

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

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MANAGERIAL TASK OF THE  
SCHOOL PRINCIPAL**

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onderhandeling op skoolprestasie is bespreek sowel as die benaderinge en gesindhede rondom die gebruik van onderhandelinge op skool.

In Hoofstuk 3 val die fokus op die konteks van onderhandeling en die vaardighede benodig vir suksesvolle onderhandeling op skool. Die onderhandelingsklimaat, elemente van onderhandeling en die basis vir onderhandeling binne die konteks van onderhandeling is bespreek. Die volgende vaardighede is as onderhandelingsvaardighede bespreek: luister, tydsbepaling, empatie, trou, vrae, behoeftes, geduld, beleefdheid en ander soos stamina, verdraagsaamheid en selfvertroue. Die onderhandelingsstyle en strategieë is ook behandel.

Die empiriese ondersoek, administrasieprosedures, populasie en statistiese tegnieke is in Hoofstuk 4 beskryf. Die behoorlik voltooide vraelyste wat van die skoolhoofde as respondente ontvang is, is empiries ontleed en geïnterpreteer in hierdie hoofstuk.

Die laaste hoofstuk, Hoofstuk 5, werp lig op die opsomming van al die hoofstukke, die bevindinge van die ondersoek en aanbevelings gebaseer op die bevindinge soos afgelei uit die voorafgaande hoofstukke, 'n slotopmerking word ook gegee.

Dit is bevind dat al die respondente *luister* erken as essensieel in enige verwantskap, derhalwe is luister as die belangrike onderhandelingsvaardigheid geïdentifiseer wat deur skoolhoofde gebruik word.

Daar is verder uit die empiriese studie bevind dat die meerderheid skoolhoofde nie daarin kon slaag om vertroue tussen hulle en die leerders aan te bewerkstellig nie omdat hulle wilde beloftes maak.

Skoolhoofde gebruik dus baie selde wilde beloftes as 'n onderhandelingsvaardigheid.

Ten slotte, gebaseer op die ondersoek, word aanbeveel dat 'n onderhandelingsvaardigheid-opleidingsprogram vir skoolhoofde nodig is vir toekomstige ondersoek.

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## SUMMARY

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

*Key word: principals as negotiators, negotiations, violence in schools, negotiation skills, learners, poor academic results.*

The research seeks to suggest the use of negotiations as a managerial task of the school principal with learners to eliminate or at least limit unrest practices like violence, intimidation of learners by principals and intimidation of principals by learners, suspicions, vandalism, strike actions and class boycotts which destroy and negate the culture of learning and teaching services. All these destructive practices, lead to poor production of matric results in schools in South Africa in general and in the North West Province in particular.

The purpose of this study therefore was to determine by means of a review of literature and an empirical investigation, the nature of negotiations in schools and the skills needed by practising principals in the discharge of their management tasks. The empirical study was also aimed at determining the most important and the least important of the negotiation skills.

Chapter 1 deals with the statement of the problem, aims of the research and the methods employed in achieving the purpose of the study. This includes a discussion of the population and sample used for the empirical research and an outline of the chapters.

The second Chapter highlights on the nature of negotiation in general and in schools in particular. Explanation of the concept negotiation was given and terms closely related to negotiation were defined and all shown to be different from negotiation. Models of negotiation were identified, causes for negotiation were mentioned, effects of negotiation on school performance were discussed as well as approaches and attitudes to the use of negotiation in schools.

In Chapter 3, the focus was on the context of negotiation and skills needed in successful negotiation in schools.

The negotiation climate, elements of negotiation and legal aspects or basis of negotiation were discussed under the context of negotiation. Listening, timing, empathy, trust, questions, needs, patience, politeness, as well as other skills like stamina, tolerance, confidence were discussed as negotiation skills. Negotiation style and strategies were treated under skills needed in successful negotiation.

The empirical research design, administrative procedures, population and the systematic sampling as well as statistical techniques were discussed in Chapter 4. The duly completed questionnaires returned by principals as respondents were empirically analysed and interpreted in this chapter.

The last chapter, Chapter 5, throws light on the summary of all the chapters, research findings and recommendations based on the research findings derived from the previous chapters as well as a final remark.

It was found that all the respondents recognize that *listening* is essential to any relationship and therefore listening was the most important negotiation skill practised by principals. Again, it was revealed from the empirical study that most principals do not succeed in building trust with learners by making wild promises. Principals therefore seldomly make wild promises to learners as a negotiation skill. Finally based on the research, a negotiation skill training programme for principals was recommended for future research.

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# CHAPTER 1

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## ORIENTATION

### 1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Schools in the North West Province, like most schools in South Africa, have been and are currently being hampered by a cycle of educational crises and violence of unacceptable dimensions (Mayer, 1990:2),

The *Mafikeng Mail* (Anon., 1993:2) reported in May of learners classboycofts and wanton destruction of school property at Kebalepite High School, Lapologang High School, Redibone Middle School, and Boitseanape Secondary Technical School all in Mmabatho, North West Province, just to mention a few. Some of the reasons for the learners action were listed as mistrust of the principal, change of school uniform disagreements, intimidation, lack of equipment's and demand for Tennis Courts.

The frequency at which crises or violence take place and the reasons for classboycofts in the North West Province and for that matter most of the black schools in South Africa show that there is something basically missing in the style of managerial responsibilities of the school principals.

According to Anstey (1986:68) the above named reasons for classboycofts and destruction of school property could have been resolved through negotiation, consultation and communication.

In the USA, Jaska and Pritchard (1988) and Gaswirth and Whalen (1983) state that when there is lack of negotiation skills and communication ethics by the principal with the staff, parents, education officers, and learners in a school, crises erupt, namely absenteeism, frustration, educational failure, anti-social problems of behaviour, strikes, violence, classboycofts, poor academic results,

mistrust, suspicions, indiscipline, intimidation of staff and learners by the principal and intimidation of principal by staff and learners.

Researchers in the RSA (De Wet, 1992; Matthews, 1983; Du Toit, 1990) testify that lack of negotiation in an institution brings about conflict escalation and propose negotiation as a managerial task of the principal.

The above crises in education all show lack of negotiation of the principal to resolve issues with the staff, learners, school governing council, the community, parents and education officers from the circuit, district and head offices.

In this study however, focus will be on lack of negotiation of the school principal with the learners. One of the solutions of educational crises in schools is skilful use of negotiation.

The new guidelines for schools in respect of specific stipulations in chapter 3, Fundamental Rights (Articles 10, 11(2), 12 and 247) of the 1994 constitution of South Africa., clearly stipulates that negotiation and communication must always be used in solving problems. But this is not realised because principals are not trained in negotiation skills.

Van der Westhuizen (1996:3) argues that very few principals today have undergone training to enable them to cope with managerial duties.

Mkhize (1990) a lawyer and mediator strongly recommended that educational institutions should teach conflict - related courses such as negotiation to drastically reduce the educational crises and violence prevalent in institutions of learning. He noted with pity, that no single institution in the country offers these courses.

Anthony (1978:41) asserts that managers are afraid that practising negotiation will lessen their powers and be over shadowed by their subordinates. These feelings of the managers constitute barriers of the effective use of negotiation and participative management skills. The result is violence, strikes, intimidation and classboycotts. The problem is causing a serious concern. Negotiation as management skill for managers including educational leaders has been

researched in developed countries like USA (Anthony, 1978; Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983; Mastenbroek, 1989 and Donohue, 1992) and in Britain (Steele, Murphy & Russils, 1989 and Mulholland, 1991).

A DIALOG search conducted revealed that extensive work has been done on negotiations in general and for managers in organisations in South Africa (Albert, 1986; Anstey, 1986; Nieuwmeijer, 1988).

Researchers like De Wet (1992) have done work on the topic and Olivier (1994) is currently researching on the topic. However, the two researchers have not presented lack of negotiation between principal and the learners empirically.

The problem of this research therefore focuses on what negotiation as a managerial task of the school principal with the learners entails.

## **1.2 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH**

The aims of this study can be operationalised in the following:

Research aim 1: To determine the nature and scope of negotiation.

Research aim 2: To determine what skills are needed for successful negotiation.

Research aim 3: To determine empirically to what extent do principals use negotiation skills in resolving problems with learners.

## **1.3 METHOD OF RESEARCH**

### **1.3.1 Literature study**

An extensive examination of primary and secondary sources relevant to the research project were made. A DIALOG search was conducted with the following key terms: *negotiation, conflict, crises, power, principal, administrator problems, students, learners, student power*. Suitable and adequate articles were identified.

### **1.3.2 Empirical investigation**

#### ***Questionnaire***

On the basis of the literature study, a questionnaire for principals was constructed and pretested.

The aim of the questionnaire was to gather biographic and demographic information from secondary school principals as well as the extent to which principals use negotiation skills with learners, which negotiation skills principals use the most with learners and which negotiation skills principals use the least with learners.

#### ***Population***

A systematic sampling of 120 secondary school principals in the North West Province was used as the sample for the study (n = 120).

### **1.3.3 Data analysis**

Suitable statistical techniques were determined and used with the help of the Statistical Consultancy Services of Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys. Computer programmes were used for statistical analyses.

## **1.4 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH**

It has been decided to approach school principals of secondary schools in the North West Province for two reasons. Firstly this is the province where researcher has worked and is still working, and therefore accessibility to the schools may not pose very serious problems. Secondly there have been a lot of learner classboycotts and violence of some sort leading to learner poor performance in the matric examinations.

## **1.5 OUTLINE CHAPTERS OF THE STUDY**

This study is divided into five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Orientation

Chapter 2: The nature of negotiation in schools.

Chapter 3: Skills needed for successful negotiation in schools.

Chapter 4: Empirical research.

Chapter 5: Summary: findings - implications of findings for education; recommendations; suggestions for future study.

## **1.6 SUMMARY**

In this chapter, problems facing schools in the North West in particular and the country in general have been identified. The causes of these problems resulting in violence, strikes, classboycotts and production of poor matric results in the North West, show lack of basic managerial as well as negotiation skills on the part of the principals, especially with the learners.

The method of the empirical investigation into the problem has been outlined as well as the research aims. In the next two chapters we will discuss the nature of negotiation in schools as well as the skills needed for successful negotiation in schools.

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## CHAPTER 2

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### THE NATURE OF NEGOTIATION IN SCHOOLS

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter focus will be on the nature of negotiation in general and negotiation in schools in particular. This includes an examination of various definitions of negotiation with the aim of arriving at a definition which is more applicable to negotiation in schools. A discussion of models of negotiation and causes for negotiation follow with effects of negotiation, approaches to negotiation, and attitudes to the use of negotiation. The chapter ends with a summary and a forecast.

#### 2.2 EXPLANATION OF THE CONCEPT NEGOTIATION

Thorn (1989:6) asserts that negotiation is a much - abused word for it is not another term for selling. People generally think of selling when negotiation is mentioned. Writers like Lax and Sebenius (1989:11) and Steele *et al.* (1989:1) argue that "negotiation" is an illusive concept to define and has been the source of conceptual confusion for some time now.

Moreover, most literature on "negotiation" come from disciplines like commerce, political science, management and public administration and not from education. No wonder school principals do not actually see the relevance of negotiation in education (Malan & Hall, 1994:43). Traditional concepts have therefore inhibited thinking on this subject (Burton, 1990:2).

It would seem that negotiation can have many meanings and it is therefore difficult to combine all the different meanings in one definition.

To be able to determine what negotiation is, a classification of definitions will be used. From an analysis of the various definitions and interpretations of negotiation, it seems that they can all be divided into six categories, namely as a process, as a strategy, as conferring, as reconciling, as a method and as transaction.

### **2.2.1 Negotiation as a process**

From the literature it seems most sources emphasise that negotiation is a process. Negotiation as a process lays emphasis on a connected set of human actions or operations that are formed intentionally in order to search a particular result.

This is the most common definition of negotiation. A few selected definitions indicate this line of thought:

- Marsh (1984:497-500): Negotiation is the process whereby terms and conditions of work are resolved between employers on the one side and trade unions on the other. The object is to settle issues with the least possible disturbance. There is no gallantry only a systematic erosion of problems and a bridging of gaps until agreement is reached.
- Albert (1986:15): Negotiation is a process whereby two or more parties voluntarily discuss their differences and attempt to reach a joint decision on their common concerns.
- Kennedy, Benson and McMillan (1987:14): Negotiation is defined here as process for resolving conflict between two or more parties whereby both or all modify their demands to achieve a mutually acceptable compromise ... a process of adjusting both parties views of their ideal outcome to an attainable outcome.
- Nieuwmeijer (1988:2): Negotiation is a process through which two parties with a vested interest in the issues at stake, strive to reach a mutual behaviour binding agreement the exchange of structured information that becomes available through the communication relationship.

- Steele *et al.* (1989:3): Negotiation is defined as process through which parties move from their initially divergent position to a point where agreement may be reached.
- Helps (1992:1): Negotiation is defined here as the process through which an elegant win/win solution is reached which meets the differing needs of the two or more parties involved.
- Nel, Barnley and Swanepoel (1993:117): Negotiation is the process used by representatives of management and of the trade union to "give and take" within the agreed collective bargaining structures over matters of mutual interest in order to control conflict and conclude an agreement.
- Adey and Andrew, 1996: Negotiation is a process of trying to reach an agreement between two or more parties, each of whom is in control of resources sought after by the other party or parties.

### **2.2.2 Negotiation as a strategy**

There are other definitions which are emphasised in the literature in addition to negotiation as a process. From the above definitions it seems that certain strategies are present in negotiations. Some authors regard negotiation as a strategy for resolving conflicts, that is, the skilful planning and management of conflicts.

In support of this view and of the definitions already mentioned, reference can be made, for instance, to the following definitions:.

Mastenbroek (1983:4) says negotiation is the proper strategy in a case involving different, sometimes competing interests; but where at the same time the two parties are interdependent to the degree that an agreement would yield advantages for both of them. The parties disagree, but they would like to arrive at an agreement, because both letting things drift and fighting are disadvantageous for both of them.

According to Du Brin (1989:77), negotiation is a strategy and tactics for finding a job, agreeing on goals, agreeing on provisions of a contract, buying and

selling, settling customer complaints, settling subordinate grievances, determining the size of a departmental budget and allocating resources to a project.

Du Plessis (1990:13) argues that negotiation is first and foremost a specific settlement strategy encompassing a specialised mode of decision-making, in order to terminate conflict through a process of the transition of the values according to which voluntary obedience is extracted from the members of a given society.

Greenberg and Baron (1993:380) add that negotiation is a strategy for resolving organisational conflicts.

### **2.2.3 Negotiation as conferring**

Negotiation as conferring concerns how people talk together to compare opinions, values, differences etc. in order to reach a mutual agreement.

- Marx (1986:245) regards negotiations as two parties getting together and discussing the conditions of service and working conditions, that the employees will state what they expect to receive and that the employer will state what he is prepared to give in order to come to a mutual agreement as to what is acceptable to both parties.
- Bedeian (1989:262) explains that negotiation involves conferring and bargaining to reach an agreement regarding a proposed change.
- Brady and Parry (1992:94) define negotiation as a discussion between equals with a view to achieving a compromise which is acceptable to both, and from which each may even gain.
- The *Readers Digest Oxford Complete Word-finder* (1993:1018) explains negotiation as conferring with others in order to reach a compromise or agreement.

#### **2.2.4 Negotiation as reconciling**

Negotiation as reconciling means to find agreement between two ideas, situations, values etc. That seem to be in opposition. It also means to bring back friendly relations between two or more parties which had drifted apart due to incompatible differences. Two selected definitions would support this line of thought.

- Schlemmer, Schuitema, Swilling and Humphries (1988:51) say negotiation involves a conscious decision to establish and advance an ongoing relationship between parties which have had a previous history of conflict or differing interests.
- Lowe and Pollard (1989:120) stress that all human relationships have an element of co-operation and competition, and negotiation is a lubrication between these tendencies. Negotiation, therefore, is a way of reconciling interests and reducing conflict in situations where people have to interact but where no side is powerful enough to impose its will.

#### **2.2.5 Negotiation as a method**

Negotiation as a method is usually described as a planned way of helping individuals or groups with differing interests to modify their behaviours. According to this approach, negotiation must be planned so that an agreement regarding a proposed change could be reached to benefit all parties.

Mondy, Sharplin, Holmes and Flippo (1986:386) regard negotiation as the primary method used by labour unions to effect modification of proposed managerial changes.

Schmuck and Runkel (1988:324) point out that negotiation is an effective method for helping adversaries change their behaviours.

#### **2.2.6 Negotiation as a transaction**

This approach regards management as the core of negotiation because management according to Rush (1983:13) is meeting the needs of people as

they work at accomplishing their jobs, and this is achieved mostly through negotiation.

- Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, (1983:477) argue that negotiation is a process in which two parties try to reach an agreement that determines what each party gives and receives in the transaction.
- Cascio (1989:510) defines negotiation as a two party transaction whereby both parties intend to resolve a conflict.

### **2.2.7 Conclusion**

The above approaches clearly show that negotiation is a complex concept which describes how people meet together to discuss issues in order to resolve conflicts. Negotiation then is a balanced activity and therefore none of the above mentioned approaches can either be emphasised or accepted *per se*.

All these approaches contain some element of negotiation which is then absolutised. It can be concluded that negotiation will consist of some of all the above named elements and that all of these elements should be applied to ensure effective negotiation management and thereby, formative education.

From the above definitions and explanations, it seems negotiation is a transaction, a method or strategy and a process of reconciling and conferring, through which an elegant win/win solution or compromise or consensus is voluntarily reached which meets the differing needs of the two or more parties involved in a conflict.

This means that a negotiation model which seeks to give a complete definition of negotiation activities in the school will have to include the above named approaches (Van der Westhuizen, 1996:41).

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

## **2.3 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS CLOSELY RELATED TO NEGOTIATION**

Negotiation is a term which is easily confused with other closely related terms. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:5) draw attention to the need to clarify between negotiation and related concepts. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English New Edition* (1990:696) for instance explains negotiation as a bargain, contract. But bargain for instance relates to monetary transaction between two people. Negotiation is any other type of interaction that would require both parties to compromise. Thus, it can be seen that each related or closely related concept differs from negotiation, and hence the need to distinguish them from negotiation.

