CHAPTER 3

FORMS OF PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT IN THE SCHOOL

3.1 ORIENTATION

The realisation of participative management hinges on the creation of relevant structures and the utilisation of appropriate processes. Structures are crucial in the initiation and sustenance. Appropriate processes convert old structures into vibrant participation bodies and prevent the emergence of mock participation.

It is for these reasons that this chapter investigates the various forms in which participative management manifests itself and is concretised in the school. The discussion opens with a conceptualisation of school management whereupon a case is made on how to involve teachers in each of the identified management tasks and the sub-tasks. Next, the legal and statutory foundations of participation are investigated, followed by a proposal of participation structures which may be instituted in the school. A summary then concludes the chapter.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

As indicated previously (par. 2.1.2) the view taken in the present research is that participation of teachers occurs in management rather than in decision making per se. This view is based on the management task-area model (cf. Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:41-56). In order to understand what school management entails and so understand what teachers should participate and be involved in, a brief discussion of the management task-area model appears necessary.

The management task-area model conceptualises management as the application of management tasks on a specific area or domain within the school (Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:41-42). The management tasks consist of regulative actions which are identified, inter alia, by Van der Westhuizen (1995a:42), Turney (1992a:100-101) and Kroon, 1990:6) as: planning, organising, communicating, leading (guiding) and controlling.

The application of management tasks is a specific kind of activity in education which, ordinarily, is carried out by the principal due to his unique role in the organisation of the school (Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:50).

The functioning of a school consists of a clear division but not separation between managing work and operating work in that management activity is a prerequisite for effective education (Mentz & Van der Westhuizen, 1992:26; 33; 38-39). This implies that the areas of managing and teaching work (operational work) function in a specific relation to each other. As a teacher is promoted, his/her management duties and responsibilities increase proportionally as the teaching work decreases (Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:52).

In practice, managing work is carried out by the Governing Body[1] with the principal, as member of this body, being responsible for the day-to-day execution of duties. Among the duties falling within the purview of the Governing Body the following may briefly be mentioned (cf. DET, 1991:chap. 31:4; Jonker, 1994:25-29; DE, 1996:18):

* Keeping a watchful eye over the functioning of the school;
* advising the principal on the drafting of the school policy;
* control of buildings, grounds, fences and other accessories of the school;
* appointment, promotion and discharge of teachers and other school personnel;
* control of school funds;
* disciplinary matters regarding students and staff.

In managing the school the principal has to perform the following duties and incidentally he/she may not delegate these duties according to the DET Manual for Secondary School (1991:chap. 21:18):

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1 "Governing Body" is used generally to denote all bodies charged with overall school governance. Latter day terms include Parent Teacher Association (PTA), Parent Teacher Student Association (PTSA) and Management Council.

- planning and integration;
- delegation of duties to staff members;
- contact with Departmental officials such as the District Director and Circuit Managers;
- Year planning;
- keeping of punishment register;
- teacher evaluations.

Besides the fact that the allocation of the above duties rests on the division of managing work and teaching, it may also be said that such duties require a high degree of managerial responsibility and authority which makes delegation difficult (Oosthuizen, 1994:128).

Needless to say, the above argumentation implies that teachers do not, as a rule, perform such school-wide managerial duties. Teachers are directly involved and chiefly concerned with the management of pupils' activities with regard to academic, physical and social aspects of the school life (Prinsloo & Van Rooyen, 1995:356). Naturally, these activities fall within the teachers' authority sphere vis-à-vis pupils (cf. De Wee, 1994:12).

Consequently, teacher participation means the involvement of teachers in the management tasks which are traditionally performed by the principal and the Governing Body (cf. par. 2.1.3). As Walker and Roder (1993:160) succinctly put it, "School-based management is a management system where persons not historically involved in the decision making process are allowed to participate in the management of their school"

Research, as reviewed by Rice and Schneider (1994:446), indicates that teachers report decision deprivation in managerial rather than in operational issues. Thus, the question which assumes greater significance concerns how and to what extent and level should teachers be involved in the management tasks (cf. par. 2.3.4, 2.3.5). This chapter attempts to answer these questions more specifically by indicating

how teachers can and should be involved in each management task and its subtasks

According to the management task-area model, the principal executes management tasks in order to regulate domains or areas within the school. These domains or areas are as follows (Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:49):

- **Staff affairs:** e.g. recruitment, appointment, inservice training evaluation.
- **Pupil affairs**: e.g. extra-curricular activities, selection and training of pupil leaders.
- **Curriculum and teaching affairs**: e.g. selection of textbooks, teaching methods, syllabi
- **Physical facilities**: e.g. buildings, grounds, furniture.
- **Financial affairs**: e.g. budget, fundraising.
- **School and community relations**: e.g. parent involvement.

For purposes of integrating the management tasks and the specific duties performed by the principal in the various domains, it appears possible to couple certain duties to certain management tasks. Thus, for example, planning would include, inter alia, (cf. Russell et al., 1992; Ferrara, 1993):

- setting goals and objectives;
- drawing a school's year plan;
- formulating the school policy;
- setting conduct rules for teachers and pupils;
- budgeting.

The same procedure may be followed with regard to organising, leading and controlling. The following examples illustrate the line of the above argument:

- organising: e.g. recruitment and appointment of teachers;
- leading: e.g. inservice training;
- controlling: e.g. school review.

The above imply the use of management tasks as an overarching construct for classifying managerial duties instead of using domains for this purpose.

The utilisation of management tasks as a conceptual framework for analysing teacher participation is also consistent with research in the RSA (cf. Celliers, 1988; Moffat, 1991; Dreyer, 1989; Mataboge, 1993). This will make it possible, therefore, to compare research results in participative decision making as well as in participative management.

In the ensuing paragraphs, teacher participation in each management task will receive attention.

3.3 TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TASKS

3.3.1 Participation in planning

Planning is a future-orientated activity aimed at drawing a blueprint about what is to be done in an organisation (Kroon & Van Zyl, 1990:125-126). The planning activity then establishes the purpose of an organisation and sets parameters within which action is going to take place. Planning involves a number of sub tasks in which teachers may participate, viz., visioning and formulation of school mission, goal setting, policy making, designing plans, problem solving and decision making (Van der Westhuizen 1995a:45; Smith & Turney, 1992:112).

3.3.1.1 Visioning and formulating the school mission

Visioning and the formulation of the school mission fall within the purview of the principal and the senior management team (Kroon, 1990:172). However, teachers should be given the opportunity to develop and interpret the original vision of the top management (Smith & Turney, 1992:133). According to Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:94-95) an organisation using total quality management will ensure

sustainable, steep slope improvement in performance by involving teachers in the development of the school vision by using the following steps

- **Vision talk**: The principal conscientises the staff, students and parents about the importance and the need of the vision.

- **Vision words**: The principal requests each staff member to write down his own image of what the school ought to be.

- **Vision images**: The staff is then divided into groups to select, aggregate or eliminate words generated in the previous step.

- **Obtaining values**: The staff is requested to describe the values underpinning their images of what the school ought to be

- **Proposal of a mission statement**: From the vision images and value statement the senior management team proposes a mission statement which is further amended and improved by the staff

- **Finalising the vision and mission**: The management team finalises the mission statement with due consideration of teachers' views and then every staff member is required to approve and accept the final mission by signing it.

The above procedure is important in that it ensures the commitment of teachers to the school mission, provides ownership of the school mission and ensures that every teacher knows what the school wishes to achieve. It should be noted, however, that senior management plays a major role in this practice. This is consistent with the views expressed earlier (cf. par. 2.2.7.3; 2.3.1).

Another useful procedure for informing a school mission is the SWOT-analysis, an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. It is used mainly to carve a niche for the school in the overall provisioning of education.

A brief review of the procedure is in order (Kroon, 1990:175; Bartol & Martin, 1991:46; Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993:40-43):

- **Strengths**: This refers to characteristics which can improve the school, for example, supportive community, highly qualified teachers and adequate resources.

- **Weaknesses**: These are characteristics which may impair school effectiveness, for example, lack of qualified teachers in Mathematics and Science.

- **Opportunity**: This is a condition that offers prospects which the school may fulfil, for example, the need for qualified personnel in Accounting and Business Economics in the business sector.

- **Threat**: A threat is a condition which may undermine the school mission, for example, an unstable political environment.

Needless to say, a SWOT-analysis should involve consultations between teachers, industry and parents. More importantly, it requires an objective introspection by each member of staff accompanied by resolutions for improvement. In this way, the school mission will receive a further boost as a step forward rather than serving the purposes of mere "maintenance and repair" to school activities.

3.3.1.2 Policy making

The formulation of a school policy and the setting of rules and procedures to implement it, provides the basis of operationalising the school mission. The development of a school policy and its rules and procedures occurs within the broad guidelines of political and educational policy making (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:151). The principal and Governing Body use these general guidelines to shape policies, rules and procedures which will take into account the unique character of their school.

Education policy making has been a matter of great contestation in the education for Blacks (Mosoge, 1989:18; Van der Westhuizen et. al., 1991:32). Teachers unequivocally demanded participation in educational planning and in the setting of standards with regard to written work, and tests, teacher evaluations as well as conduct rules for teachers (cf. DET, 1990:6-7). It is clear that while some of these

demands relate to national education policy making, most concern policies at school level.

Due to the dynamic and changing nature of policy making (Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:151) and its political character, it becomes necessary to amend existing school policies from time to time. This is where teacher participation is called for. The school and staff should choose a task force to evaluate the school policy, undertake research to gather information on policies and make recommendations to the staff. The task force should understand that its proposals must respect the parameters of national education policy. Staff inputs should then be incorporated into the final school policy and the resultant classroom policies.

The involvement of teachers in setting rules for themselves and the pupils ensures that teachers will be committed to obeying these rules and also enforce rules pertaining to pupils (Smith & Turney, 1992:135). A well formulated school policy sustains participation because it facilitates day-to-day decision making and makes delegation of duties and authority possible (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:152).

3.3.1.3 Setting goals and objectives

Goals and objectives also serve to operationalise the school mission by clearly describing what the school wants to achieve in the long and short term respectively (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:144). The selection of goals and objectives is a contested matter because people rarely share the same views about the purposes of the school. Research (Perry et al., 1994:607; Ferrara & Repa, 1993:71) indicates that teachers are less involved and desire greater participation in the area of setting the mission, goals and objectives of the school.

