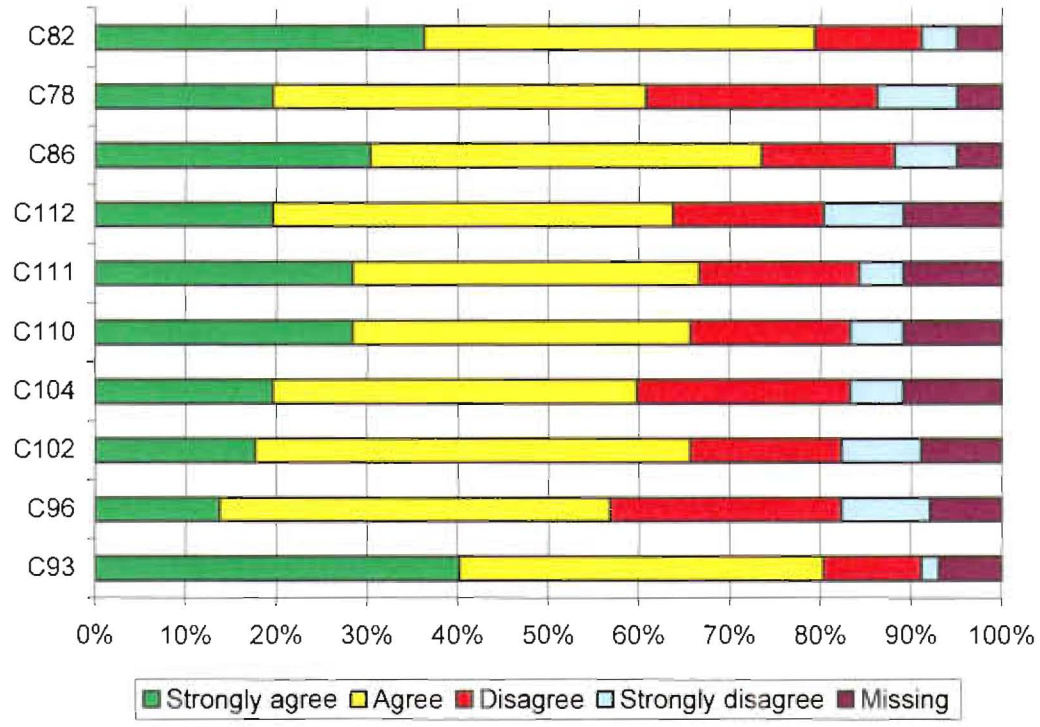
6.3.1.1.6.3 EI and change management

Table 6.18: EI and change management at a mixed school in the Eastern Cape Province

Item	Activity		F	%
C93	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership	Strongly agree	41	40
		Agree	41	40
		Disagree	11	11
		Strongly disagree	2	2
		Missing	7	7
	Total		102	100
C96	The principal creates a caring environment for learners and educators	Strongly agree	14	14
		Agree	44	43
		Disagree	26	25
		Strongly disagree	10	10
		Missing	8	8
	Total		102	100
C102	The principal explains change by means of two-way communication	Strongly agree	18	18
		Agree	49	49
		Disagree	17	17
		Strongly disagree	9	9
		Missing	9	9
	Total		102	100

C104	The principal prepares learners and educators to adjust to proposed change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	20 41 24 6 11	20 40 23 6 11
	Total		102	100
C110	The leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	29 38 18 6 11	29 37 18 6 11
	Total		102	100
C111	The leadership maximises opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	29 39 18 5 11	29 38 18 5 11
	Total		102	100
C112	I am motivated to assist with change at the school	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	20 45 17 9 11	20 44 16 9 11
	Total		102	100
C86	The principal sets high standards for the school and provides a role model for learners and educators	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	31 44 15 7 5	31 43 15 7 5
	Total		102	100

C78	The principal aspires to change the shcool culture through the installation of new values and beliefs	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	20 42 26 9 5	20 41 25 9 5
	Total		102	100
C82	Whilst implementing change, the principal provides opportunities for learners to articulate their feelings	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	37 44 12 4 5	36 43 12 4 5
	Total		102	100



In Table 6.18, 80% of the learners agreed that their school is successful because it has strong, positive leadership and 57% agreed that the principal creates a caring environment for learners and educators. However, 35% of these learner participants did not concur that the principal creates a caring environment. This does not augur well for the role of EI when managing change at schools.

Most of the learners (49% agreed & 18% strongly agreed) that the principal explains change by means of two-way communication and prepares learners and educators to adjust to the proposed change (40% agreed & 20% strongly agreed). Yet 29% did not concur with the latter statement. The majority of the learners also indicated that they agree that the leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change (37% agreed & 29% strongly agreed) and that the leadership maximises opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships (67% reacted positively). However, 19% of the participants did not concur with the former statement and 23% did not concur with the latter.

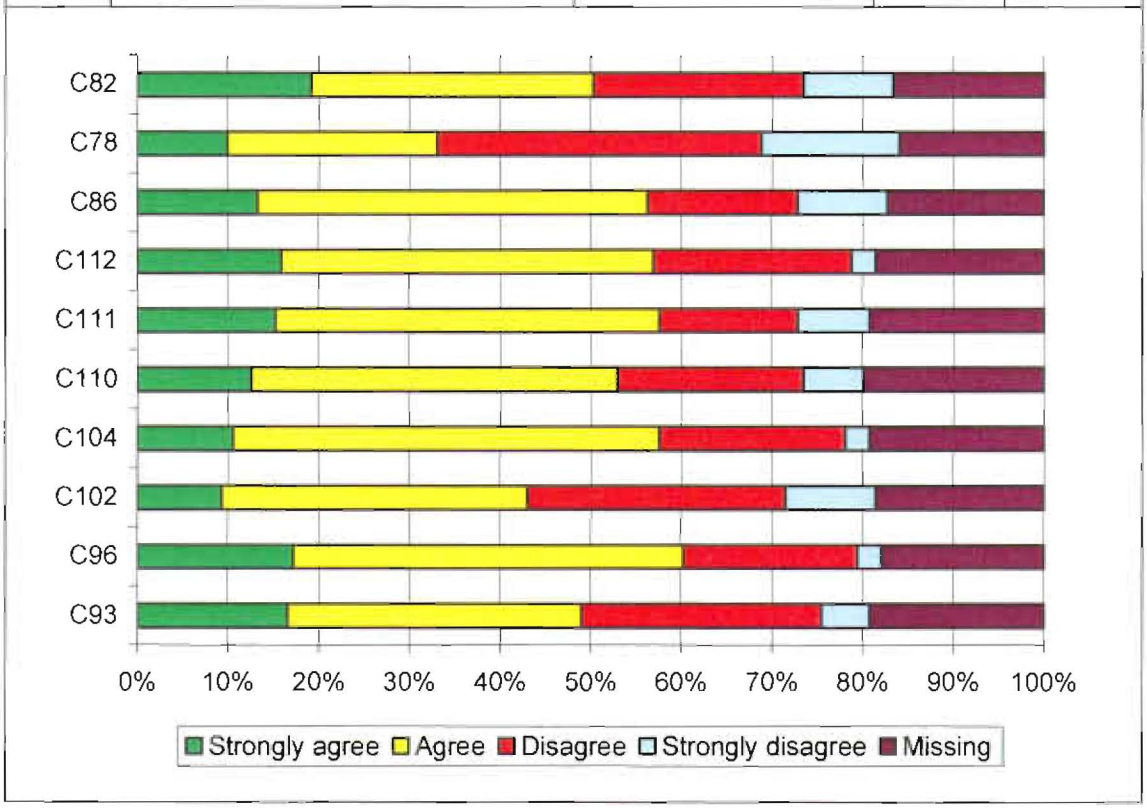
While the leadership generally motivates learners to assist with change at school (44% agreed & 20% strongly agreed), 25% did not concur. Principals need to respond urgently to the challenge of change and encourage more ownership of the process by both educators and learners.

Table 6.19: EI and change management at a mixed school in the Gauteng Province

Item	Activity		F	%
C93	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership	Strongly agree	25	17
		Agree	49	32
		Disagree	40	26
		Strongly disagree	8	5
		Missing	29	19
	Total		151	100
C96	The principal creates a caring environment for learners and educators	Strongly agree	26	17
		Agree	65	43
		Disagree	29	19
		Strongly disagree	4	3
		Missing	27	17
	Total		151	100

C102	The principal explains change by means of two-way communication	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	14 51 43 15 28	9 34 28 10 19
	Total		151	100
C104	The principal prepares learners and educators to adjust to proposed change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	16 71 31 4 29	11 47 20 3 19
	Total		151	100
C110	The leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	19 61 31 10 30	13 40 20 7 20
	Total		151	100
C111	The leadership maximises opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	23 64 23 12 29	54 42 15 8 19
	Total		151	100
C112	I am motivated to assist with change at the school	Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree Missing	24 62 33 4 28	16 41 22 3 19
	Total		151	100

C86	The principal sets high standards for the school and provides a role model for learners and educators	Strongly agree	20	13
		Agree	65	43
		Disagree	25	17
		Strongly disagree	15	10
		Missing	26	17
	Total		151	100
C78	The principal aspires to change the school culture through the installation of new values and beliefs	Strongly agree	15	10
		Agree	35	23
		Disagree	54	36
		Strongly disagree	23	15
		Missing	24	16
	Total		151	100
C82	Whilst implementing change, the principal provides opportunities for learners to articulate their feelings	Strongly agree	29	19
		Agree	47	31
		Disagree	35	23
		Strongly disagree	15	10
		Missing	25	17
	Total		151	100



In Table 6.19, 32% agreed, 17% strongly agreed and 34% did not concur with the statement that their school is successful because it has strong, positive leadership. 60% concurred that the principal created a caring environment for learners and educators, but only 43% indicated that they agreed that the principal explains change by means of two-way communication. 38% did not concur with this statement. However, 58% of the learners indicated that the principal prepares learners and educators to adjust to proposed change and 53% concurred that the leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change. However, 38% did not concur with the former statement and 23% did not concur with the latter. These results do not confirm the data of the educator participants (*cf.* Table 6.14 & 6.15).

What was disconcerting, was that 51% of these learner participants did not concur that the principal aspires to change the school culture through the installation of new values and beliefs. Only 33% of the participants reacted positively to this statement.

Only 50% concurred that whilst implementing change, the principal provides opportunities for learners to articulate their feelings. 43% did not concur with this statement. What emerges from the change efforts adopted at the school is that the leadership should assist learners and educators in the adoption and implementation of plans for change.

It therefore seems appropriate to conclude that there is a need for leaders within the school to assume a greater responsibility for effecting change successfully and to involve learners and educators in the process and to supply actions and strategies needed to effect the change.

The focus now turns to presenting the *qualitative analysis* of the data for this thesis.

6.4 ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA FOR THIS STUDY

In the next section, the researcher provides a synopsis of important aspects to consider when interpreting qualitative data and then proceeds with a discussion on the qualitative analysis of the data for this study.

6.4.1 Interpreting qualitative data

Marshall and Rossman (as quoted by De Vos, 2002:340) state that qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data. In contrast with quantitative methods that examine cause and effect, Muijs (2004:9) posits that qualitative methods are more suited to looking at the meaning of particular events or circumstances. Friedl and Friedl (2002:443) refer to meaning as the intention of the original author (*cf.* 5.4.4).

Patton (as quoted by De Vos, 2005:333) posits that qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significance from trivia, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:97) state that qualitative researchers construct interpretive narrative from their data and try to capture the complexity of the phenomenon under study. They use a more personal, literary style, and they often include the participant's own language and perspectives.

Robson (2002:459) reiterates that qualitative analysis remains much closer to codified common sense than to the complexities of statistical analysis of quantitative data.

According to Best and Khan (2003:259), the first step in analyzing qualitative research involves *organizing* the data and the method of organizing the data will differ depending on the research strategy and data collection techniques. Once the data have been organized, the researcher can move to the second stage in data analysis, namely *description.* The researcher describes the various pertinent aspects of the study including the setting, both temporally and physically; the individuals being studied; the purpose of any activities examined; the viewpoints of participants and the effects of any activities on the participants.

Patton (as quoted by Best & Khan, 2003:259) describes the final phase of the analysis process namely *interpretation* as involving an explanation of the findings, answering *why* questions, attaching significance to particular results, and putting patterns into an analytic framework. The discipline and rigour of qualitative analysis, the author states, depend on presenting solid descriptive data in such a way that others reading the result can understand and draw their own interpretations.

Miles and Huberman (as quoted by Robson, 2002:480) list the following thirteen tactics for generating meaning in qualitative analysis:

- Noting patterns and trends and seeing plausibility. Do the trends, patterns, and conclusions make sense?
- Clustering. Grouping events, places, people and processes together if they appear to have similar patterns or characteristics.
- Making metaphors. Metaphors are rich, data-reducing and pattern-making devices which help to connect data with theory.
- Counting. Helps to enable the researcher to see what is there by counting frequency of occurence of recurrent events
- Making contrasts and comparisons. Establishing similarities and differences between and within data sets.
- Partitioning variables. Splitting variables may help find more coherent descriptions and explanations.
- Subsuming particulars into the general. Linking specific data to general concepts and categories.
- Factoring. Attempting to discover the factors underlying the process under investigation.
- Noting relations between variables. Using matrix displays and other methods to study interrelationships between different parts of the data.

- Finding intervening variables. Trying to establish the presence and effects of variables intervening between observed variables.

- Building a logical chain of evidence. Trying to understand trends and patterns through developing logical relationships.

- Making conceptual/theoretical coherence. Moving from data to constructs to theories through analysis and categorization.

In the next section, the focus turns to providing a discussion on the analysis of the data gleaned from the focus group interviews.

6.4.2 Analysing the data from focus group interviews

For the purpose of this thesis, focus group interviews were conducted with Grades 10 and 11 educators and learners at six secondary schools in the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the SMT and SGB members at each school.

Creswell and Neuman (as quoted by Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:146) state that focus groups are especially useful under the following circumstances:

- When time is limited

- Some people feel more comfortable talking in a group than talking alone

- Interaction among participants may be more informative than individually conducted interviews

- When the researcher is having difficulty interpreting what he or she has observed.

Greeff (2002:318) states that in qualitative analysis, the researcher strives to be open to the reality of others, therefore the aim of the analysis is to look for trends and patterns that reappear within a single focus group or among various focus groups. The basis for analysis is transcripts, tapes, notes and memory.

Morgan and Krueger (as quoted by Greeff, 2002:318) contend that a focus group analysis combines many different elements of qualitative research and in addition, adds to the complexity of group interaction. In analyzing the researcher should therefore consider the words, the context, the internal consistency, frequency of comments, extensiveness of comments, specificity of comments, what was not said, the dynamics of the group, as well as finding the central idea.

Analytic efforts will also involve drawing together and comparing discussions of similar themes, and examining how these relate to the variation between individuals and between groups (Barbour & Kritzinger, as quoted by Greeff, 2002: 318-319).

6.4.3 Analysing the data from semi-structured interviews

Best and Khan (2003:257) state that interviews are used to gather information regarding an individual's experiences and knowledge, his/her opinions, beliefs and feelings. Demographic information and interview questions may also be asked to determine past or current information as well as make predictions for the future.

When engaging in qualitative analysis, there are recurring features that the researcher wishes to highlight. Scott and Usher (1999:84) posit that a typical qualitative analytical approach may include the following aspects:

- Coding or classifying field notes, observations or interview transcripts by either inferring from the words being examined what is significant or from the repeated use of words or phrases whether a pattern is developing (i.e that all the activities which have been recorded are being understood in a similar way).

- Examining those classifications to identify relationships between them and at the same time beginning the process of understanding those relationships in general terms, so that they have credibility beyond the boundaries of the case being examined. Researchers draw upon previous

knowledge about the world that has enabled them to distinguish between objects and between occurrences in their life.

- Making explicit these patterns, commonalities and differences – in short, making sense of the data, and taking these by now more developed theoretical constructs into the field to test or refine them.

- Elaborating a set of generalizations which suggest that certain relationships hold firm in the setting being examined, and affirming that these cover all the known eventualities in the data set.

- Formalizing these theoretical constructs and making inferences from them to other cases in place and time (Scott & Usher, 1999:84).

The researcher will now provide the *qualitative data analysis* of semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews conducted for this study.

To facilitate analysis, the participants' answers were grouped into five broad themes. The *healthy schools* category incorporates perceptions about classroom atmosphere, staff development and the vision and goals of the school. *Educators and learners' perceptions regarding the process of change* includes how educators and learners perceive change and resistance to change. *Leadership and the process of change* focus on the role of the principal as leader of change, the role of the educator as manager of change, characteristics of the principal as leader and changes that took place at the school. *The impact of EI on the management of change* incorporates the importance of EI at schools, the role of emotions and the emotional climate at the schools. The last theme, *school culture* centres around school culture as the focus of change, learners' expectations of their school experience and the school's expectations for learners outlined in Table 6.22.

The data collected from the individual interviews with SMT members and SGB members were presented verbatim without changes to grammatical errors. The researcher then coded the taped transcripts and identified the themes and categories in keeping with the *constant comparative method.* Robson (2002:193) states that the repeated comparison of information from data

collection and emerging theory is referred to as the constant comparative method.

Verma and Mallick (1999:85) posit that in comparative studies, two different groups are compared using the same measure or the same variables at, or nearly at, the same time.

In the next section, the focus turns to providing the analysis of the data from the focus group and semi-structured interviews which were conducted for this study.

The themes for both the educator and learner focus groups and the semi-structured interviews conducted at all the schools are outlined in the next section. The researcher provides feedback, based on the responses obtained in the interviews, on each of the themes and sub-themeswhich are indicated. Responses from all the participants in the focus groups and semi-structured interviews, namely the educators, learners, SGB members and SMT members are presented.

Table 6.20: Themes and sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis

THEMES	SUB-CATEGORIES
Theme 1: Healthy schools	• Classroom atmosphere • Staff development • School's vision and goals
Theme 2: Educator and learner perceptions regarding change	• Resistance to change
Theme 3: Leadership and the process of change	• Characteristics and role of the principal as leader • Role of the educator as leader • Changes that took place at the school

Theme 4: Impact of EI on the management of change	• Importance of EI at schools • Role of emotions at schools • Schools emotional climate
Theme 5: School culture	• School culture as the focus of change • Learners' expectations of their school experience • School's expectations for educators and learners

In the next section, the researcher will present the feedback obtained from the focus group interviews which were conducted with educators and learners, as well as provide the insight from the interviews which were conducted with SGB and SMT members in the themes outlined in Table 6.20.

6.4.4 Feedback from focus group interviews

The information gleaned from focus group interviews conducted with Grades 10 and 11 educators and learners, SGB and SMT members at disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape Province and Gauteng Province will now be presented.

6.4.4.1 Theme 1: Healthy schools

The school should be sensitive to the needs of learners, therefore a healthy school environment with the key ingredient of EI should be fostered. Here the researcher was concerned with how the satisfaction of these needs contribute to a healthy, safe and successful school. The subcategories below explored the needs and perceptions of educators and learners in this regard.

6.4.4.1.1 Sub-category: Classroom atmosphere

Educators and learners of the schools in the study generally experienced their learning environment in disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C schools as safe, but identified learners being ill-disciplined as a major cause for concern. Educators attributed this change in discipline at schools as learners'

heightened awareness of their rights and a breakdown in family systems and values as increasing, due to economic pressures and parents needing to work.

Educators also contended that learners are emotionally immature to handle these rights that they are so sensitive to, they do not have the know-how or the wisdom to do so and in the end they *take over* in classrooms that result in the roles of educator and learner being reversed.

Some learners depicted their classroom atmosphere as *loud and roudy*, and that learners generally show a lack of interest in their work. Learners also indicated that the atmosphere for each class would usually differ, depending on the educator and what educators are prepared to tolerate in their classrooms.

There were no discrepancies – learners at all schools in the study experienced the same classroom atmosphere.

It was the researcher's observation that disadvantaged schools still bear the brunt of the apartheid education, facing problems of overcrowding in classrooms, resource shortages and de-motivated educators. This, the educators ascribed to a lack of support from the Department of Education in the respective provinces.

Three educators remarked:

We have difficulty adapting to the change directives from the Department of Education. Resources present a major challenge to effect change.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

Ons weet nie waar ons staan met die Departement nie, want hulle kan nie vir ons riglyne gee wat om te doen nie.

(Educator, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

There is no consistency in something that the Department issues and says, this is what we are going to do, it happens so often that they backtrack and say, ok, we've decided to do this, but it is going to change now, it is going to

be in that direction, so nobody takes them seriously anymore... hulle het hulleself gediskrediteer. Inconsistency and lack of decision-making, you have no faith in them anymore.

(Educator, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

In contrast, ex-Model C schools have benefited from the education system of the past and can draw on their *reserves* and given the nature of the communities they are situated in, may charge high school fees to pay for additional resources. Learners in disadvantaged schools can only pay the minimum, because of the communities they hail from.

The availability of resources was evident in a comment made by a senior member:

From the Department's side, the curriculum changes constantly along with the pass requirements. From the school's side, we are constantly looking at what the kids' needs are, I'm talking subjects and extra mural activities... new sports started in the school, hockey, soccer, we have a horse-riding team, we support them in that way. The disciplinary system has changed, you have to handle the child more, find out what the problem is, get behind the problem, talk to them, get the parents involved. The contact with the parent is obviously a major change, it always used to be between teacher and child and I think the parent has become the third party in the changing environment in the school.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

In the focus group interviews conducted with Grades 10 and 11 educators and Grades 10 and 11 learners, both groups were asked to describe their particular classroom atmosphere. There was general consensus (among educators and learners) at most of the schools that the educator sets his/her own atmosphere in the classroom and is responsible for providing a safe environment for the learners.

Referring to classroom atmosphere, learners remarked:

Different educators use different systems, learners exploit new educators, learners show more respect toward strict teachers

(Learner, ex- Model C school, Gauteng Province)

They communicate well with each other. In some cases the kids get out of hand, it depends on the teacher. If you have a strict teacher, you would sit still. Our Maths class is a very relaxed atmosphere, we do talk, but we do also know our place, when to stop talking and when to work. Yes, the environment promotes teaching and learning.

(Learner, ex-Model C, Eastern Cape Province)

It also depends on the teacher, expectations learners have of the teacher as being strict or not.

(Learner, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

It depends on the educators and the subject, the attitude toward the educator or the learner, because it would mean that there you won't be concentrating. The atmosphere would be one of hard work as the other class, you would not be paying attention, you would be disturbing the other learners because you have an agenda with the educator.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

Learners at all schools described the desirable characteristics of educators as those of mutual respect, having a sense of humour and not shouting. Most learners also indicated that educators are accessible when they have problems (personal or otherwise) and need to consult with them. However, the Life Orientation classes seemed most valuable in this regard.

The learners remarked:

Down to earth and understanding, someone who respects you so that you can sort of return the respect. Someone you can talk to when you have a problem. When a teacher is willing to help you, the teacher must know what he is talking about, the teacher must do work with us.

(Learner, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

If he or she is not strict or respect me, it also depends on the way the teacher is and the way he does things.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

I look for mutual respect, the right attitude and patience.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

6.4.4.1.2 Staff development

It was evident from the responses that opportunities for staff development were virtually non-existent at most of the schools, with vague comments on this aspect provided.

To the question: "Can you identify some of the opportunities for personal development at your school?" a senior manger responded:

The support structure should be there, delegating, co-opting others to help you and financial support. Every staff member is involved in an activity at the school, like updating the website, informing parents of happenings at the school, so they take ownership of their own activities at the school.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

Educators and senior personnel were asked whether opportunities for personal development existed at their schools. Most of the educators indicated that these opportunities mainly do not exist, with educators being afforded only the opportunity to attend workshops initiated by the Department of Education in their province. Educators are further responsible for pursuing studies or any personal development initiatives on their own.

An educator remarked:

The Department facilitates teachers to be technologically literate through the provision of workshops. Educators are sent to be trained during holidays, there is no upward mobility in the Department of Education.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

Conversely, SMT members of most of the schools indicated the contrary:

Organised workshops, and also the district, but then we don't wait for the district, we identify the needs then we decide, then the school raise funds to do that, we don't follow up on the excersises that we did, because after five years we find ourselves doing the same thing. The staff identify needs by sending the staff component to the SGB, or by interacting with the principal.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

We allow people to continuously go for training, as part of their professional level, we make sure that people go for training to advance in this field, we give bursaries for further studies, the educator can repay it later, but the SGB assists in the interim.