### **2.3.1 Persuasion**

Mangham (1986:80) says persuasion is a circumstance where conduct is modified by both non-verbal symbols which primarily appeals to reason and or emotion.

Persuasion is a communication process that results in a change of attitude or behaviour (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:4).

Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:6) explain that persuasion is a communication behaviour intended to change, modify or shape the responses, attitudes or behaviour of the receiver.

An important aspect of persuasion is behavioural change. Persuasion therefore is a key component of negotiation since opinions, attitudes and behaviours have to be changed (Weber, 1992:137).

Thus, persuasion is the act of changing the attitude or behaviour of someone by making him willing to do something or abandon his wishes completely by reasoning, arguing, repeatedly asking *et cetera*.

### **2.3.2 Mediation**

Mediation is defined by Nieuwmeijer (1988:10) as the process through which agreements are reached with the aid of a neutral third party or "helper".

French (1990:572) explains that the third party suggests specific alternatives for the consideration of the two sides. In other words, the third party assists the two parties to reach an agreement voluntarily. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:6) emphasise that the third party should have no decision-making power and have no vested interest in either of the parties. The mediator acts mainly as a communication and problem-solving catalyst, or as an agent to maximise the exploration and generation of alternatives, while the responsibility for the final agreement rests with the conflicting parties.

Thus it seems mediation is friendly intervention designed to render assistance. It is usually initiated when the parties no longer believe that they can handle conflict on their own and when the only means of resolution appears to involve impartial third-party who listens to opposing sides in the conflict and suggests solutions, which carry no binding authority. The parties are free to reject or accept the peacemakers solutions as they see fit.

### **2.3.3 Arbitration**

Arbitration is the reference of a dispute by voluntary agreement of the parties to an impartial person who renders a decision, called a award, after hearing evidence and arguments presented by those parties (Heyel, 1973:51).

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

Thus, arbitration is the settlement of a dispute by the decision of somebody chosen to be the judge, who hears evidence and arguments presented by the disputing parties and renders a decision which is binding on the contestants.

### **2.3.4 Talks**

The *Oxford English Dictionary* (Volume XVII, 1989:583) defines talks as formal discussions, as between representatives of different countries or between both sides in an industrial dispute.

Knight (1988:415) says a talk is an exchange of thoughts using spoken words especially in a friendly or informal way.

Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:7) observe that politicians especially prefer talks to be "informal" meetings wherein parties will collect information and explore each other's point of view, flexibility and acceptability. Only when parties are within *reach* of each other's objectives will the talks become "negotiations". In other words, the parties will negotiate when there is mutual agreement within reach.

Thus, talks is a formal exchange of opinions and views especially between representatives of different parties.

### **2.3.5 Lobbying**

Nieuwmeijer (1988:11) and Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:7) all quote Peters (1983) as saying that lobbying includes influencing a person or persons influential enough to advance an issue or viewpoint. It is usually found in national and international negotiations, where one party tries to pressurise the other, directly or indirectly through a third party to accept its point of view or objective. Lobbying is part of negotiation, only the venue and group size vary over time.

Thus, lobbying is to influence or persuade a person or persons or members of a lawmaking body to support or oppose certain actions either through voting or change of minds.

### **2.3.6 Bargaining**

Rubin and Brown (1975:2) define bargaining as the process whereby two or more parties attempt to settle what each shall give and take or perform and receive, in a transaction between them. They point out that bargaining refers to the interaction between individuals over some sale or purchase. Bargainers need each other and they do things to and with each other.

Bargaining is a face-to-face competitive interaction process (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:8). Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:5) explain that bargaining could relate to

a monetary transaction between two people. It is tacitly understood by both parties that the buyer will try to obtain the lowest price that he can from the seller, so the seller puts his price up higher than he would expect to get and gradually brings it down in response to the "bargaining" of the buyer. Traditionally, in bargaining, each party is clear at the outset as to its real base: the buyer wants the lowest price he can get and the seller wants the highest price he can get.

Thus, bargaining is the act or process of coming to an agreement over some sale or purchase.

### **2.3.7 Collective bargaining**

Davey, Bognanno & Estenson, (1982:2) define collective bargaining as "a continuing institutional relationship between an employer entity (government or private) and a labour organisation (union or association) representing exclusively a defined group of employees (appropriate bargaining unit) concerned with the negotiation, administration, interpretation, and enforcement written agreements covering joint understandings as to wages or salaries, rates of pay, hours of work, and other conditions of employment." Collective bargaining relationship between employer and union is a *continuous one* involving contract administration as well as contract negotiation.

Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:6) conclude that collective bargaining occurs when two or more parties consisting of groups of people act collectively. The purpose is to come to an agreement on issues that concern the group as a whole.

Thus, collective bargaining is negotiation about wages, hours and other working conditions between workers organised as a group and their employer or employers.

### **2.3.8 Consultation**

This involves merely informing others of intended actions prior to taking decisions (Bennet 1991:40). *Longman Dictionary of contemporary English*,

*New Edition* (1990:219) explains that consultation is a meeting held to exchange opinions and ideas, especially so that a decision can be taken.

Thus, it seems from above that, consultation is a meeting held to seek information or to exchange opinions, ideas and views on an issue prior to taking a decision.

## **2.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF NEGOTIATION**

Negotiation is a fact of life, for everything in life is negotiated under all conditions, and at all times. Every aspect of our lives is spent in some form of negotiation, for whenever we exchange ideas with the intention of changing relationships, whenever we confer for agreement, then we are negotiating.

Cloete (1992:232) argues that students and learners negotiate with administrators, husbands with wives, clients with attorneys, attorneys with judges, supervisors with subordinates, unions with management, nations with one another.

He asserts that negotiation has been, is, and will no doubt continue to be employed as a major mechanism of conflict resolution in our society despite numerous other techniques such as a variety of legal procedures, joint problem-solving efforts, the creation of third party roles, and of course, violence.

Negotiation is useful when it is obvious there is going to be losers as a result of a change and where losers are likely to resist and disrupt the implementation of the change resulting in violence and strikes (Bowman & Asch, 1987:228).

Nieuwmeijer (1988:1) adds that as the escalation of conflict becomes evident in the world - in diverse fields such as learner - management, educational crises, poor matric results, labour management, international affairs, business, family and personal relationships - the significance of negotiations and the need to negotiate increase.

In today's work settings where more people are being offered opportunities to be involved in decisions affecting them and their work, the significance of negotiation cannot be over emphasised. As they do get involved,

disagreements over diverse matters such as wage rates, task objectives, performance evaluations, job assignments, work schedules, work locations, special privileges, and many other considerations are likely to occur (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1991:379).

Brigham (1991:242) is of opinion that negotiation is pervasive in modern life. At the individual level, divorcing spouses must negotiate for settlement, professional athletes' agents negotiate contracts with team management, individuals negotiate the sale of house, and so forth. At a group level, negotiation ranges from union-management collective bargaining to treaty negotiations between nations.

Since organisations such as schools are becoming more and more participative, a manager's familiarity with basic negotiation concepts and processes is increasingly important for dealing with such day to day affairs (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:379).

## **2.5 PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING NEGOTIATION**

Negotiation is a process in which individuals or groups seek to reach goals by making agreements with others (Johnson, 1993:2). This process often includes offering concessions and demanding them from other parties, but it functions best when it serves as a method for discovering mutual interests and joint pay-offs.

People are motivated to act when they feel aggrieved, worried, or insecure, or when they need a change. The urge to negotiate comes when they find that what they want or need is available only at the cost or in the form they desire through someone else. Otherwise, they could obtain what they need on their own. Negotiation therefore is a struggle for a solution or used to manage change (Hargie, 1991:303). According to Theron (1996:155) and Johnson (1993:3) important principles underlying negotiation are that at least two parties have to be involved, and that discussions have to centre around conflicting concerns. Individual people, factions, organisations, or nations could qualify as a "party" in negotiation. Each party needs a sense of its own interest and

purpose, it aims to accomplish something for its side through the assistance or compliance of the other party. The parties have to communicate with one another to find solutions. Each party must understand the role and needs of the other party and be willing to exchange and examine proposals in an attempt to reach the best possible solution.

The end point of the process is a set of *rules*, there may also be an agreed *story* about what has happened, and why (Hargie, 1991:303).

## 2.6 MODELS OF NEGOTIATION

No one procedure can be put forward as suitable to the requirements of all parties in all negotiations. However, it is possible to list some common sense guidelines that appear to have general utility (Davey *et al.*, 1982:119). Eight researchers, namely Mastenbroek (1983:116-5), Nel and Van Rooyen (1985:110), Leritz (1987:159-216), Nieuwmeijer (1988:17-23), Tillett (1991:46-48), Helps (1992:3-7), Nel *et al.* (1993:117-118) and Falkenberg (1995:9-10), among others, have drawn up general principles as models of negotiation. These models will be discussed in this section.

### 2.6.1 Mastenbroek's model of negotiation (1983)

Mastenbroek's (1983:11-65) model of negotiation views negotiation as a complex of five types of activities.

- I. Obtaining *substantial results* dividing the costs and benefits, achieving the goals dictated by your interests. This involves a choice of position as expressed in standpoints, proposals, arguments and concessions.
- II. Influencing the *balance of power* between parties - keeping it in equilibrium or making it a little more favourable to oneself. Wanting to dominate, scoring points and being obstinate lead more readily to fighting than to negotiation.
- III. Influencing the *atmosphere*: promoting a constructive climate and positive personal relations. Hard negotiation must not be confused with hostile, irritated or sulky behaviour.

- IV. Influencing the *constituency*: reinforcing one's own position with respect to the constituency on whose behalf one is negotiating.
- V. Influencing the *procedures*: developing procedures that allow people to be flexible while increasing the chances of reaching a favourable compromise. This is how a negotiator develops integrative potential. How does he create flexibility, how does he maintain other options, how does he find integrative possibilities? This is primarily a question of procedures.

Negotiation according to Mastenbroek (1983:11-25) is a process of information exchange that goes on until compromises advantageous to both parties begin to take shape. It is an art to get this process of information exchange going cautiously and step by step, so that the interests and the expectations of both sides gradually come into view.

Only when the parties have allowed each other to peer behind their declared positions and arguments do possible solutions begin to take shape.

### **2.6.2 Nel and Van Rooyen's negotiation model (1985)**

This is a model provided by Lombard (1978) and quoted in Nel and Van Rooyen (1985:110). In this model, a negotiator should follow a number of guidelines and be conscious of them to be successful. The model requires that a negotiator should be sure that clear objectives are set on every bargaining item and that he understands on what grounds the objectives were established. There should be no hurry, and when in doubt, caucus. The negotiator must be well prepared with firm data support for clearly identified objectives. He should not concern himself only with what the other party says and does but he should find out why. The negotiator should be a good listener and build a reputation for being fair but firm. Each bargaining move should be measured against objectives and in so doing, emotions must be controlled and not to panic. Emotions must be a tool and not an obstacle.

Nel and Van Rooyen conclude that negotiation by its very nature is part of a compromise process for there is no such thing as having all the pie. People

and their personalities must be understood, it may mean a pay-off during negotiations.

### **2.6.3 Lertz model of negotiation (1987)**

The principles underlying this model are:

- Create a safe environment
- Shift your focus
- Understand others, don't beat them
- Attend to the obvious.

According to Lertz (1987:159) using these four principles will get you more of what you need, more often. They will enable you to create a co-operative climate in which both parties negotiate from generative thinking. Let us consider some salient points on the four principles.

- *Create a safe environment*

Lertz (1987:161) believes that contrary to popular belief, and common practice, in most cases it is to our advantage:

- Not to intimidate the other person.
- Not box the opposition into the corner.
- Not put the opposition off balance.
- Not see how difficult we can make it for them.

Our job in a negotiation is to see how easy we can make it for others to co-operate with us. People become self-protective and grabby when they assume someone is trying to take advantage of them and they feel cheated or wary.

- *Shift your focus*

Our negotiation will sometimes be focused primarily on solving problems. Other times we will be focused on resolving conflicts. During a successful negotiation process, we will usually be focusing on solving a problem and on resolving a relationship. Conflicts often arise in the course of negotiating

solutions to problems. When this happens, we need to shift the focus of the negotiation from problem-solving to resolving relationship issues.

The principle is when what you are doing in a negotiation is not working, stop. Point out the behaviours that are preventing you from reaching resolution and suggest an alternative process.

- *Understand, Others, Don't beat them*

Leritz (1987:196) argues that there should be a distinction between problems and solutions. Otherwise negotiation could be unsuccessful. The focus should therefore be on defining the problems, needs, values, concerns and interests and not on defending solutions, answers or satisfactory behaviour.

By focusing on solutions rather than problems, we usually *take a stand* to promote or defend our solution. We assume we have the right answer or best solution because we thought of it. Solutions would naturally come into focus once we have identified the real needs.

The primary task in every negotiation is to understand the other person - not to beat him. We need to look behind his behaviour and find out why he is doing what he is doing. We need to find out why he has adopted his stand and what he needs to have in order to give us what we want.

- *Attend to the Obvious*

Attending to the obvious means paying attention to what is foreground: what is immediately, obviously going on before and within us. It means paying attention to what is going on in the moment. Attending to the obvious using our capacities to focus and analyse, to see the differences. It also requires us to be insightful, to see the similarities between all the persons involved, to see the whole picture and to empathise with the other person's needs. It is being an objective observer and being present at the same time. It is being involved without losing yourself in the process. If we attend to the obvious, we will naturally do what we need to do from moment to moment. We will reach resolution. The only failure in life is the failure to listen to what is true within us.

#### **2.6.4 Nieuwmeijer's Mathematical model of negotiation (1988)**

Negotiation models according to Nieuwmeijer (1988:17) can be classified as mathematical versus non-mathematical, analytical versus descriptive, or dynamic versus passive dichotomies. Despite the fact that no generally accepted classification exists, Nieuwmeijer chooses to make use of the mathematical versus non-mathematical models due to the nature of negotiation models being easily distinguished on the grounds of their mathematical or non-mathematical nature.

In Nieuwmeijer's *Mathematical negotiating model*, negotiation is represented by calculating the negotiating results mathematically (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:17) or by calculating the optimum point for an agreement (Suskind & Bazerman, 1985). They can represent a large number of complex variables, their relation and the analytical levels more precisely and accurately, as they do not have to make use of verbal input and can therefore be more exact. It is nevertheless this precision that restricts a comprehensive phenomenon such as negotiation, because the process whereby the result is derived - the negotiating phases, the relation, the elements which play a role therein and in the broader context - has not, as yet been thoroughly investigated. The economic models such as the usefulness or profit models that are also mainly mathematically orientated, are used in business and their development can be ascribed to the business world's willingness to provide money for this research.

Both the mathematical and economic type of models do reflect more serious defects which make them unsuitable for describing negotiation as a complex communication process functioning within a social context.

*Models* on the mathematical side of the dichotomy include economic, game theory and hybrid models. The game theory models attracted much attention in the negotiation writings of the past decade or two resulting in their redefinition as *zero-sum* and *variable-sum models* (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:19).

Nieuwmeijer (1988:22) argues that the mathematical model is of a continuous type mostly economical and its strengths are that (i) exact result can be determined through mathematical analysis, (ii) there are no semantically related

problems and (iii) models can be refined by adding variables, relationships, etc. The mathematical model has limitations. These are (i) the model assumes rationality of negotiator, (ii) utility functions have mathematical limitations, (iii) the model does not delineate factors that influence negotiation results and (iv) the model does not lend itself to resolution of discrete negotiation issues. The model uses the language of a theoretical calculus.

### **2.6.5 Tillett model of negotiation (1991)**

Tillett's (1991:46-48) negotiation model analyses negotiation as an application of principles for effective negotiation.

- *Preparation*

The model begins with preparation for resolution and stresses that without adequate preparation, success is unlikely. The preparation for negotiation includes all those elements essential to preparation for the resolution of the conflict or problem; careful identification of and reflection on the needs of both parties, and an evaluation of options, cost and benefits.

- *Establish positive climate*

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

- *Avoid positions and personalities*

Positions or demands of the parties should be distinguished from interests or needs. Each party should seek to understand the other, and provide sufficient disclosure to be understood in return. Emphasise the importance of avoiding positions and personalities in negotiating; that is, negotiation should be seen as a process which seeks to meet interests, and to win positions, or to gain victories for people.

- *Trust*

Trust is important in negotiation, for an assumption that the other party is untrustworthy encourages suspicion, and is likely to cause dishonest negotiation in return.

- *Co-operation*

Being seen to be co-operative encourages co-operation from the other party and conveys the message of eagerness to deal effectively with the matter. A good negotiator is visibly co-operative. Although often interpreted as weakness and giving in, being flexible, willing to explore options, and prepared to look at and try to meet as many of the needs of the other party as possible positively promotes effective negotiation.

- *Summary*

The key characteristics of Tillet's (1991) effective negotiation model include adopting a positive approach to solving problems and meeting needs, with adequate analysis and preparation. The focus should be on meeting the other's needs, both in terms of the outcome of the negotiation and of any personal interests as well. Effective communication, particularly active listening, is essential. Willingness to co-operate, to be flexible, and to adapt must be demonstrated. Final agreements need to be clearly and precisely defined. It is particularly useful to commit the agreement to writing, although not necessarily as a formal agreement.

### **2.6.6 Helps' model of negotiation (1992)**

Helps' (1992:3-7) model of negotiation is in the form of 7 key general principles for working as a negotiator.

- I. *System and strategy*: Some aspects of negotiation need to be done before others such as being clear about what is wanted from the negotiation and how much movement is possible, thus making negotiation a system and strategy.

- II. *Self-confidence*: Negotiators should develop and maintain self confidence, for a low sense of self-esteem results in the feeling that we are unable to negotiate.
- III. *Challenge and Respect*: Arguments can be challenged and criticised but argument isn't the person. The technique here is communicating, listening and being respectful to the other party as human beings.
- IV. *Give up Blaming*: Blaming undermines our sense of power and influence. We should not feel better by blaming others for the reality that we are all responsible.
- V. *Negotiation means Movement*: Negotiation means both parties being clear about what is ideally wanted and being prepared to move from the original position in order to reach a workable compromise. Movement is essential in negotiation, for without the commitment to move, negotiation cannot take place. Influencing skills are often used in a negotiation. However, if the situation is resolved purely through persuasion, influence or logical argument then it is not negotiation. There has to be movement on both sides for a true negotiation to take place. Therefore influencing is a one-way process while negotiating is a two-way process.
- VI. *Everybody Wins*: Helps (1992-6) argues that all the parties involved in the negotiation should leave with their self-respect at least intact, if not enhanced. Negotiation is not about winning at the expense of the other person; negotiation is about each party winning, even though one side may have lost the contract to a competitor. There should be a feeling that the process has been enjoyable, energising and respectful, and that the business relationship will continue so that there will be other opportunities for negotiation in future.
- VII. *Brighter and Smarter*: We must remind ourselves and others that we are bright and smart and able to work out the best solutions to the negotiations in which we are involved. This works magic for us.