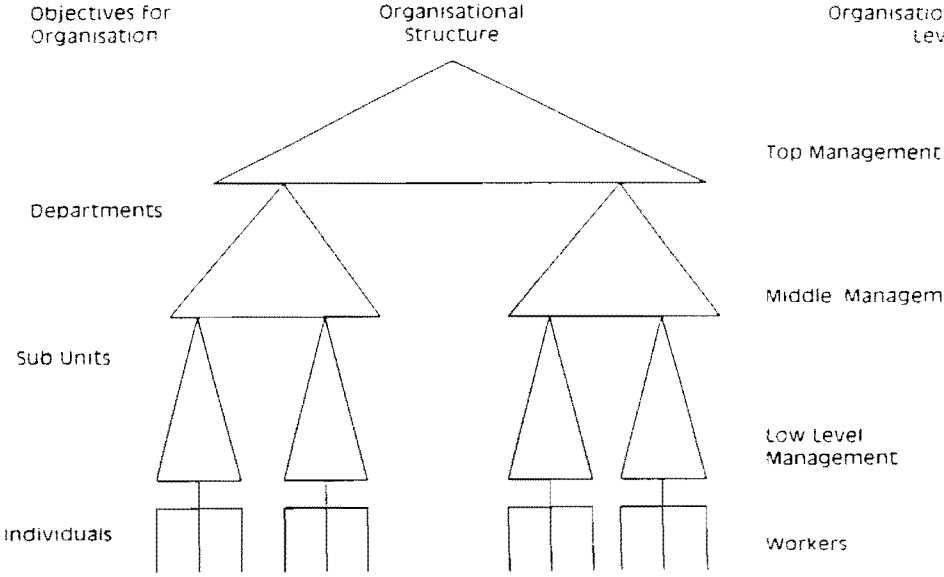
Two methods may be utilised to gain teacher participation in setting objectives and goals, viz., management by objectives (MBO) and strategic planning.

Management by objectives is a method of managing the school by setting annual objectives for each teacher and each team within the school (Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993:130). It may follow either a top down or bottom up approach. In a top down approach objectives are set by top management and then cascaded

through every subunit down to every individual in the school (Bartol & Martin, 1991:180). Such a network of interlocking objectives may be represented as follows.

FIGURE 3.1

MBO AS A NETWORK OF OBJECTIVES (Kroon, 1990:154)



The effect of this method is that the various departments set their objectives within the overarching objectives set by the top management. The various subunits, e.g., Std. 7 history teachers, set specific objectives for the subunit and then the teacher sets his objectives congruent with the subunits' objectives.

In a bottom approach, the action of setting objectives starts with the teacher whose objectives are then incorporated in each succeeding upper level until objectives are set for the whole school (Bartol & Martin, 1991:180). In this way, each

teacher contributes to the overall objectives of the school. The MBO approach makes it possible for the individual teacher to take part in his own evaluation as well by determining whether his has met, not met or exceeded his objectives.

Although Certo (1983:67) argues that most managers think the advantages of MBO outweigh its disadvantages, it appears to be ineffective in practice as a way of achieving participation. Its major problem lies therein that in most cases goals are set for the staff member and, is thus manager-driven instead of the other way round (Van der Westhuizen & Theron, 1994:71).

Unlike MBO, **strategic planning** involves the setting of goals covering a period of three years or longer on every aspect of the organisation (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:140). According to Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:138-137), who speak of Hoshin planning, strategic planning aims at turning a low performing organisation around by setting outrageous goals, which, by definition, appear unattainable. For example, in applying Hoshin planning, a school which has a history of low academic results, may set a goal of attaining an 80% pass rate within three years.

The involvement of all members is a prerequisite for the success of strategic planning. Thus teamwork, especially in the form of semi-autonomous teams, is an essential component of participation in strategic planning. The following steps may be followed in enhancing teacher participation (cf. Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993:135-137):

- Each team in the school suggests and evaluates alternative ways of improving performance.
- Team meetings are followed by a staff meeting in which the entire staff evaluates ideas from various teams. Amendments, rejections and additions are made to the ideas from the teams.
- The management team (principal, HOD's and teachers) then refine accepted ideas and declare the outrageous goals without allowing further discussion
- Each team decides on how best to attain the declared goals.

* Performance is monitored on a monthly basis by progress reports and display of progress from each team.

Flowing from the above discussion it is clear that strategic planning is a dynamic approach to goal-setting. It is a comprehensive method of appraising an organisation with a view of enabling it to cope with a rapidly changing environment (Kroon, 1990:169). This makes strategic planning even more relevant as a management strategy in the transformation towards democracy which is currently sweeping the RSA. Specifically, its relevance is accentuated by the recent turmoil in schools which has resulted in the divergence between individual and school goals.

Strategic planning establishes a psychological contract between manager and subordinate in that joint goals are set for the organisation and for each staff member and that both commit themselves to these goals (Van der Westhuizen & Theron, 1994:71; Cavanaugh & Yoder, 1984:93-94). In this way, it brings about a clear understanding and commitment regarding expectations by forging harmony between personal goals and the organisational goals.

Covey (1991:190-194) suggests five steps in establishing a win-win agreement contained in a psychological contract and most of these steps are satisfied by strategic planning; thus:

* **Specify desired results:** Outrageous goals are set collaboratively by the teams in the school.

* **Set some guidelines:** Each team decides how it will achieve goals and thus team members are allowed to exercise own initiative and good judgement within the general school policy.

* **Identify available resources:** The school's management team serves as the main human resource that can be used by teams, however, the management team also provides financial, structural and technical resources.

- **Define accountability:** Since teachers participate in setting standards of performance, they are more likely to ensure that they get desired results. Reporting procedures, time and frequency of reports, and evaluation by all teams enhances accountability.

- **Define consequences:** The management team plays a major role in implementing strategic planning and, within bounds of the school policy, specifies consequences for achieving or not achieving desired results. This, however, must specify both positive and negative consequences.

It may be concluded, then, that strategic planning represents a comprehensive method of involving teachers in all aspects of planning. In practice, strategic planning does not focus only on setting goals and objectives but also on visioning and formulating the school mission, policy making, problem solving, designing plans and allocating resources as well as controlling.

3.3.1.4 Designing plans and allocating resources

The designing of a comprehensive year plan of school activities to attain the stated school objectives and goals falls within the purview of the principal (par. 3.3). The teachers may work out part plans for their respective departments in accordance with their own objectives which, of course, reflect the school mission. The principal and team leaders will then incorporate these part plans into a total plan for the school (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:149). The major task of the principal and such a planning team should be to prune the part plans in order to avoid overloading and to clear confusion and opposition (Smith & Turney, 1992:137).

The designing of a total plan also involves budgetary requests and allocation of resources. Due to scarcity of funds and resources, conflicts are bound to arise especially where participation is minimal or absent (cf. Mosoge, 1989:17). As indicated previously (cf. par. 3.2) control of school funds is a task performed by the Governing Body where teachers are excluded. Recent events at predominantly black schools indicate that allocation of funds is a source of intense conflict between principals, teachers and students to the extent that teachers agitated for the scrapping of school funds, while students in some schools retracted funds that

they had paid (cf. DET, 1990:8). Research (Rice & Schneider, 1994:51; Ferrara & Repa, 1993:71) also show that teachers report deprivation in financial matters. Participation is, therefore necessary to mediate such conflicts.

Part plans from various departments and teams should also include budgetary requirements and requests for resources necessary to achieve objectives. Each department should conduct a needs assessment, prioritise its needs and specify projected expenditure. Such requests, for example, from school funds, are done by teachers but are finally coordinated by the principal and Heads of Departments (Niemann, 1995:399). Teachers should, however, be given feedback on the final allocations so that they may understand why a specific amount of money or specific item was allocated and how their allocation fits in with the rest (Bowman, 1986:5).

3.3.1.5 Decision making

Decision making is used in this research as a management task in its own right, as an aspect of planning (cf. par. 2.1.2). It may be defined as the making of choice between several alternatives in order to take the most suitable action either to resolve a problem, or handle a situation (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:152).

Decision making is often thought of as a process consisting of several steps and thus as a conscious and deliberate action (Laws et al., 1992:69; Daft, 1991:189; Hoy & Miskel, 1991:300; Certo, 1983:109). Given this view, there exists stages where participation of those affected by the decision is required and in which the decision could benefit from such participation (Rizvi, 1990:4). Four major ways of arriving at a decision may be cited (Mosoge, 1993:21; Hoy & Tarter, 1993:9; Wood, 1984:61):

- **Consensus decision making:** The administrator involves participants who must all agree to the decision. Where such total agreement is impossible, and this is more often the case, consensus is reached when everyone supports the decision though not agreeing with it (cf. also par. 2.2.5.3)

- **Parliamentary decision making:** Decisions are made on the basis of majority support. This is clearly a win-lose situation.

- **Advisory decision making:** Participants, individually or in group form, make inputs to a decision whereupon the administrator arrives at a decision that may or may not reflect participants' inputs.

- **Unilateral decision making:** The administrator makes the decision without consulting or involving staff at all. This, according to Rizvi (1990:3) occurs rarely, if at all, because the administrator does not make decisions in a vacuum.

According to Short (1994a:489) teachers express dismay and frustration over their inability to influence decisions especially in a situation where the principal seeks their opinions but goes on to make a final decision rather than allowing them that opportunity. This seems to mean that consensus decision making whereby a group arrives together at a decision without reference to the relative positions of the participants, is the preferred mode of decision making among teachers

The above is not to deny that some decisions may be taken autocratically, e.g., snap decisions in a contingency situation, or that experts and those vested with the necessary authority must only rubber stamp decisions of the masses, where such expertise and authority are required.

The above argumentation appears to imply that a decision must be balanced in terms of technical correctness, legitimacy and satisfaction. This is particularly important in educational settings where decisions are often a source of dissatisfaction among various interests groups and the professional corps. For this reason, participation by a wide ranging spectrum of people including parents, students and teachers seems to be a logical way of arriving at efficient decisions in schools (cf. par. 2.5.1)..

To achieve teacher participation and so unleash creativity and obtain consensus on decisions, the principal and team leaders may utilise the following methods of

group decision making (Prinsloo, n.d.:71-73; Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:155; Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993:159-187; Gibson et al., 1994:620-623).