(SGB member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

We are always encouraged to go on courses, I know I go on the deputy principal's course, second in command course that is offered by the various unions, we are also co-sponsored, the school pays, and if you do need finance, you can approach the Governing Body and they tend to be very helpful.

(SMT member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

6.4.4.1.3 Vision and goals

From the responses to the question: "What are the vision and goals of the school and to what extent does the vision and goals coincide with yours?" participants provided varied responses, but none to the point. Generally, educators aligned themselves with the vision of their particular school, whatever the collective perceived it to be. They *work together* to achieve it. One educator noted that these (vision and goals) are 'not very clear' at the

school. For most of the schools in question, equipping learners to go out in the world and take their place seemed to be the generic vision participants provided.

It is interesting to note that although all the schools have a vision and mission statement, none of the participants could accurately articulate the actual vision and mission of their particular school. Their statements were vague and different participants *at the same school* gave conflicting statements in this regard.

Participants identified the vision and goals for their schools as follows:

To get a better result for the learners, we want to see them at tertiary institutions.

(SGB member, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

The vision of the school is to have future leaders, I believe that we should produce learners who will help the community out there.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

We want to see our school as the best performing school.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

The vision of the school is that we must develop each child's full potential.

(SMT member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

The original mission statement of the school is that we must develop each child's full potential, and give him all the opportunities that you can and that coincides perfectly with mine... I love to unlock potential in adults, letting them discover that they can do it.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eatern Cape Province)

6.4.4.1.4 Theme 2: Educators and learners' perceptions regarding the process of change

Educators seemed more knowledgeable than learners about the process of change and how the process was unfolding at disadvantaged, mixed and ex-Model C schools. It should be borne in mind that the learners in this study were of secondary school age, therefore they were unlikely to be acquainted with the entire process of change and its implementation within their particular school.

Preedy, Glatter and Wise (2003:186) state unequivocally that promoters of change need to be committed and skilled in the change process as well as in the change itself. Lighthall (as quoted by Preedy *et al.*, 2003:186) is of the opinion that educational change is a process of coming to grips with the multiple realities of people who are the main participants in implementing change.

Some of the difficulties highlighted by educators regarding the process of change are mentioned below:

According to both educators and learners at all the schools, some of the major changes that their schools have undergone include the implementation of the new National Curriculum Statement (NCS) of the National Department of Education. Educators consider the implementation of this new curriculum a *stumbling block and stalling point* at the schools and believe that it has made the learners lazy.

An educator shared these sentiments when asked the question: *'Has the school seen any changes over the past five years?'*

I feel the standard of education is dropping. Learners cannot do their Maths tables. To add, they need a calculator, they must have a machine to do it for them. If you give them research, they download everything from the internet as it is, they copy and present it as a group project.

(Educator, mixed school, Gauteng Province)

Educators agreed that their schools have not seen many changes, but it is interesting to note that educators agreed that secondary school learners are not coping with the demands of their subjects, especially in Mathematics and Languages. This they attributed to the changes implemented from the Department of Education, notably Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) and the NCS.

One educator responded thus:

What we find is that the learners coming from the primary school are ill-equipped, or not equipped at all, to cope with the basic principles in any subject. Languages, Mathematics, those things are no longer in place, the focus has changed, but it doesn't seem as if the change is to the child's benefit. Ultimately, you need certain skills to write, for instance, there is no recourse for the primary school teachers, the primary school qualification he gets from one will definitely differ from the other because they don't have to answer to anybody.

(Educator, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

Another educator provided the following insights:

Die basis, ons moet terruggaan na die laerskool toe, die basis is die huis. Die meerderheid van die kinders vandag kom uit gebroke huise uit, enkelouers, of uit probleemhuise uit. In die laerskool is daar 'n oorbeklemtoning van wat die Departement wil hê, wat die syllabus wil hê, die laerskool onderwyser is amper te bang om die kind te dissiplineer, omdat die kind bewus is van sy menseregte.

Die kinders kan nie meer lees nie, jy sal dink dit is 'n taal ding, maar al ons vakgebiede, omdat hy nie kan lees nie, nou het jy nie sy aandag nie, nou het jy dissiplinêre probleme en dit het definitief verseker dat kinders met 'n swakker leesvermoë by die sekondêre skool aankom

(Educator, ex-Model C, Eastern Cape Province)

Almost all of the participants cited a significant improvement in the extra-mural activities and sport, the decrease of learner commitment toward their

academic performance, incorporation of more black learners into their schools and discipline as some of the major changes that have affected them. Two schools indicated that the change of the principal marked significant changes in *the way of operation* at the school. Emphasis was also placed on the role of the educator in the classroom and the changes this role has undergone.

For the researcher, it is significant to note some of the responses in this regard:

In the past five years the school has changed three principals and this created a little bit of a problem. People do not want to try new things, educators have to adapt....once learners direct the teacher, the level of discipline might be lost, you should be giving guidance.

(SMT member, mixed school, Gauteng Province)

Discipline has changed. Emotional support and material support (resources) is lacking from the Department of Education. Teachers are not well-trained to deal with the new syllabus, not enough training is provided to deal with the challenges of OBE and the NCS. Workshop facilitators are ill-equipped to conduct workshops, some are not familiar with the terminology for some of the subjects.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

To the question: *Can you describe how learners have responded to the changes at the school*? a participant remarked:

Most of the time they were confused, because educators were confused, learners were more confused educators were talking this new language, introducing a new style of doing things but they are adjusting, they are getting there...

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

6.4.4.1.5 Resistance to change

According to Blenkin, Edwards and Kelly (1997:225), educators' careers consist of a number of identifiable phases or stages which are passed through

sequentially. From phase to phase the commitment of teacher to innovation varies. In general, having consolidated their basic repertoires educators enter a phase where the willingness and energy to innovate is at its strongest. At the latter stage of a career educators may enter a phase characterized by a pulling back, a narrowing of interests, a diminution of the energy available for collective innovations. If a change initiative is *out of phase* with an individual's career, it is likely to be either ignored or resisted.

For the researcher, educational change can only be successful if educators perceive themselves and their role positively and feel that they are valued contributors of the process of change.

The information gleaned from the interviews conducted with educators revealed that educators on the whole, are willing to contribute to change, but they have difficulty with the *manner* in which these changes are effected at their schools. They feel that they are seldom consulted and that these changes are imposed upon them from the Department of Education in their province and subsequently by their principals. Educators also perceive their principals as being *willing participant* or pawns in a game played by their respective departments at the cost of the both the educator and the learner. Resistance is therefore sometimes not openly exercised, but some educators resist by not teaching in their classrooms and the older generation educator is usually set in the traditional way of doing things.

The above statement was aptly substantiated by participants from the ex-Model C schools and the disadvantaged schools. The question read: *Was there any resistance to the change that has taken place?*

Unfortunately yes, there are some of your older staff members who find it very difficult to change and adapt; for them it is still the child keeps his mouth shut in the class and quite often as a senior staff we have visions and things we would want to do, and they would say no but in the past we used to do it like that... so that is a spanner in the works in any school's progress. But it is in the minority and it doesn't hamper the vision of the school.

(Senior Manager, ex-Model C, Eastern Cape Province)

Some people could not cope with the changes and we had resignations, learners also quit school because they were overloaded with work (portfolios) that they are not used to but now we are adjusting, when it (new curriculum) started people did not know what to do, training was very short, we've been trained in terms of change 3 to 4 weeks which is not enough.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

OBE came as this escalating thing, different people coming to tell us about OBE there was resistance, training was done in the afternoon, it was problematic, we could only motivate them...

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

6.4.4.2 Theme 3: Leadership and change

The perceptions educators and learners have of their principal as leader and the way the principal steers the process of change at their schools was captured in the following sub-categories below.

6.4.4.2.1 Sub-category: Characteristics and role of the principal as leader

Educators and learners at all the schools conceded that their principal's ability to lead the school was exceptional. Principals were described as *visionaries*, as possessing *excellent people skills*, as *willing listeners* and as people who easily delegated tasks.

Participants generally had faith in the leadership of their schools to be amenable to change, although they did not necessarily agree with the implementation of the change process. They did not regard the implementation as taking place in a structured way.

Educators responded as follows:

Being transparent, know what is going on, conduct regular meetings and be a person who is able to interact with staff. The principal as leader should have a participatory approach, involve teachers, ensure that changes are

implemented and monitor to see if changes are effective. He should not force change.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

I find him more as a manager, a leader, not a boss. Because we take examples from him, we copy from him where there is a problem, he will adjust to help you, he is not a person who will shout at you, where there are deadlines, he will remind you. He is making sure that everything is fine. The learners take him like their farther, they go directly to him, he has an open-door policy, he is a good manager.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

Understanding, strong morals, able to take authority but also be a people's person, moet dit doen vir almal omdat hulle almal moet tevrede wees, moet hom nie hoër as ander ag nie, moet kan delegeer maar ook nie terugsit en werwag ander moet alles doen nie.

(Educator, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

I think the principal should be the one to ask how you are adapting to the change and always be there to help you make the change in order for you to adapt to the change and he should be the one setting the example, consult before he makes decisions on what needs to change.

(Learner, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

On the question of the challenges facing the leadership at these schools regarding change at their schools, the responses were:

For one, the syllabus, the school numbers, demographics, predominantly Blacks become the bigger group of students, some of the teachers need to adapt to that. Teachers used to have an equal level of student demographics, the principal is aware of that, to bring down the size of classes, we are looking at bringing it down to 30.

(SGB member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

Jy wil iemand hê in wie jy vertroue het, en as 'n mondstuk of spreekbuis van die Departement, hy moet weet waarvan hy praat, en dat hy iemand is wat visie het, simpatie vir die saak van die onderwysers en dis iemand socially astute.

(Educator, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

People are not properly equipped, there is nothing that one can do, lack of training is the challenge to leadership.

(SGB member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

He is not harsh to us but he makes us understand why it is important to do our work on time, he is empowering us, he gives us information in time and he is a person with whom you can interact freely when we need assistance.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

I think he is a person who likes his staff to get on, I think he likes to create a family atmosphere at the school and he encourages this, he has a good rapport with learners, he has an open-door policy, he is very welcoming in that respect and you are free to raise issues you feel need attention, that you are unhappy about.

(SMT member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

6.4.4.2.2 Sub-category: Role of the educator as manager of change

Participants vaguely and inadequately described the role of the educator during the process of change. This is probably due to the fact that they have described that they had not experienced *real* changes at their schools or changes that they felt part of as the changes schools were undergoing had been imposed upon them.

Teachers are very fixed on the change in syllabus, fairly adaptable, not see change as threatening, but I must see the good sense or benefit behind the change, then I do find it irritating and frustrating if I don't see the good sense around it. Children have changed dramatically, the discipline is a huge

challenge its not always ways and you have to constantly work around it and find ways or strategies of coping.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

My position as senior manager would be to facilitate change, although I am not always in favour of the change but as the SMT member I have to facilitate other people which is sometimes difficult if you don't accept it yourself, as an educator I am very resistant to some of the changes that come through from the Department, so I do battle with that, the admin things we are constantly called upon to do, that frustrate us because they always want it asap.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern cape Province)

It is very important, once a change needs to be implemented, it is there, some of the things we do not negotiate, they are negotiated at national level and they become policies, the more you delay to implement that change it becomes even more difficult so it is important for the teacher to understand the change as soon as possible and try to implement it. It becomes difficult if the change comes in stages and not all at once, it causes resistance on the side of the educator.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

6.4.4.2.3 Sub-category: Changes that took place at the schools

Change is unsettling and may even cause confrontation and severe damage but it is interesting to note how schools become resilient in the face of change. Educators and learners adapt consciously or intuitively to imposed or agreed upon changes at the school.

One respondent noted:

Here we have to adapt or die.

(Senior manager, ex-Model C, Eastern Cape Province)

From the responses received from participants, it was evident that the schools have not undergone many changes in the past five years, aside from those

imposed upon them by the Department of Education. One of the major changes that all schools highlighted, was the change in discipline of learners.

It is significant to note that there are no discrepancies in terms of how educators experience the discipline of their learners at ex-Model C mixed and disadvantaged schools and that they regard this as an important variable that has changed in the school environment.

There appeared to be a correlation between perceptions of educators and learners from disadvantaged schools and ex-Model C schools in both the Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province.

This is evident in the statements provided by educators from these schools to the question: *Has the school seen any changes over the past five years?*

Naamsverandering, en die hele ethos van die school wat verander het van 'n handelskool na 'n akademiese skool. Dis eintlik positief, maar die grootste verandering is dat dit moeiliker is op dissipline vlak. Ons kan nie werk soos ons vyf jaar gelede gewerk het nie, dit het totaal verander. Die kinders het nie respek nie, hulle leer nie respek by die huis nie en dit bekommer my soms dat ons te oorbewus raak van elke kind se probleem in die klas, en hulle leer nie om te 'cope' nie. Hulle leer nie respek vir ander mense nie en hulle verwag heeltyd dat almal by hulle omstandighede en hulle behoeftes moet aanpas.

(Educator, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape)

Changes in the curriculum, members of staff that has been promoted to other areas, recruits, the style of discipline has changed the discipline has changed learners in that they believe they can misbehave because they have rights, yet it is not like that. We now have more problems than before, we even refer people to the National office, even educators are affected, any small problem becomes a big problem, the good learners don't feel safe, the bad boys and girls are enjoying themselves.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

Learners reiterated the sentiments shared by their educators as follows:

Conditions are ok, learners are unruly, they are not serious, have no respect for educators, they play, joke and get influenced by the majority. Some teachers are moody, there is a cold atmosphere in the class and this interferes with learning.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

When examining the responses from learners and educators at the mixed schools and ex-Model C schools, the changes that have impacted their interactions at their schools centre around race, discipline, the appointment of new educators and, in some cases, the appointment of a new principal.

Participants identified the changes they have experienced at their schools as follows:

Not really changes. I think change comes with new people, the teachers change, new teachers come in...individual change, you gain more respect every year...Race was not a factor a few years ago, as soon as I got to the school, the blacks are there, the coloureds are there, the races are not intermingled... there's not that unity anymore.

(Learner, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

Vir my het die kinders verander, die kinders se gesinswaardes het verswak, anderskleuriges het ingekom, ons sukkel omdat die kinders agteruit gegaan het. Ons kry 'n beter gehalte kind, maar dit het nie beter geword nie. Daar is 'n oorbeklemtoning met die vaardigheid om te kan kommunikeer maar hy kan nie lees nie, om terug te gaan na die basiese begrippe word 'n probleem.

(Educator, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

We have had to make classes that are now dual medium instead of parallel medium our school originally was a parallel medium school, now there are mixed language classes, we just don't have the staff to allow for parallel medium.. There has not been resistance, but some teachers are not fluent in a specific language, but we approach the teachers prior to finalizing the timetable and make sure the teacher is comfortable with the dual medium instruction. In certain subjects there is resistance, technical subjects, shortage

of books, is a bone of contention between the school and the department for not providing materials on time.

(SMT member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

6.4.4.3 Theme 4: The impact of EI on the management of change

In general, educators considered EI a valuable contributor to the management of change and crucial to the overall success of the school. Educators perceived their teaching as a *self-sacrificing calling*, a *passion* and a *vision*, a place where educators should practice *absolute patience* and the realization that they are working with impressionable children.

6.4.4.3.1 Sub-category: Role of emotions

Participants concurred that emotions play a vital role in the educator's job, especially now that learner's discipline have changed within the school as many indicated that they have to practice restraint and patience in dealing with learners on a daily basis. Controlling emotions specifically is a skill that is crucial to the survival of self and to the interactions with the learners.

On the question of the role of emotion in the educator's job, they responded thus:

Jy word tot die uiterste beproef, maar dit is in die kind se natuur om jou uit te daag, te challenge, al die pad, maar as gevolg van die feit dat jy baie in 'n klas deesdae het, kan jy nie, emotioneel is die kind nog nie so ver ontwikkel nie, ek kan nie met die kind op 'n emosionele vlak eers hanteer nie, want daar is te veel ander wat jou aandag verg.

(Educator, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

Educators remarked:

Emotionally you have to be very intelligent because you never know from what background they come from. You are the one who must motivate and guide them to succeed and if you are going to be very badly emotionally controlled, you are also going to discourage them from continuing with their studies because they take it from you, you are a role model, you need not be

so emotionally taken in class when there are problems, you rather settle them down and help them, you solve your own in your own time.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

The response from one SMT member aptly described educators' alignment with managing change in an emotionally intelligent way and the importance of EI for school success.

Yes, it is a key aspect because this will impact on relationships at school, no problems getting along with people, bonding promotes confidence in colleagues, educators have to have the ability to feel for one another, brush shoulders with learners from different families, they should show compassion, empathy and support, while still emphasizing right and wrong. The background of the learners needs to be considered.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Gauteng Province)

Educators should always be positive, they should not criticize because learners will not listen. They should be more exemplary, make it applicable to the learners frame of reference.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

It goes with understanding the learner himself, sometimes learner misbehaviour, it may be something be brings forth from the home, and he may not know exactly what it is he is dealing with and may project negative feelings toward other people, being emotionally intelligent you can assess the learner, and then consult with the parents.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

EI is vital for the teacher, a teacher without it cannot deal adequately with learners problems, should have that open channel to deal with kids. Sometimes incredible how little EI some teachers have, that cannot happen in the school environment, everyone is different, their background is different. Slowly but surely our education system is moving in that direction. You need to develop that into each teacher to take that role.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

I think it is very important, sometimes you can be intellectually intelligent but you won't solve any problems because we are from different backgrounds so we might not understand each other, but if you are emotionally intelligent you'll know how to deal with people as individuals, diversity is important in handling relationships.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng province)

To the question: *In what ways does your school currently make links between the capacity to deal with issues on an emotional level and its learning and teaching programme?* participants provided the following responses without hesitation:

Daar bestaan nie so iets nie... daar is nie 'n bepaalde struktuur in plek nie. It is more the work for school psychologists or the vocational guidance teacher.

(Educator, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

The learning area Life Orientation, helps the learners, as the school, there is nothing, on teachers as individuals is relied on to support learners.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

6.4.4.3.2 Sub-category: Emotional climate

Most of the educators described the emotional climate at the school as *tolerable* and indicated that they mostly *get along* with their colleagues, functioning in an atmosphere of support and acceptance. Other schools described their climate as *unstable* because of the uncertainties regarding the *many changes* educators have to cope with on a daily basis. One ex-Model C school educator described their climate as conservative with a strong Christian ethos and indicated that this had a significant effect on how they cope with their daily tasks at school.

Responses from participants included:

Some educators do not pull their weight, educators always at the top of their game, lack openness, undertone of others being better than others but there is no hostility as such.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Gauteng Province)

Generally we are happy, there are no tensions, unless there are pressures like now.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

I am not sure if everyone is happy, but we have a majority of women, and I can see that there are cliques but it is not affecting the curriculum which needs their own way of solving it, maybe they need to be workshopped, there is collegiality where we tolerate each other.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

Co-operation of parents in the school activities... in earlier years, the attitude of the learners were one where there was no teacher in the class, the children were outside, learners come to school only when they are writing tests and then they would leave, but we have managed to change that. The attitude of the school is a good one, even in a meeting parents were accepting responsibility for their kids, parents signed a document giving permission to educators to discipline kids.

(Educator, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

There is a family atmosphere here, the children are very positive about things here, there are obviously the occasional disruptions where differences of opinion are raised, but I think this is part of a natural society and I think we try to deal with this and after a while everybody seems to get on, there are obviously problems, but I think problems are dealt with and not ignored or shoved under a carpet somewhere, to rot away and to poison everything around them. I think we try and deal with them openly.

(SMT member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

Our system of Grade Heads is good, we try and feed off each other's emotional intelligence, and how you handle things, some grade heads use

diffent tactics than others, it is all constructive. I love this school, it is one of the best schools because of our high levels of emotional intelligence that we instill all the time in kids. We have a good working climate and we work hard towards it, the schools provide financial support for families in distress, schools should not just become excusive little clubs, they should do that sort of thing. Schools should be there for the community, that step from the school to the home does not exist.

(SMT member, ex Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

6.4.4.4 Theme 5: School culture

In the next section, three sub-categories are discussed, namely school culture as the focus of change, learners' expectations of their school expereince and the school's expectations of their educators and learners.

6.4.4.4.1 Sub-category: School culture as the focus of change

When asked about culture, participants were generally positive and depicted their school culture as encapsulating *a spirit of togetherness*, *caring* and *confidence* in whatever is not in place at the school, so they are able to work on a solution together. Teamwork is a concept used by many participants at the schools although there might not readily be agreement on how to tackle issues and concerns.

To the question *'How do you teach learners to express respect between different groups: young and old, men and women, social groups educators and learners?'* educators responded:

My vak (Toerisme) leen hom daartoe, vir my is dit altyd lekker om te gebruik om vir kinders te wys die andersheid en die wonder daarvan om verskillend te wees. Ek probeer om die kulture, die diversiviteit van mens wees vir hulle uit te beeld en ek vind dit werk baie goed, omdat jy beweeg weg van die negatiewe, en konsentreer op die positiewe... 'n Manier waarop mens dit aanmoedig in die klas is deur jou voorbeeld, jy het respek vir seuns en meisies, wit en swart... kinders is almal dieselfde by hierdie skool.

(Educator, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

I teach learners to express respect between different groups because in order to get respect, you need to give it and you as the educator need to set the example.

(Educator, ex-Model C school, Gauteng Province)

6.4.4.4.2 Sub-category: Learners' expectations of their school experience

To the question: *'What do you admire and look for in your educator for you to respect him or her?'* learners responded as follows:

Down to earth, (you can interact with) and understanding, someone who respects you so that you can sort of return the respect, someone you can talk to when you've got problems, when a teacher is willing to help you and explain to you if you don't understand, the teacher must know what he is talking about, the teacher must do work with us.

(Learner, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

If he or she is not strict or respect me. A teacher who is good at her job, has work ethic and displays an attitude of patience and respect.

(Learner, disadvantaged shcool, Gauteng Province)

Respect learners first, modest, how to communcaite with learners. Some educators, majority does respect and understand where we come from, not use strong language, and teachers should attend their periods in class.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

The researcher posed the following question to learners: *'Do you think the advice of your educators equip you to deal better with day-to-day challenges that you face? Why do you say that?'*

Learners responded:

Yes. In English the teacher always emphasizes listening and how we can incorporate it into our daily lives. I thnk the advice that they give us it is actually good for us and will make us better people in the future.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

I think the educator who gives us Life Orientation should give advice on personal issues, we don't really get it at taht level, our techer is so secretive. All other subjects should have a component of advice.

(Learner, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

They always give good advice, advice like do not smoke, it depends really on the situation as well, and on your situation. You can't go to a teacher who is divorced to ask about relationship problems.

(Learner, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

The next sub-category explores the school's expectations for educators and learners.

6.4.4.4.3 Sub-category: School's expectations for educators and learners

From the discussions with learners at disadvantaged schools, it emerged that schools do not have high expectations of their learners and do not engage in stimulating tasks in the classroom. Some educators do not attend classes at all and learners are left to their own devices (*cf.* 7.2.6.1).

In comparison, learners at ex-Model C schools experienced the opposite. They are stimulated and encouraged to think critically, and the classrooms are well-equipped to cater for the needs of the learners.

To the question: *'Have your educators instituted any changes in your own classroom? What have they done differently?'* Learners and educators remarked:

I find that learners battle with some of the new things, many of the things required of them is more difficult than it was in the past, less structure, less content-based, learners have to think for themselves and a lot of children battle in that area... individual discussions become important.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

Our Biology teacher painted the class and put on nice stuff, it makes a better atmosphere, most teachers are auditory, talk the whole time, our Biology teacher is visual, he shows you things and he's got the equipment, lets you touch it, he taught us that there are three kinds of different learning, people that learn in different ways, by listening, by touching and by actually seeing it happen.

Learner, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

To the question: *'What are the vision and the goals of the school and to what extent do they coincide with yours?'* educators remarked:

The vison is to create an atmosphere of learning and teaching. At this school, educators are expected to interact with learners and to help them, help learnes tolerate different cultures and do away with racial discrimination. I like what the school stands for and I am very loyal to the school.