### **2.6.7 Nel et al.'s model of negotiation (1993)**

The authors (1993:117-118) believe that to negotiate successfully the parties need to follow a model or to comply with certain basic principles which include the following:

- continually strengthen the relationship of trust by giving no misleading information
- implementing agreements
- complying with official and non-official procedures and rules such as protecting the confidentiality of information between the parties
- upholding the agreed negotiation procedures
- exchanging agendas in advance and providing the other party with the opportunity to study them
- accepting the negotiation process in good spirit meaning that:
  - \* a compromise will have to be made;
  - \* there will have to be commitment to reach an agreement, without it, negotiation is not in good faith;
  - \* a legalistic - technical approach ought to be avoided because it could have a negative effect on development of a healthy relationship;
  - \* accepting each other's negotiation status by recognising and respecting each party's independence and the fact that there will be fundamental differences between them;
  - \* by accepting that the negotiators merely represent the mandate of their principals (their employers or the trade union);
  - \* recognising that each party has the power to cause "harm" to the other.

### **2.6.8 Falkenberg's model of negotiation (1995).**

There are five main competencies used by top level negotiators to competence and effectiveness (Falkenberg, 1995:9-10).

- *Reaction Control*

Negotiators must control their reaction even under extreme provocation. Techniques such as biting your tongue, counting to ten before replying or simply saying and staying silent could be used. Negotiators with these techniques are mentally able to climb a tree, effectively removing themselves from the fray and observing what's happening from a mental distance.

- *Listen Intensely*

Instead of trying to counter the other party's position or threats, the skill is actively to attempt to understand them. Top level negotiators strive to ensure that they have truly understood the other party's situation, feelings and intentions and acknowledge the importance of all these to the other party.

- *Reframe the Game*

This happens when the negotiator treats any destructive, confrontational approach as though it were distributive and competitive - or higher up the hierarchy. Reframing in this way encourages the other party to shift up a level or two in its thinking and behaving.

- *Explore Common Ground*

This involves a search for commonality or complementarity in the needs and interests of the parties involved. The techniques here include the structuring of questions so that the answer is "yes" even though the content remains divergent, recalling the road travelled together and restating every possible area of common ground, even obvious ones.

- *Explore Consequences*

Top level negotiators avoid threats and instead invite all parties to consider the consequences of any party being pushed beyond its bottom line. The approach is to educate the other side as to the reality of the situation and the consequences of that reality for all involved.

This model, Falkenberg (1995:10) concludes, hinges on trust as an evolving reality.

### 2.6.5 Conclusion

From the above-named general principles or models of negotiation, it seems the following could be a model for negotiation.

- *Defined Authority*

One person must be in charge of conducting the negotiations for each side or party. Authority division in negotiation is fatal to orderly procedure and normally impedes the agreement-making process.

- *Preparation and Strategy*

Negotiation should be planned ahead. A systematic process whereby your power, your needs, and objectives as well as bargaining parameters are considered, are imperative. For example unnecessary arguments such as whether subject x is in order at this time will be eliminated.

- *Listening and Respect*

Listening to members serves important functions in addition to creating an atmosphere for group discussion. There should be respect from and on both parties involved in the negotiation while feeling free to agree or disagree on a point on either side in order to arrive at a consensus.

- *Avoid Blaming*

We should always try not to feel better by shifting blame on to our opponents. Blaming the other would undermine our sense of influence and even power, for it is sometimes necessary to give one step backward in order to go two steps forward. Again irrelevant comments annoy other members and must be discouraged.

- *Win - Win Attitude*

Negotiation is not about winning at the expense of the other person, negotiation is about each party winning and losing a little, that each party should gain the best possible result, instead of deceiving each other as much as possible.

This attitude can enhance the working relationship between the parties and minimises the opponent's desire for retaliation because that party was deceived. Negotiation should be seen as a device with which to reach a solution that satisfies all which bring peace for uninterrupted academic climate suitable for learning and teaching to take place in the schools so as to produce good academic results.

- *Provision of Summaries for each major point*

As an effective way of focusing on important issues, the leader(s) should provide summaries of each major point after they are made. Doing so provides structure to the meeting and gives parties the feeling that something specific is being accomplished.

## **2.7 FORMS OF NEGOTIATION**

Negotiation can take many forms. Johnson (1993:2) identifies the following forms in negotiation:

- It may include many people or only two.
- It may focus on one simple problem or many complex issues.
- It may be concluded in one session or may be an ongoing process.
- It may be a formal ritual or an informal conversation.
- It may be an effort to maintain a relationship or endorse changes.

The problems in many secondary schools especially in the North West province, are many and varied. Negotiation between the principal and the learners may take any one of the above forms of negotiation depending upon the nature of the problem and the style of negotiation of the principal.

## **2.8 WHEN IS NEGOTIATION NECESSARY?**

Negotiation, like conflict, is part of everyday life, but according to Moore (1986:11) some conflicts illustrate a clear case for negotiation, especially when parties are:

- Interdependent and must rely on the co-operation of one another in order to meet their goals or satisfy their interests.
- Able to influence one another and can undertake or prevent actions that either harm or reward.
- Pressured by deadlines and time constraints and share an impetus for early settlement.
- Aware that alternative procedures and outcomes to a negotiated settlement do not appear as viable or desirable as a bargain that they reach themselves.
- Able to identify the critical primary parties and involve them in the problem-solving process.
- Able to identify and agree on the issues in dispute.
- In a situation in which the interests of the parties are not entirely incompatible.
- Influenced by external constraints, such as unpredictability of a judicial decision, potentially angry patients or staff, costs of establishing a new practice, and expenses of recruiting a new physician, that encourage them to reach a negotiated settlement.

Johnson (1993:2) adds that the urge to negotiate comes when parties find that what they want or need is available only at the cost or in the form they desire through someone else.

It is not appropriate to negotiate always Kennedy (1992:4) argues but only when we are given no choice, when we need each other's consent, when the outcome is uncertain and when the stakes justify our time and effort.

The above conditions are critical to successful negotiation (Moore, 1986:11). It seems from above that negotiation plays a major role in all organisations including schools. When parties involved in a conflict are willing to find a peaceful settlement or solution to their problems, they negotiate.

## **2.9 WHEN IS A MEDIATOR NEEDED IN NEGOTIATIONS**

There are elements that make negotiations on their own extremely difficult. To overcome these problems, a mediator may be needed. Moore (1986:11) presents that a mediator may be called into negotiation when :

- the emotions of the parties are intense and are preventing a settlement;
- communication between the parties is poor in either quantity or quality and the parties cannot change the situation on their own;
- misperceptions or stereotypes are hindering productive exchanges;
- repetitive negative behaviour are creating barriers;
- there are serious disagreements over data - when information is important, how it is to be collected, and how it will be evaluated;
- there are multiple issues in dispute and the parties disagree about the order and combination in which they should be addressed
- there are perceived or actual incompatible interest that the parties are having difficulty reconciling;
- perceived or unnecessary value difference divide the parties;
- the parties do not have a negotiating procedure, are using the wrong procedure, or are not using a procedure to its best advantage;
- the parties are having difficulties starting negotiations or have reached an impasse in their bargaining.

Much of the literature (Albert, 1986:30; Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:218; Anstey, 1993:2) to mention a few, seem to suggest that where parties cannot reach an agreement on a specific matter through negotiation, such as increase in school fees, a dispute that may lead to a strike action by learners, may be referred to mediation by the school governing council or officials of the Department of Education.

## 2.10 THE ROLE OF A MEDIATOR IN NEGOTIATIONS

To promote realistic negotiations, sometimes an outsider, an experienced neutral, mediator, may be appointed by the negotiating parties to help with caucuses. Anstey (1993:23) presents that, the mediator tries to reconcile the parties by allowing each party to give its account of events. He seeks sufficient movement to allow negotiations to continue without third-party assistance through the removal of specific obstacles to bargaining.

He reduces tension in the relationship by making use of questions, answers and summaries to identify mutual issues. The mediator assists in broadening the search for solutions or settlements and steers parties to an acceptable agreement.

He patiently moves between parties to improve communication and or understanding. The mediator exerts direct influence on the dispute but cannot make binding decisions.

The role of a mediator, from above, comes into play through negotiation. Mediators may find themselves in a variety of roles, such as peace-keeping, peace-making or peace-building by suggesting strategies and tactics which will lead to a mutually acceptable settlement.

## 2.11 NEGOTIATION FACTORS

Leritz (1987:178) provides that in every negotiation, four factors are to be considered, namely:

- The *substantive issue* (the problem) - what we are talking about. For example, we may be talking about the school uniform in the High school (the substantive issue or problem) which is factor 1.
- The *relationship 2* (the conflict) - the degree of acceptance or non-acceptance by the other person. Example, I may feel resentful toward you because I believe you are trying to take advantage of me (that's the conflict or non-acceptance in our relationship) factor 2.

- The *process* (how we are talking or not talking to each other to solve the problem and resolve the relationship). For example we may be yelling at each other and not listening and bringing up past events (the process we are using) factor 3.
- The *criteria* (the standards for settlement). An example is that I may be citing learner poor academic performance in the school for my type of position, and you may be arguing about the frequent breaking of windows and doors in the school (the standards for fair settlement) the last factor.

Effective negotiators realise they must shift their focus among these factors. At various times in a negotiation, each of these factors may be the primary issue that needs to be addressed. It is important to know when to focus on the problem, when to focus on the relationship, when to focus on the process, and when to focus on the criteria for settlement.

## **2.12 GENERAL MISTAKES THAT OCCUR DURING NEGOTIATION**

When negotiators agree to invite a mediator to intervene in a dispute, it shows that some mistakes may have been made by both sides. *The Centre for the Training of Trainers Module V Potchefstroom University (1995:17)* identifies some common mistakes during negotiations.

- *Poor listening*

The negotiator's mind is so occupied with what he wants to say that he neglects to listen properly.

- *Poor questioning*

According to the report, if one does not listen properly, one won't be able to ask relevant questions. Questions reveal valuable information. Therefore negotiators are urged to ask relevant questions.

- *Poor replies to questions*

Negotiators are urged not to give vague answers to questions posed by opponents. Replies should be short and straight to the point and to enable the negotiations to continue.

- *Debating instead of negotiating*

The report advises negotiators to prevent the following three mistakes, to wit.

- \* early rejection of alternatives
- \* early establishment of a firm position
- \* immediately opposing opponents' suggestions

- *Use of irritating tactics*

A language which might irritate or upset an opponent must not be used. The negotiator should not be bothered if his opponent calls him a capitalist or slave driver.

- *No notes taking*

Only important arguments, statements and facts must be minuted. Not everything may be written down - negotiators should be selective.

- *Too much aggression*

An aggressive negotiator will rather burn bridges than build them. Aggression may hamper negotiation and objectives may not be met easily.

Anstey (1993:80-87) adds the following common mistakes, poor planning and preparation; poor communication, hostile climate through criticism, arrogance or an attitude of superiority, poor bargaining skills and ineffective problem solving approach.

Van der Westhuizen and Theron (1996:170) ascribe to the above stated common mistakes occurring during negotiations.

Thus, negotiators may be caught up in poor listening, poor questioning, poor replies to questions, debating instead of negotiating, use of irritating tactics and

too much aggression. These, from above, are common mistakes that often occur in negotiations, and must be avoided.

## 2.13 THE PROCESS OF NEGOTIATION

Negotiation is a process that consists of three phases as indicated below (Pottas & Nieuwmeijer, 1992:16 in Van der Westhuizen & Theron 1996-158).

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

The three phases above normally follow one another in a logical manner. The key points involved in these phases are as follows:

### *Phase 1:*

- *Prelude:* The need or necessity for negotiation leading to preparation for negotiation by parties. Objectives, issues, standpoints, strategies and tactics to be adopted in the negotiation are identified during the prelude phase.

### *Phase 2:*

- *Duration:* This is the face to face persuasive communication period. The issues for the negotiation are presented, and strategies and tactics are then applied.

### *Phase 3:*

- *Termination:* No negotiation is completed successfully until all agreements have been implemented in their entirety by the two parties. If for instance an educational manager or a principal applies manipulative techniques that cause teachers or learners to enter into an agreement with which they are unhappy, the possibility may be that implementation will not take place (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:56).

Principals should always consider the very practical implications of what they are negotiating with learners, educators and parents and have their implementation in mind. Good principals when they negotiate, always make sure that they give great attention to detail at the end of the negotiation to ensure that both parties benefit in the long term and will possibly continue to negotiate the more in future.

Many authors (Lax & Sebenius, 1986:11; Albert, 1986:15; Kennedy *et al.*, 1987:14; Nieuwmeijer, 1988:10; Du Plessis, 1990:13) agree that negotiation is a process. However, Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:18) contend that negotiation being a process implies that:

- negotiation would proceed through various phases that could be repeated over time, and
- there could be a starting point and a point where the process is completed.

Where, then does negotiation start and where does it end? According to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:18), to identify the "end" of negotiation is probably easier than identifying the start. They would refer to the *cause* or *potential* for negotiation rather than a fixed starting point.

Nel *et al.* (1993:119) identify three important phases of negotiation, to wit, preparation, interaction and administration. They advance that negotiation starts at the point of initial contact between the primary parties. The preceding phase is the period where relationships are being established and built. The more comprehensive and complex the topic for negotiation, the more time and energy will have to be spent.

In considering the process of negotiation, De Beer and Ritson (1993:45-48) break negotiation process into five different stages which are the preceding phase, the planning phase, the clarifying phase, the restructuring phase and the closing phase. Their approach provides that the successful outcome of negotiation will rely 80% on the planning and 20% on the actual negotiation process.

The planning period is a systematic process where-by power, needs and objectives as well as bargaining parameters are considered.

In the clarifying phase, the opponents opening position and mandate and their parameters (borders) are tested. The style of the negotiator could be described in this phase.

The restructuring phase is where information is given and positions are explained in order to influence the opponents perceptions and restructure their expectations and conditioning. Parties are expected to move closer to each other in their search for agreements.

The closing phase is the last stage of the negotiation process. It is the stage where agreement and commitment are reached or a decision to disagree is reached. Agreements must be put in writing and structures for future negotiations (if necessary) must be laid down.

The negotiation process has an educational value for negotiators in that it sets the scene for the negotiating interaction as well as for the subsequent co-operative interaction between learners and principal (Nel & Van Rooyen, 1985:109).

During the process of negotiation, timing becomes an important principle. Nel and Van Rooyen (1985:1 10) argue that it is of critical importance to know when to listen, when to speak, when to concede a point and when to force an issue. A bit of humour at a critical point will relieve tension. This timing is much more a question of practical experience and sensitivity during the negotiations than of learning. All these constitute a process for a successful negotiation. Another keynote of a successful negotiation during the negotiation process is flexibility. Even if the desired and minimum positions of the opposition are well known, it is strategic to at least appear to be flexible, and to be willing to make concessions (Nel & Van Rooyen, 1985:110).

To conclude, it seems from the literature that negotiation is a process that consists of four phases. These clearly show when negotiation becomes necessary and therefore gets started. For negotiation to be successful, (1) it

needs careful preparation, and (2) a face-to-face persuasive communication. There should be (3) agreements in the process of negotiation, where all parties involved in the negotiation will be happy to implement and (4) undertake follow-ups to ensure that implementation is going on according to plan. The process continues with parties ready to continue with future negotiations.

## **2.14 CAUSES FOR NEGOTIATION**

When you find yourself involved in a well-established, destructive conflict, don't assume that you know its cause, that anyone is to blame, or that the other person is deliberately attempting to hurt you. Dedicate yourself to the discovery of what is truly going on before taking any action. The situation may call for third party assistance (Mayer, 1990:9). An examination of the literature reveals a variety of causes for negotiation. For instance, in the school situation, the cause for negotiation at any given time is created by a number of factors that operate on an individual institution and or the management style of the principal. There could be casual negotiations between the principal and the Representative Council of Learners (RCL) over special privileges learners levies, work locations, time tables, reallocation of some educators, avoidance of strikes, violence, intimidation, classboycotts and conflicts. This is necessary because according to Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:96) negotiations provide guidelines to follow and the skills to handle aggression, conflict escalation and irrational action to bring peace in institutions of learning.

The following causes for negotiation in schools have been identified by many authors such as Hodge and Anthony (1979:327), Albert (1986:3), Armstrong (1988:58), Haas (1988:733), McKendrick and Hoffmann (1990:341), Nelson-Jones (1986:268), Anstey (1991:91), Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:19) and Griffin (1993:435).

The causes identified are:

- conflict as a cause for negotiation (March & Simon, 1958:135; Nelson-Jones, 1986:238; Chan & Jabri, 1993:165; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:27; Falkenberg, 1995:4);

- violence as a cause for negotiation (Haas, 1988:733; McKendrick, 1990:341; Degenaar, 1990:85);
- students' strikes as a cause for negotiation (Schmuck & Runkel, 1988:324; Deaux & Wrightsman, 1988:483);
- attitudes as a cause for negotiation (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:147);
- vandalism as a cause for negotiation (Coursen, 1975:14; Levy-Leboyer, 1984:5);
- power struggles as a cause for negotiation (Turner & Weed, 1983:152);
- limited resources as a cause for negotiation (Haller & Strike, 1986:192);
- staff remuneration as a cause for negotiation (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:46; Deaux Wrightsman, 1988:483);
- labour Unions as a cause for negotiation (Nel & Van Rooyen, 1985:78; Mondy *et al.*, 1986:386);
- retrenchment as a cause for negotiation (Joubert, 1993:124);
- affirmative action as a cause for negotiation (Nkhulu *in* Adams, 1993:17);
- organisational conditions as a cause for negotiation (Pneuman & Bruehl, 1982:46-49);
- resistance to change as a cause for negotiation (Bovee, Thill, Wood & Dovel, 1993:345; Mondy *et al.*, 1986:386);
- difference in opinion as a cause for negotiation (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:46);
- tool requirements, additional personnel, accommodation and transport as a cause negotiation in schools (Cloete, 1992:232).