* **Brainstorming:**

This technique utilises a group of 6-12 people for the generation of ideas around a problem or situation. It promotes participation in that each member is allowed to mention his/her idea, whether good or outlandish, without criticism. Each idea is then discussed by the group without identifying it with any particular group member. Thus every individual takes part freely, his inhibitions in a face-to-face situation having being silenced. No one becomes a free rider.

* **Gordon technique**

The Gordon technique is also a group orientated technique but it elicits more participation in that group members are given only cues about the problem at hand. They are then free to let their minds wander in search of a more precise explanation of the problem and alternative solutions. Generally, the Gordon technique produces more alternatives than brainstorming.

* **Nominal group technique (NGT)**

In the nominal group technique participants first write down their ideas privately. This encourages members to take part and contribute their best thinking. Even those who are not good speakers feel encouraged to write down their ideas. Each member then presents one idea at a time and it is recorded on a flip chart in full view of the entire group. The process is repeated several times until each member indicates that his ideas are exhausted.

At this stage discussion on each idea begins and each member must indicate his support or disagreement on the ideas presented. At the end of discussions each member votes in secret, ranking all ideas. The items are then prioritised mathematically according the degree of support indicated

by votes. Thus, the nominal group technique succeeds in eliciting the participation of each group member.

- **Delphi technique**:

  Unlike in the previous techniques, group members in the Delphi technique do not know each other, never meet and are physically distant from one another. Participants respond to a questionnaire prepared by a monitoring staff. Once responses are acquired, the monitoring staff identify points of agreement and disagreement. This is given back to respondents with another questionnaire. The process is repeated several times until consensus is reached.

  The importance of this technique for participation is that members are unencumbered by face-to-face meetings, respond anonymously and have enough time to think issues through and thus their participation becomes genuine.

3.3.1.6 Problem solving

Problems arise in schools as they do in any other organisation. Effective functioning of a school depends on the degree to which problems are identified and solved before they reach epidemic proportions (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:159). In schools which have, in the recent past, being faced with problems as catalogued by Merboldt (1990:2), rehabilitation programmes to restore a culture of learning and teaching should involve teachers as people who, in the final analysis, must implement such programmes.

According to Mataboge (1993:84-85) quality circles present the most viable approach to the involvement of teachers in solving rampant school problems. The quality circle members meet at least once a week to identify, analyse and solve problems related to a specific field. Short (1994a:489) believes that participating teachers assume the role of problem finder and problem solver and are consequently more inclined to take ownership of problems and to find solutions than non-participating ones.

Consequently quality circles encourage teachers to take the initiative in problem solving. Management only comes in to consider the solutions suggested by circle members, accept or reject proposals and to give direction concerning the implementation of accepted solutions. Quality circles, therefore, adopt a bottom up approach which is effective in enhancing participation.

A quality circle is of such vital importance to participation that it receives further attention as a participative structure later (cf. par. 3.5.1.2).

3.3.2 Participation in organising

Organising is an activity whereby people, resources and time are arranged so as to accomplish organisational objectives (Laws, 1992:182). This involves allotting duties and attendant responsibility as well as authority to persons in the organisation (Van der Westhuizen 1995b:162). In executing the various subtasks of organising, the principal should adopt specific methods of involving teachers by:

- creating an organisational structure that allows for maximum participation;
- delegating duties to involve teachers;
- involving teachers in coordinating school activities.

Teacher participation in organising will now be discussed according to the above guidelines.

3.3.2.1 Creating an organisational structure

The creation of an organisational structure involves the recruitment, appointment and promotion of people and the specification of authority positions in a school. Very few principals have the opportunity of creating a new organisational structure because positions in a school are specified by the Education Department (Laws, 1992:188). Moreover, with the exception of new schools, a newly-appointed principal finds a staff already in place.

As has been indicated (cf. par. 3.3) staff recruitment, appointment and promotion is the duty of the Governing Body and the principal, although, of course, final decisions rest with the Education Department (Bondesio & De Witt, 1995:243). Teachers have in the past voiced their dissatisfaction with appointments, expressing the view that favouritism and privilege were used as criteria for appointments (DET, 1990:4). Consequently, the new dispensation in the Gauteng Department of Education requires the inclusion of teachers as observers in interviews for appointments (GDE, 1995b:7).

The principal may, however, involve staff members in more direct ways in the recruitment and selection of appropriate candidates. Teachers are ideally suited for such participation due to their specialised knowledge of their peers, former classmates, pupils and acquaintances. Thus, they may encourage prospective candidates to apply and provide additional information not obtainable through the interview on the understanding that final appointments rest with the relevant authorities (Free, 1982:214).

In his management the principal should create an organisational structure which is consistent with participative management. A matrix organisational structure appears appropriate for encouraging teachers to participate in management activities. Such a structure combines the school's line organisation with aspects of a functional organisation (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:168). It is a structure whereby teachers are appointed as leaders for coordinating and planning certain tasks which are then carried out by the functional head.

Through the use of the matrix structure the span of control of the principal and Heads of Department is considerably reduced so that effective control results. As the top management, the principal and Heads of Department concentrate on coordinating the work of various teacher groups. The use of the matrix organisation encourages teachers to exercise their initiative in the attainment of the school mission and policies.

3.3.2.2 Delegating

A matrix structure implies delegating in that specific duties are allocated to teachers for execution. Bartol and Martin (1992:354) define delegating as "the

assignment of part of the manager's work to others (i.c. teachers) along with both responsibility and authority necessary to achieve expected results". Although the principal remains ultimately responsible for delegated tasks, the teacher is accountable for the satisfactory performance of the task assigned to him in accordance with set criteria and determined standards (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:173).

Delegating may rightfully be regarded as a way of achieving teacher participation in that teachers may participate in delegating duties and in the actual execution of these delegated duties (cf. par. 2.1.4). Allocating of subjects to teachers is one of the most significant aspects of delegation in a school because subject teaching is central to the performance of the school. Little wonder that principals are often reluctant to leave this duty entirely in the hands of teachers. Risk-taking, and experimentation, which are the hallmarks of participation, may place the whole school in jeopardy.

In contrast to allocation of subjects, assigning of teachers to committees, task forces and teams as a way of delegating functionally executed tasks and grouping of pupils for instructional purposes, appear to pose no problems to participation. Perry et al. (1994:607) concurs with Ferrara and Repa (1993:71) that teachers report that they do participate and wish to participate more in curriculum or teaching matters and in pupil personnel matters. Teachers also show very little desire to participate in matters relating to staff personnel.

The assigning of duties should be done in a way so that teachers are motivated and committed to execute tasks (Canter & Canter, 1992:49; Theron & Bothma, 1990:114). To achieve this objective, the principal should delegate duties with due respect to the teacher's interest and expertise. For this purpose, senior personnel, due to their closer contact with teachers may provide valuable information concerning the expertise and abilities of teachers (Laws, 1992:204).

Delegating may take place with the participation of teachers in a staff meeting. This will enable teachers to modify tasks assigned to them, to seek clarification of

duties, and to ask assistance from their peers. The principal must, however, state the duties in operational terms to clarify the action to be taken by the teacher (Certo, 1983:23-24). By accepting duties in the presence of his peers, the teacher is not likely to lower his self esteem through failure.

Duties may also be delegated on a one-to-one basis. The principal may consult teachers individually especially in assigning extracurricular duties because some teachers have commitments in this sphere with regard to the community. In this way, the principal will achieve an equitable workload and ensure that essential tasks are handled competently and effectively (Laws, 1992:205).

In conclusion to this aspect, it may be said that delegating exceeds consultation in maximising teacher participation, because it gives subordinates greater freedom and discretion in carrying out their duties (Hoy & Sousa, 1984:329). Delegating is a form of participation that is not overly prescriptive.

3.3.2.3 Co-ordinating

Dreyer (1989:42) correctly describes coordinating as a purposeful attempt to synchronise various school activities into a harmonious whole for the effective execution of school goals. Co-ordinating, therefore, unifies people, resources and procedures to function as a coherent whole in the service of the school goals and mission.

Co-ordinating takes on a special significance in participative settings. As mentioned earlier (par. 2.1.3), the involvement of the many stakeholders concerned with education requires the principal to exercise a high degree of co-ordination. Teachers may share in coordinating activities relating to teaching work. Thus, the more experienced teachers may coordinate the work of colleagues sharing the same subject, standard or grade.

The following ways of involving teachers in co-ordinating are derived from Van der Westhuizen (1995b:179-180):

* consulting staff on new and further developments so as to promote feelings of selfworth;

- involving teachers in setting guidelines, rules and procedures so that uniform conduct can be stimulated;

- holding regular meetings with the staff as a whole for exchange of ideas and problem solving to eliminate lowering of standards, promote a feeling of unity and provide common motivation;

- maintaining constant one-to-one dialogues to show that everyone's contribution is appreciated;

- giving regular feedback on performance to encourage cooperation during the execution of tasks.

Co-ordinating in a participative set up can be a powerful force to promote cooperation and collegiality among teachers. It serves also as a basis for the task of guiding which receives attention in the next section.

3.3.3 Participation in leading (guiding)

The foregoing discussion on the participation of teachers in organising and its various subtasks indicates that teachers will, at times, inevitably engage in directing, commanding, guiding and leading their colleagues. The task of leading is, thus, an action-orientated activity which aims at implementing the decisions taken during the planning and organising phases. It aims at ensuring that tasks are actually executed, completed and done well.

Leading comprises of several subtasks of which the following appear relevant to teacher participation (Dreyer, 1989:44-48): leadership, motivating and communicating. Each of these subtasks will now be elucidated.

3.3.3.1 Leadership

To manage a school effectively, the principal needs to be both manager and a leader. Merely executing the tasks of planning and organising does not transform a manager into a leader. Leadership is the ability of a person "to convince, inspire,

bind and direct the followers to realise common ideals" (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:187). As indicated earlier (cf. par. 2.3.2) leadership is important in participative relationships from the viewpoint of the leadership style that encourages, initiates and supports participation. It is also important in terms of allowing teachers to practice leadership.