(SMT member, mixed school, Eastern Cape Province)

The vision of the school is to have future leaders. At this school, we as edcutors are expected to produce future leaders, learners who will help the community out there, but that is very minimal because their performance and commitment is very small, good at 20%, fair at 40% and the other 40% is lost. We try and contact their parents, others we refer them to the district and others arrange tuition on Saturdays.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Gauteng Province)

The school's main objective is to promote a well-rounded, self-accountable, honest someone who can present himself as a whole entity, how to behave, the school is an extension of the home, we take the values of the home and instil them with some of the school, we are a community school, so culture is involved in most of the things, we really produce a child who can manage with ex-Model C children. I think it is because of the pride we have at the school, most of the educators were learners here, we like to inculcate what we learnt, instil that same pride into the school, the community and then it comes back to the country.

(SMT member, disadvantaged school, Eastern Cape Province)

Unlocking each child's full potential and give him or her all the opportunities that you can and letting them discover that they can do it.

(SMT member, ex-Model C school, Eastern Cape Province)

6.5 TRIANGULATION OF DATA FROM FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

Among other authors, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:99-100 & 136) point out that mixed-method researchers frequently implement triangulation in order to establish convergence of the quantitative and qualitative data. In this way, the researcher tries to determine common themes from the multiple data sources that would validate the conclusion.

In this section, the researcher aims to provide triangulation of data obtained from focus group interviews conducted with learners and educators with the responses gleaned from the questionnaires that were completed by learners and educators. These responses will be classified in the three themes, namely the role of the educator as manager of change, EI and workplace success, and EI and change management.

6.5.1 Theme 1: The role of the educator as manager of change

The impact of the educator in the classroom, especially in creating a successful learning community, is profound. Learners need to feel safe and secure in the learning environment and feel nurtured, cared for and supported to perform ultimately at their peak.

From the responses in the focus group interviews, it was evident that the general perception of the learners and educators was that they feel comfortable, and physically and emotionally safe in their learning environment. They felt that their principals created a supportive, open climate for all. This was also reiterated in the responses received in the questionnare data where most of the learners indicated that the principal and educators create a caring environment for learners and educators.

In the questionnaire, educators responded convincingly at schools in the two provinces that they concur that their respective principals foster a positive learning environment where change is likely to occur. What is commendable is that the change therefore happens quite naturally because it is deemed a good thing by the entire school.

It was also clear from the responses during focus group interviews that ex-Model C schools, compared to disadvantaged schools, still reap the benefits from the previous education system. As such, learner experiences differ in terms of enjoying resources and opportunities to participate in a variety of extra-mural activities. Learners at the ex-Model C schools highlighted this as a major change which they experienced at their schools.

The questionnaire responses from learners at ex-Model C schools in Gauteng and the Eastern Cape revealed that, apart from imparting academic skills and knowledge, learners perceived their school experience as not promoting personal and social development.

6.5.2 Theme 2: EI and workplace success

EI is regarded as the cornerstone of success in the workplace. However, participants in this study have not experienced the full benefits of handling and managing emotions in the workplace. A general neglect of emotions was felt, where learners were not taught how to express and manage emotions. Most educators and learners admit to being aware of the benefits of EI, but concur that they are yet to experience its real and tangible benefits if *fully* used in the execution of their daily tasks. Educators reiterated during focus group interviews that learners are still emotionally too immature to grasp all the rights (reference to constitutional rights) which they enjoy fully. The questionnaire analysis across the schools in the two provinces revealed that learners share this sentiment, as the majority of learners regarded the expression of emotions as a sign of weakness.

From the responses it became clear that learners and educators generally perceive their learning environment as positive, as both educators and learners indicated in the questionnaire that learning takes place in a non-

judgemental environment and that communciation within the school is generally open.

The quantiative data revealed that learners at the disadvantaged schools in both provinces experience minimal motivation from the leadership of the schools, and that the schools do not promote personal and social development of learners, apart from imparting academic skills and knowledge.

At disadvantaged schools, the questionnaire revealed that learners were not encouraged frequently to build collaborative relationships with peers.

The questionnaire revealed that learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life. This was true across all the schools of both provinces in the study and reiterated in the responses received during the focus group interviews. Learners indicated that they felt comfortable to speak to their educators about any aspect of school life. When it came to personal problems, learners tended to confide and trust most in their Life Orientation educator.

Positive responses were also gleaned from the participants in the questionnaire that their schools encourage an active learner environment and this was reiterated during the focus group interviews.

Participants for both the questionnaire and during the interviews, concurred that worrying and anxiety are two of the most frequently experinced emotional problems for both educators and learners. Educators in particular, reiterated their anxiety and loss of confidence in the Department of Education with the implementation of the change process. They view the departments' handling of the process by imposing changes without any guidelines as immature and inconsistent. This results in chaos at schools as they receive minimal training and facilitaion of change from the department. Educators revealed in the responses during interviews that educators and learners were confused most of the time, as educators were *talking a new language and introducing a new style of doing things*, yet with minimal support from the department.

The responses gleaned from the questionnaire also indicated that learners generally agreed that the leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during change. They also maintained that their principals maximise opportunities for educators and learners to reflect on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships. This is in sharp contrast to the feelings of anxiety experienced by educators and learners. Interview responses also indicated that some educators even resigned because they could not cope with the changes and work overload.

6.5.3 Theme 3: EI and change management

When change is implemented, it immediately theatens people's sense of competence, while frustrating their wish to feel effective and valuable. The principals of these schools have the daunting task to implement change and to make it a worthwhile and valuable experience for the participants. In both the questionnaire and the focus group interviews, educators and learners highlighted the faith they have in their respective principals' ability to implement the changes imposed imposed by the Department of Education. They all conceded that there was no definite structure to the implementation of change. This is true of ex-Model C schools, mixed and disadvantaged schools in the respective provinces. In the questionnaire responses most of the educators indicated that they feel that they have a real role to play in how the school is run, although educators at the disadvantaged and mixed schools did not always have a sense of shared responsibility for supporting and learning from each other.

From the focus group interviews it was clear that educators on the whole are willing to contribute to change (*cf.* 6.4.4.1.5), but had a problem with the manner in which change was brought about at their schools. The questionnaire also revealed that educators concurred that they felt free to contribute to the school in ways that were meaningful to them.

From a human perspective, it is inevitable that people will become frustrated, angry and even resist any change which is imposed. These aspects highlight the importance of the principal to address the change in an emotionally

intelligent way. The responses in the focus group interviews highlighted the principal's willingness to explain change by means of two-way communication, but it was reiterated that adequate preparation was seldom made to implement change and stress management and wellness programmes offered to facilitate its implementation were non-existent.

It was also evident from the responses during focus group interviews that educators are more knowlegable about the process of change than learners. During focus group discussions, learners could not elaborate on the change process and its implementation at their schools. Learners also failed to complete most of the questions in the questionnaire on change at their schools. Learners indicated that principals generally gained acceptance from educators and learners before implementing any change initiatives. The focus group interviews revealed that the educators referred to most of the changes taking place at their schools as *imposed* upon them.

6.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the analysis of the data from the empirical research.

Firstly, the general information of the participants was discussed. (Section A: Biographical Data). Secondly, educators' EI, their relationship with learners and classroom interactions, the principal as leader and educators' experiences of change were explored (Section B: Healthy schools). Thirdly, the principal as leader and the process of change was highlighted (Section C: Leadership and change).

The next chapter will focus on the researcher's proposed EI Competency Framework for Change that could be implemented at secondary schools.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PALMER'S EI COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR CHANGE

7.1 INTRODUCTION

For the purpose of this thesis the researcher, June Palmer, proposes an *EI competency framework for change* (*cf.* Figure 7.6) to assist principals and educators in effecting change at their schools successfully.

The propsed framework was conceptualised by integrating sources from a variety of litarature which was available on EI at the time. The components which are highlighted, focus on the fundamental aspects which the researcher regards as essential to ensuring successful secondary schools in South Africa. Moreover, the literature supllied in this chapter supports the arguments put forward for the components of the framework suggested by the researcher.

The framework was developed to address the question of how schools can become emotional change sites of teaching and learning delivery (*cf.* 2.3; 2.3.1). This implies that the role of each participant in the change process and in the establishment of a sound learning culture of the school is important. Lighthall (as quoted by Fullan, 1997:206) posits that educational change is a process of coming to grips with the multiple realities of people, who are the main participants in implementing change. The leader, the author states, who presupposes what change should be and acts in ways that preclude others' realities, is bound to fail. Managers of change therefore need to steer the school, considering the feelings and emotions of those involved in the change process (*cf.* 2.2; 2.5; 2.5.3 & 2.9).

According to Hoban (2002:36), educational change behaves as a complex system with multiple frames or elements interacting together as a system to produce non-linear interactions. Furthermore, these interactions are complex, meaning that the system can respond with an inertia to resist change and stay the same, or dynamically self-adjust to a new order or balance. What is important to consider when thinking about educational change is that the

proposed frames act collectively, not individually, to influence the change process.

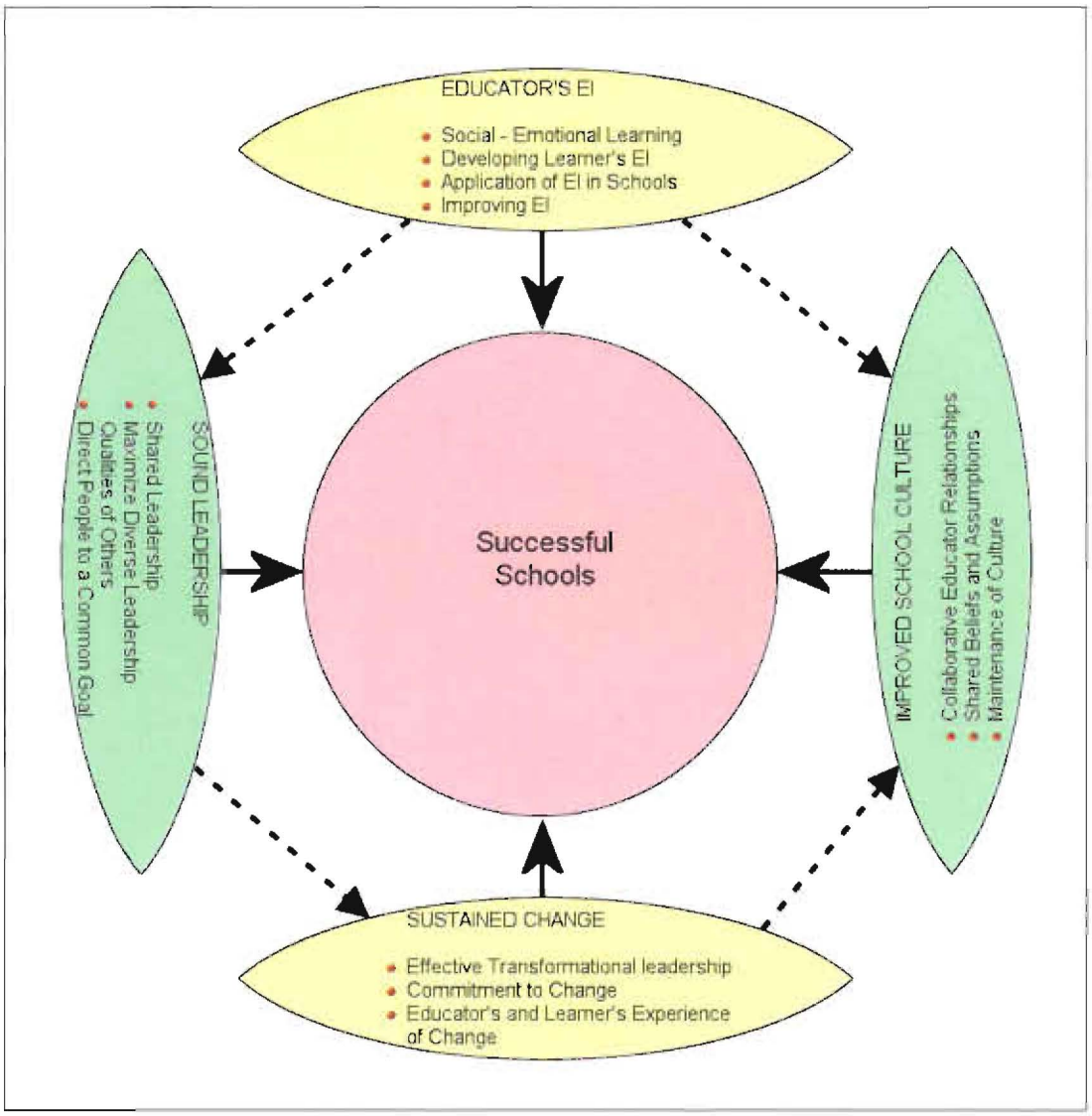
Significant educational change, Hargreaves (as quoted by Hoban, 2002:19) states, can no longer be achieved in a step-by-step linear process. School improvement processes are not implemented smoothly through locked-in five-year development plans. Schools do not have the luxury of being able to focus on a singular goal and go through stages of achieving it over several years while the rest of their world stands still. Attempts at managing change need to consider the multiple influences collectively and focus on the whole dynamics of the change process (Hoban, 2002:36).

The next few paragraphs provide an exposition of the *EI Competency Framework for Change* postulated by the researcher, for possible implementation at schools undergoing change.

7.2 EXPOSITION OF THE EI COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR CHANGE

The exposition of the *EI Competency Framework for Change* formed the basis of this chapter (*cf.* 7.2 - 7.2.6.5) and may be graphically represented (Figure 7.1) as follow:

Figure 7.1: Palmer's EI Competency Framework



The purpose of the *EI competency framework for change* is to transform the learning environment for both educator and learner by addressing the process of change in an emotionally intelligent way. If implemented correctly, the application thereof will significantly reduce stress and disruption associated with change. The framework depicts a successful school as containing important components of EI, a sound school culture and elements for leadership and change. Schools implementing the framework will enhance the educational experiences of learners and educators as its impact would significantly be felt in the classroom and how educators teach, learners learn and parents participate in their children's learning.

If schools commit to implementing the framework, it calls for a few changes in the normal way of operation within the school. This would impact on classroom procedures and activities to enhance the learning environment and require from educators a re-commitment to optimize learning, resulting in an effective school (*cf.*3.3.2; 3.3.3; 3.3.3.1 - 3.3.3.8). Roles of educators, learners, administrators, parents and the community members will change, and people will be asked to act in different ways. Schools must therefore respond to providing support to all learners and educators to create a setting of collaboration and collective responsibility.

As this study has revealed in previous chapters, EI is considered to be a great contributor to the overall quality of a human being's emotional health, as well as an important predictor of learners' ability to succeed and benefit optimally in the classroom and later in life. The EI competencies are to a greater or a lesser extent the cause of problems with teenagers in families and these skills offer a way to lower the risk of problems manifesting in school and family violence. Of equal importance is the implication that educators alike should be emotionally intelligent in their interaction with learners, as they are well-positioned to assist learners to develop these skills that distinguish highly effective performers from mediocre ones. *The EI Competency Framework for Change* explores these competencies and stresses the need for the creation of a successful school through the effective management of the process of change.

At the core of the *EI Competency Framework for Change* is the notion of a successful school that is built on four tiers, namely **educators' EI**, **sound leadership** and **sustained change** which lead to an **improved school culture**. Although separate, these tiers interact to create a successful school.

The focus now turns to exploring the core components of the proposed framework, defining them and highlighting the importance of each within the framework.

7.2.1 Successful schools

Schools are essential in preparing students to be active and thoughtful citizens, productive and ethical workers, and healthy and caring family members. Educators are the ones who must carry out the work of schools and their preparation is essential if schools are to reach their goals (Elias & Arnold, 2006:43).

The *EI Competency Framework for Change* uses as its premise the concept of a successful school (*cf.* 2.2.1). Porras (2007:48) defines success as the achievement of something planned or attempted and mentions that success may never come without a compelling personal commitment to something you care about. Successful schools are founded on three elements, namely a sound, interactive school culture, educators and learners being emotionally intelligent, and the school engaging in constant change. These elements interact at a level of commonality which is that the learners and educators are central to the achievement of the successful school.

According to Hopkins, Ainsco and West (1997:268), one of the characteristics of successful schools is that educators *talk about teaching*. Change strategies need to help educators create a discourse about and language for teaching. The authors reiterate that educators need to engage seriously with one another's practice by sharing their own experiences and searching for shared meaning.

For the researcher, successful schools signify a learning environment where the educators and learners are motivated (intrinsically) and through incentives (extrinsically) and concern for physical and emotional needs, health and safety are encouraged to grow and improve continually. This learning environment also encourages active participation with and concern for the community of which the school forms part.

Based on the preceding chapters in this study, the researcher considers the following elements key to the creation of a successful school. These elements are:

- Outstanding and supportive leadership
- A sound school culture and climate
- Practice –orientated staff development programmes
- A caring, nurturing school environment
- Educators who are passionate for teaching
- Effective learning and academic achievement through EI
- Collaborative change initiatives

Stoll and Mortimer (as quoted by Mulford, 2004:627) state that, for school effectiveness and improvement to be successful, people within the school must take charge of the change process. To the researcher, it is not a forgone conclusion that every effective school is a successful school.

Rutter *et al.* (as quoted by Law & Glover, 2000:146) describe an *effective school* as one comprising of a sound school ethos, successful classroom management, high educator expectation, educators as positive role models, positive feedback and treatment of learners, healthy working conditions for educators and learners, learners given responsibility and shared educator-learner activities (*cf.* 3.3.2 & 3.3.3).

Bridgehouse and Tomlinson (as quoted by Law & Glover, 2000:148) identify the elements of a *successful school* as leadership with curriculum as the main aim, emphasis of the quality of teaching and learning, clear goals and high expectations for both educators and learners, a supportive school climate monitoring and evaluating as part of the culture, staff development and in-service support, parental involvement and support, and community involvement and support.

In addition to focusing on learners' cognitive development, educators must also be prepared to address learners' continuing physical, emotional and social growth. Educators should therefore be equipped to meet the value-

related expectations of the external school environment, as well as imparting knowledge to learners.

The proposed framework stresses that learners are active, critical thinkers who create their own meaning of the learning environment. This should shape each educator's view of his/her own role and responsibilities as an educator. Rather than the effective delivery of a predetermined curriculum, it implies a view of teaching and learning as a process of *exchange* between educators and learners; what learners bring and contribute is as important to the learning that takes place as what the educator brings and contributes. Learning is built out of these exchanges, shaped both by the contributions of learners and by the educator's responses to them. This will, in the long term, secure learners' continued willingness to engage and contribute actively to the collective learning endeavour (Hart, Dixon, Drummond & McIntyre, 2004:105).

In the view of MacGillchrist and Buttress (2005:74), the role of the principal as leader in the leadership of learning is pivotal as it involves a fundamental commitment to create a learning community. The authors reiterate that the professional development of the educator is equally important and highlights high quality training opportunities to be created for all by seeking a range of provision, ensuring feedback for learning and exploiting opportunities for professional development. For the researcher, this contributes to the creation of a successful school as educator and learner are enriched, stimulated and encouraged by this endeavour. This adds positive benefits by enhancing aspects such as classroom atmosphere and motivation.

Glasgow (as quoted by Pretorius, 2000:153) states that the traditional role of educators was that of providers of information. In this context, learners were passive learners into whom knowledge was poured as into empty vessels. According to this view, the better the discipline at schools and the quieter the learners in the educational situation, the more effective the education that was taking place. There was little or no question of positive relationships or of a teacher-learner partnership (Pretorius, 2000:153;*cf.* 4.3.3).

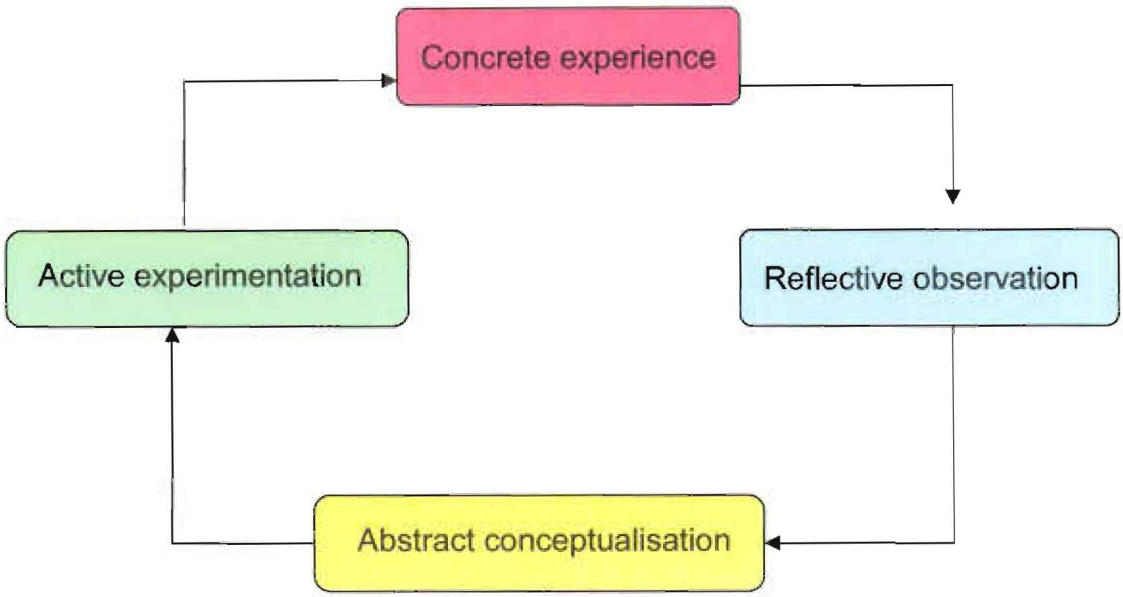
A new paradigm has emerged which focuses on the belief that learning rather than teaching is the central issue at schools. The new paradigm makes provision for the educator as a mediator or facilitator of learning. The accent falls on the learning process and how to improve the learner's grasp of how learner and educator can work as a team to understand the process of learning (Pretorius, 2000:153;*cf.* 4.3.3).

Bastiani (as quoted by Pretorius, 2000:152) characterizes an educational partnership as consisting of the elements mentioned below:

- sharing of power, responsibility and ownership- although not necessarily equally;
- a degree of mutuality, which begins with the process of listening to each other and which incorporates responsive dialogue and 'give and take' on both sides;
- shared aims and goals, based on common ground, but which also acknowledge important differences; and
- a commitment to joint action, in which parents, learners and professionals work together to get things done (*cf.* 4.5.1).

Kolb *et al.* (as quoted by Law & Glover, 2001:172) posit that the learning process takes place via a four-stage cycle termed the experiential cycle which describes a series of discrete mental processes and argues that we make sense of concrete experiences by reflecting on them, developing our ideas and then acting on the basis of our new learning. This is a particularly important aspect of professional development learning. In the approach of Kolb *et al.* (1971), educators can help identify problems and issues, assemble possible strategies, then choose and evaluate what seems to be the best approach.

Figure 7.2: Experiential learning cycle



(Law & Glover, 2000:173)

According to Kolb *et al.* (as quoted by Law & Glover, 2000:172), the four stage experiential learning cycle describes a series of discrete reflecting on them, developing our ideas and then acting on the basis of our new learning. This is a particularly important aspect of professional development learning. The approach of Kolb *et al.* (1971) can help to identify problems or issues, assemble possible strategies, then choose and evaluate what seems to be the best approach.

To contribute, the learners need to feel safe, not only with the educator, but also with one another. What should be reflected at school is respect for individuals' ideas. The expectation is that individuals do not disregard others' contributions, that each learner experience him/herself equal to the rest of the group. The learners' readiness to contribute to collective work is affected by an awareness and appreciation that their educators always try to set work in which everyone can get involved (Hart *et al.*, 2004:108).

To achieve success in school life, Elias and Arnold (2006:5) posit that schools worldwide must give learners intellectual and practical tools they can bring to their classrooms, families and communities. Social-emotional learning provides many of these tools. It is a way of teaching and organizing

classrooms and schools that helps learners learn a set of skills needed to manage life tasks such as learning, forming relationships, communicating effectively, being sensitive to others' needs and getting along with others successfully.

The concept of social-emotional learning will be explored in the next section which provides a look at the importance of educator's EI in the framework for change.

7.2.2 Educator's EI

EI at school is a critical ingredient to effect academic and social performance. EI in the framework is defined as a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor, discriminate among and use information about emotions of the self and other individuals (*cf.* 2.4.2 & 4.5).