However, the emphasis of this study is not on causes for negotiation *per se*, a detailed report on the above causes for negotiation would therefore not be given now. They could be considered for a future study.

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

Throughout the literature it seems that negotiation has mainly positive effects, The negative effects of negotiation occur when a wrong interpretation of the situation is given and or when the parties involved in the negotiation show plain stubbornness resulting in an impasse which may call for an arbitration, mediation or violent means (Gordon, 1987:248).

Thorn (1989:7) observes that negotiation should be regarded as a potentially beneficial activity for both parties. It is not only the lubricant of trade, but also of many other social interactions, such as the school.

Negotiation produces "wise" agreement that is truly satisfactory to all sides, it is "efficient" and no more time consuming or costly than absolutely necessary. Negotiation is "harmonious" and fosters rather than inhibits good interpersonal relations (Schermerhorn, 1996:381).

Hough, Du Plessis and Van der Merwe (1990:2) stress that given the various options at conflict resolution, the only option which promises the maximum gain and minimum loss for all is negotiation which has the effect of permanently dealing with violence, intimidation, vandalism and production of poor academic results in the institutions of learning. Researchers like Keith and Girling (1991) argue that schools in which principals practice negotiation experience a significantly higher learner performance than those schools in which principals fear to negotiate or negotiate out of fear.

Negotiation establishes a basis for co-operation, joint responsibility, joint planning and joint problemsolving which are fundamental for peace and smooth running of schools in a country.

When confronted with conflict, there are basically four options available, namely (i) opting out by avoiding or ignoring the conflict, (ii) the acceptance of the status quo, (iii) taking violent action to change it and (iv) changing it through peaceful negotiation.

These options, in Du Plessis' (1990:10) view, form a continuum ranging from disorder and violence to order and peaceful change, that is aggressiveness and

obedience from the extremes. Whereas the area to the one extreme represents anarchy or an order of a kind in subjugation that on the other, negotiation, brings about peaceful change where most people are satisfied with the existing rules and where they voluntarily obey and implement actions agreed upon in a rule-making system.

## **2.16 APPROACHES TO NEGOTIATION**

Several approaches to negotiation have been proposed in the literature. The choice of approach depends on a variety of factors including the nature of the issues at stake, the history of relations between the parties, their respective negotiation skills, ideological influences, constituencies and the intensity of the conflict. Another factor influencing choice of approach lies in the parties having a concern about their own and each other's outcomes (Anstey, 1991:111).

Two approaches have been suggested by Nieuwmeijer (1988:8), Anstey (1991:111), De Beer and Ritson (1993:43) and Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:34-35), these are Integrated Approach and Distributive Approach.

*Integrative Approach:* - All the above researchers agree that the basis of integrative negotiation approach is "lose a bit to win a bit". Both sides using the approach accept that it is not possible to win one hundred percent and therefore each party attempts to achieve the greatest gain with the smallest possible loss for the other party by means of co-operation.

In this model, Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:8) recognise that disagreements are seen to be more costly than compromise, gains and losses should be equalised, and then conclude that there are underlying repetitive or continuous relationships which have to be maintained as there could definitely be future dependence of the parties on each other.

Examples are found within organisations where managers negotiate with each other about budgets and projects, where company representatives negotiate with suppliers, agents and retailers negotiate about buying and selling goods or services.

*Distributive Approach:* This, to the researchers entails the greatest gain for a party without considering the position of the other, and is achieved through competition. The one party will win and the other party will lose. Distributive approach to negotiation is a win - lose model of negotiation.

The distributive model of negotiation is often regarded as not really "negotiation", for one party has to lose and will seek control over the other's finances, resources or associations. The actions of the parties will be directed at the other party rather than at problem solving, and will be *offensive* rather than *defensive* with manipulation occurring (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:8). A good example of this is a court case, some property negotiations, election issues, religious issues, divorce cases and second hand car deals.

Bennet (1991:40) however, identifies three approaches to negotiation, these are Conjunctive, Distributive and Integrative approaches to negotiation. He does not differ with the above researches' distributive and integrative approaches to negotiation but adds that *conjunctive* negotiation approach is where the parties have no alternative but to reach agreement.

## **2.17 ATTITUDES TO THE USE OF NEGOTIATION IN SCHOOLS**

A lot of managers have negative attitudes towards the use of negotiations as a managerial task. All these attitudes stem out of a basic feeling of fear and insecurity of their jobs.

Anthony (1978:40) observes that principals are afraid that in practising negotiation as a managerial task, they will be lessening their power. They do not understand the concept of shared authority. They believe that sharing authority means they would no longer be powerful.

Some principals fear that using negotiation will cause them to be overshadowed by their subordinates i.e. educators and learners. Therefore some principals ensure that their staff and learners participate on only unimportant matters that have very little real importance to the school. Other principals also fear that practising negotiation will make it difficult to control staff and learners thereby creating lack of discipline situation in the schools.

Yet some principals have negative attitude that the job simply won't get done if they practice negotiation. They believe that negotiation is time-consuming and will result in wasted effort and so the job will not get done especially by delegating.

Principals may hold non-credibility for the use of negotiation owing to previous negative experiences in its use or because it is being used cynically as a delaying tactic by the other party (Anstey, 1993-26),

## **2.18 SUMMARY AND FORECAST**

This chapter focused on the nature of negotiation as it occurs in organisations and institutions particularly in school situations.

Firstly, the chapter presents an explanation of negotiation as a process, a strategy, conferring, reconciling, as a method and as a transaction. This was followed by definitions of terms closely related to negotiation. Significance and process of negotiation were also discussed.

Secondly, some selected models or principles of negotiation have been presented. Negotiation has become a way of life in South Africa in particular and the world in general, however, there are causes for negotiation. Conflict, violence, strikes, vandalism, attitudes, power struggles and limited resources are some of the causes for negotiation in schools mentioned in this chapter.

Effects of negotiation, approaches to negotiation, and attitudes to the use of negotiation especially by school principals as educational managers were given.

Having presented the nature of negotiation and especially the causes for negotiation and negotiation approaches, it is important to know the skills needed for successful negotiation. Consequently, this constitutes the focus of the next chapter.

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## CHAPTER 3

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### THE CONTEXT AND SKILLS NEEDED IN SUCCESSFUL NEGOTIATION IN SCHOOLS

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the nature of negotiation in general and in schools in particular was discussed, because the school principal's interest in using negotiation as a managerial task with learners require a thorough knowledge of the nature of negotiation. Understanding the nature of negotiation competently surely requires the principal to be familiar with the context of negotiation and the skills needed in successful negotiations.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the context of negotiation and the skills needed in successful negotiations. The chapter is divided into context and skills domains. In the context domain, explanation of successful negotiation, climate for negotiations, negotiation for common ground, characteristics of good agreement, elements of negotiation and legal aspects or basis of negotiation are given.

On the skills, an overview is given of negotiation skills, and negotiation styles and strategies. The chapter ends with a conclusion and summary.

#### 3.2 CONTEXT

Successful negotiations take place under some conditions and circumstances which bear close relationship to skills of negotiation. The context of negotiations is the situation, events or information that are related to skills of negotiations and which help to understand better the skills needed in successful negotiations in schools. Thus climate for negotiations, negotiation

for common ground and characteristics of good agreement which influence what skills are needed for a successful negotiations are contextual.

To conclude, a successful negotiation process leads to an agreement between the principal and the Representative Council of Learners (RCL) members on behalf of the entire learner population. Management and learners ideally realize their mutual interdependence and do come together to fashion an agreement that may be seen to be full of promise and that may not lead to disruption in the teaching-learning environment. The agreement seeks to increase the joint gain of both parties, a win/win outcome being the results hoped for.

### **3.2.1 Explanation of successful negotiation**

Some negotiations end in impasse while others end up successfully. According to Nieuwmeijer (1988:41) a negotiation is successful when both parties are satisfied with the outcome of the negotiation and are prepared to implement the results happily to attain a desired end. Rees (1991:270) supports the idea and adds that successful negotiation needs to be judged against the achievement of overall objectives not just by relative comparison with how well the other side did. This may involve taking initiatives to ensure that there is something in a proposal which is of benefit to both sides rather than just trying to out-wit the other side.

Helps (1992:6) maintains that negotiation is not about winning at the expense of the other person. Successful negotiation is about each party winning, even though one side may have lost the contract to a competitor. There should be a feeling that the process has been enjoyable, energising and respectful and that the business relationship will continue so that there will be other opportunities for negotiation in the future. Helps continues by saying that successful negotiation means both parties being clear about what is ideally wanted and being prepared to move from the original position in order to reach workable compromise. There should be movement in successful negotiation for without the commitment to move, negotiation cannot be successful.

A successful negotiation, Hargie (1993:304) concludes, is measured in terms of the product of ratings of agreements obtained from officials of each of the parties. The parties must regard the negotiation as viable and an achievement of a collective bargaining that will work. The agreement should be regarded as mutually acceptable.

### **3.2.2 Negotiation climate**

Situations often predetermine emotional climate in negotiations. The general temper or opinions of people as well as the physical and emotional environment create comfort or anxiety, hostility or goodwill in the community and this is carried over to the negotiation table. This condition has a profound impact on the process and outcome of the negotiation (Johnson, 1993:144).

Each party comes to the negotiation venue with his mind full of recent experiences. Negotiation occurs at a place, so the visitor comes from his travels with the accompanying frustrations at the airport, the railway station, or the car journey, with his mind full of the work he has been doing on his travels, on those who have been in the office and on dealing with colleagues and the problems of everyday life of the business executive. Thus negotiators come from different backgrounds and unless both sides have taken time to compose their mind as they arrive, they will not be in the same frame of mind for a successful negotiation. In addition, negotiators with unresolved grievances are likely to be angry at each other. Parties therefore aim at creating a climate that will be conducive to the agreement that they have in mind (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:50).

#### **3.2.2.1 Types of negotiation climate**

Scott (1988:27), Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:50) identified five types of negotiation climate which exist in negotiations as follows:

- **Natural Climate:** in which people accept the natural characteristics of each other. Negotiations are conducted in a very relaxed manner.
- **Cordial Climate:** where a polite, sympathetic and almost friendly atmosphere exists.

- **Co-operative Climate:** where the parties work together towards an agreement for their mutual benefit.
- **Brisk Climate:** in which parties move at a measured pace towards a settlement whilst neither wastes time nor rushes.
- **Business-like Climate:** where the parties focus on key matters of importance to both sides, to the exclusion of everything else.

### **3.2.2.2 Factors that affect the climate during negotiation**

The initial stages of the negotiation set the tone or climate for the rest of the talks. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:51) observe that factors such as the first impression, politeness, personalities of the negotiators, clothing, the way the other side expresses itself, seating, the place of the first meeting, motivation and needs of the other party, and the events that occurred before the first meeting are very important and affect the climate of the negotiation process.

In order to overcome any adversarial posture which could lead to the other side being aggressive and making a win-win negotiation opportunity difficult to achieve, thereby creating a tense climate, Thorn (1989:59) then proposes that it is essential to take the following steps in the order given:

Set up an atmosphere of mutual respect from the very beginning.

Signal clearly that you are seeking a collaborative approach.

Wait for a confirmatory signal as to whether or not a win-win outcome is also sought by the other side.

Be firm and fair. (If you are not firm, your position will be seen as weak. If you are not fair, you will lose the trust and goodwill you need for co-operative solution).

In conclusion, it is important for the educational manager to accord others especially learners the necessary politeness, love and dignity so that he/she will be respected, regardless of the outcome of the negotiation. This enhances a cordial, co-operative and business-like negotiation climate for an eventual good agreements to be reached and implemented. For if unresolved conflicts

remain, effective negotiation cannot take place since the parties to the negotiation may have unresolved issues outstanding, and are unlikely to have the degree of trust, commitment and self-disclosure necessary for effective collaborative problem solving climate.

### **3.2.3 Negotiation for common ground**

Having established a cordial climate in the negotiation, the educational manager needs to identify common points or views with the learners or the relevant party for quick solution or agreement.

#### **3.2.3.1 Explanation of common ground**

Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:76) explain that common ground are those objectives that parties agree upon and that have relevance to the issue under consideration.

Helps (1992:33) gives examples of common ground. These are:

- commitment to doing business together;
- good working relationships;
- goodwill;
- wanting both parties to profit from the negotiation;
- commitment to resolving the issue/problem;
- the benefit to another party that this negotiation will provide.

#### **3.2.3.2 Common ground questions**

Common ground are seldom known and the onus is on the negotiator to identify these points or areas. This can be done by employing negotiating techniques such as the questions technique (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:137).

To enable a group to reach an agreement on common ground, it is important that questions be asked of the other side about what all agree on. Once every one agrees on certain basic principles, objectives or fears, they can be minuted and used as the basis for the rest of the talks (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:90).

Information on the question "why are we here?" enables the negotiator to direct the negotiation towards a successful agreement.

For example, an educational manager may start the negotiation with his representative council of learners' thus, let us agree that we are here to:

- consider *alternative* ways of working together in the future;
- agree that it is not *me versus you* but rather all of us choosing amongst ourselves different systems that are going to be followed in the future to help us to work together;
- agree that to compromise would be better than to go on strike since strikes and violence are detrimental to the well-being of all;
- agree that, at all costs, there will be *no losers*;
- agree that the parties are together to support each other and be sensitive to each other's feelings.

### **3.2.4 Characteristics of good agreement**

The main objective of negotiating in good faith is to achieve agreements which seek to settle disputes and or resolve conflicts. However, not all agreements are effective. Some agreements create further conflicts as the negotiating parties quarrel or disagree on the meaning of clauses or phrases because a party finds, it is unable to live out the terms of settlement. Many of these problems could be nipped in the bud if parties could take time at end of negotiations to analyse the agreements carefully, discuss their interpretations, remove vague or general statements and understanding of various stages of the agreements and considered action plans to implement them (Albert, 1986:39; Anstey, 1993:71).

The main features of good agreements have been identified by Anstey (1993:71) as follows:

- meet parties aspirations to the extent possible;
- are durable;

- don't damage relations;
- are workable or capable of being put into practice;
- are unambiguous and complete are;
- specific about the assurances given by each party;
- are owned by the parties rather than imposed by an external source-, i.e. they are the product of negotiation;
- are ratified by constituencies, thus enhancing the reputations of the negotiators who achieved them and giving a greater chance of being honoured;
- are achieved within reasonable time frames;
- promote the use of the negotiation process.

Thorn (1989:116) clarifies that a party may not intentionally seek an ambiguous outcome, but such deception may occasionally be there. To ensure that this does not happen, and in any event as a matter of good practice, negotiators should both formally "agree on what they have agreed" and be certain that these reflect their positions, fully and accurately.

In the school situation, to conclude, the principal should explain the main features of the outcome of negotiation with learner leaders to them (learners) at the level to which the learners would understand. The agreement whether written or verbal should be accepted by both parties for implementation. Learners should be happy to be party to the implementation of the agreements because they are workable and above all be ready to negotiate again with the principal.

### **3.2.5 Elements of negotiation**

The negotiation process is influenced by many elements. These elements such as persuasion, power, perception, conflict, trust, needs and the particular context are often processes in their own right and are also being influenced by the negotiation process and by each other (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:45). For the

purpose of this study, only power and perception will be discussed in this section since others have been described elsewhere in the study.

### **3.2.5.1 Power**

One of the four functions of management is leading, defined by Bovee *et al.* (1993:468) as the process of influencing and motivating others (staff and learners) to work together to achieve organizational (educational) goals.

However, principals persist in adopting power as their main managerial style because they do not see their learners and staff as mature, intelligent adults but as potentially naughty young children who have to be kept under control. Such managers will never be able to harness the full range of skills that their staff and learners possess but rather experience power struggles with their subordinates. The habitual exercise of role power is not the way to successful empowerment of others (Stewart, 1994:4).

Furthermore negotiations provide considerable insight into work problems such as authoritarian use of power in the schools and they can be valuable in clarifying the responsibilities of the people involved and the consequences of their actions (Turner & Weed, 1983:152).

#### **3.2.5.1.1 Explanation of Power**

The literature studied seem to indicate that definition of power may be divided into five activities which are closely related, namely- power as an ability, power as capability, power as capacity, power as an opportunity and power as a relationship.

Power may then be defined as the ability to let things happen the way the educational leader wants them to (Kruger, 1995:354 *in* Kroon 1995; Stewart, 1994:3; Van der Westhuizen, 1996:172; Hodgetts, 1990:156; Lewicki & Litterer, 1985:241), as the capability to carry out one's will despite resistance (Haller & Strike, 1986:21; Hall, 1982:131), as the capacity to bring about desired outcomes, or to change the position or stance of another party (Anstey, 1991:114), as the opportunity that permits one person to carry out his will

against the resistance of others (Sullivan, Kenrick, Wright, Gross & Spady, 1980:13), and as a relationship existing whenever a person can impose his/her will on other persons making the latter obey whether they want it or not (Schwarzmantel, 1987:2).

To lead effectively, educational managers need to understand the nature of power. In the literature, distinction is made between power and authority. Power is the ability (potential or actual) to impose one's will on others, that is the ability to make something happen (or prevent it from happening).

Authority is power that the organization formally sanctions. In other words, power is larger concept than authority and indeed subsumes it as a formal power relationship (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:483). Authority is essentially a right, power, on the other hand is basically an ability (Stewart, 1994:3).

A simple definition of negotiating power that includes all these elements is:

The ability to influence the negotiating results (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:51).

#### 3.2.5.1.2 Sources of Power

Several writers (Schmuck & Runkel, 1988; Hodgetts, 1990; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991; Griffin, 1993; Van der Westhuizen, 1996) to mention a few, agree on five types of power which are the educational managers sources of power. These are reward power, coercive power, legitimated power, referent power and expert power. A brief explanation of these sources of power are as follows:

##### *Reward Power*

This is the educational leader's power to give or withhold rewards, such as salary increases, bonuses, promotions, praise recognition for others for successfully or slovenly completed tasks.