In participative management teachers gain access to the bases of power enjoyed by principals through empowerment (cf. par. 2.1.3). Teachers harbour extraordinary capabilities of leadership which can only be fully utilised when they are empowered. Barth (1988:640) envisions a school as a community of leaders because he believes that every teacher is good at some important part of the life and work of a school. As recent research shows (Rice & Schneider, 1994; Ferrara & Repa, 1993; Perry et al., 1994) teachers participate most in pupil personnel and curriculum matters. This is probably because the authority position which they occupy vis-á-vis pupils enables them to exercise leadership in this area. To place teachers in leadership positions according to their interest and skill, appears to make more sense than crowding all leadership positions in the hands of Heads of Department.

To involve teachers as leaders in various aspects of school management especially in curriculum and instructional matters, the principal may utilise career ladders, the teacher centre and peer assistance methods. An explanation of each method follows.

Career ladders is a method of participation which is usually determined by an Education Department. It classifies teachers into defined levels which are tied to salary categories. The highest level is that of the "lead teacher", who, in addition to classroom teaching assumes various leadership positions (Conley et al., 1988:273), similarly to the H.O.D. and subject adviser system used in the RSA. The lead teacher, together with other teachers on the middle rung are charged with the duty of guiding the novitiates (Mertens & Yarger, 1988:32).

While career ladders do allow some teachers to exercise leadership, the method appears to be limited to the extent that only about 20% of the teaching force usually share in leadership (Mertens & Yarger, 1988:32). Its major advantage lies

therein that teachers are empowered to exercise leadership in a formal, legitimate way. As such, career ladders overcome the problem of informal leaders who sometimes find it difficult to direct and command other teachers due to lack of delegated authority.

Unlike career ladders, the teacher centre program does not create more formal positions, but rather involves teachers in the planning, implementation and evaluation of in-service training efforts. Quite often inservice training is imposed from above without due regard to the teachers' individual needs (Mangieri & Kemper, 1983:26-27; Sharma, 1982:403) by enabling teachers to identify their own needs and the needs of their colleagues. It is also a centre for sharpening the principal's managerial skills in view of the fact that most principals have undergone very little training in management (Van der Westhuizen, 1995a:3).

The teacher centre also offers possibilities for the training of both teachers and principal in participation skills. It helps principals to explore various ways of involving teachers in school management while enabling teachers to participate effectively by increasing their understanding of what school management entails. Robinson and Barkeley (1992:13) assert that parents (and other stakeholders) cannot contribute effectively if they receive no training in consultation skills, conflict resolution and consensus building.

The teacher centre programme encourages participation in that it addresses concrete, specific problems experienced by teachers in their daily work. According to Mertens and Yarger (1988:36) the teacher centre approach allows teachers to demonstrate their abilities by acting as facilitators and thus, emerge as leaders who are able to command the respect of their colleagues as well as the respect of school administrators.

Following similar lines as the teacher centre program, peer assistance allows the younger and inexperienced teachers to grow professionally by learning from the more senior and experienced teachers. Its main aim is staff development though it is often used to supplement traditional evaluation systems (Smith & Scott, 1990.26). Peer assistance may particularly be an effective way of involving teachers in the induction of new teachers through subject meetings, staff meetings and during

school functions. The involvement of teachers in assisting their peers should be a continuous effort thereby institutionalising participation.

Through peer assistance teachers stop functioning in isolation and start guiding each other especially those sharing a subject or standard. Short (1994a:491) believes that feedback from colleagues increases the teacher's sense of having an impact. Goodlad (1983:553) maintains that teachers respond eagerly to alternative teaching methods where they are given support, encouragement, guidance and protection. As the teacher's confidence in his teaching abilities grow, he is better able to guide students in their academic work.

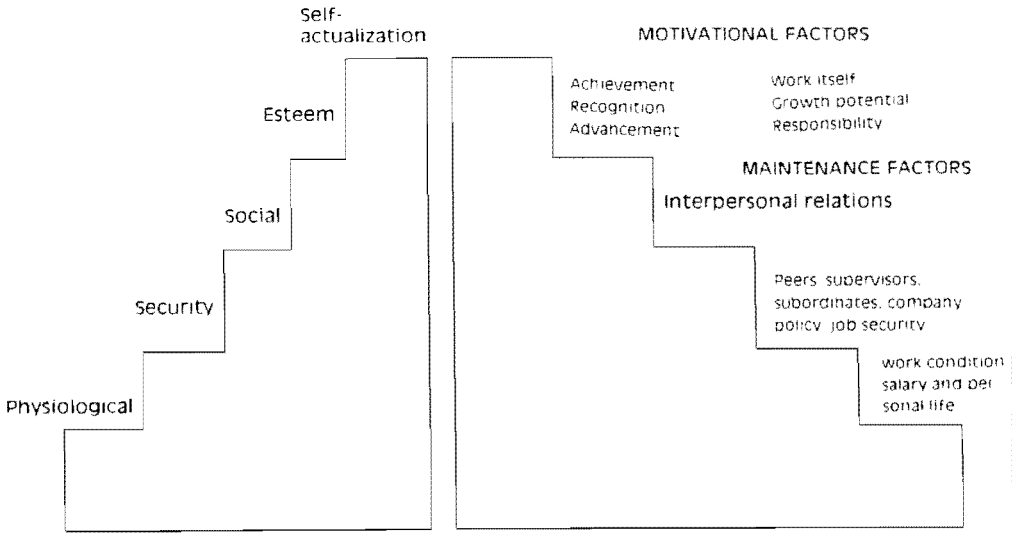
3.3.3.2 Motivating

Hatton and Sinclair (1992:210) view motivating as an attempt "to energise, direct and sustain high levels of the performance of individuals and groups in their spheres of responsibility". Motivating counteracts inertia and laxity by prompting teachers into action, arousing their enthusiasm and encouraging them to persevere in pursuing school goals and objectives.

The principal and teachers to whom authority is delegated must recognise that motivation is an internal factor which emanates from satisfaction of the needs of an individual. According to Maslow's theory of hierarchical needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory, human needs may be depicted as follows (Donnelly et al., 1992:319):

FIGURE 3.2

MASLOW AND HERZBERG'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS (Donnelly et al., 1992:319)



Without delving deep into the above theories and in order to be inclusive of other theories usually found in the literature, it may be said that participation tends to satisfy higher order needs. Participation satisfies the needs for belonging, affiliation, recognition and self actualisation. By allowing teachers to participate the principal acknowledges the teachers' competence thereby satisfying their need for self respect. Van der Westhuizen (1995b:204) is convinced that when staff have a say in the management of the school, motivation is enhanced and, in turn, participation is sustained.

While participation is a source of motivation for many teachers, teachers may also be utilised to motivate their colleagues. It is arguably during times of crises that certain teachers emerge as extraordinary leaders capable of motivating their colleagues to great acts of courage. When morale is running low, some teachers may be a source of motivation through their dedication, determination and courage.

Another way of boosting teacher morale is by inviting an expert from outside to motivate teachers. In a staff meeting a task force may be selected to choose the expert and arrange a suitable venue, preferably outside the school premises. By involving teachers in this way not only is participation ensured but also the likelihood of teachers accepting the motivational talk is greatly enhanced.

3.3.3.3 Communicating

The subtask of communicating forms the most important linking pin in all management activities. So important is this subtask that Laws and Smith, (1992:147) consider it to be the basis of successful management in effective schools. The opening of communication channels achieves horizontal integration in structuring relationships among teachers, and between the school and the community (Van Rooyen, 1984:150). Communicating basically consists of sending messages through various media to the receiver. In a school communicating occurs between the principal, teachers and pupils as well as outside bodies. It occurs, then, upward, downward and horizontally (Laws & Smith, 1992:147).

Teachers may play an active role in communicating school goals and mission to pupils, parents and outside bodies. This will considerably increase the number of receivers and also serve to articulate the school mission and goals in an effective manner. Additionally, teachers will develop a clearer understanding and a love for the school mission as they spread it among interested parties. In view of this, limiting contact with outside bodies (cf. par. 3.2) to the principal, is as surprising as it is counter productive. The demand that teachers should not be expected to divorce themselves from the plight of their communities and politics (DET, 1990:8), might have been prompted by such prescriptions.

The principal should, therefore, never hesitate to involve teachers in addressing parents on a variety of topics concerning the school on occasions such as parents' meetings and evenings. Teachers may also be involved in suggesting matters to be addressed in newsletters, school magazines and individual school reports of pupils.

Barnard (1995:430) contends that regular and effective two-way communication between teachers and parents is necessary for purposes of mutual exchange of information regarding the child. Teachers are in a better position to supply such

information due to their daily contact with the pupils. Additionally teachers may expand the interface between the community and the school, supplying the principal with relevant information concerning the perceptions of the community about the school's image. Such information may then serve as an impetus for school improvement efforts.

3.3.4 Participation in controlling

Controlling provides continual feedback on performance. It determines whether the other management tasks are performed well, whether individuals carry out planned activities and whether the organisation attains its envisaged results (Certo, 1983:414; Turney, 1992b:242). Where strengths are detected, they are fortified, and where weaknesses are found, corrective action is instituted.

The above shows that controlling is a positive action. Nonetheless, in some parts of the education system in the RSA it has been the centre of intense controversy. This resulted in the virtual banning of inspectors and subject advisors from entering school premises and debarring of principals from conducting class visits in some areas. These actions, while forming part of the so-called defiance campaign against the illegitimate apartheid education, are indicative of the teachers' dissatisfaction towards supervisor arbitrariness, abuse of power, incompetence and rampant harassment (ANC, 1994:52).

It also appears that the controversy centred around lack of participation among Black teachers, whereas the experience of White teachers, through the Federal Teachers Council (TFC) has been characterised by negotiation, consultation and participation (ANC, 1994:54). Hence recent initiatives in teacher evaluations in the Gauteng Department of Education (cf. GDE, 1994) have engaged teacher organisations in the determination of evaluation criteria. The major aim of these proposals is to institute formative instead of summative evaluation and "whole school reviews" as against acontextual appraisal of individual teachers (ANC, 1994:55).

From the above it transpires that controlling consists of two major aspects, viz., evaluation of individual performance and evaluation of the school as a whole. In terms of participation it seems self evaluation, management by exception and peer

assistance are relevant activities for evaluating individuals' performance while management by wandering about and the management audit may be used in appraising the performance of the organisation as a whole. These activities are discussed forthwith.