The emotionally intelligent person knows himself/herself and knows which qualities to display in different situations in order to achieve a particular task or goal (Black, 2000:2; *cf.* 4.5).

Ord and Damin (2000:30) regard EI as the combination of innate emotional sensitivity and the healthy development thereof which contribute to long-term happiness. In the workplace, this could mean attaining a competitive edge or the opening up of communication lines for better conflict resolution and decision-making (Ord & Damin, 2000:30; *cf.* 4.5).

In order for the school to survive, the challenge to today's secondary schools is to be sites of emotionally intelligent interactions. According to Fisher, Ashanasy and Mehrabian (as quoted by Coon, 2003: 371), people who excel in life tend to be emotionally intelligent. The costs of poor emotional skills can be high. A lack of EI can ruin careers and sabotage achievement. For learners, having poor emotional skills can contribute to depression, eating disorders, unwanted pregnancies, aggression and violent crime. The researcher deems all of these possible consequences resulting from a lack of EI and social- emotional learning as these pose possible threats to a stable, safe school environment for the learner (*cf.* 2.1 & 4.5).

Elias and Arnold (2006:6) argue for the essential skill of social-emotional learning (SEL) which is sometimes called *the missing piece* because it represents a part of education that links academic knowledge with a specific set of skills important to success in schools, families, communities and life in general (*cf.* 2.3). The authors identify eight elements of SEL that create a strong connection with academic learning. These elements are based on one fundamental principle: effective, lasting academic learning and SEL are built on caring relationships and warm but challenging classroom and school environments (Elias & Arnold, 2006:6).

7.2.2.1 Elements of Social-Emotional Learning (SEL)

Zins *et al.* (2004:6) define SEL as the process through which children enhance their ability to integrate thinking, feeling and behaving to achieve important tasks. Elias *et al.* (as quoted by Zins *et al.*, 2004:6) maintain that those competent in SEL are able to recognize and manage their emotions, establish healthy relationships, set positive goals, meet personal and social needs, and make responsible and ethical decisions.

According to Elias and Arnold (2006:5), schools worldwide must give learners intellectual and practical tools they can bring to their classrooms, families and communities. SEL provides many of these tools. The authors posit that it is a way of teaching and organizing classrooms and schools that help learners learn a set of skills needed to successfully manage life tasks such as learning, forming relationships, communicating effectively, being sensitive to others' needs and getting along with others.

A brief discussion on the elements of SEL outlined by Elias and Arnold (2006:7-11) is provided in the next few paragraphs.

7.2.2.1.1 Link social-emotional instruction to other school services

Learners benefit from coordinated, explicit, developmentally sensitive instruction in the prevention of specific problems such as smoking, drug use, alcohol, pregnancy, violence, bullying and learning to live a healthy lifestyle by

taking note of eating habits, sleeping patterns and study and work environments to promote academic learning and SEL.

7.2.2.1.2 Use goal setting to focus instruction

When learning is presented in terms of understandable goals, learners become more engaged and focused and less likely to exhibit behaviour problems. Learning experiences that coordinate and integrate different aspects of learning across subject areas and over time, as well as those that link up with their lives outside of school in the present and future, are especially valuable.

7.2.2.1.3 Use differentiated instructional procedures

Academic learning and SEL take place best in different ways for different students. Educational experiences marked by instruction that uses different modalities are most likely to reach all learners and allow them to build their skills and feel that the classroom environment is suited to their preferred way of learning. Modalities include modelling, role playing, creating art, dancing, performing drama, using digital media and computer technology. Also important for sound instruction are the aspects of regular and constructive feedback, discussions that include open-ended questioning, opportunities for learner reflection and frequent reminders to use social-emotional skills in all aspects of school life.

7.2.2.1.4 Promote community service to build empathy

Community service plays an essential role in fostering generalization of SEL skills, particularly in building empathy (*cf.* 2.7.2.2). Properly conducted community service, which begins at the earliest level of schooling and continues throughout all subsequent years, provides an opportunity for children to learn life skills, integrate them, apply them, reflect on them, and then demonstrate them. This process solidifies their learning and also provides a climate in which others are more likely to engage in community service. Examples include improving the physical environment around the

school, helping the elderly, and providing comfort and support to the injured or the sick.

7.2.2.1.5 Involve parents

As more and more children are being bombarded by messages of mass culture, Internet, television, music, videos and other outlets unfiltered by adults, it becomes more and more obvious that key caregivers in children's lives are important. Elias and Arnold (2006:107) provide the stress relief strategies that adults can use with children as follows:

- Talk with children about their feelings and concerns.
- Allow children to express their own feelings as you listen with an open mind. Let them know that you are concerned about their feelings.
- Praise children for their accomplishments and efforts.
- Show affection to reduce the stress in a situation.
- Examine your own coping skills. Be positive. Educators and parents should be aware of what coping skills they are modelling for children when they are experiencing stress.
- Plan activities carefully. Do not over-schedule a child. Children need time to rest.
- Find humour in stressful situations and laugh with the child.
- Set clear and consistent limits for the child's behaviour. Making rules and setting schedules can create order in a child's life. Following up with consequences makes rules work, and children learn that discipline equals caring (Elias & Arnold, 2006:107).

7.2.2.1.6 Build social-emotional skills gradually and systematically

Selecting and implementing an approach to SEL should follow consideration of local needs, goals, interests, mandates, staff skills, workload and

receptiveness, the content and quality of programme materialists' developmental appropriateness and socio-cultural appropriateness to the range of recipient learner populations; as well as its acceptability to parents and community members. SEL is not a separate subject area. It must rather be linked to language and literacy, instruction in maths and science, history and current culture, health and physical education and the performing arts.

7.2.2.1.7 Prepare and support staff well

As SEL is relatively new to many educators, they should be patient with themselves and allow themselves opportunity to learn this new area. Effective academic and social-emotional instruction benefit from well-planned professional development for school personnel. Especially helpful is a system of support during the initial period of implementation (Elias & Arnold, 2006:7-11).

7.2.2.1.8 Evaluate what you do

By infusing SEL into classrooms and schools, educators can learn to empty their learners' glasses to make room for new knowledge. It is important that learners understand their own abilities to self-motivate, persevere during heavy workloads and also have the self-discipline to take care of themselves in other areas of their lives. Understanding and knowing how to foster these skills allow educators to help learners learn valuable life lessons.

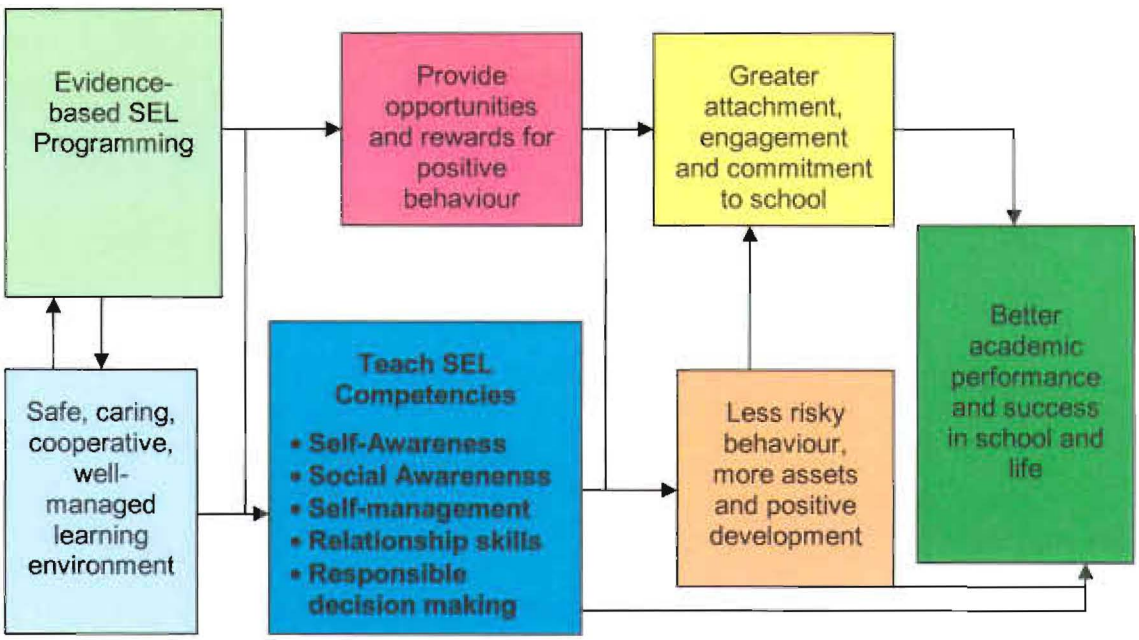
Learning is a social process and by implementing the elements of social-emotional learning in the classroom, it will foster a deeper understanding of the learner's world, and expose the learner to skills necessary to function optimally in life.

Alexander (2006:127) argues that educators should acquire techniques that promote the social exchange of ideas to provide learners in such classrooms the opportunity to make their thoughts public and to examine personal understanding in the light of others' knowledge and beliefs.

In order to implement the SEL programme at school, the leadership ability of the principal is crucial. In the *EI competency framework for change*, the interaction of the principal as leader with the educators and his/her emotional awareness of how they perceive the process of change contribute to the overall success of the school.

Zins *et al.* (2004:9) provide an illustrative model for SEL programming and school success and posit that SEL interventions should be provided in caring and supportive environments that are conducive to success. By practising social-emotional skills, learners will become knowledgeable, responsible, caring, productive, nonviolent, ethical and contributing members of society (Elias, as quoted by Zins *et al.*, 2004:8).

Figure 7.3: SEL programming paths to success at school and in life



(Zins et al., 2004:9)

Figure 7.3 illustrates the connection between evidence-based SEL programming and better academic performance and success at school and in life. It indicates that SEL interventions and skill development should occur within a supportive learning environment, as well as help to produce such a climate. As a result, opportunities for reward are created and SEL

competencies are developed and reinforced. These enablers in turn lead to more assets and greater attachment and engagement at school. The final outcome is improved performance at school and in life.

7.2.2.2 Developing learner's EI

MacGilchrist and Buttress (2005:45) refer to Daniel Goleman who identified five basic emotional and social competencies that are an essential part of EI as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. To the researcher, emotional competence refers to the personal and social abilities individuals require for excellent performance in work and school life. These competencies were discussed in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.3.3).

According to the authors, the complex range of individual emotions in the classroom and on the playground that learners and educators endure, needs to be managed by educators to ensure inclusion and effective learning for all.

To do this, two authors propose the implementation of eight strategies that would encourage reflective, resilient and self-motivated learners (MacGilchrist & Buttress, 2005:46). The authors reiterate that these strategies should not be used in isolation, but that they be built into the learning language that is used in the classroom. By doing so, these strategies may provide rich and varied opportunities to explore rights and responsibilities and the expressive language needed to develop EI. These strategies are now discussed briefly.

7.2.2.2.1 School codes of conduct

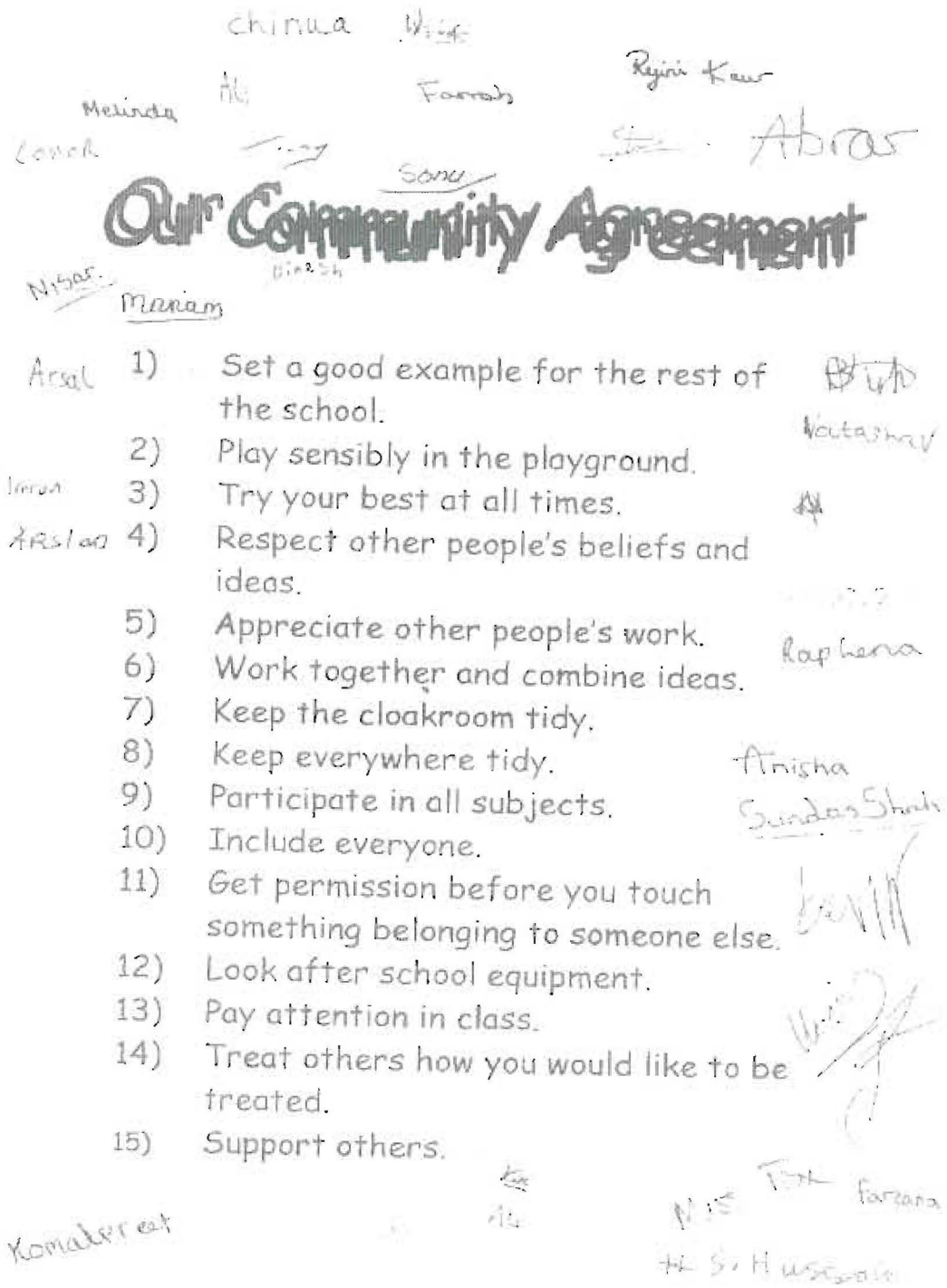
Learners should be made aware of the school's code of conduct, detailing fundamental community rights and responsibilities of citizens: the way they are expected to behave towards others and their entitlement to be similarly respected while they are at school (MacGilchrist & Buttress, 2005:46).

7.2.2.2.2 Class codes

According to MacGilchrist and Buttress (2005:47), class codes should interpret the school's community code into more detailed practice, looking closely at ground rules. The tenets should be worded positively to encourage

positive behaviours. They should be carefully worded to presuppose success. The authors provide the following example below.

Figure 7.4: Community agreement



(MacGilchrist & Buttress, 2005:47)

7.2.2.2.3 A chain of consequence

A chain of consequence details clearly, for learners and parents, the certainty rather than the severity of action to be taken in the event of anti-social behaviour. This will ensure that learners and their parents are clear about what steps would be taken and when. Learners will learn that their actions will have an impact on others, for which they may be called to account (MacGilchrist & Buttress, 2004:47). A chain of consequence may include the following as pointed out below.

Figure 7.5: The chain of consequence

Who is involved in managing behaviour at school?	What happens?	What can I do in partnership with the school to support my child?
Stage one • Class educator • Parent	The learner's name is entered in a class report book up to a maximum of three times, following disruptive or offensive behaviour.	The class educator will advise you that your child is *On Report*. Please take the time to discuss this carefully with your child, helping him/her realise that such negative behaviour is affecting others.
Stage Two • Class educator • Your team leader • Parent	Discuss what has been happening and consider different ways to help/and or encourage the learner.	Please help your child understand that the consequences of his/her behaviour are becoming more serious. Try to encourage and reward positive behaviour as we do at school.
Stage Three • Class educator • Special educational needs educator • Parents	A meeting will be hald to review progress and consider whether this behaviour may require the learner to be more closely monitored by placing their name on our Special Educational Needs Register.	Try to separate the behaviour from the child. She/he is not *naughty* – the behaviour is! Remind him/her of your love and support, but your expectations too.
Stage Four • Phase manager	A senior educator reviews progress so far with the class educator, and they decide whether to refer the learnerss continuing behaviour difficulty to the principal.	Please keep encouraging and reminding your child about his/her targets and appropriate behaviour as we continue to monitor. You will be contacted at the next stage, if appropriate.

Stage Five • Principal • Parents	A meeting is called to review progress. Targets and close monitoring procedures will be established and every effort will be made to support and encourage your child.	We may ask you to visit us more regularly for progress reports. Please support your child by working in close partnership to ensure the targets are met. Keep reminding your child that the consequences of his/her behaviour are now regarded seriously. Remind your child she/he is liked and loved. It is the behaviour causing the problem. Separate the child from the behaviour.
Stage Six • Principal • Parents	A meeting is called to review progress. The principal will make every effort to support your child, but if the behaviour continues to affect teaching and learning or the health and safety of others, exclusion may be seen as a last resort.	At this stage the situation should be taken seriously. Your child must understand this very clearly from you. Every effort needs to be made to prevent exclusion, and the full support of parents is expected and is vital to the progress.

7.2.2.2.4 Put-up zones

MacGilchrist and Buttress (2004:47) posit that put-up zones may be a powerful mechanism against negative peer pressure and the culture of diffidence, which can be quickly perpetuated by a small or *cool* community. These zones may be referenced in class codes of conduct which learners sign up to and displayed prominently as you enter a room. Peer pressure mechanisms are particularly effective in helping learners to self-regulate their behaviour. For any group of learners working together, it may be used as follows: If positive encouragement or a compliment is given by one individual towards another/others in the group, the speaker may be rewarded by a simultaneous *thumbs-up* from within the group. On the other hand, if one member of the group insults the work or traits of another, the group simultaneously *claws* their hands towards the perpetrator. Nothing is said, but the feedback to the recipient is powerful and effective (MacGilchrist & Buttress, 2004:37).

The use of these strategies help to generate respectful, confident and empowered learners who would listen to and value one another's contributions. Equally, these empowered citizens will become armed with a degree of emotional maturity to assist them in later life (MacGilchrist & Buttress, 2004: 52).

7.2.2.3 The application of EI at schools

According to Salovey and Sluyter (1997:18), more emotionally intelligent individuals might succeed at making their workers feel better, at communicating in interesting ways and at designing projects that involve infusing products with feelings and aesthetics. The authors state further that most emotional skills can be improved through education and then provide the following guidelines to acquire some of the skills related to EI, as pointed out below.

7.2.2.3.1 Role of parents

Parents may assist children to identify and label their emotions, to respect their feelings and to begin to connect them to social situations, referred to as their emotional knowledge base. Emotional skills begin in the home with good parent-child interaction (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997:19).

7.2.2.3.2 EI and the standard curriculum

In school reading lessons that involve engaging stories, children begin to learn about the feelings of characters, and children can observe what makes those characters feel as they do and how the characters can cope in response to the feelings. As stories become more complex, so does emotional learning. Literature is probably the first home of EI, but, so too, are art programmes, music and theatre (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997:19-20).

7.2.2.3.3 The importance of values

Salovey and Sluyter, (1997:19-20) state that values determine in part a person's more conscious knowledge of emotions and are often discussed and taught in such liberal arts subjects as history, citizenship and religion. For

instance, one prevalent Western tradition esteems individual life, democracy, equality among individuals and education while it abors destruction of life and property, discrimination and ignorance. Such values define expected emotional responses. Cultural and/or religious observances further define expected emotions.

7.2.2.3.4 Available resources

The learner may not read much, art courses may be curtailed, the learner may reject religious, ethical or national value systems. In such cases, should the school system step in directly with programmes focused on emotional competencies (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997:19-20).

7.2.2.3.5 Social skills and academic skills

Sequentially, Salovey and Sluyter (1997:200) state, as part of a comprehensive programme, it should be taught to every learner, every year, every day using a present model or practice.

7.2.2.3.6 Conflict resolution programmes

According to Salovey and Sluyter (1997:20), conflict resolution is based on learning the skills of an emotionally intelligent person, which refers to identifying the feelings of your adversary, your own feelings and the feelings of others. Violence reduction is an important and central goal at school, where its threat is so salient as to interfere greatly with learning and concentration.

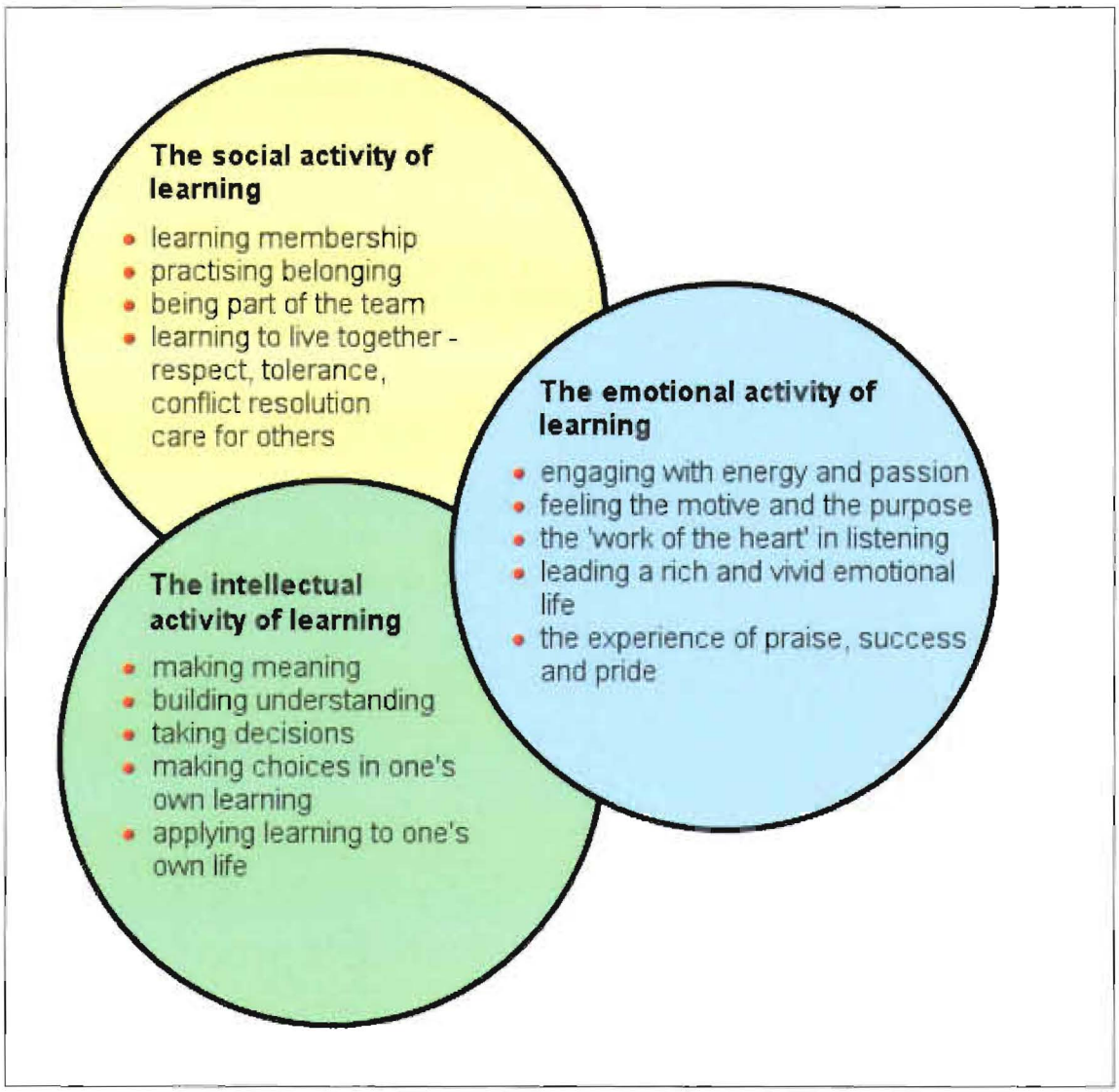
The researcher deems it important that educators and learners should improve their EI to cope with the demands of school and work life. This is discussed in the next section.