##### *Coercive Power*

The power to force compliance by means of psychological emotional or physical threat by the principal or educator.

### *Legitimate Power*

Power legally vested in or assigned to the educational leader's position of authority.

### *Referent Power*

The personal power that accrues to the principal based on personal attractiveness, identification, imitation, loyalty or charisma.

### *Expert Power*

The personal power that accrues to the principal based on the information, expertise of special knowledge, skills, experience, competence that he/she possesses.

The sources of the principal's power are several: the formal power invested in him by the state, the power that derives from being *in loco parentis*, the power resulting from professional training, the general power of adults over juniors, and the power that accrues from possessing a virtual monopoly over classroom resources, most notably, perhaps, grades/results and time. This is the disparity in power between learners and principal (Haller & Strike, 1986:98).

From above, it seems that the principal's role is primarily one of activity and dominance, that of learners is passivity and submission. Thus some of the most useful qualities learners can develop for success in such a milieu are patience, docility and relative quiescence, but such qualities are difficult to achieve for adolescents these days, many of whom are rapidly on the way to physical, social, psychological and sexual maturity.

There is therefore a silent power struggle between learners and principals. Learners therefore watch out for the least opportunity to show that they too have power more than their principals and educators. Perhaps this may be the root cause of frequent school violence and vandalism.

The above are the various types of power the educational leader or principal can hold and managers should understand how to use power properly to avoid power struggles in institutions of learning. No leader is effective unless the

subordinates obey. Thus we can think of power as a two-way street: the leader has power and the subordinates have the right to either comply or refuse to do so. The effective educational leader learns how to use negotiation in dealing with subordinates (Hodgetts, 1990:152).

#### 3.2.5.1.3 *Power Symbols*

Large offices, carpets, reserved parking spaces and styles of dress can all indicate the presence of power. Hodge and Anthony (1991:494) observe that in addition to the above, in one university the floor on which the faculty have their offices indicates the value of the faculty and hence their power. Offices on the same floor as that of the dean of the college hold the most powerful faculty, while the other floors are reserved for those with little power.

#### 3.2.5.1.4 *The Application or use of Power*

Basically, power is used to alter events and circumstances to fit the holder's preferences. One requirement for the effective use of power is effort. A person must exert some amount of energy, and perhaps ingenuity, to have influence (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:500).

When educational managers apply power to influence or to affect the attitudes and behaviour of their staff and learners, the reaction from these subordinates may be with commitment, compliance or resistance to the principal's attempts to influence their performance. The type of power and the manner the principal applies the power determine which reaction is most likely to be offered by the staff and learners.

Those who show *commitment* enthusiastically accept their leader's goals and work hard to achieve them.

Those who show *compliance* are enthusiastic, even passive, and they exert only effort to carry out their manager's instructions.

Staff and learners who show *resistance* oppose the principal's goals and actively try to avoid completing their assigned tasks (Bovee *et al.*, 1993:471).

Principals who exercise power in an arrogant or manipulative manner are more likely to encounter resistance than those who are courteous and who protect their staff and learners' interest.

However, principals do not always have to exercise their power in order to influence their staff and learners. Du Rand (1993:11) is of opinion that negotiations help to think and to gain experience in different ways and to consider different points of view, to think of new and unconventional possibilities and lead to create and choose alternatives rather than the use of coercive power.

#### 3.2.5.1.5 *Management of power struggles*

The principal is legally responsible for the curriculum, organization and discipline of the school. He is therefore accountable for anything that goes on in the school (King, 1973:154). It can be inferred from above that educational managers or principals need power to succeed in both their formal and informal leadership roles, (Kruger *in* Kroon, 1995:354). But because principals differ in how they go about creating an agenda, developing a rationale for achieving the agenda, executing plans, motivating, organizing, enabling, controlling and in the type of outcomes they achieve, there is always power struggles between educational leaders and their subordinates, such as learners and educators (Griffin, 1993:393).

According to Turner and Weed, (1983:78), too much power, too many powers and power applied too frequently is self-defeating. So many organizations, recognising this, decentralise and delegate.

The key issue is not usually how much power one has, but *how* it is used. If power is shared, it is called *co-operation*; if power is withheld, or hoarded, it is seen as a form of *conflict* (Turner & Weed, 1983:77). Lewicki and Litterer (1985:241) support the idea that team work and effective negotiation both require the principal to act as a motivator without throwing his weight around to arouse power struggles. Influencing others to work for the benefit of all, requires co-operation and trust. Developing a group in which work is shared,

participation is widespread, trust is high and personal ties are strong is a way of magnifying our own powers through the powers of the group. This is referent power-power through effective negotiation of the educational leader with the subordinates (Schumck & Runkel, 1988:234).

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

### **3.2.5.2 Perception**

People perceive things that promise to help satisfy their needs and which they have found rewarding in the past. An individual may look at some things, ignore others, and turn away from yet others. They tend to ignore mildly disturbing things but will perceive very dangerous ones as for example, a fatal car accident (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:51).

Uys (in Kroon 1995:526) maintains that people react to a situation in terms of their perceptions. It is therefore important for managers to remember this in the work context, as the perceptual meaning of the same work situation differs from one person to another.

Negotiations would be far different from how it is known to be if people had complete knowledge of themselves, the other side and the issues at stake. Because that is not the case, there is an excitement about the processes of negotiating (Johnson, 1993:15-16).

#### **3.2.5.2.1 Explanation of perception**

The literature consulted seem to classify perception into three categories namely as a process, as a way and as an act.

- **Perception as a process**

Uys (1995:525): Perception involves the process through which people select, receive, organize and interpret information. This results in decision being made and actions taken.

Hargie (1991:42): Perception is the process that shape and produce what is actually experienced.

Nieuwmeijer (1988:45): Perception is the process by which man ascribes meaning to information.

- *Perception as a way*

Bovee *et al.* (1993:550): Perception is the way individuals process information to comprehend the world around them.

Puth (1994:51): Perception is the way information is taken about our world and because each person gathers information differently, problems arise in the way in which each individual perceives people and things.

- *Perception as an act*

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:167): Perception is the act of receiving information through the senses, sight, sound, touch, smell, or the result of a reception as a visual image.

From the above definitions it seems perception is the process by which people select, receive, organize, interpret or ascribe meaning to information, is a way individuals process information to understand the world around them, is an act of receiving information through the senses, sight, sound, touch or smell.

Perceptions provide information concerning our environment, in terms of physical objects and events, and other people. People differ in terms of physical characteristics such as size, weight and colour. They differ in sex, they differ according to their family background, cultural inheritance, educational standard, peer group influences and personality traits (Hargie, 1991:43).

### 3.2.5.2.2 *Importance of perception*

Nieuwmeijer (1988:46) states the importance of perception in negotiations the following way:

"To function well together negotiations need to be able to predict accurately the perceptions and responses of one another and as a second-order perception, to understand that the messages that they

as threat sources emit are thoroughly understood. Attention to the way the other perceives threats enables one to ascertain whether threats designed to inhibit violence are likely to provoke it".

Perceptions are important in negotiations because they form the basis for all of the moves made. Though individuals who are able to get a full and honest look at themselves may not like what they see, an accurate self-perception is important and therefore needed during negotiation. A distorted self-perception could make the negotiator vulnerable to flattery, intimidation, or other kinds of manipulation. Johnson (1993:167) concludes that poor perception can lead to unnecessary risks, to passivity to bad proposals, to impasses and to inappropriate agreements.

#### 3.2.5.2.3 *The role of perception in negotiation*

The perception of the negotiation process plays a major role in shaping the outcome. Those who see negotiations as a kind of war are likely to achieve a different result from those who see it as a joint exploration for mutual beneficial options. Those with a clear perception of the issues and a realistic expectations of a settlement will negotiate differently from those who hold great expectations. A negotiator who has a self-image that differs sharply from the image that others see it is not likely to be effective (Johnson, 1993:17).

#### 3.2.5.2.4 *Components of perception*

The process of perception comprises three phases, namely the *obtaining* or *retrieving* of information, the *evaluation* of information, the forming of associations and the *assigning* of meaning to these associations.

These dynamics and creativity of perception are the essence of successful negotiation. Man does not perceive passivity, but assigns meaning to the perceived information and places it in an acceptable and useful pattern - negotiation tactics (Nieuwmeijer, 1988:46).

#### 3.2.5.2.5 *Factors which influence perception*

Uys (1995:526) outlines factors which influence perceptions. They include:

- Characteristics of the observer. A person's previous experiences, habits, personality, values and attitudes influence the process of perception. This, as well as other personality traits, will determine what a person will pay attention to in a certain situation and how these aspects are interpreted as basis for action.
- Characteristics of the observed. The physical appearance and behaviour of the other person in the situation will also have an influence on the observation or perception of the situation.
- Characteristics of the situation. The physical, social and business circumstances of the events influence perceptions. Hearing a female learner call her principal by a first name may be perceived quite differently when observed in an office hallway as opposed to an evening social reception.

#### 3.2.5.2.6 *Common perceptual distortions*

Perceptions influence a manager's observation of certain events and people and thus influence his reactions. Other people in turn, draw impressions of the manager from their perceptions of how the manager behaves in these same daily situations. It is thus important for principals to understand the common perceptual distortions and recognize their potential impact in the school. These distortions are stereotypes, halo effects, selective perception, projection and expectancy (Shermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:50; Uys, 1995:526).

- *Stereotypes*

The process of trying to categorise individuals by predicting their behaviour or character according to their membership in a particular class or group (Bovee *et al.*, 1993:552). Stereotyping consists of three steps as observed by Puth (1994:51) below:

- people are classified according to a certain category, for example nationality, sex or age;

- attributes are then associated with those categories, such as intelligence, musical ability or punctuality;
- it is inferred that all people in a certain category show the attributes ascribed to that group; for example, all orientals are intelligent, Germans all sing well, and Africans are always late for appointments.

Stereotypes obscure individual differences and are often inaccurate. They can prevent managers from getting to know people as individuals, and abilities and so clinging to stereotypes will negatively affect negotiation in the school rather than contribute to its effectiveness (Shermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:50; Uys, 1995:526).

- *The halo effect*

This refers to judging a person, place, object or event on the basis of a single trait or experience (Puth, 1994:52). It is when one characteristic of a person or situation is used to form an overall impression of the person or situation. This overall impression, positive or negative, Uys (1995:528) believes, will certainly prejudice any further interaction with the person or object. At times, peoples' behaviour is based on a snap judgement as a result of a first impression, irrespective of whether the impression was positive or negative. This can adversely affect negotiations. Examples of halo effect in organizations are: The manager with a somewhat chaotic desk is seen as less competent, the well-dressed man as a womanizer, and the assertive secretary as pushy (Puth, 1994:52).

- *Selective perception*

The process of focusing only on details that are pertinent to an individual's present circumstances and consistent with personal views, beliefs, values, needs and preferences (Bovee *et al.*, 1993:550). Schermerhorn *et al.* (1991:52) and Uys (1995:528) suggest that principals should test whether or not situations and individuals are being selectively perceived and the easiest way to do this is to gather additional opinions from other people.

- *Projection*

This is the transference of personal characteristics to other individuals. It is especially dangerous when the assumption is made that other people's needs are the same as yours. By projecting one's needs onto others, individual differences are lost. Projection can be controlled through a high degree of self-awareness and by *empathy*, the ability to view a situation as others see it (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:52).

- *Expectations*

It is the tendency to find in other people and situations precisely what you expected to find, without their necessarily being there. Expectations can create a situation that inevitably evokes the expected behaviour from the other person (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:52; Uys, 1995:528).

All perception distortions are based on the choice of data that supports the subjective concepts of reality. Perception checks are encouraged in an effort to approximate reality and minimize individual distortion of perception (Pneuman & Bruehl, 1982:31).

### 3.2.5.2.7 *Management of perceptual barriers*

Overcoming perceptual barriers can be difficult, but effective managers are able to predict fairly accurately how their message will be received because they anticipate reactions and shape the message accordingly, constantly adjusting to correct any misunderstanding (Bovee *et al.*, 1993:550).

But Schermerhorn *et al.* (1991:55) stress that to overcome perceptual barriers, principals should try to make decisions and take action with a true understanding of the school situation as it is viewed by all persons concerned, learners, educators, parents, education officials and the community. And this is achieved through negotiation.

In conclusion, a manager who is skilled in perception process and who intends to be successful in the use of negotiation as a managerial task will:

- have a high level of self-awareness;

- seek information from various sources to confirm or disconfirm personal impressions of a decision situation;
- be empathetic - that is, be able to see a situation as it is perceived by other people;
- avoid common perceptual distortions that bias views about people and situations;
- identify and moderate perceptions before negotiations begin.

### **3.2.6 Legal aspects or basis of negotiation**

In considering the legal basis of negotiation in schools, Wood (1995:1), presenting a paper titled, *Procedural Due Process - Is procedure important in the quest for order in education?* at University of Potchefstroom, emphasized that education is a social phenomenon and any social system involves relationships among members of that social system. Relationships also involve rights and responsibilities. There is therefore bound to be disputes or conflicts concerning the exercise of rights in the relationship. The law, which is defined by Chetty (1990:3) as the "only body of rules governing human conduct that is recognised as binding by the state and, if necessary, enforced", is therefore concerned with settling such disputes in the most equitable manner to reach an agreement co-operatively to foster "labour peace" and in turn, avoid disruptions in the delivery of public services (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:18).

However, when conflicts are resolved under a mantle of secrecy and lead to binding decisions, questions are bound to arise as to the legitimacy, equity, fairness etc. On the other hand, where there is transparency in the way the conflict is resolved, the ordinary citizen will be in a better position to evaluate whether there was fairness and reasonableness in the way the decision was reached. The methods or procedures that were followed will help in determining whether justice had been done. In other words, justice must not only be done, but must be seen to be done (Wood, 1995:1).

Education certainly has to do with the rights of learners and parents as well as those of the educators and principals, inter alia. The law, a social

phenomenon, attempts to bring about order and certainty in education. Since negotiation is a two-party transaction whereby two parties namely, principal and learners, intend to resolve a conflict, it becomes a tool in bringing about order and certainty in education especially in schools (Casico, 1989:510).

An *administrative function* is one where power is granted by legislation and the authority exercises a prerogative eg. a Minister's power to grant or approve naturalisation. It may be enforced according to the whim of a Minister, who by statute is given the right to determine such questions with absolute finality (Wood, 1995:2). However, there is case law to the effect that the granting of a discretion by a statute does not necessarily confer an absolute discretion. Certain discretions are not absolute but require the application of the rules of a fair hearing and negotiation (Wood, 1995:2).

School authorities such as principals, very often have to make decisions affecting rights of individuals. For examples, discipline relating to learners. This is where the principal performs a quasi-judicial function and where due process becomes an important issue.

An example of legislation which provides in some detail for due process is the Education Labour Relations Act of 1993. The employer and the employee obtain, as one of the fundamental rights granted by the Act, the right to have access to dispute settlement procedures and the right to be protected against unfair labour practices (Wood, 1995:2).

This means that disputes or conflicts must be solved through negotiation which normally would facilitate voluntary settlement and is therefore the legal basis of negotiation in schools. The unstated slogan of public sector labour law agencies is "settlement is the name of the game" (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:19).

Kraybill (1993:9) in an article published by the Port Elizabeth Chamber of Commerce, stressed the importance of process. He said that outcomes are worthless if the process is bad. The following guiding principles were postulated:

- I. People are more sensitive about how a decision is reached than they are about what the decision itself is.
- II. Good process involves in decision making by all parties who will be affected by the outcome or who are in a position to block implementation of the outcome.
- III. Good process involves all key parties not only in the process of decision making, but also in designing the decision making process. The central theme is the need for negotiation and consultation when developing procedures. This is more likely to lead to general acceptance and legitimacy of the procedures.

#### 3.2.6.1 Conclusion

In conclusion, it seems that negotiation has a legal basis from the Education Labour Relations Act of 1993.

Granting of a discretion by a statute does not necessarily confer an absolute discretion. Certain discretions are not absolute but require the application of negotiation for a fair hearing.

Due process requires that there should be a fair hearing through negotiation. The *audi alteram partem* rule requires the use of negotiation in that a person should be afforded a fair opportunity to be heard. People especially learners are interested in how decisions are made i.e. the process and not what those decisions or results are.

### 3.3 SKILLS NEEDED IN SUCCESSFUL NEGOTIATION IN SCHOOLS

As society develops and becomes more complex, there seems to be a need for a greater number of inter-personal professionals who spend a large part of their working lives in face-to-face interaction with others. Such professionals include principals and educators, to mention only two (Hargie, 1991:1).

Anyone in management like a principal, needs a range of skills concerned with identifying objectives, finding ways of getting there, getting people committed

and establishing rules and routines for the staff and learners to operate (Taylor, 1992:75).

Puth (1994:7) is of opinion that a manager's activities and working conditions require a sound knowledge of and an ability to apply the basic principles and skills of negotiation.

### **3.3.1 Explanation of skills**

Knowing how to do something very well or applying information gained is an intellectual ability which indicates that a person can utilise his knowledge (facts, names, definitions, descriptions, principles, generalizations, etc) and is essentially a skill which is always developing (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1989:531-534).

*The Concise Dictionary of Education* (1982) defines skill as a well-developed capability of any kind, including intellectual, physical or artistic capabilities. Skill is therefore the ability to translate knowledge into action that results in desired performance (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1991:45).

Skill however, must be differentiated from competence. According to Tacsan (1992:8) skill is the acquisition and exercise of capabilities in vocations, professions and the arts. Competence, Schermerhorn *et al.* (1991:110) explain, is an internal force that stimulates and encourages people to work hard, the ability to do what is needed.

Schermerhorn *et al.* (1991:46-48) and Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, (1995:48-49) among others identify three basic skills needed by all managers including the school principal as human, technical and conceptual skills.

- **Human skills**

The ability to work with, communicate with and understand others. Human skills include the ability to resolve interpersonal and performance problems, motivating subordinates to change or improve performance as well as

oversee the other activities involved in managing individual performance. These are the negotiating roles of the manager.

- **Technical skills**

This is the ability to use specific knowledge, techniques and resources in performing work.