3.3.4.1 Self evaluation

Self evaluation occurs when the teacher himself rates his own performance according to a set of criteria listed in a rating form. In some cases the teacher evaluates himself independently, in others he invites the principal to evaluate him, while still in others, the principal involves the teacher in evaluation (Donnelly et al., 1992:472).

Blecke (1982:17) recommends the initiative style of evaluation in which the teacher himself decides what must be done towards his improvement. This style appears to be suitable for the truly professional teacher who will be self analytical and seek to improve for the sake of doing a good job. While it may be said that self evaluation reduces hostility between superiors and subordinates, improves the employees' understanding of job performance and enhances commitment, (Donnelly et al., 1992:472), it tends to overrate the teachers' performance. Bartol and Martin (1991:602) cites an example where performance did not improve when card operators developed their own standards and measured their own performance. Contrary to this view and to the preponderance of research findings, Nhundu's (1992:39) findings indicate that self appraisals tend to correspond to those of counter-position appraisals. In view of this, it may be suggested that teacher participation should be limited to setting standards together with the principal to achieve realistic standards. However, evaluation must be done by a person in an authority position. Nhundu (1992:33) found that self evaluation becomes objective when:

- self appraisal data is used for counselling, research and staff development rather than for promotion, retention and firing;
- the school is characterised by collegial relationships;
- participants are familiar with the meaning of concepts to be measured.

Supervisor appraisals which are normally conducted by principals, inspectors, and subject advisors (Nhundu, 1992:29) in the form of class visits may also involve a degree of self-evaluation. According to Bondesio and De Witt (1995:270), the post class visit discussion provides an opportunity for the teacher and the principal to make recommendations together about measures to be instituted in aid of the teacher's improvement.

3.3.4.2 Management by exception/Monitoring

In this type of controlling subordinates report to their superiors only when performance significantly deviates from set standards (Bartol & Martin, 1991:603). Decidedly, management by exception saves the principal a lot of time because only matters needing managerial action are brought to his attention. However, like in self evaluation, teachers may be reluctant to expose their mistakes and so open themselves to drastic disciplinary action or criticism. Once more, authoritative intervention appears to be necessary.

3.3.4.3 Peer evaluation and assistance

In peer evaluation and assistance teachers participate in controlling by observing and evaluating the job performance of their colleagues (Smith & Scott, 1990:26). Thus, teachers responsible for the same subject, grade or standard observe each other's teaching practices either by visiting the class or by watching a video tape of their colleague. In such circumstances experienced teachers stop functioning in isolation and begin to solve students' learning problems together with other teachers (Short, 1994a:488).

Although peer evaluation encourages the participation of teachers in their own development, observations and perceptions of teachers should be viewed circumspectly by the principal because antagonisms and conflicts may result especially if the teacher so observed is subsequently subjected to punishment. If utilised, the principal should create an atmosphere of trust and gain-sharing by determining reporting procedures and clarifying the purpose of the exercise prior to implementation. The principal, in this way, will remove the ideology of non-interference which, according to Conley et al. (1988:266), is upheld by teachers and makes peer observation unprofessional.

3.3.4.4 Management by wandering about

Management by wandering about (MBWA) is a controlling activity in which the principal leaves his office and spends more time consulting with teachers (Frase & Melton, 1992:17; Theron & Bothma, 1990:129). MBWA may, therefore, be seen as a type of supervision whereby the principal takes rounds in the school and observes the behaviour and attitudes of school members in order to ensure that school rules are obeyed (cf. Van der Westhuizen, et al., 1991:35). Teachers are also charged with supervisory duties from time to time to check on the conduct of pupils and to ensure safety of pupils (Raikane, 1992:11).

In this way, teachers supply valuable information about the functioning of the school concerning the attainment of objectives. MBWA effectively makes teachers a party to supervising in the school. However, Bartol and Martin (1991:539) warn that if such "wandering about" is done for purposes of finding mistakes and punish people, it will probably build mistrust and discourage participation.

3.3.4.5 Management audit or school review

The management audit or school review may be viewed as feedback control, postaction or output control, mentioned by Bartol and Martin (1991:608), because it occurs after work has been done. It is the evaluation of the overall performance of the school to determine areas which have been done well, to highlight those needing attention and to treat deep-seated problems (Mosoge, 1989 64).

It is standard practice in most schools for the principal to present a school review report to the parents either at a quarterly meeting of the Governing Body or at an annual parents' meeting. Invariably such a report contains little or no input from the teachers even though it is about their performance as a team. A review focussing on academic results, especially the Public Examinations results, is often given to teachers by the principal at the beginning of each year.

As the above practices indicate, teachers, as operators in the school, seldom or never make meaningful inputs into school reviews. However, this need not be so.

A school's review may occur in a school at the end of each quarter, semester or year in the form of reports from various area-specific committees, subject committees or departments. Teachers are involved in the drawing of the reports together with their team leader and table such reports in a general staff meeting It may also be possible for each team leader to present a report to parents at the end of each semester Discussion of the reports may assist in identifying weak points which should be eliminated and strong points which should be strengthened

Due to problems related to controlling in general, it appears, however, that teacher participation should be limited to reviews in their area-specific committees rather than in a general staff meeting. Reports may then be sent to a review committee consisting of team leaders, Heads of Department and the principal Otherwise, a school review may drive teachers into an uncooperative stand when faults are exposed and discussed. However, the following suggestions may yet lead to successful school reviews (Mosoge, 1989:64):

- The principal must prepare participants in advance.
- Participants must focus attention on issues and not persons because experience shows that some teachers have the propensity to hurt others instead of focusing on correcting past mistakes
- The review group would do well to focus on positive principles such as improvement of teaching and learning.

3.3.4.6 Conclusion

In concluding this aspect, it may be pointed out that teacher participation in controlling does not come as easily as it does in other management tasks. Van Rooyen (1984:162) asserts quite rightly that some duties, such as staff evaluation, cannot be delegated although the principal can still consult teachers before taking a final decision (see also par 3.2)

Control occurs within an authority-respect relationship between an authority-bearer and a subordinate. This implies that the evaluator must be a person in

authority and the evaluate, a subordinate. The involvement of teachers in controlling must, therefore, be limited to Heads of Department, senior teachers and those teachers who, due to special skills, command the respect of their peers.

3.3.5 Perspective

When forms of participation are examined, it is found that each one consists of enabling teachers to make significant contributions or to exercise a degree of influence in the regulative actions of planning, organising, leading and controlling with the aim of ensuring that teaching occurs in an orderly and ordered fashion. Furthermore, participative strategies focus on enhancing school effectiveness in terms of the efficiency and effectiveness of each teacher in his basic work of teaching. Consequently, the participative forms exhibit interwovenness with educative teaching.

Participation in the planning task, particularly through management by objectives and Hoshin planning, increases the teacher's understanding of his/her particular role in furthering the mission, goals and objectives of the school (cf. par. 3.3.1.2). The part-plans of teachers obviously specify how and when each aspect of the syllabus will be completed (cf. par. 3.3.1.4). Finally, the teacher's involvement in decision making and problem-solving is important in eradicating problems which may cause a breakdown in teaching and learning (cf. par. 3.3.1.5; 3.3.1.6)

An opportunity is granted to teachers to create structures which will, in their opinion, assist in bringing teaching to fruition, in the organising task (cf. par. 3.3.2.1), while participation in delegating enables teachers to select teaching assignment which match their particular skills and abilities (cf. par. 3.3.2.2). By assisting in coordinating, teachers are placed in a favourable position to ensure that their teaching efforts remain goal-directed (cf. par. 3.3.2.3).

It is probably in the leading task that participation finds its greatest link to educative teaching. Development of teaching skills and expansion of knowledge of the subject matter as well as management skills are the cornerstones of the teacher centre program, career ladders and peer assistance (cf. par. 3.3.3.1), while motivating sustains high levels of achievement in teaching (cf. par. 3.3.3.2) The exchange of information between parents and teachers regarding the child,

decidedly remedies learning problems which may lurk in the child as a result of a poor home background (cf. par. 3.3.3.3)

Professional growth of the teacher also finds expression in participating in the controlling task. Self-evaluation enables the teacher to identify strong and weak points in his hidden and unknown areas of his educational platform (cf. par. 3.3.4.1). Lastly, participation in the form of peer evaluation tends to develop and strengthen collegial relationships which, in turn, creates a far less threatening atmosphere to the whole task of evaluation (cf. par. 3.3.4.3)

3.4 STATUTORY PROVISIONS FOR TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

3.4.1 Background

Successful implementation of teacher participation hinges on the initiative of the principal and the directives of the Education Department (cf. par. 2.3.6) underpinned by relevant legislation from the government. It is common cause that legislation under the apartheid system in the RSA was not supportive of teacher participation (ANC, 1994:2). Only the white Teachers Federal Council was recognised as a statutory mouthpiece of the teaching profession (Barnard, 1995: 428). In recent years, however, the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and a host of teacher associations under the banner of NAPTOSA, in which blacks are included, were recognised but without the necessary legislation

The new ANC-led government, aiming at establishing a democratic South Africa which differs significantly from the apartheid system, has incorporated participatory democracy in the new Constitution (1993), the Education Labour Relations Act (1993) and in its draft proposals for Education and Training policy (1995, 1996). The ensuing discourse centres around these documents

3.4.2 Constitution of the RSA, 1993 (Act No. 200 of 1993)

The Constitution of 1993 ushers in a future based on a democratic order which is characterised by peaceful coexistence and development opportunities for all South Africans (Art. 251). It establishes a foundation for participation of citizenry in

various aspects of government. In this respect the following articles underpin participation:

- **Article 3 : Language**:

  Recognition of African languages as official languages alongside English and Afrikaans has the effect of encouraging even those who cannot speak the latter languages to participate with ease. Article 3(a)(d) provides for multilingualism and interpreting facilities to promote discussion along the same lines encountered at the United Nations.

- **Article 8 : Equality**:

  By outlawing discrimination on the grounds of, inter alia, race, colour, creed and sex, the Constitution allows for participation of all citizens.

- **Article 10 : Person's worth**:

  Read together with Art. 8, this article emphasises respect for any citizen as a person, an essential aspect for participation to occur.

- **Article 15 : Freedom of speech and Article 23 : Access to information**:

  Free expression of opinions and ideas and access to relevant information for better decision making are indispensable ingredients of participatory democracy.