7.2.3 Guidelines to successful EI

To improve EI, it is important to consider how learning takes place, specifically the conditions that support learning. Narinder (as quoted by Hart *et al.*, 2004:89) regards learning as an activity with an emotional dimension and

posits that learners should engage with energy and passion in the work of learning. The author highlights three different aspects of learning, namely the social activity of learning, the emotional activity of learning and the intellectual activity of learning. This model is illustrated in Figure 7.6 below.

Figure 7.6: A model of active learning



(Hart *et al.*, 2004:92)

For each of the different aspects of learning outlined above, it is possible to identify ways in which educators and learners work together to establish a *totally supportive* environment. Firstly, there is the *emotional activity of learning*. Narinder (as quoted by Hart *et al.*, 2004:93) stresses the need for

the classroom to be a place of safety, where the pupils know they are trusted and also know that they can trust. What should also be incorporated is the work of circle time, where the ethic of care is made explicit and its practices are discussed. During this time, the educator gives sensitive attention to individual pupils and to their intimate and personal stories. Another key element in the structures of feeling that Narinder sets in place is respect, a sense of being respected and being expected to respect others. Equally important, according to Narinder (as quoted by Hart *et al.*, 2005:94) are the conditions for the *social activity of learning*. The educator should create the conditions for learning membership and citizenship, for example when learners engage in group activities, the educator should never side with one group, but provide support and commitment in order to support learning for everyone. The conditions for the *active intellectual work* of making meaning and creating understanding are equally important. Strong emphasis on relevance, purpose, making connections and personal meaning is emphasized here. The educator should provide opportunities for the learners to see how subjects fit together in terms of big ideas: for example there are mathematical ideas to explore in the history lesson, and the concepts of evidence and reliability appear in both history and science lessons (Narinder, as quoted by Hart *et al.*, 2005:94).

Ord and Damin (2000:30) highlight *eight essential steps* to guide and assist an individual in improving EI for personal gain, as well as in the workplace. These steps are shown in the paragraphs below.

7.2.3.1 Step1: Label your feelings

Evaluate how you feel as opposed to merely assessing the situation. What is happening inside rather than out? *'I feel impatient'* rather than *'This is ridiculous'.*

7.2.3.2 Step 2: Note the difference between thoughts and feelings

These should be related when making decisions or reacting to a situation. Your thoughts may be *"I feel as if I should retaliate"* and your feelings should echo these thoughts - *"I feel threatened".*

7.2.3.3 Step 3: Take responsibility and accountability

Beware of using the *You* as opposed to the *I*'. "*You make me angry*" *as opposed to "I feel angry*". (Remember that one can always choose one's response to a situation and therefore one needs to take ownership of it.)

7.2.3.4 Step 4: Use your feelings in decision-making

Analyse what your feelings will be as a result of a decision that you make.

7.2.3.5 Step 5: Show respect for others' feelings

Take into account other people's emotions and instincts.

7.2.3.6 Step 6: Do not let anger dictate your responses

Rather use anger as a powerful energy to take productive action.

7.2.3.7 Step 7: Attempt to understand what others feelings

Learn to show empathy, understanding and acceptance.

7.2.3.8 Step 8: Use negative emotions in a positive way

"How do I feel and what would help me feel better?"

Building on the steps to improving EI, provided by Ord and Damin (2000:30), Evans, Nel and Van der Linde (2004:149) identify a set of *ten guidelines* to develop EI to use when interacting with others. The authors have elaborated on the aspect of commanding and controlling behaviour and suggested that practising empathy and non-judgement in situations, improves EI. Avoiding people who invalidate you and not giving them psychological power over you, the authors also regard as an emotionally intelligent response. These guidelines are outlined in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Guidelines to developing EI

1. Label your feelings, rather than labelling people or situations.	'I feel impatient' vs 'This is ridiculous'. 'I feel afraid' vs 'You are behaving like an idiot.'
2. Distinguish the difference between your thoughts and feelings.	Thoughts: 'I feel like...and I feel as if... and I feel that'. Feelings: 'I feel upset' or 'disappointed'.
3.Take responsibility and accountability for how you feel, rather than blaming others.	'I feel jealous' vs 'You are making me jealous'.
4. Use your feelings to help you in decision-making.	'How will I feel if I do this?' 'How will I feel if I don't?'
5. Show respect for other people's feelings.	Ask: 'How will I feel if I do this?' 'How will I feel if I don't?'
6. Feel energized, not angry.	Use what others call anger to help feel energized to take productive action.
7. Validate other people's feelings.	Show empathy, understanding and acceptance of other people's feelings.
8. Practise getting positive value from their/your emotions.	Ask yourself: 'How do I feel?' and 'What would help me feel better?' Ask others: 'How do you feel?' and 'What would help you feel better?'
9. Don't advise, command, control, criticize, judge or lecture others.	Instead, try just to listen with empathy and non-judgement.
10. Avoid people who invalidate you.	While this is not always possible, at least try to spend less time with them.

(Evans et al., 2004:149)

Anthony (2003:247) provides *seven habits of the emotionally competent* and advises that educators and learners in the school setting should accept responsibility for their emotional reactions, because failing to do so would result in the individual going into a relational sinkhole, resulting in people avoiding conversations with the person for fear of being dragged down with him/her.

Table 7.2: Seven habits for the emotionally competent

Seven habits of people with high EI	Example demonstrating high EI
1. Label your feelings rather than labelling people or situations.	Instead of 'This is ridiculous', you could say, 'I get impatient in these situations'.
2. Consider the feelings of others when you are sharing your thoughts.	Instead of "I don't think you know what you're doing,' you could say, 'Have you thought about doing this?'
3. Take responsibility for your own feelings.	Instead of 'You make me mad', you could say, 'I'm feeling angry?'
4. Show respect for other people's feelings, thoughts, opinions.	Instead of 'This is great, isn't it?' you could say, 'How do you feel about this?'
5. Validate other people's feelings and fears.	Instead of 'Don't worry about it' or 'You should not be upset', you could say, 'Why are you so upset?' Or 'What are you afraid will happen?'
6. Practise getting a positive value from their negative emotions.	Instead of 'Get over it' or 'Get control of yourself,' you could say, 'What can you do to feel better about this?'
7. Do not advise, command, control, criticize, judge, or lecture others	Instead of 'You need to _____,' you could say, 'Do you think _____would be helpful?'

(Anthony, 2003: 247)

The author (Anthony, 2003:247) places much emphasis on the individual recognizing, labelling, and taking responsibility for his/her own feelings and validating, showing respect and consideration for the feelings of others, as compared to the guidelines provided by Evans *et al.* (2004:149) and the eight steps to improving EI provided by Ord and Damin (2000:30). Recognition of self and showing empathy towards others are two of the cornerstones of EI which is aptly highlighted here and should stand educators and learners in good stead in the creation of a successful school.

Stone and Dillehunt (as quoted by Arnold, 2003:250) contend that the development of EI hinges on committing to an agenda that will produce the desired result. Central to this agenda are the components of self-science which the authors offer as follow:

- Self-awareness: Observing yourself and recognizing your feelings; building a vocabulary for feelings, knowing the relationship between thoughts, feelings and reactions.

- Personal decision-making. Examining your actions and knowing their consequences; knowing if a thought or feeling is ruling a decision; applying these insights to deeply intimate issues.

- Managing feelings. Monitoring *self-talk* to catch negative messages such as internal put-downs; realizing what is behind a feeling (for example the hurt that underlies anger); finding ways to handle fears and anxieties, anger, and sadness.

- Handling stress. Learning the value of exercise, relaxation and distraction in managing stressful situations.

- Empathy. Understanding the feelings, concerns and perspectives of others, appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.

- Communication. Talking about feelings effectively; developing listening and inquiry skills; distinguishing between what a person does or says and

your own emotional reactions to that action; communicating your own feelings as opposed to sending blame.

- Self-disclosure. Valuing openness and the building of trust in a relationship; knowing when and how much to disclose about your private thoughts and feelings.

- Insight. Recognizing patterns of your emotional life and reactions; identifying similar patterns in others.

- Self-acceptance. Feeling a sense of dignity and healthy pride and viewing yourself in a healthy light; being able to recognize your strengths and weaknesses; being secure enough to laugh at yourself.

- Personal responsibility. Recognizing the consequences of decisions at the emotional and circumstantial levels; accepting your feelings and moods as your responsibility; following through on your commitments.

- Assertiveness. Being able to state your feelings, concerns and opinions without anger, hostility or passivity.

- Group dynamics. Cooperation and teamwork; knowing how and when to lead or to follow.

- Conflict resolution. Knowing how to fight fair; being able to disagree agreeably; using a win-win negotiating approach.

According to Coetzee (1998:13), studies show that leaders with high EI do not hide their feelings, even their painful thoughts, hurts and fears, angers and grief. They are able to express them with straightforward clarity, respect their own feelings and create the atmosphere in their environment whereby people will feel free to show and express what they carry inside of them.

The focus now turns to considering critical aspects of sound leadership which are required at the secondary school.

7.2.4 Sound leadership

Riley and MacBeath (2003:173) state that notions of leadership are profoundly value-laden. They relate to national purposes, local context, as well as the skills and attributes of individuals, and the demands and expectations of school communities. The authors state further that the school leadership paradigm is one of shared leadership and the ability of the leader to sustain relationships.

Relating to the skills and attributes of educators as leaders, Leithwood *et al.* 2003:194) state that interviewees who participated in their study, included statements about how a particular educator could motivate staff, work effectively with others and be willing to moderate disagreements. Being a good problem-solver was also seen as an important leadership capacity, and having good communication skills was mentioned almost as frequently as problem-solving.

Engelbrecht and Green (2001:39) reiterate that in a time of inevitable change, the principal as leader must be dynamic with vision that can promote reform that culminates in optimal outcomes for all learners. It is the principal's responsibility to set the tone of the school, to develop the culture and initiate the process of shared vision building (*cf.* 2.6; 2.7.3.3).

School leadership is beyond the undertakings of one heroic individual. Successful school leaders are those who are able to maximize the diverse leadership qualities of others, enabling them to take on leadership within their areas of expertise. They lead by managing, motivating and inspiring people (Riley & Macbeath, 2003:181). In the context of the framework, this is exactly what leadership signifies (*cf.* 2.3.4; 2.6).

According to Engelbrecht and Green (2001:40), this is directly related to developing the school as a learning organization. This involves actively working with educators over time and across different situations, constantly facilitating their thinking about practice and providing motivation and encouragement to learn new knowledge and skills, rather than only presenting once-off workshops.

Salins, Mulford and Zarins (2004:427) highlight six factors in terms of the transformational nature of principal's leadership that promote organizational learning. These factors are important in the creation of a successful school and are described below.

- Vision and goals: The extent to which the principal works toward whole staff consensus in establishing school priorities and communicates these priorities and goals to learners and staff, giving a sense of overall purpose.

- Culture: The extent to which the principal promotes an atmosphere of caring and trust among staff, sets a respectful tone for interaction with students, and demonstrates a willingness to change his/her practices in the light of new understandings.

- Structure: The extent to which the principal establishes a school structure that promotes participative decision-making, supports delegation and distributive leadership, and encourages educator autonomy for making decisions.

- Intellectual stimulation: The extent to which the principal encourages staff to reflect on what they are trying to achieve with learners and how they are doing it, facilitates opportunities for staff to learn from one another, and models continual learning in his own practice.

- Individual support: The extent to which the principal provides moral support, shows appreciation for the work of individual staff, and takes their opinion into account when making decisions.

Squelch (2000:144) states that if schools were to succeed, they need strong principals who are prepared to share their power and authority and who can initiate and manage change. Furthermore, a principal, as the key leader in the school, should be able to plan, organize, motivate and direct people towards achieving the common goals that are aimed at genuine transformation and school improvement.

7.2.5 Sustained change

To create sustained change at schools, the process has to be successfully managed. This implies that this aspect of the proposed framework demands strong commitment from the principal who has a sound vision for change, the SGB, educators and learners and a perception of these role-players of their roles as managers of change (*cf.* 3.4.3; 3.4.1; 3.4.3.2; 3.4.4 & 3.5.3.3).

According to Duke (2004:30-31), educational change is a change intended to alter the goals of education and improve what learners are expected to learn, how learners are instructed and assessed, and how educational functions are organized, regulated, governed and financed.

Sinatra and Pintrich (as quoted by Alexander, 2006:126) identify the notion of **intentional conceptual change** which they characterize as goal-directed and conscious initiation and regulation of cognitive, metacognitive and motivational processes to bring about change in knowledge. This, according to the authors, implies that learners' goals, intentions and regulatory actions would seemingly contribute to change even under less conscious or purposeful learning conditions; their goals and motivations help create a disposition toward conceptual change.

For the researcher, sound leadership is crucial in determining the success of the change process at schools. According to Seashore Louis (2004:406), school change emphasizes the need for strong, effective transformational leadership. Leaders have a primary influence over the opportunity to reframe the school setting and the receptivity from role-players to alternative interpretations of their experience of the change. Systemic change also demands more central direction in the form of formal and informal communication and influence, largely because the process is fraught with anxiety and conflict. Thus, transformational change appears to demand influence from both leaders and subordinates, and frequent adjustments between the degree of decentralization versus coordination and integration.

Khan and Baume (2003:173) define transformational change as radical change that impacts on culture and practices in an organization and involves

individual and collective organizational learning. The authors posit that principals need to be aware of ten essential keys to successful school change which are as follow:

- Innovators and leaders need to have a long-term view about change.
- Change must be driven and owned by committed people with diverse input coming from inside and outside the organization.
- A supportive culture is needed, in which process is as important as outcomes and key role-players are meaningfully sustained through all stages of the change process.
- The change process is a collaborative, co-operative shared learning experience where a *learning web* or network utilizes and builds on the strengths and assets of the whole organizational system.
- Leaders need to know and understand the constituency that is the school system, needs, dreams, history and culture of the school.
- Change comes from seeing possibilities, creating opportunities from mistakes and unexpected experiences.
- Change is a pro-active, incremental and co-ordinated process that facilitates bottom-up role-player engagement from the start of the change process and at all stages of the change process.
- There must be sponsor(s) or champions with whom they can identify. Sponsors are powerful, they can advocate for the system, open doors to smooth the process, access resources
- The change readiness period must be taken seriously, so that transitional stages such as denial, resistance and exploration are accepted as normal reactions to change.
- Necessary resources are provided to support all stages of the change process (*cf.* 3.9.3.1-3.9.3.6).

Thus, for the researcher, in order for the principal to inspire a vision for change and for the school to engage in *transformational* change, it becomes important to consider the context in which the change takes place.

Alexander (2006:84) posits that classrooms offer the most immediate context of formal knowledge and that they are nested in schools which in turn, are nested in communities. The author quotes Bronfenbrenner who argues that each of these contexts contribute in a particular way to human learning and development. Consequently any serious school reform requires coordinated effort among these interrelated levels of educational influence, making enduring and effective change problematic and unwieldy (Senge, as quoted by Alexander, 2006:84).

Paton and McCalman (2000:265) state that to be effective, change management needs to be supported from the top and to be characterized by *full-blown* participation. Senior management needs to be seen to be making the time to be fully involved. There is also a need for this involvement to permeate throughout the organization, to gain commitment to the changes being made (*cf.* 2.9).

Schools as organizations need to develop and stimulate creative thought and respond to this need for enlightened, but realistic responses to change by developing structures, processes and cultures that encourage employees to question past assumptions and promote innovatory thought (Paton & McCalman, 2000:264).

For Paton and McCalman (2000:264), the focus is on educators and learners' experiences, perspectives and emotional understandings of educational change. The importance of their experiences, the researcher proposes, cannot be underestimated.

This is distinctly what the proposed *EI Competency Framework for Change* endeavours to highlight for this thesis.

Initiating change at schools is challenging as there are many things to consider. Duke (2004:189) proposes that leaders who face change may have

to deal with four challenges which include combating complacency, overcoming resistance, inspiring commitment and providing direction.

These challenges are briefly discussed in the paragraphs below.

7.2.5.1 Combating complacency

Duke (2004:189) states that complacency results in individual and organizational inertia, a reluctance to entertain even the possibility that change is needed. The author cites Kotter (1996) who identified nine different sources of complacency which include overabundance of resources, the absence of a major crisis and low performance expectations. Perception plays a central role in the etiology of complacency. If educators perceive that they are doing a good job or the best job they are capable of doing, they are more likely to become set in their ways. Educational leaders who are committed to keeping complacency at bay insist on sharing and evaluating performance data on a regular basis. They expect teachers and other staff members to talk with dissatisfied learners and parents. They create information management systems to monitor complaints and track what is done to address them.

7.2.5.2 Overcoming resistance

Duke (2004:191) identifies the reasons why people resist change as including a lack of commitment to the status quo, lack of awareness of a need for change, heightened anxiety resulting from the prospect of change, the potential for disruption and discomfort, the risk of failure the potential for negative impacts on personal life, increased work, the risk of failure, threats to job security, and work-related alienation. In order to overcome resistance to change, leaders must begin by determining who is resisting change and their reasons for resistance and in so doing, convert this information into useful knowledge. A key goal for every education leader should be to create a climate in which people feel sufficiently safe to express their real reasons for resisting change (Duke, 2004:191).

7.2.5.3 Inspiring commitment

Evans (as quoted by Duke, 2004:193) maintains that there are three levels of commitment to change, namely to make it happen, to help it happen and to let it happen. Educators are likely to be committed to that which they find meaningful. Meaning and consequently commitment are closely associated with the individuals' deeply held values, beliefs and aspirations. Leithwood *et al*. (as quoted by Duke, 2004:194) regard educator's commitment to change as a function of their individual goals for improvement. The implication is that an important way to generate commitment involves helping educators to create meaningful goals for themselves. Too much emphasis on organizational goals, instead of individual goals, actually may be counterproductive when it comes to building commitment (Duke, 2004:194 - 195).

7.2.5.4 Providing direction

Duke (2004:196) states that direction is critical if people are to stay the course through implementation and eventual integration of reforms and it is best understood from the vantage point of the staff members, rather than from the perspective of leaders. Direction is best described as a path together with a reason for travelling it. It assumes meaning and with direction the elements of uncertainty and surprise are minimized.

Duke (2004:228) states that most educational changes intended ultimately to produce changes in learners, notably improved performance, improved attitudes toward learning, reduced absenteeism and dropouts, improved learner behaviour and encourage learners to become more caring and responsible.

To the researcher, this implies a commitment to creating a successful school by believing that sustained change is possible with the support and involvement of educators and learners.

To do this, principals need to be armed with a sound frame of reference when initiating change at their schools. The aspects of change that principals need to consider are briefly outlined in Table 7.3

Table 7.3: Aspects of change for principals to consider

- Assumptions for those wishing to initiate change
- Do not assume that your version of what the change should be is the one that could or should be implemented. You have to exchange your reality of what should be through interaction with others concerned.
- Change involves ambiguity, ambivalence and uncertainty about the meaning of the change. Effective implementation is a process of clarification.
- Some conflict and disagreement are not only inevitable, but fundamental to change.
- People need pressure to change (even in directions they desire), but it is only effective under conditions that allow them to react and interact. Re-socialization is at the heart of change (otherwise you need to replace the people involved!).
- Effective change takes time. It is a developmental process that takes at least two years.
- Lack of implementation is not necessarily attributable to rejection or resistance. There are other reasons, including insufficient resources or time elapsed.
- Do not expect all, or even most, people or groups to change. Progress occurs by increasing the number of people affected.
- You need to plan on these assumptions, underpinned by knowledge of the change process.
- Change is frustrating, discouraging business. If you are not in a position to make the above assumptions, which may well be the case, don't expect significant change as far as implementation is concerned.
- For change to succeed, leaders need to address the process of change in an emotionally intelligent way by recognizing the people involved in the change process in every respect.

(Adapted and abridged from Fullan, as quoted by Robson, 2002:220)

Duke (2004:137) proposes that leaders of school change initiate an implementation strategy before crafting an implementation plan for the

process of change. An implementation strategy represents a general approach to achieving change. This approach should take into account an assessment of the individual's readiness for change, organizational capacity and community capacity. A positive implementation strategy is therefore designed in a particular context. An implementation plan is a structured sequence of specific steps for achieving a particular design for change. The nature and number of these steps presumably depend on the type of implementation strategy that is chosen (Duke, 2004:137-138).

Fullan (as quoted by Stoll *et al.*, 2004:280) states that improvement attempts at schools that do not address school culture can be seen as doomed to failure because school culture influences readiness for change.

Key aspects of school culture will now be considered.

7.2.6 Improved school culture

In terms of school culture, Stoll *et al.* (2004:276) state that educators and learners do not operate in isolation. Their experiences, emotions, knowledge, skills, motivation, confidence and interdependence interact with the learning context in which they are located. Hoban (2002:36) defines school culture as the shared beliefs and values that are important in terms of establishing a collaborative relationship among educators. However, this may be difficult to sustain when different subcultures exist within a school.

Maxneef (as quoted by Dalin, 1998:1064) states that school culture is built on the misconception that understanding is synonymous with knowing. At school we learn to describe a phenomenon and we learn to explain it. Understanding is more than knowing. It has to do with putting knowledge into practice. Learners need to get real responsibility, also to develop their independence. At the same time, they need to experience closeness and belonging and adult role models (*cf.* 3.8.1).

Nias *et al.* (as quoted by Bush & Anderson, 2003:97) suggest that principals are founders of their school culture. Deal (as quoted by Bush & Anderson, 2003:97) suggests several strategies for leaders who wish to generate culture:

- Document the school's history to be codified and passed on.
- Anoint and celebrate heroes and heroines.
- Review the school's rituals to convey cultural values and beliefs.
- Exploit and develop ceremony.
- Identify priests, priestesses and gossips and incorporate them into mainstream activity. This provides access to the informal network.

Bush and Anderson (2003:97) reiterate that principals have the main responsibility for generating and sustaining culture and communicating its core values and beliefs both within the organization and to external stakeholders. Maintenance of the culture is regarded as a central feature of effective leadership. Shields and Knapp (as quoted by Squelch, 2000:144) suggest that school improvement is more likely to happen when a collaborative professional culture is developed among staff so that they act as a team, rather than a loose collection of individuals.

Finnan and Levin (as quoted by Altrichter & Eliot, 2000:197) argue that in describing a school's culture, one is characterizing the school as both similar to and different from other schools and they state that there can be no significant school change without some kind of cultural transformation. The authors reiterate that there are basic beliefs and assumptions which underpin schools' cultures and shape the learning process within them. These beliefs and assumptions are outlined in the paragraphs below (*cf.* 3.8.1).

7.2.6.1 The school's expectations of learners

Some schools have high expectations of their learners and some low expectations. Variable expectations tend to be shaped by the basic assumption that less can be expected from learners belonging to the lower income groups than from those belonging to the higher income groups. Hence, the former learn by rote, using directive teaching methods, while the latter learn to think critically, using teaching methods which engage them in

intellectually challenging tasks (Finnan & Levin, as quoted by Altrichter & Eliot, 2000:198).

7.2.6.2 Learners' own expectations of their school experience

Finnan and Levin (as quoted by Altrichter & Eliot, 2000:198) state that variable expectations on the part of learners tend to be shaped by beliefs about the value of schooling within their communities for enhancing their life opportunities. Oppositional cultures arise among learners at some schools rather than others (for example in those serving socially marginalized minority communities) when they perceive their experience of schooling denying them equality of access to the social and economic benefits they desire. Such oppositional cultures are a consequence of school cultures that appear to discriminate unfairly against some sections of society rather than against others.

7.2.6.3 Expectations for adult members of school communities

According to Finnan and Levin (as quoted by Altrichter & Eliot, 2000:198) these expectations depend largely on the characteristics of learners and what is expected of them. Hence, less may be expected of educators and parents at schools where learners are drawn from low-income groups. As a consequence, they come to expect less of themselves, lose self-esteem and are reluctant to try new ideas because they will not work with *our children*.

7.2.6.4 Beliefs about what counts as acceptable educational practice

School cultures which foster high expectations of learners and educators will, according to Finnan and Levin (as quoted by Altrichter & Eliot, 2000:198), emphasize active learning and challenging curricula.