- **Conceptual skills**

The ability to see the big picture, the complexities of the overall organization and how the various parts fit together. Managers with conceptual skills understand the activities and interests of the organization and how they interrelate.

Thus, skill may be defined as the proficiency in doing things independently as a result of practice and study. A principal, as a negotiator should have human, technical and conceptual skills to succeed in his work.

### **3.3.2 Negotiation skills**

Horwitz (1991:211) observes that it is important to raise managerial capability for interpersonal and negotiation skills. This, Horwitz (1991:211) believes, would facilitate greater legitimacy and shift from autocratic and paternalistic modes of managerial leadership to management by consent.

Negotiation may be seen as a mystic art which is only learned through practice. Whilst perhaps there is no substitute for experience in negotiation, there are basic skills which it is perfectly possible to identify for people consciously to develop (Rees, 1991:270).

According to Casse and Deol (1986:50) successful negotiation requires a set of skills which must be learned and practiced. These skills include (i) the ability to determine the nature of the conflict, (ii) effectiveness in initiating confrontations, (iii) the ability to hear the other parties point of view, (iv) the utilization of problem-solving processes to bring about a consensus decision.

Negotiation skills can be readily taught, and the effort to learn and develop them will seem more worthwhile to those who know the second basic fact about negotiators with the greater skills will regularly conclude better deals than those who are less accomplished (Thorn, 1989:3).

### **3.3.2.1      *Listening***

Listening is simply, basically and undoubtedly essential to any relationship. No amount of skill training will compensate for a lack of real interest in understanding and knowing the other person. Consequently true listening is from the heart (Mayer, 1990:51-52).

According to Albert (1986:9) a good negotiator concentrates on listening, asks frequently for clarification and tries to ensure that his own comments are being clearly heard and absorbed. Listening is therefore a powerful key to successful negotiation (Stark, 1994:35).

#### **3.3.2.1.1      *Definition***

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:141) define listening as the art of paying attention to what is said and making an effort to understand. Every negotiator wants to be heard.

#### **3.3.2.1.2      *Requirement for listening***

The primary requirement for effective listening is caring about what the other person has to say. If we care, we will attend to the other person; we will focus our full and undivided attention on understanding him or her. We will find a quiet, nondistracting environment where we can concentrate, face the other person with an open body stance, maintain eye contact, and lean forward to hear and observe every nuance and expression (Mayer, 1990:61). Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:141) add that to listen one should respond not only to the words heard but to the feelings of the narrator. In other words, listening implies no evaluation, no judgement, no agreement or disagreement, just an effort to understand another.

#### 3.3.2.1.3 *Ways to indicate that you are listening*

Albert, (1986:12) is of opinion that there are basically three ways to indicate that one is listening. These are:

- I. Giving encouraging acknowledgement ('I see', 'Is that so').
- II. Giving non-verbal acknowledgement (relaxed body posture, eye contact, facial expressions).
- III. Inviting more ('Tell me more', 'I'd like to hear about that').

In the light of the above, positive comments are necessary in the negotiation process. This encourages the other side to open up for a serious bargaining.

#### 3.3.2.1.4 *Reasons why we should listen*

Listening in negotiation is very important. Johnson (1993:30) lists four major reasons why listening is necessary in the negotiation process. These are:

- to discover the needs of constituents and teammates
- to learn the other sides proposals and strengths
- to discern subtle position changes and openings,
- and to show the other side that their proposals are understood.

Thus listening attentively and clearly demonstrates to the members of the other side that the negotiator has a strong desire to know what they are saying. Negotiators who are alert and sensitive to small signals showing a shifting position are in a position to find agreements.

#### 3.3.2.1.5 *Importance of good listening*

Good listening is the foundation of successful problem solving because:

- It builds the relationship between presenter and manager which is necessary for the mutual task of problem solving.
- It allows the presenter's feelings - which are part of the reality of the situation - to be recognized and given full weight.

- It helps to ensure that the real concerns of the presenter are expressed, not just the superficial ones.
- It helps the presenter to start sorting out the confusions in his own mind through the process of articulating them.
- It provides the emotional conditions which help the presenter to be open to the changes which may be required to solve the problem.

Good listening is a powerful means of building a relationship. This relates to the common experience that the more we communicate with people and understand their way of life, their values and their interests the closer we feel to them (De la Bedoyere, 1989:30).

#### 3.3.2.1.6 *Barriers or obstacles to listening*

Once the importance of listening in the negotiation process is realised, the next step is to know the barriers or obstacles which can hinder listening. According to Albert (1986:10), experience has shown that entering negotiation with closed minds breaks down the listening process. Language problems, emotional responses like boycott and terrorist, attitude, tone and words are destructive to good listening. Physical circumstances like listeners may be tired, hungry, uncomfortable, disturbed by noise or cold or simply distracted by some personal matter cause concentration to be lost resulting in poor listening.

Rees, (1991:226) agrees with these obstacles to listening and adds that selective perception (hearing what we want to hear) and behaviour rehearsal, where the negotiator is busy working out what he is going to say next are barriers to listening.

#### 3.3.2.1.7 *Summary*

Effective listening it seems is the foundation stone of the negotiation process. It is a skill that be learned and will develop with practice. Negotiators need to be attentive, be alert and non-distracted. They need to create a positive atmosphere with non-verbal behaviour - body language and facial expressions. They also need to be interested in the other person's needs and listen with understanding, for true listening is from the heart. Good listening skills are

useful for discovering the needs of constituents, for understanding the case that the other side is presenting, for detecting subtle movement in the other side, and for demonstrating a sense of understanding and concern to them. Failure to listen therefore, kills relationship and stifles attempts at conflict resolution through the use of negotiation.

### **3.3.2.2 Empathy**

The participants in negotiation need to be able to understand the feelings of the other parties, need to be able to recognize, to be aware of, and to be able to identify with those feelings (Tillett, 1991:83). The skill related to empathy is also examined by Bovee *et al.* (1993:124) who stress that before making decisions, principals should try to imagine what it would be like to be in other's shoes, particularly learners and staff, who would be directly and adversely affected by the consequences of the decision. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:80) agree that empathy narrows the gap between "you" and "me".

At a minimum, negotiators need to be able to say, "I understand what you are saying and I see why you are taking that position, but I disagree with it.

#### **3.3.2.2.1 Explanation of empathy**

From the literature consulted, it seems the explanation of empathy could be divided into three categories, to wit, empathy as an ability, empathy as being attuned to and empathy as a motivation.

- *Empathy as an ability:*

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:80): Empathy is the ability to take the place of another, to face what and how another is feeling, to see things as another sees them, to be at one with another.

Hodgetts and Kuratko (1991:381): Empathy is the ability to see things from another person's point of view.

Bercher (1994:75): Empathy is the ability to sense how people feel about something.

- *Empathy as being attuned to*

Authier in Hargie *ed.* (1991:441): Empathy is being attuned to the way another person is feeling and conveying that understanding in a language he/she can understand.

- *Empathy as a motivation/emotion*

Deaux and Wrightsman (1988:344): Empathy motivates us to reduce distress of the person in need.

Stratton and Hayes (1993:62): Empathy is a feeling of emotional understanding and unity with another such that an emotion felt by one person is experienced to some degree by another who is empathic to them.

From the above definitions, it seems that empathy is a motivation, is being attuned to and the ability to put oneself in another person's shoes and to see a situation from this person's point of view. Empathy is therefore the ability to understand the needs, likes, dislikes, opinions or aspirations of working colleagues.

#### 3.3.2.2.2 *Types of empathy*

Many authors like Authier in Hargie (*ed.*) (1991:442) seem to believe that empathy consists of two types, namely:

Cognitive Empathy - which means intellectually taking the role or perspective of the other person, and Affective Empathy - responding with the same emotion to another person's emotion.

Other types of empathy are emphasized in the literature but for purposes of this study, only the above two types will be considered.

#### 3.3.2.2.3 *Importance of empathy*

The importance of empathy in negotiation is stressed by Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:203) that a negotiator who induces feelings of empathy causes the other party to lower the length of their verbal attacks. In the same way, Thorn (1989:48) describes that empathy is important for gauging the effect one is having on the other side and picking up the signals they are giving.

Empathy is also essential for maintaining an effective flow of communication. Before the principal can hope to institute upward communication, he or she must be able to understand what it is that sometimes prevents learners or staff from passing on an essential information. Downward communication is also facilitated through empathy. A principal who understands the feelings of his learners is likely to be able to predict what impact certain information will have on them - whether it will be heard or not heard, understood or not understood, obeyed or ignored (Deep, 1978:76).

Deaux and Wrightsman (1988:344) add that empathy then motivates us to reduce the distress of the person in need.

#### 3.3.2.2.4 *Conclusion*

In conclusion, it would seem that if negotiators would like to tune themselves in the other party and see a situation from the party's point of view, there would always be a satisfactory negotiation climate to induce successful outcomes.

#### 3.3.2.3 *The role of trust in negotiations*

Before groups can work together effectively, members must feel a shared confidence in each other's willingness and ability to pursue a common goal (Bovee *et al.*, 1993:516).

However, Manning (1988:82) observes that, one of the most difficult things to achieve in any South African organization is trust. The environment works against it and the great differences in language, culture, and educational levels also work against it. Manning then suggests that the surest way of creating trust in a society torn by conflict or organizations such as schools is by giving

people the *experience of trust*. When they live it, they believe it especially when it is learned that negotiators mean what they say and that there's consistency between what they say and what they do, trust grows.

### 3.3.2.3.1 *Explanation of trust*

Explanation of trust could be divided into three categories from the literature consulted. They are trust as perception, trust as a cement and trust as a firm belief. Few examples selected are as follows:

- *Trust as perception:*  
Nieuwmeijer (1988:127) defines trust as the perception of a person as reliable or trustworthy.
- *Trust as a cement:*  
Rautenbach (1994:58): Trust is the cement that will ensure the coherence of the building blocks of beliefs, values and actions making up the complete pyramid of co-operation. It is the result of proving that we are true to our word.
- *Trust as a firm belief*  
*Longman Dictionary of contemporary English, New Edition* (1990:1188) explains that trust is a firm belief in the honesty, goodness, worth etc. of someone or something.

From the above explanations of trust, it seems that trust is a perception, a result of a firm belief in the honesty, reliability, goodness and worth of a person or a thing.

### 3.3.2.3.2 *Actions that re-inforce trust*

Whenever an educational manager acts in a certain way towards the learners, he makes a "deposit into" or a "withdrawal from" the emotional bank account depending on whether it shows concern or disdain for the learners' needs.

Consequently, all acts of honesty, respect, concern, help and courtesy result in increases of the emotional bank account balance, in short, build trust. While all

acts of deceit, dishonesty, contempt or disdain destroy trust (Rautenbach, 1994:59).

However, Bovee *et al.* (1993:554) add that for principals to build and maintain trust, they must be both visible and accessible rather than insulated behind assistants or clerks. Learners and educators want to know that educational managers are out in front leading the way. They stress that to build trust, effective principals share key information, communicate honestly and include learners and staff members in decision making.

To Puth (1994:58), an atmosphere of openness encourages candid expressions of feelings, ideas and trust.

The problem relating to development and maintenance of trust is also examined by Nieuwmeijer (1988:128) who says that by showing understanding for the other party's problems, while sticking to one's own goals or principles, builds trust. Trust cannot be built by threats or wild promises. She stressed that a step-by-step fulfilment of agreements as well as "free offers" such as in the case of Sadat who went to Israel in November 1977 enhances trust.

#### 3.3.2.3.3 *Conclusion*

It seems in conclusion that the other side in a negotiation situation, will tend to believe a negotiator who is found to be trustworthy, competent and dynamic. A negotiator who can deliver on promises and threats, who knows the subject of the talks, who cares, and who is sincere or passionate about the subject, earns trust.

Trust between learners and principals is a critical ingredient for the stability of the school. But when strict status differences are enforced, learners, educators and principals alike have trouble developing high levels of trust. Distrust would occur when negotiators say one thing and do another. No matter how clearly principals express their ideas, clarity alone is not enough, negotiators must encourage and reinforce an atmosphere of trust.

### **3.3.2.4     *The role of questioning in negotiations***

Much of the movement that occurs during a negotiation session comes from the new information negotiators acquire in their questioning of each other. Information is one of the tools for productive negotiation. The skills at identifying, producing and using information can provide the negotiator with useful benefits.

Negotiators can continue to acquire more and better information to build their arguments by asking productive questions. Once both sides understand the problem, the solution is often not that difficult (Johnson, 1993:42-45; Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:53).

#### **3.3.2.4.1     *Explanation of questioning***

Questioning is explained in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, New Edition* (1990:849) as appearing to have doubt or wanting information.

Meanwhile, Johnson (1993:143) believes that questions are tools that should be used to help reach negotiation tasks of discovering relevant information presentation of a persuasive case, and completion of a satisfactory agreement.

On the other hand, Helps (1992:85) explains that a question is an enquiry, an interrogation, the putting of a problem, a demand for an answer. A question is therefore any sentence which has a verbal or written question mark at the end of it.

#### **3.3.2.4.2     *Types of questions***

Payne and Payne (1994:122-123) identify four types of questions in negotiations. They are open, probing, clarifying and closed questions.

##### **\*     *Open questions***

These are questions that usually collect general information, for example, can you tell me about the school magazine? How are we progressing? What would be an ideal outcome?

## Purpose

Open questions explore the general area and "net" information but one may well have to follow up with a "probing" question in order to get to the specifics that one needs.

- \* *Probing questions*

These are questions that collect specific information, for example, why do you feel that you won't cope with this discussion?

## Purpose

They provide concrete information on facts and opinions and are used to uncover key issues.

- \* *Clarifying questions:*

These questions ensure that what is said is actually understood, for instance, You seem to feel that you might have difficulty with the format, but not the content. Is that right?

## Purpose

It is important to clarify when:

- a. You are not sure that you fully understand what they are saying or feeling.
- b. You are not sure if they understand you.
- c. You are about to disagree with their idea. Clarifying before the disagreement can be useful because you may find that you had misinterpreted and there is nothing about which you actually disagree.

- \* *Closed questions*

Closed questions confirm or deny something and usually result in "Yes" or "No" responses; an example is, Can you finish that by Friday?

## Purpose

Ideal for checking some straight forward issue, where a simple "Yes" or "No" answer will suffice.

Closed questions are a valuable strategy with talkative negotiators.

#### 3.3.2.4.3 Purpose of questions

Dillion (1991:105) holds the view that the act of asking a question implies that the questioner:

- does not know the answer
- desires to know the answer
- believes there exists at least one true answer
- thinks that the respondent can and will supply the/an answer
- wants to defuse volatile encounters
- believes in the truth of the question's presuppositions
- seeks to reduce mistakes.

The major purposes of questions in negotiations have also been examined by Johnson (1993:42), Anstey (1993:83), Nel *et al.* (1993:43). They observed that questions are used to:

- get information
- gain attention
- give information
- prod the other side to think about a particular issue
- apply pressure
- handle pressure
- bring about a conclusion.

Who asks the question, and how the question is asked, may determine whether the answer is forthcoming and truthful. Individuals are likely to withhold or distort their responses when they distrust the questioner or feel that the information will be used against them.

#### 3.3.2.4.4 *Unproductive questions to avoid in negotiations*

There are some questions which can hinder negotiations. Questions that impede or distort information received, those that hamper a negotiator's persuasiveness, and those that push the other side from agreement are counterproductive.

Simple-minded or patronizing questions make a negotiator look silly. Too many questions or repetition of one particular question also makes the negotiator look foolish. Accordingly, questions that reduce the level of discussion and questions that are asked for effect hurt more than they help (Johnson, 1993:43).

He is of the opinion that if a question will drive a wedge between the sides, it may be better not to use it. Furthermore, Johnson states that questions that are cute, hostile, biting, designed as putdowns, or designed to impress may move the sides further away from agreements rather than move them closer.

For instance a question like, *May I be frank with you? Why?* could be dangerous, can aggravate, raise doubts and they can be most harmful.

#### 3.3.2.4.5 *Conclusion*

In conclusion, it seems that a question would make the most obstinate, closed off, difficult person in the world to open up. Questions stimulate the mind and offer people an opportunity to use their brains constructively. For example, "This school is falling apart". "If you were in my place, what would you do to turn things around"? - it invites innovation.

Lastly, learning to question oneself is as valuable as asking questions to others. Do we question enough?

#### 3.3.2.5 *The role of needs in negotiations*

The needs of people and organizations lie at the basis of a negotiating potential, especially when resources to meet those needs are scarce. Negotiation, it is often said, is the matching of the needs and resources of others. Many situations could give rise to needs that in turn could lead to the

desire to negotiate or to meet these needs through some means of resolving conflict. For this reason there is the need to become aware of the usefulness of the skill to negotiate (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:22-24).

#### 3.3.2.5.1 *Explanation of need*

For purposes of this study, two explanations would be given.

Bovee *et al.* (1993:438): A need is a perceived deficiency.

*Longman Dictionary of contemporary English, New Edition* (1990:695): A need is the condition in which something necessary, desirable, or very useful is missing or wanted.

It seems from the above definitions that need is something perceived as desirable but which is missing.

#### 3.3.2.5.2 *Types of needs*

Maslow (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:170; Du Toit, in Kroon 1995:230:331; Van der Westhuizen, 1996:196) has proposed a need priority structure, consisting of five mutually dependent and overlapping levels popularly known as Needs Hierarchy.

Other motivational or categorization of needs are emphasized in the literature but for the purposes of this study, only the hierarchy put forward by Maslow (1954) would be considered.

- \* Physiological needs - the need for food, drink, shelter, clothing, rest, sex, warmth, exercise, relief from pain are essential for survival.
- \* Safety and security - the freedom from threat, protection against loss of property and income.
- \* Belongingness, social and love - the need for friendship, affiliation, interaction and love.
- \* Esteem and status - the need for self-esteem and for esteem from others. The satisfaction of these

needs can make the person feel valuable, skilful and useful. It also involves the relations the worker has with his leader and colleagues.

- \* Self-actualization - the need to fulfil oneself by maximising the use of one's abilities, skills and potential.

### **3.3.2.5.3 Needs as a cause for negotiation**

Needs and their satisfaction are the common denominators in negotiation. If people have no unsatisfied needs, they will never negotiate.