Legislation based upon the above articles will eventually detail how citizens will participate in all aspects of government on the macro and micro levels (see also Art. 124-180). It may be concluded then, that the Constitution heralds an era of participatory democracy which must find expression in the education sphere as well.

3.4.3 Education Labour Relations Act (Act no. 146 of 1993)

The Education Labour Relations Act (Act No. 146 of 1993) provides for the ordering of relations between employer organisations and employee organisations. The Council for Labour Relations, in which these organisations represent their respective constituencies, is empowered to make agreements concerning

conditions of service and other matters of interest to the negotiating parties (Art. 12).

Agreements reached in the Council are then sent to the Minister for publication in the Government Gazette so as to render them binding to all other employers and employee organisations which were not party to the negotiations (Oosthuizen, 1994:131). Prior to final publication, however, the Minister must publish a preliminary notice in the Government Gazette to solicit objections from these other parties (Art. 12(b)(a)).

Apart from the fact that the Council essentially deals with collective bargaining and resolution of conflicts, it provides a channel for consultation between the education authorities and the organised teaching profession. Individual teachers may participate in educational matters via their respective employee organisations affiliated to the Council. This makes it important for a teacher to belong to a recognised teacher organisation in order to participate fully in educational matters (cf. also par. 2.2.7.4).

The Council is, however, a limited structure for participation because it entrenches the adversarial relationships between employees and employers. If participative management should succeed, a separate system should be established by separate legislation detailing representation from school level upwards in order to avoid misunderstandings and to achieve uniformity (Walker & Roder, 1993:172). Such a participatory system will then define how direct democracy should take place at school level (cf. par. 2.2.7.4).

3.4.4 White Paper on Education and Training (1995, 1996)

These documents represent policy guidelines by the Ministry of Education to implement the democratic principles contained in the new RSA constitution (cf par. 3.4.3) in education. At school level the White Papers aim at realising maximum democratic participation of all stakeholders as envisioned in the ANC-draft policy on education (ANC, 1994:22). Specifically, the Ministry of Education aims at creating democratic school governance, rehabilitating schools and raising the quality of performance (DE, 1995:67).

While provincial governments have the responsibility of running schools, they, nevertheless, do so within national policy regarding inter alia, standards by which schools should be governed. The Constitution not only retains the rights, powers and functions of existing governing bodies so long as they do not discriminate racially, but also provides for negotiations to change these powers. However, the Ministry reserves the right to change the powers of governance structures where negotiations fail, still giving an option to dissatisfied "interested persons or bodies" to challenge the validity of such alterations in a court of law (DE, 1995:67).

In the interim period towards a negotiated democratisation process of school governance, the Ministry proposes the formation of Local Education and Training Forums to oversee the transition process until legislation is enacted to establish permanent governance structures. The Ministry encourages education departments to lead but not dictate because change imposed in a top-down fashion will be disastrous (DE, 1995:69).

The ANC-policy document (ANC, 1994:26-27) proposed the establishment of an elected School Board consisting of parents, teachers, students and representatives of the wider community. The principal would serve on this body as an ex-officio member responsible for the management and administration of the school. The Board would serve mainly in a consultative and advisory capacity to the principal.

These bold proposals are somewhat changed in the White Paper probably due to the compromises resulting from negotiations in the Government of National Unity. The idea of the School Board is dropped, being replaced by the term "governing body" which describes any structure a school or provincial government may adopt. The composition of the governing body is, however, more refined than the earlier proposals which demanded the establishment of Parent Teacher Student Associations.

The composition of the governing body will be negotiated around the following elected representatives (DE, 1996:16):

- parents or guardians of learners currently enrolled at the school;

- teachers;
- learners (in secondary schools only);
- non-teaching staff;
- the principal (ex officio);
- members of the community (elected by the governing body).

The composition of the governing body retains the representivity of the PTSA, but differentiates between primary and secondary schools in terms of student participation. While governing structures in secondary schools are, in effect, PTSA's, those in the primary schools exclude students or learners as the White Paper prefers to call them (DE, 1995:70).

The duties and functions of governing bodies are more clearly spelled out in White Paper II (1996) than in White Paper I (1995). It is proposed that each governing body will select its duties from a menu including, broad policy, personnel, admissions, curriculum, finance, maintenance of buildings, communication and community services (DE, 1996.18-19).

Governing bodies should be given adequate decisions making powers to enable them to render effective service. Clearly, devolution of powers to governing bodies requires stakeholders to understand school governance and management, negotiating skills, effective communication and democratic leadership. Some of the governing body members will be performing new roles for the first time To this end, a capacity-building programme of training should accompany the allocation of duties (DE, 1996:24-25; cf. also par. 3.3.3.1).

In the opinion of the researcher, based on his experience with Parent Teacher Student Associations, participation may falter in the area of allocating duties and competencies to respective stakeholders. Unless such duties are clearly stated in legislation, exclusion of a stakeholder group may lead to the total withdrawal by that group from further participation. Goldman (1992:15) points out that without policy and regulations principals will never be sure whether participation is a passing fancy or an accepted mode of leadership.

Additionally, ethical and legal problems which may arise include the following (cf. Walker & Roder, 1993:167-172; Lifton, 1992:16-18):

- Will the teachers and union members vote for the lay off of teachers even if it made good business and education sense?
- Will teachers be willing to assume management responsibilities without additional financial rewards?
- Will teachers be financially liable and responsible for negligence while acting as managing agents?
- How will confidentiality of teachers' personal files be maintained in the face of changing membership of participatory structures?
- Will parents who do not have children in the schools be given an equal vote to those who have children in the school? Will the parents who do not have children at school also pay school funds?

In addition the researcher found teachers to be unwilling to take disciplinary measures against their colleagues and most unwilling to allow students to deal with teacher misconduct. If the principal has veto power, how can he prevent teachers' mass action where their suggestions are unacceptable?

The above questions must form the basis for negotiating the duties of the Governing Body otherwise members may find themselves faced with litigation and conflicts.

3.4.5 Viewpoint

Participation in school management is, in the first place, a legal matter. To answer ethical and legal questions raised above (cf. par. 3.4.3) necessitates the passing of legislation and regulations which support the democratic values on which the Constitution (1983) is based. A balance must be achieved between the rights and responsibilities of the principal, teachers, parents and pupils for participation to

succeed. Otherwise, schools will forever be torn between the authoritarian modes of the past and the participatory mode of the present.

Since participation is, in the second place, an attitudinal matter, passing legislation on participation is not enough to ensure its success. Undoubtedly authoritarian modes and individualistic approaches to management are entrenched behaviour patterns in the present-day RSA communities. Thus, to change this mind-set requires more than the prevailing political rhetoric. It requires the institution of strategies that will change the attitudes of principals, pupils and parents toward school management in order that they may accommodate democracy in their value structure (par. 2.3.3). This, in turn, requires time, effort and patience.

3.5 PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES IN THE SCHOOL

The designing of the necessary structures in the form of group management is a logical and essential activity (Moffat, 1991:46) in the implementation of the participative management as detailed in the previous section (cf. par. 3.3). This activity consists of grouping tasks logically, avoiding duplication or overlapping of work and utilising teachers according to their abilities in the execution of certain task so that each task is performed effectively (Van der Westhuizen, 1995b:164)

Different generic structures appear to have been used through time in the implementation of participative management. These structures range from the committees whereby managers involved workers without giving up control over decision making, through quality circles for involving workers in production problem solving, to teams as a way of attaining worker participation in management work (Herrick, 1991:8). Recently, there has been attempts to reconcile management and union interests in the parallel organisation. Attention will now be paid to these structures.

3.5.1 Generic participation structures

3.5.1.1 Committees

The Committee System has long been used by principals in the execution of certain tasks as a result of the increasing complexity of management work in the school

Standing and ad hoc committees, comprised of teachers under the leadership of the principal on his appointed representative, are a characteristic feature of most schools. Standing committees are of a relatively permanent nature because they deal with tasks that recur on a regular basis (Daft, 1991:482). Ad hoc committees deal with specific tasks and dissolve once a task is accomplished.

The work of the committee centres around specific activities such as, admissions, school fund collection, sports, culture, terrain and building maintenance, and catering (Dreyer, 1989:79). A committee is reactive in that it responds to issues previously selected by the principal and, therefore, fulfils a maintenance role (Dreyer, 1989:17; Walling, 1984:3). It may be said that committees serve as structures for getting things done while involving staff members (Grossnickle, 1983:78).

In most schools the committee system is and has been the only means whereby teachers could contribute significantly to the effectiveness of their schools, exercise their judgement, and meaningfully apply their knowledge and skills outside the confines of a classroom, as well as, satisfy their social and esteem needs (Certo, 1983:377). Even where the principal uses mostly an authoritarian style of management, he is hard-pressed to employ committees thereby affording teachers a mechanism to voice their opinions and exercise a certain degree of discretion.

As a way of participation, the committee system is limited by its purpose and function. It is restricted to the task delegated to it by the principal and staff. Although membership of the committee may not necessarily reflect formal positions in the school, it serves the interests of the school's top structure. According to Dreyer (1989:17), the committee system is not team management but must be seen as serving the interests of and as being subordinate to team management.

In designing participative structures, however, the committee system can hardly be ignored. In fact, existing committees can easily be converted either into teams or into quality circles. Important to note is that committees have such a universal application that the need for their existence is indicated irrespective of the

principal's management style. It may be concluded that committees serve as a basis for the implementation of participation.

3.5.1.2 Quality circles

Quality circles, a derivative of the Japanese management model (cf. par. 2.2.5.2) have been adopted in several American schools since 1983 (Lindelow et al., 1989:166). In the RSA, however, commentators have recommended their use in schools as an aspect of team management (see, for example, Dreyer, 1989; Mataboge, 1993).

A quality circle is a task group of between three to twelve people drawn from the same or similar work under the leadership of their own supervisor (Conley et al., 1988:269). Membership is voluntary and the leadership function is not necessarily restricted to formal positions. A leader of the circle is chosen from circle members by management. In addition, management may choose a facilitator either from within or outside the school. The duty of the facilitator is to provide a communication link with management and to give an objective perspective on circle work (Mataboge, 1993:87). In a school a quality circle may consist of teachers with a knowledge of a specific subject or skill (Dreyer, 1989:12). Subject committees, teachers in a particular grade level, pastoral care committee and interdisciplinary teams all constitute examples of quality circles which may be formed at school.