7.2.6.5 Basic beliefs and assumptions about the desirability of educational change

Some schools *actively and passively resist externally imposed change* because *the proposed changes do not fit into their school culture* and threaten to disempower their educators and administrators. Other schools are change-

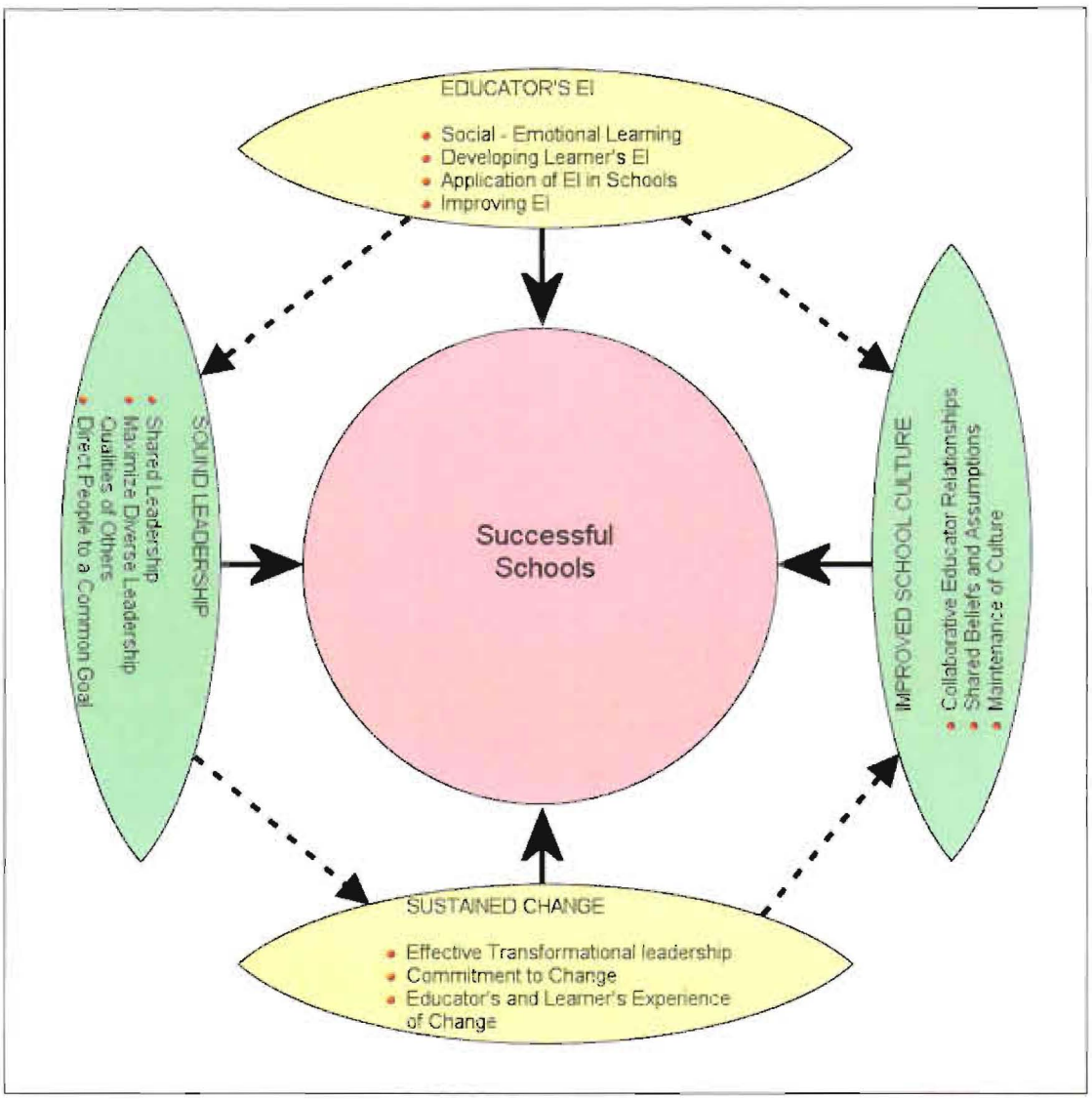
oriented, especially if the changes build on the strengths of the existing school culture according, to Finnan and Levin (as quoted by Altrichter & Eliot, 2000:199).

What flows naturally from a sound school culture is the practice of rituals which creates a conducive support climate, organized learning and promotes oneness within the school (*cf.* 3.8.1 & 3.8.2).

In order that schools may become cultural and emotional change cites of learning, the researcher proposes the following *EI Competency Framework* (*cf.* Figure 7.1 shown earlier in the chapter) to assist principals in transorming their learning environments positively at their schools.

The exposition of the *EI Competency Framework for Change* which is based on a combination of ideas which resulted from the consulted literature, formed the basis of this chapter and the graphics are represented below as reminder of what the researcher's proposed framework comprises.

Palmer's EI Competency Framework



7.3 SUMMARY

The chapter started with valuable insights from different authors regarding the process of change at schools and the importance of EI which principals, as the leaders of change, should consider when implementing change. What seems to stand out is the consideration of people as the school's most valuable asset, as the schools brings together a mix of backgrounds, values, views of the world and personalities.

The researcher recognizes the need of every school to assess the learning environment and recognize the contributions each individual member can

make to add to the success of change and to ensure that participants remain motivated and committed to change. People need to be clear about what is expected of them and what behaviours and skills are necessary to create that caring environment. In this way, educators and learners can direct their own learning environment

The next chapter covers the summary, findings and recommendations for this study.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The nature and aim of schooling has been a strong debate for decades. This research has argued that EI should be the basis of interaction at secondary schools today so that learners acquire the skills required for a flourishing adult life. Noddings (2003:260) argues that one purpose of schooling should be to develop the intellect, but that does not mean to stuff the heads of learners with material chosen arbitrarily by experts and designed to rank and sort them. It means rather to guide learners toward the intelligent use of their intellectual capacities in both personal and public life.

The researcher has argued that change underpins every interaction at schools today and the study has highlighted that schools share the perception that change only takes place at a superficial level. Altricher and Eliot (2000:7) state that it should be borne in mind that real, sustained change does not occur unless basic beliefs and assumptions also change.

Hart *et al.* (2004:172) argue for the core purpose of teaching for transformability. The authors define the concept of transformability as a firm and unswerving conviction that there is the potential for change in current patterns of achievement and response, that things can change and be changed for the better, as a result of what happens and what people do in the present (Hart *et al.*, 2004:166).

This implies that educators, whose work is guided by belief in transformability of learning capacity, formulate purposes and intensions for learners' learning that go far beyond the acquisition of particular knowledge, skills and understanding. Through tasks and activities they provide, the context they create, the classroom relationships and interactions they foster, they are seeking to improve learning conditions and to widen and enrich learning opportunities in such a way as to strengthen and build learners' desire to

engage in opportunities and resources provided by the school (Hart *et al.*, 2004:172).

The aim of the chapter is to:

- Summarize the key aspects of the research (*cf.* 1.3)
- Make findings in respect of the research aims (*cf.* 1.3)
- Make recommendations which are based on the research aims (*cf.*1.3)

8.2 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 presented the rationale of the study. It introduced the inevitability of change in education and highlighted the principal's key role as leader of change at the school (*cf.* 1.1), the importance of EI for principals and educators alike and their ability to understand and manage their emotions and empathize with other people in the creation of a learning organization (*cf.* 1.2). Furthermore, the research aims (*cf.* 1.3) and research methods (*cf.* 1.4) were explained, as well as the feasibility of the study (*cf.* 1.5), the chapter division was outlined (*cf.* 1.6) and the contribution the study should make (*cf.*1.7) was stated.

Chapter 2 highlighted the importance of EI as contributor to workplace success. The value of emotions in the workplace (*cf.* 2.2) was discussed, followed by a discussion on emotional and social intelligence at school (*cf.* 2.3). The chapter continued with a focus on the origin and definition of the concept of EI in the workplace (*cf.* 2.4), followed by EI and emotional leadership (*cf.* 2.5), emotional leadership in the school context (*cf.* 2.6), the emotionally intelligent school (*cf.* 2.7), EI and academic success (*cf.* 2.8) and EI and managing change in education (*cf.* 2.9).

The focus in Chapter 3 was on the educator's role as manager of change. The chapter started with an outline of South African schools in context (*cf.* 3.2), then a discussion on change management competencies in education was provided (*cf.* 3.3), with a look at the importance of roles in education, particularly the roles of the principal and educator as managers of change (*cf.*

3.4). Next the chapter provided an overview of how to lead change in education effectively (*cf.* 3.5), followed by a discussion on change, leadership and EI, highlighting amongst others, the characteristics of a changing leader (*cf.* 3.6), leading change with EI (*cf.* 3.7), organizational culture and school change (*cf.* 3.8) and effecting change at secondary schools (*cf.* 3.9).

Chapter 4 provided a theoretical outline of a possible framework for the successful implementation of EI at secondary schools. What followed was an exposition of an understanding of the change process (*cf.* 4.2), building schools that are passionate for change (*cf.* 4.3), the emotional processes of the principal (*cf.* 4.4) and an EI framework for sustained change (*cf.* 4.5).

In chapter 5 an overview of the empirical research design was given. It set out with a discussion on the theoretical framework (*cf.* 5.2), proceeded with the research design (*cf.* 5.3), research method used in this study (*cf.* 5.4), characteristics of the research instrument (*cf.* 5.5), population and sample selection (*cf.* 5.6), data collection (*cf.* 5.7) and the conclusion (*cf.* 5.8).

In chapter 6 the quantitative data were analysed and ranked according to frequencies and percentages of items. Qualitative data were analysed and interpreted to determine the extent to which an EI framework may assist principals and educators in handling the process of change at schools.

In chapter 7, the information gathered from the literature review and the data collected for this study, were used to develop a framework to assist principals and educators to deal with change in an emotionally intelligent way.

The next section contains findings to indicate how the research aims were achieved.

8.3 FINDINGS

In order to conclude and to make recommendations for the impact of EI on the role of the educator as manager of change, the findings will be classified in terms of the stated objectives of this study (*cf.* 1.2).

The overall aim was operationalized as follows:

- By presenting an overview of the role of the educator as manager of change.
- By delineating EI as important contributor to workplace success.
- By exploring the change management process at disadvantaged secondary schools, mixed secondary schools and ex-Model C schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province
- By suggesting an EI competency framework to effect change at schools in the Eastern Cape Province and the Gauteng Province successfully.

8.3.1 The role of the educator as manager of change

The researcher will make reference (in brackets) to the question categories as they appeared on the questionnaire educators completed during the empirical investigation.

The findings in relation to the role of the educator as manger of change is that educators at ex-Model C schools experience increased levels of anxiety with the imposed changes at their respective schools (B45) in recent years. As educators at the ex-Model C school did not compete the questionnaire, it is unclear how they experience the change process at their particular school.

It is clear from the findings that the principal of this school endeavours to create a learning environment of growth as educators indicated that they are encouraged to bring their personal and professional self into the classroom and that leaders allow staff to grow as individuals (B46; B67). Educators also reiterated that learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment and that the principal fosters a positive learning environment where change is likely to occur (B31; B32). The leadership also convinces staff, parents and learners that change is necessary and achievable, and that educators are consulted and acceptance gained before any change initiative is implemented (B44; C83).

8.3.2 EI and workplace success

Most of the educators in the disadvantaged schools identified the need for educators and learners alike to express their emotion, and for the leadership to recognize this (B1). The majority of the participants indicated that they are able to express their personal emotions, but that worrying and anxiety are the two most frequently experienced emotional problems for both educators and learners (B12; B15). Most of the educators also contended that they are able to stay positive and focused when they experience pressure as the principals generally develop specific interventions to permit educators to deal with emotions. This was pariculary true for the disadvantaged school in the Gauteng Province, but at the disadvantaged school in the Eastern Cape participants did not share the same sentiments (B16; B56).

Educators at the disadvantaged school (Gauteng Province) indicated that learners are not encouraged to build collaborative relationships with peers, but contend that they are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life (B18; B20). In the Eastern Cape Province, educators generally agreed that learners are encouraged to build relationships with peers and encouraged to be open with educators.

The educators in both provinces contend that the principal at their schools creates an organizational culture that recognizes the legitimacy of emotion (B57).

8.3.3 EI and change management

It was clear from the findings at the mixed schools in both provinces that educators share the view that they have a shared responsibility for supporting and learning from one another and believe that they have a role to paly in the way their school is run (B65; B70). The majority of the educators also indicated that there is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of educators. What is noteworthy, is the perception of the educators regarding the actions and role of the principal in the respective schools. In both provinces, educators indicated that their principals recognize their expertise by involving educators in leadership

activities and creating an open, supportive climate for all (C78 & C91). In both provinces, the majority of the educautors indicated that their school is successful because it has strong, positive leadership and that the ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role that the principal plays (C93 & C95). It is also evident from the findings that the leadership at the mixed schools in both provinces prepares educators to face the challenges of change and makes means to manage the emotional responses of educators and learners during change (C100 & C107).

8.3.4 Possible EI Competency Framework

For the purpose of this study, an EI Competency Framework was suggested to provide leaders of secondary schools with guidelines to steer the process of change in an emotioanally intelligent way and in so doing, optimise the learning environment in their quest for the creation of a successful school.

The exposition of the *EI Competency Framework for Change* formed the basis of Chapter 7 (*cf.* 7.2 - 7.2.6.5) and was graphically represented (Figure 7.1).

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

8.4.1 Recommendation 1

The principal as leader should make change worthwhile for everyone, show that change matters and make the benefits clear. Change is an emotional activity and leaders of change should consider the emotions of participants by providing clear direction to the change process so as to reduce stress during this time.

Motivation

If staff members feel that they are part of the change process, this will ensure greater interaction, support and cooperation among colleagues and the success of the initiated change. Equally, if learners are equipped with the power to evaluate and direct change and to resist harmful changes, it provides for a conducive learning environment.

8.4.2 Recommendation 2

Focus on the experience of change, tackle change with empathy (*cf.* 2.7.2.2.3). Educators will have to influence management structures and create a working environment where they are free to express themselves to optimize and deliver quality education.

Motivation

Understanding is the key ingredient to ensuring lasting change. Principals as leaders should ensure that people perceive themselves to be competent to handle the process and not feel overwhelmed and confused. Principals should therefore provide educators with the possible tools to respond to the demands brought about by change in the educational setting.

8.4.3 Recommendation 3

Change should not happen in a haphazard fashion. Let people experience a structured process and its implementation (*cf.* 3.9 & 3.9.1 – 3.9.3). A clear plan for the proposed change should be set out and clarity of the purpose and direction of the change should be communicated to all. One such change includes the appointment of professional guidance counsellors for schools to assist learners with their careers and provide the emotional support they may require.

Motivation

Planning for change requires principals to consider the unique dynamics of their own school and educator capacity and composition so that this capacity is utilized optimally. Educators may assist guidance counsellors because they have insight into their learners in terms of their aspirations, ability and personality and provide such support in a caring and trusting environment.

8.4.4 Recommendation 4

Change requires ongoing support and guidance from the principal and senior management team and educators should support one another (*cf.* 3.4.2).

Cooperation and team support should be encouraged among staff and they should openly consult one another during the process of change.

Motivation

Consultation makes for increased understanding and ownership of change through a shared experience. This encourages participation in and acceptance of the change from a basis of shared information and experience.

8.4.5 Recommendation 5

Education Departments should consider the use of assessment tools for EI in professional development programme and part of their recruitment process for educators and principals. Secondary schools could engage in administering the latest compulsory EI competence testing for learners starting Grade 8 to measure the EI of the learner. This could be done the previous year during registration and the results known when the school year starts.

Motivation

Educators' EI should include motivating, guiding, encouraging learners to express themselves and how their behaviour can affect other people and their learning. Educators should be aware that because of the nature of their role, they should know themselves and be sensitive to the manner of interaction with learners, colleagues and senior management. Educators should encourage the development of SEL in learners (*cf.* 2.3.3) and identify the positive benefits of improved relationships, reduction in school violence and discipline-related problems.

8.4.6 Recommendation 6

The National Department of Education should consider the inclusion of EI Development as part of the national curriculum for learners (*cf.* 2.8 & 2.8.4) from primary school level, not just as a programme to be offered, but rather as part of the culture of the school and provide special EI training for educators.

Motivation

When learners experience the value of EI (*cf.* 2.2) in their everyday lives, this would not only enhance learner performance and increased engagement in learning activities, but contribute to a safer school and restore a sense of ownership of their school and pride within the individual learner. EI training for educators will assist in the delivery of the content and contribute to the creation of a caring learning environment for all.

8.4.7 Recommendation 7

Change should happen in a culture of learning and cooperation. Participants should feel that their ideas and suggestions about the proposed change is valued and consider that is why weekly or bi-monthly meetings should be held to determine direction and to assess staff commitment. Principals should ensure that this is communicated in a caring and supportive environment (*cf.* 3.8 & 3.8.4).

Motivation

Although educators and learners alike may experience pressure to change, the support received from the SMT will further stimulate and enhance any change initiative and empower everyone involved. Open and clear communication is key in the process of change.

8.4.8 Recommendation 8

Principals should encourage the promotion of positive relationships between educators, learners and senior management. Value for the individual educator is central and educators should be credited for the work they deliver (*cf.* 3.5.3.2).

Motivation

Positive relationships and open communication will allow for positive interpersonal interactions and create an environment that supports

participative decision-making and the freedom to interact and contribute to the process of change.

8.4.9 Recommendation 9

Provide personal development opportunities for educators to equip them to have control over the learning environment and a sense of self-worth. The sense of 'loss of control' will be minimized if people exhibit self-directed behaviour and have confidence in their ability to lead change and influence learners positively.

Motivation

Educators serve a more diverse learner population than in past times, therefore they have to become more assertive and knowledgable in their field. Providing opportunities for personal growth for educators motivates them to work cooperatively, promotes enthusiasm, happiness and genuine interest in their own learning, as well as in those of the learners. It also acts as catalyst for the continued development of the professional and it educates for both self-understanding and group understanding.

8.4.10 Recommendation 10

Change should coincide with the vision and goals of the school and participants should feel ownership of these goals. This ensures that people are less likely to resist the proposed changes, and confusion about the purpose of change is minimized.

Motivation

Resistance to change stem from insecurities and uncertainties about the direction the change is taking and assumptions about the desirability of change.

If educators resist change, they would not be able to provide a learning environment in which learners feel emotionally safe and have the freedom to partake and interact in the learning activities in the classroom. This implies the

creation of an environment where learners feel valued as individuals, are treated with respect and are generally happy with their interactions in an atmosphere of mutual understanding and trust.

8.4.11 Recommendation 11

There must be an all-encompassing leadership programme for incorporating the principles of EI for principals and educators, who have to control their feelings and impulses and who are able to create a school environment of trust and fairness.

Motivation

In a school where there is genuine trust and open communication the morale of educators and learners will increase and principals as leaders will maintain a competitive edge by opening up lines of communication for better conflict resolution, decision-making and motivation.

8.4.12 Recommendation 12

Evaluative feedback is important. Change should be evaluated annually to find out whether participants are coping or if the change is working in relation to the outcomes set. Feedback should be provided a caring and supportive environment to reiterate the value of each individual to the process.

Motivation

This should be valuable as a measure to keep educators and learners abreast of all the changes at the school because it became evident during interviews that the respondents were only aware of the superficial changes and that they did not really feel ownership of the change process. This could also reduce the resistance to change that may be experienced by educators.

8.5 POSSIBLE THEMES FOR FURTHER STUDY

From the groundwork in this thesis, a number of further studies could be undertaken:

- An investigation into what constitutes real and sustained change at secondary schools
- The value of EI training programmes for in-service educators
- The long term benefits of EI as part of the school curriculum
- An investigation into what constitutes a successful school when change is not a constant in the learning environment
- The impact of EI on learner performance at secondary schools
- Policies outlining new leadership roles that empower educators and learners to deal with change
- An investigation into the emotional and social needs of diverse learners and how these influence their ability or not to cope with the change process

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations became apparent towards the completion of this study:

- In this study the responses of educators, learners, SMT and SGB members were sought. Principals of schools were not interviewed and did not complete the questionnaire. Perhaps they too, could have provided valuable insight into how the process of change is conducted at their school and commented on the impact of EI on the educator's role as manager of change.
- At some schools, educators were reluctant to complete the questionnaire and participate in focus group interviews.
- At some schools, principals declined the request for their school to be involved in the research.

- A number of questionnaires were returned uncompleted. This could be interpreted as disinterest of the participants towards research.

Although several limitations and shortcomings may be present in this thesis, it could provide the basis for further studies on the impact of EI on the various role players in the education system. In this manner, quality education and well-rounded citizens could become deliverable.

8.7 CLOSING REMARKS

It was evident in chapter 1 that there is a need to identify and implement EI as an integral part of the school curriculum so as to assist educators and learners in coping with the challenges and demands of work and school life. By integrating social and emotional competencies in the classroom, secondary school educators will assist learners in coping with classroom interactions and their growth as individuals. Principals as leaders of school change need to equip themselves, their educators and their learners to deal with change in an emotionally intelligent way to ensure the future success of the school.

It stands to reason that principals, educators and learners should undergo EI development and training to assist them to deal with change and to create a learning environment of which they can be proud and one in which their self-worth is valued and respected.

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ADDENDUM A

FORMAL PERMISSION FROM THE PROVINCIAL DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

UMnyango WezeMfundo
Department of Education

Lefapha la Thuto
Departement van Onderwys

Date:	05 March 2007
Name of Researcher:	Palmer June Monica
Address of Researcher:	46 De Beer Street SE 2
	Vanderbiljpark
	1911
Telephone Number:	0169321617
Fax Number:	0169509189
Research Topic:	The impact of emotional intelligence on the educators' role as manager of change
Number and type of schools:	6 Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Sedibeng East and West

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

Permission has been granted to proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met, and may be withdrawn should any of these conditions be flouted:

1. ***The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.***
2. ***The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.***
3. ***A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.***

4. *A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.*
5. *The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.*
6. *Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Senior Manager (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.*
7. *Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.*
8. *Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.*
9. *It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.*
10. *The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.*
11. *The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.*
12. *On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Senior Manager: Strategic Policy Development, Management & Research Coordination with one Hard Cover bound and one Ring bound copy of the final, approved research report. The researcher would also provide the said manager with an electronic copy of the research abstract/summary and/or annotation.*
13. *The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.*
14. *Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Senior Manager concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.*

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

ACTING CHIEF DIRECTOR: OFSTED

The contents of this letter has been read and understood by the researcher.	
Signature of Researcher:	
Date:	22:05:2007

1802/06
GEN

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ethel Valentine Building * Sutton Road * Sidwell * Private Bag X3915 * North End * Port Elizabeth * 6056 *
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA * Tel: +27 (0)41 403 4420 * Fax: 041 451 0193 *
Website: ecprov gov.za * Email: samuel.snayer@edu.ecprov.gov.za

Mrs J.M. Palmer
46 De Beer Street SE2
VANDERBIJLPARK
1911

Dear Mrs Palmer

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I refer to your letter dated 16 August 2006.

Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research in selected schools in the Port Elizabeth District. Kindly note that your research is subject to the internal rules of the schools you have selected and should not interfere with the normal academic programme.

Please provide the principal of the school with a copy of this letter as proof of permission.

Good luck with your research

Yours faithfully

S SNAYER
DISTRICT DIRECTOR: PORT ELIZABETH
/ab

25 August 2006

ADDENDUM B

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

46 De Beer Street SE2
VANDERBIJLPARK
1911
7 June 2007

The Principal
School Name: .....

Dear Sir/Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: GDE 5 MARCH 2007

I am presently conducting research for my PhD on the topic *THE IMPACT OF EDUCATORS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THEIR ROLES AS MANAGERS OF CHANGE.*

The complexity of change facing secondary schools in the education sector has necessitated principals in these institutions not only to keep abreast with changes but also to act wisely in human relations. This implies that effective leadership depends as much on character as on cognition and therefore educators and principals need to be emotionally intelligent. Their success depends on forging sound work relationships, networking, mediating and mentoring. Managing emotionally means putting a high priority on reculturing which involves changing the norms, values, incentives, skills and relationships in the school to foster a different way of working together.

The aim of this research is to assist educators and principals in becoming emotionally intelligent leaders to ensure a positive, successful working environment and to manage the change process at school effectively.