Negotiation presupposes that both the negotiator and the opposition want something, otherwise they would turn a deaf ear to each other's demands and there would be no negotiation. In other words, needs is a cause or a reason for negotiation.

It therefore requires two parties, motivated by needs, to start a negotiation for example, learners and principals discussing about levies or discipline problems - are seeking to satisfy needs (Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:171).

### **3.3.2.5.4 Conclusion**

In conclusion, educational managers, especially principals should be able to get their learners as well as the teaching staff to work together purposefully towards achieving the objectives of the school. The execution of plans requires that principals be able to motivate learners and educators to perform. Encouraging learners to perform is by knowing their needs through negotiation and doing something about it.

### **3.3.2.6 The role of patience in negotiation**

It is a good principle to assume that others may not react to a new problem with the same enthusiasm and initial understanding that one may have. If they seem slow in grasping the problem, or the opportunity, hold back on the haste in either condemning them or rejecting them as the instrument of solution. Of particular importance to the negotiator are self-evaluating questions such as,

ask first if the problem has really been explained in an understandable way. Was the problem stated clearly, for example? - or was the vanity of using the language of the problem that someone new to it would not understand been indulged? Was familiarity with the problem situation that could not realistically be expected to exist assumed? Or was the other man misjudged in terms of what would motivate him to take an interest in the problem?

Hayes (1983:53-57) concludes by suggesting that people should take time to listen for worthwhile work, takes time.

#### 3.3.2.6.1 *Explanation of patience*

Lockyer (1986:804) defines patience as forbearance under suffering and endurance in the face of adversity.

*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, New Edition* (1990:754) explains that patience is the ability to wait calmly for a long time and not be made angry by delay or the ability to accept pain, trouble or anything that causes annoyance, without complaining or losing one's self-control.

From the above it seems that patience is the ability or forbearance to hold back on one's haste in either condemning people or losing self-control under suffering and endurance and not be made angry in the face of adversity.

#### 3.3.2.6.2 *Why people sometimes are impatient*

For managers such as principals, planning provides a test of patience. Plans and planning raise expectations. Generally members of a planning team have imagined their Rome, and they are in a tearing hurry to see it fully constructed. They want to be at the top of the hill without making the long climb. They are impatient, for like growing trees, growing people is a slow process. Rushing trees and people is a ready formula for weakness and failure (Hayes, 1983:54-55).

#### 3.3.2.6.3 *The challenge*

Those who accept promotion to managerial rank or to some higher level in management like principalship positions, must realize that the step up, more

often than not will abridge private life, involve family as never before, and sometimes expose the recipient of promotion to criticism and abuse. It changes the number of hours in the day, reorients social relationships, and extends the limits of boredom. It can destroy anonymity. It is not easy for many would be young managers or principals, to accept such requirements. It takes patience by all parties to live up to expectation (Hayes, 1983:35).

#### **3.3.2.6.4 Conclusion**

The only requirement of a good listener is patience. It is an important trait of the successful negotiator (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:67).

The view that patience will help negotiators to avoid being pulled away from their game plan is held by Johnson (1993:103). He maintains that those who panic become susceptible to whatever the other side proposes. It is therefore unwise to make concessions or changes out of fear, haste or panic. Furthermore, Johnson advises that negotiators should not allow themselves to be rushed, even when some of their tactics do not seem to work as planned. They may sometimes find it useful to remain silent for a few minutes to think at the table or to take a recess to refocus.

Of concern is the comment by Hayes (1983:57), that in these days of "time management" and of instant solutions and glib answers, it takes strength and patience to delay to wait. But if meaningful plans are to be arrived for the future, then time must be taken to argue, to debate, and ultimately to reach agreement. Surely, the negotiator needs patience to arrive at good and acceptable agreements.

#### **3.3.2.7 Other negotiation skills**

##### **3.3.2.7.1 Timing**

Timing is a key element in negotiations. It concerns, when an initial offer is made, when it is improved, how much and *how quickly* it is improved, when a final offer is made, and when and how a union proposal is *accepted*.

It matters less *what* one says than *how and when* one says it. Generally speaking, "the later the offer, the slower the movement, and the smaller the concession, the better management's position is in negotiations" (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:74).

Good timing, as with so many endeavours, is essential for success in a negotiation (Thorn, 1989:57; Pienaar & Spoelstra, 1991:32).

Thorn (1989:183) advises that negotiators should be ready to change the timing, the tempo, the topic and even the team.

Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:79) emphasize that consideration should be given to the best time for a negotiation and propose that:

- The best time of the day for negotiation could be in the morning or the afternoon, but morning appointments seem to be better on the whole since people are fresh and more intellectually active than in the afternoon.
- The best time of the month could be in the middle of the month for most managers are busy preparing and evaluating reports at the end and probably or the beginning of the month.
- The best time of the year should not coincide with end of financial year, examination periods etc.

Timing involves a keen sense of when to make an offer to maximize that offer's acceptability to the other side. Puth (1994:72) indicates that time communicates in other ways such as in indicating urgency and importance. Timing also involves an appreciation of when to accept a proposal. The experienced negotiator knows how to combine the right amount of hesitance with the knowledge that a good offer may mysteriously "disappear" if it is not accepted before the negotiation session ends. The negotiator who too quickly accepts an offer prompts the other side to think that it has been had. On the other hand, one side's unwillingness to accept a good offer may give the other side an opportunity to re-examine its position. The other side may change its position at the next negotiations sessions, or attach clearly unacceptable "conditions" to its prior offer (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:75).

Experience has shown that one cannot wait until an organised campaign is underway to effect compromises or modify points of view. The time to influence a pressure group is *before* the particular group has launched its initial fusillade and before school personnel are totally and publicly committed to a position. Common sense suggests that it is increasingly difficult to change someone or some group when there will be much loss of face, real or imagined by doing so (Ubben & Hughes, 1992:74).

### 3.3.2.7.2 *Politeness*

In most societies, there are particular ways of behaving and speaking which are considered to be polite, but these are not the same in all societies. Forms of behaviour and language which are considered to be polite in one society can sometimes seem strange, insincere or even rude in another. When learning negotiation skills, it is often necessary to learn new ways of expressing politeness. For example, it is possible to hesitate a little before accepting a compliment, it is usually considered impolite or rude to reject the compliment too strongly. It is therefore advisable for negotiators to learn the culture of the community in which negotiations are taking place.

*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, New Edition (1990:796)* defines politeness as having or showing good manners, sensitivity to other peoples feelings, and/or correct social behaviour.

There seems to be order in politeness in negotiations. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:72) emphasize that in negotiations, especially integrative negotiations, the most important persons greet each other first and then introduce their team members in sequence of importance, so that the person of least importance is introduced to the host last. Then the host introduces his members to the other side in the same way. When teams sit, hosts normally never sit first, but wait for guests to be seated before they seat themselves. Care should be taken that guests have enough space to exert their roles. This gesture provides a healthy climate into the negotiation session.

In the school situation, the principal would introduce his deputy, then the head(s) of department before the educators, while the SRC president would

also introduce the vice-president of the SRC, the secretary and other members of the team.

Courtesy and good manners Thorn (1989:173) notes, are especially valued in far East and this includes being on time, dressing smartly and disagreeing only with the utmost respect and gentility. This sense of politeness extends to their being most reluctant to say "No" outright and declining to say that they have not fully understood you, even when in fact they mean "No" and haven't understood a word you have said.

Again in the school situation if the principal is very happy with the outcome of the negotiations, he must not show it, instead he should be gracious and let the learners believe it is *they* who have been the skilful negotiators, for after all we all need our self-respect ( Thorn, 1989:115 ).

In conclusion, phrases like 'Impossible', 'No way', 'With respect', 'You must be mad' and similar unhelpful derogatory remarks must be avoided.

#### 3.3.2.7.3 *Influence of space*

For a good negotiation climate to be established between parties, a proper negotiation setting must be arranged. The negotiation room should be large enough to comfortably hold both negotiating teams. It should be well ventilated to accommodate smokers without annoying non-smokers, and should be within easy access of a photo copy machine and important data. Chalkboard and chalk should also be available in case the parties need to discuss cost figures, class scheduling, and other topics.

Adequate rooms for *caucusing* must also be available (Gaswirth & Whalen, 1983:55).

The strategic placing of people relative to each other Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:55) believe, could be one very influential way of procuring their co-operation. They refer to four basic positions relative to the other party in negotiations as:

- The corner position - normally occupied by people who have friendly and relaxed intentions. Here negotiators face each other across the corner of a desk.
- The co-operative position - which is used when the parties are working on a similar task. In this position, negotiators sit on the same side of the desk.
- The competitive or defensive position - negotiators sit opposite each other across a desk creating a competitive or defensive atmosphere.
- The independent position - This position indicates a lack of interest in each other and there is an unwillingness of parties to react with each other. Here, negotiators sit far apart across a table at diagonally opposite corners, not even facing each other directly.

#### 3.3.2.7.4 *Ability to withstand stress*

When people work together in organizations - especially in situations involving influence, conflict and negotiation such as in a school, - stress is a likely by-product and negotiators should have the skill to withstand it.

In explaining what stress is, Davidson and Cooper (1983:12) maintain that stress is the environmental agents which disturb structure and function as well as response to such agents. However, Schermerhorn (1996:401) defines stress as a state of tension experienced by individuals facing extraordinary demands, constraints or opportunities.

Sources of stress originate in work, personal and non-work situations that can influence a person's work attitudes and behaviour. Real sources of stress at work situation are; not doing the kind of work one wants to do, coping with one's current job, working too hard, relationships with colleagues at work, a difficult boss or manager, organizational structure and climate. All these sources of stress are causes for negotiation and the skill to deal with them cannot be overemphasized (Davidson & Cooper, 1983:113; Schermerhorn, 1996:401).

Stress - induced behaviours found in work situations and as presented by Davidson and Cooper (1983:13) are difficulty in thinking rationally and seeing

all aspects of a problem, rigidity of views, prejudice, withdrawal from relationships, out-of-place aggression and irritability, excessive smoking and an inability to relax resulting in excessive drinking or a need for sleeping pills or tablets just to mention a few. These behaviours exhibited by staff or learners should induce the school principal to negotiate with the appropriate party or parties concerned.

In conclusion, Kroon (1995:56) says stress is caused by a manager's perception of change and conflict. It is therefore important that a principal takes note of the sources, types and symptoms of stress during negotiations with learners in order to be able to manage or handle tension in an effective way.

As a suggested solution, thinking, analysing the problem, deciding priorities and goals, planning, asking for help or advice, challenging someone causing the stress, telling people in power your views, taking proper breaks, relaxation exercises, singing or even shouting into a pillow or in the privacy of a car are some of the ways to deal with stress (Mulligan, 1988:85).

#### 3.3.2.7.5 *Other negotiation skills emphasized in the literature as needed by the principal*

- Stamina - the strength of body or mind to fight tiredness, discouragement or illness.
- Tolerance - willingness to accept or allow behaviour, beliefs, values, customs, etc. which one does not like or agree with, without opposition.
- Confidence - a clean unworried feeling or manner based on a strong belief in one's abilities.
- Thorough understanding of the negotiator himself/herself.
- Possession of a strong and formal scientific education.
- Flexibility – the ability to change or be changed easily to suit any new situation.
- Sensitivity – able to understand other peoples feelings and problems.

### **3.3.2.8      *Profile of an effective negotiator***

In the literature, Albert (1986:22); Thorn (1989:48) and Adey and Andrew (1996:189) among others provide the following characteristics of an effective negotiator:

- he will initiate co-operation by emphasizing common ground before moving on to differences;
- he will consider problems as opportunities for problem-solving that will benefit both sides;
- he will be open-minded and creative rather than inflexible;
- he will deal with concrete, practical details rather than abstract principles;
- he will listen with full attention to understand the other party's standpoint;
- he will have available as much relevant information as possible and share it frankly;
- he will not form hasty judgments, nor will he allow hasty disagreements;
- he will give praise to the other side whenever possible;
- he will draw attention to previous successes, previous agreements, previous relationships;
- he will clear minor disagreements before moving to major ones;
- he will discuss differences rationally and without emotion;
- he will deal patiently with others' emotional outbursts;
- he will, without condescension, try to guide and educate less experienced negotiators;
- he will let the other party tell their stories without interrupting or judging;
- he will work hard not to allow the other party to feel that it has lost face;
- he will have the ability to think clearly under stress; and
- he will use threats only as a last resort and then he must, make sure that they are not empty threats.

### **3.3.2.9 *Priorities of negotiators***

A negotiator might want to choose an area in a negotiation situation in which the negotiator can have a significant impact and where the chances of success or arriving at an agreement are high. A list of several such areas could be drawn up and separated into two groups; those that demand immediate considerations and attention (top priority) and those that aren't quite as pressing (lower priority). The criteria for separation might be cost, impact on the staff and learners, degree of difficult for change, centrality to the institutions vision, examinations, replacement of staff members, or the time a change will take place (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993:441).

Thorn (1989:40) asks what are the most important points for the other party in a negotiation situation and which are the least important? This is necessary in any negotiation so that both the cost to the negotiator and their value to the other side could be gauged.

It is worth remembering the tale of the eager principal to change the learners uniform only to find later that the learners would not have a bus to school the next day; a definite case of mistaken priorities (Thorn, 1989:23).

### **3.3.2.10 *Credibility of negotiators***

Credibility is the power to define reality and determine what is legitimate and reasonable. It is negotiator's quality of deserving belief and trust.

In negotiations, the other side will tend to believe someone they find to be trustworthy, competent, and dynamic. Someone who can deliver on promises and threats, who knows the subject of the talks, who cares, and who is sincere or passionate about the subject (Johnson, 1993:64).

Credibility requires negotiators to introduce new circumstances, new proposals, new solutions, new information or new perspectives into the negotiations. The negotiator tries to remove obstacles to settlement by finding a way around them or by moving them to the side, to the past, or to the future (Johnson, 1993:123).

Johnson concludes that credibility can thus be increased by demonstrating, trustworthiness, competence, and sincerity.

### **3.3.2.11 *Personality of negotiators***

People differ and most people are conscious and proud of our individuality. Friends at home and school display personality differences. Even close relatives near in age such as brothers and sisters can be quite different in personality and sons and daughters differ from their parents, where age and experience disparity might cause greater differentiation. The roles taken, and the success achieved, will influence the personality, and develop further attitudes and perceptions. Two main components which influence personality are the inherited characteristics and those acquired from experience (Payne, Chelsom & Reavill, 1996:149-150).

Johnson (1993:92) adds that to develop personality that works well, a negotiator does not need to become phony. Characteristics that help a negotiator reach an agreement or those that produce a more favourable agreement are the ones that should be adopted, like negotiators with some self-understanding, those who can see themselves as others do, and those who know what kind of personal characteristics will help accomplish their goals.

### **3.3.2.12 *Principled negotiation***

Principled or integrative negotiation seeks a "win-win" solution for all claims to be satisfied if at all possible. In this negotiation, Schermerhorn (1996:399) argues, the goal is to base the final outcome on the merits of individual claims and to try to find a way for all claims to be satisfied if it is possible. No one should "lose" and relationships should be maintained in the process.

In the view of Megginson, Mosley and Pietri (1992:540) negotiators should reason and be open to reasons and yield to principles not to pressure. The four basic components of principled negotiation are presented by Schermerhorn (1996:399), Luthans (1995:291) and Megginson *et al.* (1992:541) as:

- separating the people from the problem;

- focusing on interests, not positions;
- generating a variety of possibilities before deciding what to do;
- insisting that the result be based on some objective.

In soft bargaining the participants are friends, the approach is to trust others, and negotiators make offers.

In hard bargaining, the participants are adversaries, there is distrust of others, and negotiators make threats. In the principled negotiation, or negotiation on the merits, the participants are problem solvers, the negotiators proceed independent of trust and explores common interests.

### **3.3.2.13 Fair negotiation**

According to Megginson *et al.* (1992:540) a fair negotiation involves proposing and then giving up a sequence of positions. The idea is to give up things that are not very important. This form of negotiation succeeds if it meets three criteria, to wit.

- It should produce a wise agreement if agreement is possible;
- it should be efficient; and
- it should improve or at least not damage the relationship between parties.

### **3.3.2.14 Negotiation style**

Negotiation styles are patterns of behaviours that are observable to the other parties in a negotiating table. Each negotiator has a distinctive way of responding to people and situations and this style tends to be stable throughout a person's lifetime. But the negotiator can learn to adapt a style to accommodate others, the choice of a style must then take into account the opponent's probable choice. The decision as to which style to be the most appropriate is a basic part of preparation (Thorn, 1989:27; Reece & Brandt, 1990:142).

#### 3.3.2.14.1 *Explanation of style*

It would seem from the literature consulted that style may be explained or defined from two activities namely style as a manner and style as a behaviour.

- **Style as a manner**

Casse and Deol (1986:53) hold the view that a style is a manner of speech and writing that is characteristic of the person who is using it. It lends grace and polish to the person's actions or manners. We acquire a particular style due to habitual ways of responding to the external reality.

*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, New Edition* (1990:1052) says style is a general manner of doing something which is typical or representative of a person or group. A particular choice of words or manner of expression used by or typical of negotiator or speaker.

- **Style as a behaviour**

Napier and Gershenfeld (1989:236-237) are of the opinion that negotiation style is simply another word for a collection of behaviours in a particular situation by a negotiator.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993:61-62) define style as the consistent behaviour patterns that people use when they are working with and through other people, as perceived by those people. These patterns emerge in people as they begin to respond in the same fashion under similar conditions; they develop habits of action that become somewhat predictable to those who work with them.

From the above definitions and explanations, it seems that negotiation style is a pattern of behaviour or the distinctive manners peculiar to a negotiator that the other parties can observe.

#### 3.3.2.14.2 *Choice of a negotiation style*

Anstey (1991:112) maintains that the choice of negotiation style, depends on a variety of factors including the nature of the issues at stake, the history or relations between the parties, their respective bargaining skills, ideological influences, constituencies and the intensity of the conflict.

Another influential factor affecting choice of negotiation style lies in the extent to which the parties have a concern about their own and each other's outcomes - in a sense whether they are concerned only about how much they can achieve out of the exchange or whether they also have concerns about the relationship, and the extent to which the other's needs can be met for purposes of nurturing positive longer term ties.