The major duty of a quality circle is to solve operational problems. Circle members identify and investigate problems and generate solutions within their defined task area. The stage of problem identification and selection is done by circle members only. However, in analysing the problem and generating solutions, circle members often involve other teachers. The presentation of solutions to management is an important phase in which members, invited guests and significant others such as the circuit inspector, community leaders, parents and students, review solutions. In most cases circle recommendations are accepted, approved and implemented. Of course, not all circle recommendations are accepted but when this occurs, rare as it is, adequate reasons must be given (Mataboge, 1993:89-93). In this way, quality circles do not alter an organisation's authority structure (Lindelow et al., 1989:166).

Quality circles appear to provide teachers with an effective channel to influence management decisions (Conley et al., 1988:269). The circle provides genuine participation because it is autonomous to the extent that it sets its own agenda and provides own solutions. Circle members assume greater responsibility in coordinating and monitoring their own work. Quality circles ensure effective problem solving by taking decisions to the building site where the concerns and problems are most immediate and evident (Hansen, 1990:100-103; Lannon & Otjen, 199:35). They also exercise leadership because the chairman's position rotates among members and is not restricted to formal position. Since membership is voluntary, teachers are likely to perceive their participation as more genuine than when membership is compulsory. Not only does a circle enhance trust between the principal and teachers but it also allows teachers to share with management the responsibility for problem solving (Aquila, 1982:94).

Several potential difficulties exist in the implementation of quality circles in schools. Circle work may be hampered by the impossibility of scheduling daily meetings due to the importance attached to teaching time. Essentially, a quality circle permits every employee to be planner, engineer as well as worker (Aquila, 1982:95). This may be impossible because teachers may lack the skills of all-rounders. Lack of training in problem solving may be another hampering factor in circle work.

Notwithstanding the above problems which apparently relate more to the effectiveness of circle work rather than its ineffectiveness as a participative management structure, quality circles are useful in dealing with the myriad of problems arising in a school. With relevant in-service training teachers may be able to understand and participate in school management through quality circles. It may be said then that quality circles contain sound participative management principles.

3.5.1.3 Teams

Participative management uses groups to a far greater extent than does traditional management (cf. par. 2.2.5.2). These groups are called "teams" because their members interact and influence each other positively in collective pursuit of a

common goal. The concept of team management refers to the design and utilisation of teams which work cooperatively to manage the school in all its facets (Dreyer, 1989:17).

Teams are formal structures which are assigned specific organisational tasks of a continuing nature (Herrick, 1991:190) Team membership reflects the whole spectrum of the school's teachers who are either elected or appointed by the principal. A formal role structure forms the basis of interaction between team members. Each team is headed by a team leader who is either the principal, the deputy principal, the Head of Department or any other senior or competent teacher (Dreyer, 1989:18).

Team management is based on the view that no individual can develop better plans than one responsible for the results of that activity (Dreyer, 1989:26). The duty of teams is to produce action programmes concerning the functioning of the school and to execute these programmes. The hallmark of teamwork is flexibility, the ability and willingness to pitch in and do what is necessary to get the job done (Parker, 1991:49). A high premium is placed on the teacher's initiative, to act in responsible, constructive and caring ways.

The team leader is a vital cog in the machinery of team work. He directs the team's energies to task accomplishment. He supports, motivates and by personal example, supervises, advises and guides the team to work together (DET, 1991, chap. 21:30). Besides acting as a team leader where necessary, the principal has the additional task of coordinating the activities of various teams so that each team contributes meaningfully towards the attainment of overall educative objectives.

A team aims at reconciling the various and divergent interests of organisation members. It frees them to develop their skills and capabilities for mature, self-reliant, caring and responsible participative behaviour (Herrick, 1991:97). Guided by the principle of reconciliation, team members are more likely to adopt "civilised disagreement" than engage in hostile confrontation (Parker, 1991:99).

It may be concluded then, that except for problems of lack of time, resources, training and possibly, commitment on the part of the principal, teams offer an

effective participation structure. As it will be apparent in the ensuing brief discussion, the joint management approach uses teams in the designing of the parallel organisation.

3.5.1.4 Parallel organisation

The parallel organisation is a participative structure which caters for collective bargaining in organisations. It is formed in any situation where a union and management enter into an agreement to provide employees with greater opportunities for participation in the decision making process (Herrick, 1991:9. The parallel organisation structure, is so called because it exists side by side with the primary organisation (Herrick, 1991:55).

The action team, planning team and autonomous work teams constitute the main components of the parallel organisation. Membership of the action and planning teams consists of elected representatives from various interest groups, viz., union members, non affiliated members, and line and middle managers. The representatives espouse the views of their constituents rather than those of higher levels. The autonomous work team is composed of a team leader together with members of a particular work unit.

The parallel organisation, through action and planning teams, has integrated bargaining as its major task while the day-to-day running of the organisation is done by the primary organisation. It seeks to influence management decisions legitimately, in a reconciling and healing manner rather than in the polarising and divisive way of distributive bargaining (see also par. 2.1.7). Such a structure is designed for preventative management rather than reactive strike action (Herrick, 1991:58-59). The autonomous work team is the point at which the parallel organisation dovetails with the primary organisation (Herrick, 1991:16).

Clearly, the parallel organisation resembles the "team concept" in many respects except for its collective bargaining purpose and its separation from the primary organisation. It appears, however, that the parallel organisation forms the site structure for unions so that members may be represented in the top management structure of the school. In this way, the parallel organisation is a viable participative structure. Suffice to state that it also reconciles diverse ideas and

feelings of members with regard to the ways in which an organisation (i.c. school) is governed.

3.5.1.5 Standpoint

Given the above explication, the contention by Lindelow et al. (1989:164) that no rules or theories exist to identify the most appropriate structure for a given situation because of the uniqueness of each school appears unacceptable. The various structures discussed above, appear to provide useful guidelines for the design of structures which are suitable for most schools. Currently participative management thought in the RSA (and elsewhere) seems to be dominated by the team management paradigm (cf. Van Rooyen, 1984; Dreyer, 1989; DET, 1991).

While in many a school the traditional committee system may still be alive and well, principals seeking participative structures, may derive success in moulding such committees into nascent forms based on quality circles and the team concept: quality circles for resolving problems which unavoidably arise in schools (cf. par 3.5.1.2) and team management to discard crisis and institute preventative management (cf. par. 3.5.1.3). The encapsulation of the principles of the parallel organisation especially integrative bargaining in this transformation process, may provide the needed proactive approach to cope with the unionisation of teachers (cf. par. 3.5.1.4).

Needless to say, the ensuing discussion of models of participative structures features the basic organisational structure envisaged in team management.

3.5.2 Models of participative structures

The literature abounds with a variety of participative structures within the paradigm of team management (cf. Howes & McCarthy, 1982:28; Hammon, 1983:366-367; Lindelow et al, 1989:164; Hallinger, 1988:5; Herrick, 1991:37; Bondesio & De Witt, 1995:279-288; Van Rooyen, 1984; Dreyer, 1989). However, it appears nomenclature, rather than composition and purpose, is responsible for this diversity of structures. To achieve uniformity and to take into account new developments, models of participative structures are classified according to the basic functions performed by various stakeholder groups in school management.

However, structures related to pupil affairs, for example, Students Representative Council (SRC) are not discussed due to the delimitation of the present research. Thus, the following participative structures will be presented:

- Governing Body
- School Management Team
- Operational Teams
- Teachers' Forum

For collation purposes the nomenclature used for each of the identified model structures will be discussed in terms of composition, purpose and duties, role of teachers and principal and potential impact on participation (cf. Hallinger, 1988:5).

3.5.2.1 Governing Body

The Governing Body may go under different names from area to area, for example, Building Liaison Committee (Hallinger, 1988:5), Principal's Management Team (Van Rooyen, 1984:190), School Governance Council (McGinley, 1992:7). Its membership may vary accordingly. However, it is generally a body formed under the leadership of a parent and includes all formal positions in the school, some staff members and parents. While the deputy principal and Heads of Department serve on this council by virtue of their formal authority positions, the teachers and parents are elected into this body by their respective constituencies. The Circuit Inspector and representatives of the Auxiliary Services may serve a staff function to this body (Van Rooyen, 1984:190-191).

The main task of the Governing Body lies in the policy and management domain (Hallinger, 1988:5). Since this structure includes parents and students, who are not trained professionals in teaching, and the literature deals with old structures, it may be suggested that its main task area lies outside teaching and curriculum affairs including the management of teachers. Thus, the following duties may be allocated to this Body (cf. par. 3.4.4):

- Formulation, articulation and declaration of the school mission.

- Setting overarching goals and objectives especially conducting strategic planning.
- Formulation of school policy.
- Dealing with financial matters.
- Regular and formal resolution of staff and student grievances and problems, to the exclusion of conditions of service of teachers and student grievances and problems on teaching matters.
- Control of buildings, grounds and equipment.
- Conducting a comprehensive school review.
- Liaising with civic, industry and other outside bodies.
- Cultural, social and sports activities.

No justifiable claims can be made that the above list of duties is complete in all aspects. Changing circumstances and rationales as well as unique circumstances of location may lead to additions and omissions from the given list.

According to the new educational policy framework the Governing Body is the highest decision making structure in the school (cf. par. 3.4.4). This has several implications. It implies that the Governing Body must be led by a parent, who, due to his non-involvement in the day-to-day running of the school, will have a more objective view of the school and, where necessary, assumes authority over all school members. A parent must, therefore, chair the meetings of the Governing Body. His duty is to clarify the parameters of decision making and lead the meeting to consensus decision making. The Governing Body provides teachers, through their representatives, with an opportunity to address fundamental issues in school management.

It is of utmost importance that the Governing Body should ensure that teacher concerns receive attention lest this body is misused by the principal to rubber stamp decisions he has already made. Mechanisms should also be in place to ensure that no group exercises undue influence to the detriment of others (cf. par.

2.3.1). Teacher representatives must also give feedback to the entire staff in monthly staff meetings where discussions are teacher led (Hallinger, 1988:6).