To yield data for this investigation, I request that permission be granted to conduct focus group interviews with educators and Grade 10 and 11 learners. Educators and learners will also be required to complete a structured questionnaire. In-depth interviews will be conducted with the School Management Team and members of the School Governing Body. If permission is granted, I intend collecting data for the study from 23 July 2007 to 31 July 2007. Please allow 2 days within this period on which I can engage with the relevant roleplayers.

I assure you that the information gathered will be treated strictly confidentially and anonymity is guaranteed. My contact details are (016) 9509864 / 0827754987and my fax number (016) 9509189.

Allow me to thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully

.....
June Palmer: PhD STUDENT

ADDENDUM C

ETHICAL LETTERS

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Vaal Triangle Faculty

Tel 016 950 9864
Cell 082 775 4987

21 February 2007

Dear Colleague / Participant

QUESTIONNAIRE: EDUCATORS

The attached questionnaire forms part of PhD research to investigate the impact of emotional intelligence on the educator's duty to manage change.

You are hereby kindly requested to complete the questionnaire. The responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality: no mention will be made of you or your school. Therefore, please do not write down your surname or the name of your school on the document. The questionnaire number will be used for control purposes only. For the reliability and validity of the information, you are requested to answer the questions on your own.

Thank you for being willing to form part of this research project.

Yours sincerely

Ms June Palmer
PhD student

Dr Elda de Waal
Promoter: School for Educational Sciences

Please complete the following statement to confirm your participation in the questionnaire:

This questionnaire will protect the identity of my school and me.

I am fully aware of the part I will play in completing the attached questionnaire and am willing to complete it to the best of my ability.

Signature: _____

Date: 2007-__-__

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Vaal Triangle Faculty

Tel 016 950 9864
Cell 082 775 4987

21 February 2007

Dear Learner

QUESTIONNAIRE: LEARNERS

The attached questionnaire forms part of a student's research to investigate the impact of emotional intelligence on educators' duty to manage change.

You are hereby kindly requested to complete the questionnaire. The responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality: no mention will be made of you or your school. Therefore, please do not write down your surname or the name of your school on the document. The questionnaire number will be used for control purposes only. For the reliability and validity of the information, you are requested to answer the questions on your own.

Thank you for being willing to form part of this research project. Good luck with your studies.

Yours sincerely

Ms June Palmer
PhD student

Dr Elda de Waal
Promoter: School for Educational Sciences

Please complete the following statement to confirm your participation in the questionnaire:

This questionnaire will protect the identity of my school and me.

I am fully aware of the part I will play in completing the attached questionnaire and am willing to complete it to the best of my ability.

Signature: _____

Date: 2007- - _____

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Fakulteit Vaaldriehoek

Sel 082 622 5873

Junie / Julie 2007

Liewe Opvoeder / Deelnemer

VRAELYS: OPVOEDER

Die aangehegte vraelys vorm deel van die ondergetekende student se navorsing wat die impak van emosionele intelligensie op die opvoeder se rol om verandering te bestuur ondersoek.

Jy word vriendelik versoek om die vraelys te voltooi. Die antwoorde sal met die uiterste vertroulikheid hanteer word: geen melding sal van jou of jou skool gemaak word nie. Gevolglik moet jy asseblief nie jou inligting of die naam van jou skool op die dokument neeskryf nie. Die vraelys se nommer word net vir kontrole doeleindes gebruik. Ter wille van betroubaarheid en geldigheid van die inligting, word jy versoek om die vraelys op jou eie te voltooi

Dankie dat jy bereid is om deel te wees van hierdie navorsingsprojek. Sterkte met jou loopbaan.

Vriendelike groete

Me June Palmer

PhD-student

Dr Elda de Waal

Promotor: Skool vir Opvoedkundige Wetenskappe

Voltooi asseblief onderstaande verklaring om u deelname aan die vraelys te bevestig:

Hierdie vraelys sal die identiteit van my en my skool beskerm.

Ek is ten volle bewus van die rol wat ek sal speel met die invul van die vraelys en ek is bereid om dit na my beste vermoë te voltooi.

Handtekening: _____

Datum: 2007-___-___

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Fakulteit Vaaldriehoek

Sel 082 622 5873

Maart 2007

Liewe Leerder / Deelnemer

VRAELYS: LEERDERS

Die aangehegte vraelys vorm deel van die ondergetekende student se navorsing wat die impak van emosionele intelligensie op die opvoeder se rol om verandering te bestuur ondersoek.

Jy word vriendelik versoek om die vraelys te voltooi. Die antwoorde sal met die uiterste vertroulikheid hanteer word: geen melding sal van jou of jou skool gemaak word nie. Gevolglik moet jy asseblief nie jou inligting of die naam van jou skool op die dokument neeskryf nie. Die vraelys se nommer word net vir kontrole doeleindes gebruik. Ter wille van betroubaarheid en geldigheid van die inligting, word jy versoek om die vraelys op jou eie te voltooi

Dankie dat jy bereid is om deel te wees van hierdie navorsingsprojek. Sterkte met jou loopbaan.

Vriendelike groete

Mé June Palmer
PhD-student

Dr Elda de Waal
Promotor: Skool vir Opvoedkundige Wetenskappe

Voltooi asseblief onderstaande verklaring om u deelname aan die vraelys te bevestig:

Hierdie vraelys sal die identiteit van my en my skool beskerm.

Ek is ten volle bewus van die rol wat ek sal speel met die invul van die vraelys en ek is bereid om dit na my beste vermoë te voltooi.

Handtekening: _____

Datum: 2007- - .

ADDENDUM D

EDUCATOR QUESTIONNAIRE/ OPVOEDERVRAELYS

QUESTIONNAIRE: EDUCATORS

THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THE EDUCATOR'S ROLE AS MANAGER OF CHANGE

INSTRUCTIONS

1. You are kindly requested to answer all the questions to the best of your ability.
2. Do not indicate your name or the name of your school on the document.
3. Please complete the questionnaire on your own.
4. Please mark your answers with an X in the appropriate block.

Your participation is highly appreciated.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1.	Gender	Male		Female		
2.	Culture	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Other
3.	Position	Educator	HOD	Deputy Principal	Principal	
4.	What grades do you teach?	Grade 10		Grade 11		

SECTION B: HEALTHY SCHOOLS

Indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each of the following statements:

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5.	Expressing emotions is a sign of weakness.	1	2	3	4
6.	I know when I am feeling bad but most of the time I cannot tell why I feel that way.	1	2	3	4
7.	When I feel strong emotions well up, my first instinct is to control them.	1	2	3	4
8.	I become anxious when I am about to experience unpleasant emotions.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
9.	I easily adapt to unfamiliar and unpredictable circumstances.	1	2	3	4
10.	I am able to cope successfully with daily demands and pressures	1	2	3	4
11.	I show care and concern towards my peers.	1	2	3	4
12.	I am able to express my personal emotions.	1	2	3	4
13.	I have the ability to motivate myself and others with empathy.	1	2	3	4
14.	If I have a rough week at work I distract myself with shopping or other hobbies.	1	2	3	4
15.	Worrying and anxiety are two of the most frequently experienced emotional problems for both educators and learners.	1	2	3	4
16.	When I am under pressure, I have the ability to stay positive and focussed.	1	2	3	4
17.	I allow learners to express their feelings.	1	2	3	4
18.	Learners are encouraged to build collaborative relationships with their peers.	1	2	3	4
19.	The relationship between my learners and me is generally positive.	1	2	3	4
20.	Learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life.	1	2	3	4
21.	Learners have people they can talk to when they are in distress.	1	2	3	4
22.	The school encourages active learner involvement.	1	2	3	4
23.	The school is set in an orderly, safe and non-oppressive climate.	1	2	3	4
24.	Learners are given opportunities to explore emotions they are experiencing in school.	1	2	3	4
25.	My learners display a positive mental attitude toward life.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
26.	I allow learners to express their feelings.	1	2	3	4
27.	I deal immediately with negative incidents such as learners fighting.	1	2	3	4
28.	I have the ability to accept and control my emotions in the classroom.	1	2	3	4
29.	Learners learn in collaboration with educators, in the company of peers and with the support of their families.	1	2	3	4
30.	Learners create the right conditions for educators to motivate and empower themselves.	1	2	3	4
31.	Learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment.	1	2	3	4
32.	The principal fosters a positive learning environment where change is likely to occur.	1	2	3	4
33.	The principal works together with educators to transform difficult feelings and attitudes into more creative ones.	1	2	3	4
34.	The principal endeavours to facilitate open communication for emerging self-organisation.	1	2	3	4
35.	The principal of our school is very committed to each task.	1	2	3	4
36.	The principal of our school is reliable.	1	2	3	4
37.	The principal of our school is firm in making decisions to benefit the school.	1	2	3	4
38.	As a leader the principal develops strong connectedness among educators in the school.	1	2	3	4
39.	The principal is in touch with how educators feel about the work situation.	1	2	3	4
40.	The principal has the skill to encourage learners and educators to change their behaviour.	1	2	3	4
41.	The leadership of the school constantly motivates educators.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
42.	I feel free to contribute to the school in ways which are meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4
43.	The leadership of the school has the ability to analyse the strengths and weaknesses of the school.	1	2	3	4
44.	The leadership of the school convinces staff, parents and learners that change is necessary and achievable.	1	2	3	4
45.	The level and extent of imposed change in recent years have increased levels of anxiety for educators in this school.	1	2	3	4
46.	Leaders in the school allow staff to grow as individuals.	1	2	3	4
47.	The leadership of the school builds a strong level of trust among educators in this school.	1	2	3	4
48.	The leaders in this school create a challenging work environment.	1	2	3	4
49.	The leaders provide opportunities for personal development and empowerment.	1	2	3	4
50.	The school encourages active learner involvement	1	2	3	4
51.	The leadership of the school provides opportunities for role players' input into planning.	1	2	3	4
52.	The principal sets norms that create positive emotional climates in teams.	1	2	3	4
53.	The principal engenders a positive outlook that is conducive to intuitive decision-making.	1	2	3	4
54.	The principal develops interventions to enhance emotional management.	1	2	3	4
55.	The leadership develops specific interventions in order to alleviate emotional labour.	1	2	3	4
56.	The principal develops specific interventions to permit educators to deal with emotions.	1	2	3	4
57.	The principal creates an organisational culture that recognises the legitimacy of emotion.	1	2	3	4
58.	The principal displays the ability to adjust his emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
59.	The principal constantly questions the status quo and tries to find better ways of achieving goals.	1	2	3	4
60.	The principal recognises the importance of highly developed habit patterns that ritualise important experiences.	1	2	3	4
61.	The principal's task is to assist staff members in becoming aware of their feelings about school.	1	2	3	4
62.	The school environment encourages learner responsibility and opportunities for reflecting and monitoring learning.	1	2	3	4
63.	The leadership maximises opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships.	1	2	3	4
64.	The principal fosters an opportunity for the community to become involved in the school.	1	2	3	4
65.	Educators have a sense of shared responsibility for supporting and learning from each other	1	2	3	4
66.	I feel free to use my creativity in teaching my learners.	1	2	3	4
67.	I am encouraged to bring my personal as well as my professional self into the classroom	1	2	3	4
68.	Parents are welcomed as participants in school life and in the education of their children.	1	2	3	4
69.	Parents are offered opportunities to share any problems they have in helping their children learn and develop	1	2	3	4
70.	I believe that I have a real role to play in shaping how the school is run.	1	2	3	4
71.	I feel confident that I can communicate what I think and feel to others.	1	2	3	4
72.	The educators in the school are committed to the change process.	1	2	3	4
73.	There is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of learners.	1	2	3	4
74.	There is a need within the school to change the values, understanding and actions of educators.	1	2	3	4
75.	The school has appropriate guidelines in place to manage the change process.	1	2	3	4

SECTION C: LEADERSHIP AND CHANGE					
		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
76.	The principal assists educators and learners in understanding what change really means.	1	2	3	4
77.	The leadership has a vision of what is important and this is shared by educators, learners and the community.	1	2	3	4
78.	The principal recognises educators' expertise by involving us in leadership.	1	2	3	4
79.	The principal displays a measure of accountability toward educators.	1	2	3	4
80.	The principal has a sound understanding of how to handle conflict.	1	2	3	4
81.	The principal has the ability to identify his/her own strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4
82.	Whilst implementing change, the principal provides opportunities for educators to articulate their ambivalent feelings.	1	2	3	4
83.	Before implementing any change initiative, the principal gains acceptance from educators first.	1	2	3	4
84.	The principal has a know-how which is respected by the learners, educators, SMT and the community.	1	2	3	4
85.	The leadership of the school has the ability to work as a team in problem-solving.	1	2	3	4
86.	The principal sets high standards for the school and provides a role model for learners and educators	1	2	3	4
87.	The principal seeks advice and support when necessary.	1	2	3	4
88.	This school's primary task is to create a teaching and learning opportunity for educators and learners.	1	2	3	4
89.	The school adapts to local needs especially in making the best use of resources.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
90.	The school has a degree of autonomy while being accountable to parents and the local community.	1	2	3	4
91.	The principal creates a supportive open school climate for all.	1	2	3	4
92.	The school has an effective school development plan which integrates staff development, instructional development, and curriculum development.	1	2	3	4
93.	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership.	1	2	3	4
94.	The school is successful because it has an atmosphere generated by shared aims and values.	1	2	3	4
95.	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal displays.	1	2	3	4
96.	The principal creates a caring environment for learners and educators.	1	2	3	4
97.	The school is open to its external environment, actively trying new ideas about how it might work differently.	1	2	3	4
98.	The leadership explores ways to create information-rich environments where people are encouraged learn from mistakes.	1	2	3	4
99.	Management creates channels for real-time, fact-based communication within and across groups.	1	2	3	4
100.	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change.	1	2	3	4
101.	The principal contacts other school principals who have experienced the change process.	1	2	3	4
102.	The principal explains change by means of two-way communication.	1	2	3	4
103.	The principal involves staff in the management of change.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
104.	The principal displays a genuine interest in what other people think and why they think that way.	1	2	3	4
105.	The principal leads learners and educators to achieve desired outcomes, rather than instructing them.	1	2	3	4
106.	The school places great emphasis on developing self-discipline in learners.	1	2	3	4
107.	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during change.	1	2	3	4
108.	The principal keeps communication channels open so resistance to change is transparent.	1	2	3	4
109.	The principal prepares learners and educators to adjust to proposed change.	1	2	3	4
110.	The leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change.	1	2	3	4
111.	I am motivated to assist with change at the school.	1	2	3	4

VRAELYS : OPVOEDERS

DIE UITWERKING VAN EMOSIONELE INTELLIGENSIE OP DIE OPVOEDER SE ROL AS BESTUURDER VAN VERANDERING

OPDRAGTE

1. **U word vriendelik versoek om al die vrae na u beste vermoë te beantwoord.**
2. **Moet nie u naam of u skool se naam op die dokcument aanbring nie.**
3. **Voltooi die vraelys asseblief op u eie.**
4. **Merk asseblief u antwoorde met 'n X in die teopaslike blokkie.**

U samewerking word hoog op prys gestel.

AFDELING A : BIOGRAFIESE INLIGTING

1.	Geslag	Manlik		Vroulik		
2.	Kultuur	Afrika	Bruin	Indies	Wit	Ander
3.	Posisie	Opvoeder	HVD	Adjunk-hoof	Hoof	
4.	Aan watter grade gee u onderrig?	Graad 10		Graad 11		

AFDELING B: GESONDE SKOLE

Dui aan in watter mate u saamstem / nie saamstem nie met elke stelling:

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
5.	Om emosies te openbaar, is 'n teken van swakheid	1	2	3	4
6.	Ek weet wanneer ek sleg voel, maar meestal weet ek nie waarom nie	1	2	3	4
7.	Wanneer ek emosies voel opwel, is my eerste instink om hulle te beheer.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
8.	Ek word senuweeagtig wanneer ek onaangename emosies gaan belewe.	1	2	3	4
9.	Ek pas maklik aan by onbekende en onvoorspelbare omstandighede.	1	2	3	4
10.	Ek kan suksesvol cope met daaglikse eise en druk	1	2	3	4
11.	Ek bewys dat ek besorg is oor my gelykes .	1	2	3	4
12.	Ek kan my persoonlike emosies uitdruk.	1	2	3	4
13.	Ek besit die vermoëom myself en ander met meelewing te motiveer.	1	2	3	4
14.	As ek 'n moeilike week by die werk het, lei ek my aandag af met inkopies en ander stokperdjies.	1	2	3	4
15.	Bekommernis en angs is twee van die emosionele probleme wat die dikwelsste ervaar word deur opvoeders en leerders.	1	2	3	4
16.	Wanneer ek onder druk verkeer, het ek ide vermoë om positief en gefokus te bly.	1	2	3	4
17.	Ek laat leerders toe om hul gevoelens uit te druk.	1	2	3	4
18.	Leerders word aangemoedig om samewerkende verhoudings met hul portuurgroep op te bou	1	2	3	4
19.	Die verhouding tussen my leerders en my is oor die algemeen positief.	1	2	3	4
20.	Leerders word aangemoedig om openhartig met hul opvoeders te wees oor hoe hulle die skoollewe ervaar.	1	2	3	4
21.	Leerders het mense met wie hulle kan gesels wanneer hulle bekommerd is.	1	2	3	4
22.	Die skool moedig aktiewe leerder-betrokkenheid aan.	1	2	3	4
23.	Die skool is gevestig in 'n ordelike, veilige en nie-onderdrukkende omgewing.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
24.	Leerders kry geleenthede om emosies wat hulle op skool ervaar, te ondersoek.	1	2	3	4
25.	My leerders vertoon 'n positiewe geesteshouding teenoor die lewe.	1	2	3	4
26.	Ek laat leerders toe om hul gevoelens uit te druk.	1	2	3	4
27.	Ek tree onmiddellik op in negatiewe insidente soos wanneer leerders baklei.	1	2	3	4
28.	Ek het die vermoë om my emosies te aanvaar en te beheer in die klaskamer.	1	2	3	4
29.	Leerders leer in samewerking met opvoeders, in die geselskap van hulle portuurgroe en met die ondersteuning van hul gesinne.	1	2	3	4
30.	Leerders skep die regte omstandighede vir opvoeders om hulself te motiveeer en te bemeester	1	2	3	4
31.	Leer vind plaas in 'n nie-veroordeelde omgewing.	1	2	3	4
32.	Die skoolhoof koester 'n positiewe leer-omgewing waar verandering moontlik kan plaasvind.	1	2	3	4
33.	Die skoolhoof werk saam met opvoeders om moeilike gevoelens en houdinge meer kreatief te verander.	1	2	3	4
34.	Die skoolhoof probeer om openhartige kommunikasie vir ontluikende self-organisasie te fasiliteer.	1	2	3	4
35.	Die skoolhoof van ons skool is baie teogewy aan elke saak.	1	2	3	4
36.	Die skoolhoof van ons skool is verantwoordelik.	1	2	3	4
37.	Die skoolhoof van ons skool is standvasitg in die neem van besluite om die skool te bevoordeel.	1	2	3	4
38.	As leier, ontwikkel die skoolhoof sterk verbintenisse tussen opvoeders aan die skool.	1	2	3	4
39.	Die skoolhoof is in voeling met hoe opvoeders voel oor die wersituasie.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
40.	Die skoolhoof besit die vaardigheid om leerders en opvoeders aan te moedig om hul gedrag te verander.	1	2	3	4
41.	Die leiers van die skool motiveer opvoeders gedurig.	1	2	3	4
42.	Ek voel vry om by te dra tot die skool op maniere wat vir my iets beteken.	1	2	3	4
43.	Die leierskap (SMT) van die skool het die vermoë om die sterk en swak punte van die skool te ontleed.	1	2	3	4
44.	Die leierskap (SMT) van die skool oortuig die personeellede, ouers en leerders dat verandering noodsaaklik en bereikbaar is.	1	2	3	4
45.	Die graad en omvang van die gedwnge verandering in onlangse jare het die vlakke van angs vir opvoeders aan hierdie skool verhoog.	1	2	3	4
46.	Leireskap (SMT) van die skool laat personeellede toe om as individue te ontwikkel.	1	2	3	4
47.	Die leierskap (SMT) van die skool bou 'n sterk vertrouensvlak onder opvoeders aan hierdie skool op.	1	2	3	4
48.	Die leierskap (SMT) van hierdie skool spep 'n uitdagende werksomgewing.	1	2	3	4
49.	Die leierskap (SMT) voorsien geleenthede vir persoonlike ontwikkeling en bemagtiging.	1	2	3	4
50.	Die skool moedig aktiewe leerder-deelname aan.	1	2	3	4
51.	Die leierskap (SMT) van die skool voorsien geleenthede vir rolspelers se insette in beplanning.	1	2	3	4
52.	Die skoolhoof stel norme wat 'n positiewe emosionele klimaat in spanne skep.	1	2	3	4
53.	Die skoolhoof verwek 'n positiewe uitkyk wat bevorderlik is vir intuïtiewe besluitneming.	1	2	3	4
54.	Die skoolhoof ontwikkel ingryping van ander om emosionele bestuur te versterk.	1	2	3	4
55.	Die leierskap (SMT) ontwikkel spesifieke ingryping van ander om emosionele knelpunte te ontlont.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
56.	Die skoolhoof ontwikkel spesifieke ingryping van ander om opvoeders toe te laat om hul emosies te hanteer. .	1	2	3	4
57.	Die skoolhoof skep 'n organisatoriese kultuur wat die bestaansreg van emosie aanvaar.	1	2	3	4
58.	Die skoolhoof skep 'n organisatoriese kultuur wat die bestaansreg van emosie aanvaar.	1	2	3	4
59.	Die skoolhoof bevraagteken die bestaande toestand gedurig en probeer beter maniere vind om doelwitte te bereik.	1	2	3	4
60.	Die skoolhoof erken die belangrikheid van hoogs ontwikkelde gewoonte-patrone wat belangrike ervarings vaslê.	1	2	3	4
61.	Die skoolhoof se taak is om personeellede te help om bewus te word van hulle gevoelens oor die skool.	1	2	3	4
62.	Die skoolomgewing moedig leerder-verantwoordelikheid en geleenthede vir nadenke en die kontroleer van leer aan.	1	2	3	4
63.	Die leierskap (SMT) vermeerder geleenthede vir opvoeders en leerders om saam na te dink oor wat emosioneel in hul huidige verhoudings aan die gang is.	1	2	3	4
64.	Die skoolhoof bevorder 'n geleentheid vir die gemeenskap om by die skool betrokke te raak.	1	2	3	4
65.	Opvoeders het 'n aanvoeling vir gedeelde verantwoordelikheid om mekaar te ondersteun en van mekaar te leer.	1	2	3	4
66.	Ek voel vry om my kreatiwiteit te gebruik wanneer ek my leerders onderrig.	1	2	3	4
67.	Ek word angemoedig om my persoonlike sowel as my professionele self in die klaskamer in te bring.	1	2	3	4
68.	Ouers word verwelkom as deelnemers in die skoollewe en in die onderwys van hul kinders.	1	2	3	4
69.	Ouers word geleenthede gegee om enige probleme wat hulle he tom hul kinders te help leer en ontwikkel, te deel.	1	2	3	4
70.	Ek glo ek het 'n daadwerklike rol om te vervul in ie vorming van die bestuur van die skool.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
71.	Ek is vol vertroue dat ek aan ander kan oordra wat ek dink en voel.	1	2	3	4
72.	Die opvoeders op skool is toegewy aan die vareanderingsproses.	1	2	3	4
73.	Daar is 'n behoefte op skool om die leerders se waardes, begrip en optrede te verander.	1	2	3	4
74.	Daar is 'n behoefte op skool om die opvoeders se waardes, begrip en optrede te verander.	1	2	3	4
75.	Die skool het doeltreffende riglyne in plek om die veranderingsproses te bestuur.	1	2	3	4
	AFDELING C: LEIERSKAP EN VERANDERING				
76.	Die skoolhoof staan opvoeders en leerders by om te verstaan vat verandering werklik beteken.	1	2	3	4
77.	Die leierskap (SMT) het 'n visie van wat belangrik is en dit word gedeel met opvoeders, leerders en die gemeenskap.	1	2	3	4
78.	Die skoolhoof erken opvoeders se vakkundigheid deur ons by leierskap te betrek.	1	2	3	4
79.	Die skoolhoof vertoon 'n mate van toerekenbaarheid teenoor opvoeders.	1	2	3	4
80.	Die skoolhoof het 'n deeglike begrip van hoe om konflik te hanteer..	1	2	3	4
81.	Die skoolhoof is daartoe in staat om sy/haar eie sterk en swak punte uit te ken.	1	2	3	4
82.	Terwyl hy/sy verandering implementer, voorsien die skoolhoof geleenthede vir opvoeders om hul teenstrydige gevoelens uit te spreek.	1	2	3	4
83.	Voordat hy/sy enige veranderingsinisiatief implementer, verkry die skoolhoof eers die opvoeders se goedkeuring.	1	2	3	4
84.	Die skoolhoof besit 'n kundigheid wat die leerders, opvoeders, SMT en die gemeenskap respekteer.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
85.	Die leierskap (SMT) van die skool besit die vermoë om soos 'n span in problem-oplossing saam te werk.	1	2	3	4
86.	Die skoolhoof stel hoë standaarde vir die skool en tree op as rolmodel vir leerders en opvoeders.	1	2	3	4
87.	Die skoolhoof vra raad en ondersteuning wanneer dit nodig is.	1	2	3	4
88.	Die skool se primêre taak is om 'n onderrig-en leergeleentheid vir opvoeders en leerders te skep.	1	2	3	4
89.	Die skool pas hom aan by plaaslike behoeftes, veral deur die beste benutting van bronne.	1	2	3	4
90.	Die skool het 'n mate van selfbestuur terwyl dit verantwoordbaar is aan ouers en die plaaslike gemeenskap.	1	2	3	4
91.	Die skoolhoof skep 'n ondersteundende oop skoolklimaat vir almal.	1	2	3	4
92.	Die skool het 'n doeltreffende skoolontwikkelingsplan wat personeelontwikkeling, onderrigontwikkeling en kurrikulumontwikkeling integreer.	1	2	3	4
93.	Die skool is suksesvol omdat dit oor sterk positiewe leierskap beskik.	1	2	3	4
94.	Die skool is suksesvol, want dit beskik oor 'n atmosfeer wat voortgebring word deur gedeelde doelwitte en waardes.	1	2	3	4
95.	Die uiteindelike suskes van die skool hang af van die kwalitieit van die skoolhoof se rol.	1	2	3	4
96.	Die skoolhoof skep 'n versorgende omgewing vir leerders en opvoeders.	1	2	3	4
97.	Die skool is oop vir sy eksterne omgewing, want dit beproef nuwe idees oor hoe dit op 'n ander manier kan werk.	1	2	3	4
98.	Die leierskap (SMT) ondersoek maniere om inligtingryke omgewings te skep waar mense aangemoedig word om uit foute te leer.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
99.	Die bestuur skep kanale vir daadwerklike, op-feite gebaseerde kommunikasie binne en oor groepe heen.	1	2	3	4
100.	Die bestuur berei opvoeders voor om die uitdagings van verandering te konfronteer.	1	2	3	4
101.	Die skoolhoof kom met ander skoolhoofde in aanraking wat die proses van verandering ervaar het.	1	2	3	4
102.	Die skoolhoof verduidelik verandering deur wedersydse kommunikasie.	1	2	3	4
103.	Die skoolhoof betrek personeelldede in die bestuur van verandering.	1	2	3	4
104.	Die skoolhoof vertoon 'n opregte belangstelling in wat ander mense dink en hoekom hulle so dink.	1	2	3	4
105.	Die skoolhoof lei leerders en opvoeders om begeerde uitkomste te behaal, eerder as om hulle te onderrig.	1	2	3	4
106.	Die skool plaas groot klem op die ontwikkeling van selfdissipline by leerders.	1	2	3	4
107.	Die leierskap (SMT) bestuur emosionele reaksies van opvoedeers en leerders tydens verandering..	1	2	3	4
108.	Die skoolhoof hou kommunikasie-kanale oop, dus is weeerstand tot verandering deursigtig.	1	2	3	4
109.	Die skoolhoof verei leerders en opvoeders voor om hulle aan te pas by voorgestelde verandering.	1	2	3	4
110.	Die leierskap (SMT) bemagtig leerders en opvoeders om verandering te implementer.	1	2	3	4
111.	Ek is gemotiveerd om te help met verandering op skool.	1	2	3	4

ADDENDUM E

LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE/ LEERDERVRAELYS

QUESTIONNAIRE: LEARNERS

THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THE EDUCATOR'S ROLE AS MANAGER OF CHANGE

INSTRUCTIONS

1. **You are kindly requested to answer all the questions to the best of your ability.**
2. **Do not indicate your name or the name of your school on the document.**
3. **Please complete the questionnaire on your own.**
4. **Please mark your answers with an X in the appropriate block.**

Your participation is highly appreciated.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1.	Gender	Male		Female	
2.	Culture	African	Coloured	Indian	White	Other
3.	Indicate your age	15 – 17 yrs	18 – 20 yrs	21 yrs and older	
4.	What grades are you in?	Grade 10	Grade 11		

SECTION B: HEALTHY SCHOOLS

Indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each of the following statements:

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5.	Expressing emotions is a sign of weakness.	1	2	3	4
6.	I know when I am feeling bad but most of the time I cannot tell why I feel that way.	1	2	3	4
7.	When I feel strong emotions well up, my first instinct is to control them.	1	2	3	4
8.	I become anxious when I am about to experience unpleasant emotions	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
9.	I easily adapt to unfamiliar and unpredictable circumstances.	1	2	3	4
10.	I am able to cope successfully with daily demands and pressures	1	2	3	4
11.	I show care and concern towards my peers.	1	2	3	4
12.	I am able to express my personal emotions.	1	2	3	4
13.	I have the ability to motivate myself and others with empathy.	1	2	3	4
14.	If I have a rough week at school I distract myself with shopping or other hobbies.	1	2	3	4
15.	Worrying and anxiety are two of the most frequently experienced emotional problems for both educators and learners.	1	2	3	4
16.	When I am under pressure, I have the ability to stay positive and focussed.	1	2	3	4
17.	I am encouraged to talk about my feelings at school.	1	2	3	4
18.	I have stable relationships with my peers at school.	1	2	3	4
19.	The relationship between my educators and me causes positive feelings.	1	2	3	4
20.	Learners are encouraged to be open with their educators about how they experience school life.	1	2	3	4
21.	I have people I can talk to when I am in distress.	1	2	3	4
22.	Learners are encouraged to participate fully in their learning activities.	1	2	3	4
23.	The school environment is safe and conducive for learning.	1	2	3	4
24.	Learners are given opportunities to explore emotions they are experiencing in school.	1	2	3	4
25.	My educators display a positive mental attitude toward life.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
26.	The educators allow me to own and express my feelings in the classroom.	1	2	3	4
27.	Educators deal immediately with negative incidents such as learners fighting.	1	2	3	4
28.	Our educators have the ability to accept and control emotions in their classrooms.	1	2	3	4
29.	I learn in collaboration with educators, in the company of peers and with the support of my family.	1	2	3	4
30.	The educators motivate learners on a regular basis.	1	2	3	4
31.	Learning takes place in a non-judgemental environment.	1	2	3	4
32.	Educators create a positive emotional environment in the school.	1	2	3	4
33.	The principal intervenes effectively when educators feel discouraged.	1	2	3	4
34.	The communication within the school is open.	1	2	3	4
35.	The principal of our school is very committed to each task.	1	2	3	4
36.	The principal of our school is reliable.	1	2	3	4
37.	The principal of our school is firm in making decisions to benefit the school.	1	2	3	4
38.	As a leader the principal develops strong connectedness among learners in the school.	1	2	3	4
39.	The principal is in touch with how educators feel about the work situation.	1	2	3	4
40.	The principal has the skill to encourage learners and educators to change their behaviour.	1	2	3	4
41.	The leadership of the school constantly motivates learners.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
42.	Learners behave responsibly and avoid negative behaviour.	1	2	3	4
43.	Educators create a learning environment that promotes non-violent behaviour.	1	2	3	4
44.	Apart from imparting academic skills and knowledge, the school promotes the personal and social development of learners.	1	2	3	4
45.	The hygienic facilities at the school are of a high standard.	1	2	3	4
46.	The leaders in the school create a supportive learning environment.	1	2	3	4
47.	The educators motivate learners in an empathic way.	1	2	3	4
48.	I have the ability to understand and appreciate the feelings of others.	1	2	3	4
49.	I know my own feelings including accepting my own darker side.	1	2	3	4
50.	I co-operate well in class with educators.	1	2	3	4
51.	I co-operate well with fellow learners at school.	1	2	3	4
52.	Educators show care and concern toward learners at this school.	1	2	3	4
53.	Generally, I begin and complete tasks and deal with any setback that may arise from time to time.	1	2	3	4
54.	My educators act inspiringly toward me.	1	2	3	4
55.	My educators believe in learners' untapped abilities to solve their emotional problems.	1	2	3	4
56.	The leadership of this school acts inspiringly toward me.	1	2	3	4
57.	The principal displays a positive mental attitude toward life.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
58.	My educators have the ability to assume the perspective of others and to share in the emotions of others.	1	2	3	4
59.	The educators plan lessons and create optimal learning opportunities in the classroom.	1	2	3	4
60.	The educators create a relationship of trust and act as guides in their classrooms.	1	2	3	4
61.	My educators promote a critical attitude toward developing a sense of respect toward others.	1	2	3	4
62.	My educators know the different approaches to teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4
63.	My educators provide a safe learning environment for all learners.	1	2	3	4
	SECTION C: LEADERSHIP AND CHANGE				
64.	The principal assists educators and learners in understanding what change really means.	1	2	3	4
65.	The principal articulates a clear vision for school improvement.	1	2	3	4
66.	The principal creates an environment where positive results and credits are widely dispersed.	1	2	3	4
67.	The principal creates an environment where he/she positively evaluates people.	1	2	3	4
68.	The principal always thinks positively.	1	2	3	4
69.	The leadership espouses an open learning environment, conducive to change.	1	2	3	4
70.	The leadership of the school supports the full growth of learners academically, socially and emotionally.	1	2	3	4
71.	I experience a sense of being treated with respect, dignity and acceptance at this school.	1	2	3	4
72.	I have the freedom to make choices and influence my own learning.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
73.	I experience the freedom to have my own opinions without fear of recrimination.	1	2	3	4
74.	The principal fosters a safe school environment.	1	2	3	4
75.	I feel comfortable and physically and emotionally safe at the school.	1	2	3	4
76.	The principal develops stress management and wellness programmes to enhance emotional management.	1	2	3	4
77.	The principal encourages access to information.	1	2	3	4
78.	The principal aspires to change the school culture through the installation of new values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4
79.	The principal displays a measure of accountability toward learners.	1	2	3	4
80.	The principal has a sound understanding of how to handle conflict.	1	2	3	4
81.	The principal has the ability to identify his/her own strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4
82.	Whilst implementing change, the principal provides opportunities for learners to articulate their feelings.	1	2	3	4
83.	Before implementing any change initiative, the principal gains acceptance from educators and learners first.	1	2	3	4
84.	The principal has a know-how which is respected by the learners, educators, SMT and the community.	1	2	3	4
85.	The leadership of the school has the ability to work as a team in problem-solving.	1	2	3	4
86.	The principal sets high standards for the school and provides a role model for learners and educators.	1	2	3	4
87.	The principal seeks advice and support when necessary.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
88.	This school's primary task is to create a teaching and learning opportunity for educators and learners.	1	2	3	4
89.	The school adapts to local needs especially in making the best use of resources.	1	2	3	4
90.	The school has a degree of autonomy while being accountable to parents and the local community.	1	2	3	4
91.	The principal creates a supportive open school climate for all.	1	2	3	4
92.	The school has an effective school development plan.	1	2	3	4
93.	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership.	1	2	3	4
94.	The school is successful because it has an atmosphere generated by shared aims and values.	1	2	3	4
95.	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal displays.	1	2	3	4
96.	The principal creates a caring environment for learners and educators.	1	2	3	4
97.	The school is open to its external environment, actively trying new ideas.	1	2	3	4
98.	The leadership explores ways to create information-rich environments where people are encouraged to learn from mistakes.	1	2	3	4
99.	Management creates channels for real-time, fact-based communication within and across groups.	1	2	3	4
100.	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change.	1	2	3	4
101.	The principal contacts other school principals who have experienced the change process.	1	2	3	4
102.	The principal explains change by means of two-way communication.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
103.	The principal involves staff in the management of change.	1	2	3	4
104.	The principal displays a genuine interest in what other people think and why they think that way.	1	2	3	4
105.	The principal leads learners and educators to achieve desired outcomes, rather than instructing them.	1	2	3	4
106.	The school places great emphasis on developing self-discipline in learners.	1	2	3	4
107.	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during change.	1	2	3	4
108.	The principal keeps communication channels open so resistance to change is transparent.	1	2	3	4
109.	The principal prepares learners and educators to adjust to proposed change.	1	2	3	4
110.	The leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change.	1	2	3	4
111.	The leadership maximises opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships.	1	2	3	4
112.	I am motivated to assist with change at the school.	1	2	3	4

VRAELYS : LEERDERS

DIE UITWERKING VAN EMOSIONELE INTELLIGENSIE OP DIE OPVOEDER SE ROL AS BESTUURDER VAN VERANDERING

OPDRAGTE

1. **U word vriendelik versoek om al die vrae na u beste vermoë te beantwoord.**
2. **Moet nie u naam of u skool se naam op die dokument aanbring nie.**
3. **Voltooi die vraelys asseblief op u eie.**
4. **Merk asseblief u antwoorde met 'n X in die teopaslike blokkie.**

U samewerking word hoog op prys gestel.

AFDELING A: BIOGRAFIESE INLIGTING

1.	Geslag	Manlik			Vroulik	
2.	Kultuur	Afrika	Bruin	Indies	Wit	Ander
3.	Dui jou ouderdom aan	15 – 17 jr.		18 – 20 jr.	21 jr. en ouer	
4.	In watter graad is jy?	Graad 10			Graad 11	

AFDELING B: GESONDE SKOLE

Indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each of the following statements:

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5.	Om emosies te openbaar, is 'n teken van swakheid	1	2	3	4
6.	Ek weet wanneer ek sleg voel, maar meestal weet ek nie waarom nie	1	2	3	4
7.	Wanneer ek emosies voel opwel, is my eerste instink om hulle te beheer.	1	2	3	4
8.	Ek word senuweeagtig wanneer ek onaangename emosies gaan belewe.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
9.	Ek pas maklik aan by onbekende en onvoorspelbare omstandighede.	1	2	3	4
10.	Ek kan suksesvol cope met daaglikse eise en druk	1	2	3	4
11.	Ek bewys dat ek besorg is oor my gelykes .	1	2	3	4
12.	Ek kan my persoonlike emosies uitdruk.	1	2	3	4
13.	Ek besit die vermoëom myself en ander met meelewing te motiveer.	1	2	3	4
14.	As ek 'n moeilike week by die werk het, lei ek my aandag af met inkopies en ander stokperdjies.	1	2	3	4
15.	Bekommernis en angs is twee van die emosionele probleme wat die dikwelsste ervaar word deur opvoeders en leerders.	1	2	3	4
16.	Wanneer ek onder druk verkeer, het ek die vermoë om positief en gefokus te bly.	1	2	3	4
17.	Ek word aangemoedig om op skool oor my gevoelens te praat.	1	2	3	4
18.	Ek het stabiele verhoudings met my portuurgroep op skool.	1	2	3	4
19.	Die verhouding tussen my opvoeders en my bring positiewe gevoelens mee.	1	2	3	4
20.	Leerders word aangemoedig om openhartig met hul opvoeders te wees oor hoe hulle die skoollewe ervaar.	1	2	3	4
21.	Ek het mense met wie ek kan praat wanneer ek bekommerd is.	1	2	3	4
22.	Leerders word aangemoedig omvoluit deel te neem aan hul leer-aktiwiteite.	1	2	3	4
23.	Die skoolomgewing is veilig en bevorder die leerproses.	1	2	3	4
24.	Leerders kry geleenthede om emosies wat hulle op skool ervaar, te ondersoek.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
25.	My opvoeders vertoon 'n positiewe geesteshouding teenoor die lewe.	1	2	3	4
26.	Die opvoeders laat my toe om gevoelens te hê en uiting daaraan te gee in die klaskamer.	1	2	3	4
27.	Opvoeders tree onmiddellik op in negatiewe insidente soos wanneer leerders baklei.	1	2	3	4
28.	Ons opvoeders het die vermoë om emosies te aanvaar en te beheer in hul klaskamers.	1	2	3	4
29.	Ek leer in samewerking met opvoeder, in die geselskap van my portuurgroep en met die ondersteuning van my gesin.	1	2	3	4
30.	Die opvoeders motiveer leerders op 'n gereëlde basis.	1	2	3	4
31.	Leer vind plaas in 'n nie-veroordeelde omgewing.	1	2	3	4
32.	Opvoeders skep 'n positiewe emosionele omgewing op skool.	1	2	3	4
33.	Die skoolhoof tree effektief toe wanneer opvoeders moedeloos voel.	1	2	3	4
34.	Kommunikasie op skool is openhartig.	1	2	3	4
35.	Die skoolhoof van ons skool is baie teogewy aan elke saak.	1	2	3	4
36.	Die skoolhoof van ons skool is verantwoordelik.	1	2	3	4
37.	Die skoolhoof van ons skool is standvasitg in die neem van besluite om die skool te bevoordeel.	1	2	3	4
38.	As leier, ontwikkel die skoolhoof sterk verbintenisse tussen opvoeders aan die skool.	1	2	3	4
39.	Die skoolhoof is in voeling met hoe opvoeders voel oor die wersituasie.	1	2	3	4
40.	Die leiers van die skool motiveer opvoeders gedurig.	1	2	3	4
41.	Die skoolhoof besit die vaardigheid om leerders en opvoeders aan te moedig om hul gedrag te verander.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
42.	Leerders gedra hulle verantwoordelik en vermy negatiewe gedrag.	1	2	3	4
43.	Opvoeders skep 'n leer-omgewing wat nie-geweldadige gedrag bevorder.	1	2	3	4
44.	Afgesien van die akademiese vaardighede en kennis wat die skool oordra, bevorder dit ook die persoonlike en sosiale ontwikkeling van leerders.	1	2	3	4
45.	Die higiëniese fasiliteite in die skool is van hoë standaard.	1	2	3	4
46.	Die leierskap (SMT) op hierdie skool skep 'n ondersteunende leer-omgewing.	1	2	3	4
47.	Die opvoeders motiveer leerders op 'n meelewende manier.	1	2	3	4
48.	Ek besit die vermoë om ander se gevoelens te verstaan en te waardeer.	1	2	3	4
49.	Ek ken my eie gevoelens, met insluiting van die aanvaarding van my eie donker kant.	1	2	3	4
50.	Ek werk goed saam met opvoeders in die klas..	1	2	3	4
51.	Ek werk goed saam met mede-leerlinge op skool.	1	2	3	4
52.	Opvoeders toon besorgdheid teenoor leerders op hierdie skool.	1	2	3	4
53.	Oor die algemeen begin en voltooi ek take en hanteer enige teëspoed wat van tyd tot tyd voorkom.	1	2	3	4
54.	My opvoeders tree inspirerend teenoor my op.	1	2	3	4
55.	My opvoeders glo in leerders se onontginde vermoëns om hul emosionele probleme op te los..	1	2	3	4
56.	Die leierskap (SMT) van hierdie skool tree inspirerend teenoor my op.	1	2	3	4
57.	Die skoolhoof vertoon 'n positiewe geesteshouding teenoor die lewe.	1	2	3	4

		Stem heelhartig saam	Stem saam	Verskil	Verskil heel-hartig
58.	My opvoeders het die vermoë om hulle te vereenselwig met ander se perspektiewe en in hul emosies te deel.	1	2	3	4
59.	Die opvoeders beplan lesse en skep optimale leergeleenthede in die klaskamer.	1	2	3	4
60.	Die opvoeders skep 'n verhouding van vertroue en tree op as gidse in hul klaskamers.	1	2	3	4
61.	My opvoeders bevorder 'n positiewe houding teenoor die ontwikkeling van 'n sin vir respek teenoor ander.	1	2	3	4
62.	My opvoeders ken die verskillende benaderinge tot onderrrig en leer	1	2	3	4
63.	My opvoeders voorsien 'n veilige leer-omgewing vir alle leerders.	1	2	3	4
	AFDELING C: LEIERSKAP EN VERANDERING				
64.	Die skoolhoof help opvoeders en leerders om te verstaan wat verandering werklik is.	1	2	3	4
65.		1	2	3	4
66.	The principal creates an environment where positive results and credits are widely dispersed.	1	2	3	4
67.	The principal creates an environment where he/she positively evaluates people.	1	2	3	4
68.	The principal always thinks positively.	1	2	3	4
69.	The leadership espouses an open learning environment, conducive to change.	1	2	3	4
70.	The leadership of the school supports the full growth of learners academically, socially and emotionally.	1	2	3	4
71.	I experience a sense of being treated with respect, dignity and acceptance at this school.	1	2	3	4
72.	I have the freedom to make choices and influence my own learning.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
73.	I experience the freedom to have my own opinions without fear of recrimination.	1	2	3	4
74.	The principal fosters a safe school environment.	1	2	3	4
75.	I feel comfortable and physically and emotionally safe at the school.	1	2	3	4
76.	The principal develops stress management and wellness programmes to enhance emotional management.	1	2	3	4
77.	The principal encourages access to information.	1	2	3	4
78.	The principal aspires to change the school culture through the installation of new values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4
79.	The principal displays a measure of accountability toward learners.	1	2	3	4
80.	The principal has a sound understanding of how to handle conflict.	1	2	3	4
81.	The principal has the ability to identify his/her own strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4
82.	Whilst implementing change, the principal provides opportunities for learners to articulate their feelings.	1	2	3	4
83.	Before implementing any change initiative, the principal gains acceptance from educators and learners first.	1	2	3	4
84.	The principal has a know-how which is respected by the learners, educators, SMT and the community.	1	2	3	4
85.	The leadership of the school has the ability to work as a team in problem-solving.	1	2	3	4
86.	The principal sets high standards for the school and provides a role model for learners and educators.	1	2	3	4
87.	The principal seeks advice and support when necessary.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
88.	This school's primary task is to create a teaching and learning opportunity for educators and learners.	1	2	3	4
89.	The school adapts to local needs especially in making the best use of resources.	1	2	3	4
90.	The school has a degree of autonomy while being accountable to parents and the local community.	1	2	3	4
91.	The principal creates a supportive open school climate for all.	1	2	3	4
92.	The school has an effective school development plan.	1	2	3	4
93.	The school is successful because it has strong positive leadership.	1	2	3	4
94.	The school is successful because it has an atmosphere generated by shared aims and values.	1	2	3	4
95.	The ultimate success of the school depends on the quality of the role the principal displays.	1	2	3	4
96.	The principal creates a caring environment for learners and educators.	1	2	3	4
97.	The school is open to its external environment, actively trying new ideas.	1	2	3	4
98.	The leadership explores ways to create information-rich environments where people are encouraged to learn from mistakes.	1	2	3	4
99.	Management creates channels for real-time, fact-based communication within and across groups.	1	2	3	4
100.	Management prepares educators to face the challenges of change.	1	2	3	4
101.	The principal contacts other school principals who have experienced the change process.	1	2	3	4
102.	The principal explains change by means of two-way communication.	1	2	3	4

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
103.	The principal involves staff in the management of change.	1	2	3	4
104.	The principal displays a genuine interest in what other people think and why they think that way.	1	2	3	4
105.	The principal leads learners and educators to achieve desired outcomes, rather than instructing them.	1	2	3	4
106.	The school places great emphasis on developing self-discipline in learners.	1	2	3	4
107.	The leadership manages the emotional responses of educators and learners during change.	1	2	3	4
108.	The principal keeps communication channels open so resistance to change is transparent.	1	2	3	4
109.	The principal prepares learners and educators to adjust to proposed change.	1	2	3	4
110.	The leadership empowers learners and educators to implement change.	1	2	3	4
111.	The leadership maximises opportunities for educators and learners to reflect together on what is happening emotionally in their current relationships.	1	2	3	4
112.	I am motivated to assist with change at the school.	1	2	3	4