The Governing Body executes its duties through the use of **governance teams** to which members are assigned to perform specific duties. Ideally, membership to the governance teams should reflect each stakeholder group, however, this is counterproductive in certain duties, (cf. par 2.2.7.3, 2.3.3). Moreover, some duties require specialised knowledge, ability and training. For example, the following governance teams may be utilised:

- **Finance team:** collects funds, reconciliate budgetary requirements, raises funds and is responsible for expenditures.
- **Provisioning Administration Teams:** cares for buildings, grounds and equipment.
- **Conflict Resolution Team:** resolves conflicts, deals with grievances and liaises with teacher unions.
- **Public Relations Team:** liaises with civic and outside bodies.
- **Sports Masters Team:** deals with a comprehensive plan of internal and external league matches, practice programmes, and the supply, care and maintenance of sports facilities and equipment.
- **Cultural and Social Team:** manages cultural activities, school functions, catering and parties.

Besides ensuring the effective execution of duties, the governance teams enhance teacher participation. It also achieves a more equitable distribution of tasks and increases devolution of authority to teachers.

3.5.2.2 School Management Team (SMT)[2]

The School Management Team (SMT), under the leadership of the principal, draws its core membership from the Heads of Department, standard guardians and senior teachers (cf. Van Rooyen, 1984:191). To this core membership, which is usually determined by formal authority positions instituted by the Education Department, elected teacher representatives may be added. Membership to the SMT is based on the view that those responsible for carrying out a decision must be involved in its making (Lindelow et al., 1989:165).

The School Management Team is actually an interdisciplinary team whose task focuses on the internal management of the school; a task which Dreyer (1989:87) divides into two major aspects; viz.,

- **Logistical planning:** including allocation of teaching assignments, grouping of pupils and supervision of labourers.
- **Educational year planning:** consisting of the designing of a coordinated year plan in which educative activity is assigned its rightful place.

The above task field is related to but not restricted to the organising function. The inward looking nature of the SMT focuses its main task on educative teaching. The following duties, in addition to those already mentioned, which relate to the professional aspect of management concentrate on curriculum and teaching affairs, and staff affairs:

- Setting annual objectives for teaching assignments.
- Setting targets for amount of written work, tests and assignments
- Conducting inservice training of teachers including the induction of new teachers.
- Coordinating various educative activities including time tabling.

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2 The name "School Management Team" is derived from the composition and task area of the "School Improvement Team" (Hallinger, 1988:9) and the "Deputy Principal's Team" (Van Rooyen, 1984:191).

* Monitoring and supervising execution of activities.

* Recruiting and appointing staff members with the exception of promotional posts which fall under the purview of the District Management Team.

* Evaluating individual performance of teachers.

It may be said, then, that the School Management Team serves as the executive team of the school and provides a vital link between the functions of the Governing Body and what actually takes place in the school. The team approach in managing the internal affairs of the school assumes greater significance in view of the increasing outward-looking involvement of the principal in managing the boundary between the school and the community (Bell, 1992:34).

The teachers' role in the SMT centres around assuming joint responsibility for managing the school. The representative teachers also have a heavy responsibility in giving feedback to their peers in a general staff meeting or operational teams where they act as leaders by chairing meetings. This has the effect of assuring other teachers that they do in fact participate, achieving coordination among various school structures and encouraging regular interaction between teachers on curriculum and teaching issues.

It is in SMT that teachers get the opportunity to participate in the decision-to-delegate (cf. par. 2.1.4) and are empowered with the authority to practice and perfect their craft (cf. par. 2.1.3). Participation of teachers in the SMT becomes meaningful to the extent that the team is managerially-orientated, i.e., related to school-wide decision making, and operationally-orientated, i.e., related to their basic work of educative teaching.

The performance of the SMT rests on and derives its energy from operational mini teams which are discussed in the ensuing section.

3.5.2.3 Teachers' Forum

The Teachers' Forum is a general meeting of the entire staff under the guidance of the principal (Walling, 1984:94). It is the only forum in which the principal gives and receives information, structures, organises and delegates duties as well as coordinates efforts in carrying out actions (Wynn & Guditis, 1984:12). It gives an opportunity to staff members to appraise the school policy, discuss rules and elect task forces to deal with certain aspects of school management.

The Teachers' Forum is the centre of participation in the school where debates are held, information is mutually exchanged, new policy directions are given and received, and consultations are conducted. The Forum may take final resolutions with regard to organising functions but must get final approval on issues relating to policy, procedures and standards (cf. par. 3.3.1.3; 3.5.1.2).

According to Bondesio and De Witt (1995:279) the principal should conduct the meetings of the Forum in a democratic way; informal yet businesslike. In this way the teachers will loosen up and contribute positively to the resolution of problems arising out of the business of education. Yet the traditional staff meeting is a poor forum for participation because (Bondesio & De Witt, 1995:281:282):

- a few senior teachers tend to dominate the discussion especially in large staffs;
- consensus is difficult to reach;
- the principal sees the staff meeting as an opportunity for delivering lengthy harangues thereby blocking open communication;
- teachers are unprepared for discussing meaningfully and tend to attack others instead of addressing issues.

In spite of the above limitations the staff meeting can impact positively on participation. It promotes feelings of togetherness, acts as a binding factor of the whole staff and promotes cooperation and team spirit (Bondesio & De Witt, 1995:280-281). Several strategies may be adopted to achieve this. Walling (1984:99) suggests the following:

- The principal should not chair every meeting but rotate chairmanship among Departmental Heads while he acts as an ordinary participant.
- He should publish the agenda well in advance of the meeting to enable teachers to prepare for the meeting.
- He should also give staff members an opportunity to present certain agenda items, for example, report of a task force.

3.5.2.4 Operational Teams[3]

A common feature of most educational institutions is the grouping of similar subjects into departments, for example, Official Languages, Natural Sciences, Humanities, Economic and Management Sciences. A Head of Department (HOD) is appointed to lead the teachers responsible for the subjects falling within the purview of the particular department (DET, 1991:ch. 24:5). Each department may further be subdivided according to subjects thus forming subject committees which are placed under subject heads. The head of each team serves on the SMT.

The main focus of the Operational Teams is the management of subject teaching with the aim of empowering the teacher to perform more efficiently through improved knowledge of the subject matter, effective classroom management and standardised evaluation of pupil's academic performance. Team teaching assignments, liaising with relevant professional bodies outside the school and coordinating with other departments in the school, are major functions of a department (Bell, 1992:34).

Within the framework set by the Operational Team, a Subject Committee deals with matters relating to the tuition of a specific subject, its position in the overall curriculum, its methodology and the learning of pupils (Bell, 1992:34). Its aim is to render the tuition of the subject as effective as possible and to ensure that the subject receives due and proper attention (Dreyer, 1989:88).

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3 Operational Teams is a generic term denoting any grouping of teachers responsible for the same or similar subject(s) or grade(s). Specific terms encountered in the literature include: Instructional Support Team (Hallinger, 1988:7); Teacher Leadership Teams (Lindelow et al., 1981:164); Management Teams of the Heads of Department (Dreyer, 1989:88).

Members of the Operational Teams act as a peer assistance group on tuition matters such as course material, specific lesson plans and classroom presentations (Conley et al., 1988:271). New teachers are inducted to positive norms and receive regular support from their peers. To develop inexperienced teachers and to improve teachers who perform poorly, coaching, classroom observation and feedback are used (Hallinger, 1988:8). The principal takes an active part in the activities of Operational Teams by monitoring, directing and ensuring that the school mission finds expression in the tuition programme. Without the principal's support and intervention, teacher evaluation may run aground.

Collegial relationships between the principal, HOD's and teachers which result from sharing the duties of teaching achieves both horizontal and vertical integration. This spirit of cooperation also fosters shared responsibility for academic outcomes, reduces teacher isolation and expands teacher leadership beyond the formal authority positions in the school (Hallinger, 1988:8-9). The involvement of the principal and HODS is likely to sustain and institutionalise teacher participation. Most likely the initial resentment to peer assistance and observation will dissipate as trust gains more momentum (cf. par. 3.3.4.3).

3.5.2.5 Panel for Identification, Diagnoses and Assistance (PIDA)

The Panel consists of standard guardians and guidance teachers under the leadership of the Head of Department (Auxiliary Services) (DET, 1990a:Chap. 16:1-5) The Panel subdivides into two major teams, viz., standard guardian team and guidance teachers team. The main concern of PIDA is to assist pupils with personal and academic problems, to check on pupils' school attendance and to keep pupils' records (Van Rooyen, 1984:194).

The PIDA is a cooperative venture which draws on the expertise of various teachers, parents and social welfare agencies in resolving pupil-related problems. The principal should be closely involved in dealing with problems brought to his attention by PIDA and should himself refer certain problems to this panel for resolution. In this way, the PIDA is a structure for participation of both school personnel and the community at large.

3.5.2.6 Concluding standpoint

The existence of a variety of participation structures, as modelled in the foregoing discussion, indicates that the choice of suitable structures for a particular school is no mean task. Granted, the choice of particular structures hinges on the principal's preferences and the peculiar circumstances of the school. However, it appears reasonable to choose structures which are consistent with formal authority positions. This has several advantages.

The school represents the lowest level in the Education Department and thus most of its decisions require ratification by higher levels. Decisions taken through and within the legally recognised channels are more likely to receive the blessing of the higher levels than those taken through a parallel organisation (cf par. 3.5.1.4). Acceptance of school level decisions is likely to further strengthen the principal's hand in bringing forth genuine participation.

Where participation structures are based on formal positions, institutionalisation of participation is more likely to occur than where structures are coupled with informal positions. In cases where the Education Department has not yet approved formal positions, the principal may appoint teachers to act as group leaders. This will achieve the same effect on participation as formally approved positions

From the above argumentation, it may be concluded that propositions of a parallel organisation are less attractive for teacher participation than formal position structures.

It must also be noted that participation structures modelled in the above discussion do not yet exist as such in schools and are presented here in proposal form. The effective principal will recognise the need for situational leadership and thus use every available opportunity to encourage the formation of participation structures along formal school positions.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed forms of participative management as possible. The first section analysed a conceptual model of participation tasks and areas. This assisted

in clearly delineating what school management entails thereby further clarifying what is meant by teacher participation in school management. The second section detailed teacher participation in various management tasks to indicate the ways in which teachers may be involved in the day-to-day management of a school. The next section examined generic participative structures and then described four possible structures which may be called to life in implementing teacher participation.

This concludes the literature study aspect and opens the way for an empirical investigation: the subject of the next chapter.