In considering negotiation styles, Hersey and Blanchard (1993:163) hold the view that educational managers develop their style over a period of time from experience, education and training. They assert that there are at least four internal forces that influence an educational manager's leadership style: These are value system, confidence in the staff and learners, leadership inclinations and feeling of security in an uncertain situation.

Meanwhile, Reece and Brandt (1990:358), agree in principle that depending on their personality and past experiences with the workplace and in dealing with conflict, individuals naturally develop their own negotiation styles. Through training in assertiveness and conflict management, negotiators learn to adapt their behavioural style in order to effectively deal with conflict situations.

This strengthens the argument by Casse and Deol (1986:53) who agree that an individual's negotiating style reflects the way he/she copes with the changes in the environment for no style is good or bad, effective or ineffective. It depends on the institution in which the individual is placed. By and large, our negotiating effectiveness is a function of our ability to switch from one style to another.

#### 3.3.2.14.3 *Types of negotiation styles*

Thorn (1989:27) identifies two fundamental negotiation styles.

- I. A *cooperative style* which aims to ensure that both parties should gain some benefit. This is therefore a win-win style of negotiation.
- II. A *competitive style* which is designed to maximize only one side's advantage, at a specific cost to the other. This is clearly a much more aggressive stance and is therefore a win-lose style of negotiation.

Other negotiation styles are emphasized in the literature. Mastenbroek (1993:157-158) for example refers to negotiating styles and stresses that four basic negotiating styles could be distinguished:- the ethical style, the analytical - aggressive style, the jovial style and the flexible-aggressive style.

I. *The ethical style* this is characterised by trust and belief in common interests, principles and values, setting high standards, developing proposals in the common interest, independent thinking, sticking to principles.

Less productive aspects when used in excess: becomes "preachy," withdraws and is not open to new ideas, is too concerned with ideals and common values to the point of being unrealistic.

Tendencies in a conflict: sticks to his case because he is right or gives in disappointed. Becomes disillusioned, is set apart.

II. *The analytical - aggressive style* characterised by careful analysis, preference for hard facts and figures, sound logic, weighing all alternatives ahead of time, reliance on sound procedures, keeping things predictable, holding firmly on to goals.

Less productive aspects when used in excess: sticks to the same track, too little sensitivity to the climate of the discussions, over pre-occupation with details, no ability to improvise. Tendencies in a conflict: amasses more and more "evidence" that he is right, becomes stubborn.

III. *The jovial style* this is characterised by good social skills personal charm, being diplomatic, influencing the climate positively, eagerness to try things out, sensitivity to integrative solutions, flexibility.

Less productive aspects when used in excess: avoids a test of strength, offers too little resistance, becomes ambivalent.

Tendencies in a conflict: overcompromising, gives in to preserve harmony and good will.

IV. *The flexible-aggressive style* characterised by desire to get things done, liking for accomplishment, taking advantage of opportunities, keeping things on the move, liking challenges.

Less productive aspects when used in excess: bossy, gives others too few

chances, easily becomes impatient and impulsive.

Tendencies in a conflict: does not concede, even when he knows he is wrong, becomes angry, tends to coercive pressure, tries everything within his power to win his case.

However a study by Casse and Deol (1986:64-80) has attempted to classify negotiation styles into four categories, namely, factual, intuitive, analytical and normative negotiating styles.

- *Factual style* focuses on the present, here and now; on what is in the current problems and issues; on what has to be done right now. The basic assumption of this style is "the facts speak for themselves". People who use this style are cool, collected, patient, down-to-earth, present-oriented, precise, realistic, able to document their statements, sticking to the facts that speak for themselves.
- *Intuitive style* focuses on the future; on what next- on short; medium and long term issues; on what has to be done today to prepare for the future. Basic assumption: "Imagination can solve any problem". The style is characterised by a charismatic tone- a holistic approach, a strong imagination, a tendency to jump from one subject to another, a lot of ups and downs, a fast pace as well as a future orientation.
- *Analytical style* relates past, present, and future. Selects priorities and identifies pros and cons for each of them. Basic assumption: "Negotiating is bargaining" or "logic leads to the right conclusions". Negotiators put things into a logical order, weigh pros and cons, use a sort of linear reasoning. They are unemotional and focus upon the relationship of parts.

*Normative style* focuses on the past; on the assessment of past actions, or who should do what and the impact of the decided actions on people. In this style, negotiators appeal to feelings, offer bargains, propose rewards and incentives. They look for compromises.

De Wet (1991:129-130) agrees that one can distinguish between negotiators with a predominantly factual, intuitive, analytical or normative style.

#### **3.3.2.14.4 Conclusion**

The educational manager should also bear in mind that it is human beings who create a hostile environment, nature is by itself peaceful. There is need for the principal to guard against management style that creates hostile conditions or situations in the school.

A new management style is now emerging. It is that style by which the manager makes the employees or his staff feel as important members of the establishment. To make workers participants rather than mere receivers of orders, the educational leader must also make them knowledgeable and always keep them informed about the objectives and plans of the organization or the school.

The educational leader's style of leadership plays a specific role in his management actions and influence his management task (Anon., 1995:61; Van der Westhuizen, 1996:182).

#### **3.3.2.15 Negotiation strategies**

Negotiation is not a debate in which verbal cleverness and persuasion produce a majority in favour, nor is it a war to be won. The object is to settle issues with the least possible disturbance. There is no gallantry, only a systematic erosion of problems and a bridging of gaps until agreements are reached (Marsh, 1984:500).

Inherent in negotiation is a huge amount of planning, thinking and consideration of alternative ideas. An understanding of the major alternatives will give the negotiator a good basis for participating in and leading the strategic planning process. Furthermore, Schermerhorn (1996:399) states that the way each party approaches a negotiation can have a major impact on its outcomes.

Therefore the right strategy for the negotiation process would definitely result in an acceptable agreement. Accordingly, Mampuru and Spoeistra (1994:38) stress that there is no such thing as "one best approach or strategy" that will

work in every situation. The strategy has to be adapted according to the situation.

#### 3.3.2.15.1 *Explanation of negotiation strategy*

Review of the literature seem to indicate that strategy can have many meanings. To be able therefore to determine what strategy really is, a classification of definitions and explanations will be used. From an analysis of the various definitions and explanations, it seems that at least nine meanings can be attached to the term strategy, namely strategy as a course or plan of action, strategy as planning, as an approach, as an idea, as an advance view, as a choice, as doing the right thing, as using tricks and as goals. Few selected definitions on each of the above classifications will be given as follows:

- **Strategy as a course or plan of action**

Allen (1990:1205): Strategy is a plan of action or policy in management, business, politics or negotiation etc.

~~Mampuru~~ Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:38): A strategy is a plan of action, specifying broad objectives and the general approach that should be taken to achieve them during negotiations.

Gatewood, Taylor and Ferrell (1985:274): Strategy is a course of action for implementing definite plans and achieving definite goals; a general statement of actions an organization or school, intends to take or is taking that is based on the fit of the organization with its external environment. It is the art and science of planning.

Schermerhorn (1996:160): Strategy is a comprehensive plan of action that sets a critical direction and guides the allocation of resources to achieve long term organizational objectives.

- **Strategy as planning**

Nieuwmeijer (1988:117): Negotiating strategy is the overall planning aimed at obtaining long term goals or values and can consist of series of tactics used during the negotiating process.

*The World Book Dictionary* (1989:2069): Strategy is the skilful planning and management of anything.

- ***Strategy as an approach***

Nel *et al.* (1993:120): Strategy refers to the overall approach, plan and policy in respect of the negotiation process.

- ***Strategy as an idea***

Scott and Soderberg (1985:168): Strategy is a pretty clear idea about how one would like to defeat his/her opponent in the long run in negotiations.

- ***Strategy as an advance view***

Marsh (1984:500): Strategy in negotiation constitutes an advance view of what management would like to achieve in the negotiating situation.

- ***Strategy of a choice***

Kroon (1995:135): Strategy in educational management indicates the action of choice in a changing environment with consideration of the institution's ability.

- ***Strategy as doing the right thing***

Boone and Kurtz (1992:169): Strategy is defined simply as doing the right thing.

- ***Strategy as tricks***

Fox and Meyer (1996:123): Strategy is using tricks or manipulations to influence other's behaviour. People who use strategy have hidden purposes or private, unrevealed motives, or they use negotiation for unstated personal benefits.

- ***Strategy as goals***

Swieringa and Wierdsma (1992:10): Strategy is defined as the goals of the organization and the ways in which it seeks to realize them.

It seems from the above selected definitions of strategy that negotiation strategy could be defined as a course or plan of action, as planning, as an idea,

an advance view, a choice, as doing the right thing, as using tricks and as goals specifying broad objectives that sets a critical direction of what the educational management would like to achieve like in the negotiating situation.

#### *3.3.2.15.2 Formulating strategies*

Many forces have to be balanced in formulating negotiation strategy.

Scott and Soderberg (1985:170) provide the following five pairs of elements that need to be balanced in formulating negotiating strategies.

- *Continuing and change.* There has to be a balance between our attention to continuity and our attention to change.
- *Thinking and doing.* Thinkers think and doers do. And, by observations, those who spend most time thinking often get least done. What matters most is having the ability to get on with it and see it through.
- *Complexity and simplicity.* Strategies have to carry the commitment, the tenacity, and the dedication of their sponsors.
- *Efficiency and effectiveness.* Efficiency is improving the way things are done in our own patch. Effectiveness is the way in which that patch relates to surrounding people and things. We have to balance our attention to the two.
- *Time needed and time available.* Apportion time for detecting strategy and for implementation proportionately.

#### *3.3.2.15.3 Negotiation strategies*

Negotiation strategy in the school situation is concerned with the educational manager's ability to look ahead, understand the environment, study the powers, needs, strengths and weaknesses of the other party (learners, educators, administrative staff, parents, education officers, community) and effectively plan for future success (Schermerhorn, 1996:177).

In the view of Helps, (1992:39) planning negotiation strategy means:

- building on clear objectives
- having a realistic assessment of power

- having a realistic assessment of the power of the other party
- identifying the three positions within which the negotiator is prepared to move
- being prepared to move from one's original position
- identifying common ground.

This concludes the preparation stage in terms of strategy.

Five broad strategies can be distinguished and used in negotiation (Mampuru & Spoelstra, 1994:39).

- Concession making - reducing one's goals, demands or offers.
- Contending - trying to persuade the other party to concede or trying to resist similar efforts by the other party.
- Problem-solving - trying to locate and adopt options that satisfy both parties goals. There are a host of problem-solving tactics, including "active listening" and providing information about one's own priorities among the issues under discussion.
- Inaction - doing nothing or as little as possible; for example, putting off meetings, talking around the issues, etc.
- Withdrawal - dropping out of the negotiation.

Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:39) conclude that the first three are coping strategies because they are alternative ways of moving toward agreement while the last two are withdrawing strategies which do not actually solve the problem.

#### *3.3.2.15.4 Conclusion*

The direction in which an organization such as a school, intends to move in a competitive environment is a strategy. It is a choice that specifies how managers plan to match the institutions strengths and weaknesses with opportunities and threats in the environment (Schermerhorn, 1996:160).

Strategies being the vital links as institutions move from formulating to implementing, from thought to action is emphasized by Gatewood, Taylor and

Ferrell (1995:274). These researchers maintain that strategies provide the focus needed so that the institutions mission and goals can ultimately be translated into tactical and operational plans that work and make sense.

However, Johnson (1993:71) adds that there is no perfect strategy. No approach works well in all situations. Because negotiators encounter various circumstances and people with their own sets of strategies, they need to be able to use an approach that offers what they need at a particular time.

### **3.4 SUMMARY**

The primary aim of this chapter has been to present the skills needed in negotiation especially in schools between the principal and the learners.

The chapter discussed two broad issues in successful negotiation namely, the context of negotiation and the skills needed in successful negotiations but focussed its attention on the skills in negotiation.

A thorough understanding of the components of negotiation skills is vital to set up realistic goals, look for common grounds, in a healthy negotiation climate, formulate an acceptable strategy, adapt flexible negotiation styles that would lend grace and polish to the negotiator's actions or manners and develop and implement sound educational plans.

The main role of negotiation skills as a managerial task of the school principal with learners is to foster sustainability through provision of sound education to the learners, to contribute to non-violent society, to production of well mannered, well cultured youth for the country and create changes in attitudes of the youth towards using non-violent and peaceful means of settling disputes and conflicts which are endemic in schools in the North West today.

Finally, negotiation skills and programmes should provide a framework through which both staff and learners are meant to gain access to information and inputs for potential and higher educational standards to stimulate the overall development process of the country.

Consequently, the next chapter will look into the empirical situation of negotiation as managerial task of school principals in the North West Province of South Africa. This will be done in the form of questionnaires to school principals. These questionnaires would then be collected back, treated in the form of data and analysed.

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## CHAPTER 4

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### EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The nature of negotiations and the skills needed in negotiations from a theoretical perspective, that is how negotiations in schools can be expected to be and how skills in negotiations ought to be managed were presented in the last two chapters. This aspect of the research was done through literature study.

This chapter is devoted to a description of the empirical research resulting from the literature review. This implies that what ought to be and what actually operates, are presented in order to arrive at a complete and balanced view of the reality of the nature of negotiations and the skills needed in negotiations in the context of the school.

In this chapter, the empirical aspect of the nature of negotiations and of the skills of negotiations as experienced in schools and how school principals actually utilize negotiations as a managerial task is dealt with. It is therefore a description of the data collection procedure of this study. The chapter is divided into five main sections as follows: design of research, administrative procedures, population and sampling, statistical techniques and summary which ends the chapter.

#### 4.2 DESIGN OF RESEARCH

##### 4.2.1 Questionnaire as a measuring instrument

There are a number of measuring instruments that a researcher can make use of. It is the nature of the research problem that dictates to the researcher which

methods can be used. In this study, the technique used by the researcher is the postal questionnaire.

A measuring instrument has the greatest influence on the reliability of the collected data, hence great care was taken in the construction of the questionnaire as a measuring instrument. A questionnaire is a document filled out by the respondent in his own time or completed by him under the supervision of the researcher. In this study, the researcher made use of the questionnaire because factual information was desired and also because of its advantage particularly when the respondents were principals and learners (Best & Kahn 1989:181; McMillan & Schumacher, 1993:11).

#### **4.2.2 Advantages of questionnaires**

It is economical both for the researcher and for the respondent in terms of time, effort and cost. It facilitates contact with the subjects of the study who could not otherwise be reached by personal contact. Because the respondents remain anonymous and personal contact is minimised, greater objectivity can be attained. It helps in focussing the respondents' attention on all the specific purposes of the study. Responses can easily be analysed. Once it has been constructed skilfully, the researcher may request anybody to administer it on his/her behalf (Sidhu, 1984:139, Borg & Gail, 1989:428-434).

A well-designed questionnaire boosts the reliability and validity of the data to acceptable levels of tolerance (Schnetler, 1989:44).

#### **4.2.3 Disadvantages of questionnaires**

Some criticisms are against the use of the questionnaire.

- Excessive non-response rates, sampling.
- Questions deal with trivial information and issues.
- Data from different questions are difficult to synthesize.
- The questionnaire can be completed by someone other than the respondent.

- The respondents can interpret the questions wrongly ( Wolf, 1988:479; Smit, 1988:65-66).
- Poorly-constructed items ( Schnetler , 1989:44).
- Some respondents may not feel happy about airing their views on controversial issues on paper. Such views can be obtained through interview.

If a questionnaire is properly administered, it is still the most appropriate instrument to elicit information. In this study the introspective form of the questionnaire was used, touching on matters relating to the principals' career choice and biological factors, which shed light on the research topic. Again a closed questionnaire was used, which requires short or brief answers and which facilitates the coding and analysis of respondents (Best & Kahn, 1992:182).

#### **4.2.4 Construction of questionnaires**

Constructing questionnaire requires considerable time, planning and thought. Framing questions to obtain honest answers is an act and therefore Van Dalen (1979:156-157) stresses that researchers should thoroughly explore their experiences, the literature and other questionnaires so as to frame questions that measure the precise variables on the investigation and that the precise variables under that concerns the test in depth. Accordingly, Van Dalen points out that the researcher must ascertain what specific aspects of the research need to be tested from the literature study.

Mulder (1989:217) explains that all elements in specific aspects must be covered. The researcher must ensure that there are not too many or too few items on a specific element.

The following guidelines were taken into consideration in the compilation of the questionnaire:

- Only items that relate directly to the objectives of the research were included.
- The questions in the questionnaire should be clear and brief and straight to the point.

- Double-barrelled questions should be avoided, which means a question should be limited to a single idea only.
- Biased questions must be avoided.
- Short items should be preferable.
- The questions should be drawn up in such a way that they would be easy to answer (Borg & Gall, 1989:430-431; Gay, 1987:186-196; Mulder, 1989:217).

#### **4.2.5 Format and content of the questionnaire**

The aim of the questionnaire was to gather information about the background of principals and their schools as well as the negotiation skills they use in the performance of their duties. This instrument has therefore been used successfully to determine the negotiation needs of principals as school managers (Anderson, 1991).

In designing a format for questionnaire for this study, the researcher was guided by the rules of Borg and Gall (1989:431-432) and Schnetler (1989:82) concerning questionnaire format.

- Questions to be organised and laid-out so that the questionnaire could be as easy to complete as possible.
- Questions should be grouped according to subjects. This would make questions to be logical and enable the respondents to understand the relationship between them.
- Items that require similar responses should be grouped together. This would prevent repetition of response categories for every question.
- Bearing in mind the above rules, the questionnaire was divided into two sections (See Appendix 1) according to their focus.

#### **Section A (Question 1 - 10)**

The purpose of these questions was to gather biographical and demographical information about the respondents and their schools.

## Section B ( 64 Questions)

The objective of these questions was to determine the skills of negotiations used by principals in their management task. The negotiation skills used to test the frequency of use in the management task of the principal were:

Questions	Skills	Sub-questions
1 -	Listening	(11 sub-questions)
2 -	Empathy	(8 sub-questions)
3 -	Trust	(8 sub-questions)
4 -	Questions	(6 sub-questions)
5 -	Needs	(6 sub-questions)
6 -	Patience	(7 sub-questions)
7 -	Other negotiation skills	(18 sub-questions)
7.1 - 7.3 -	Timing	(3 sub-questions)
7.4 - 7.6 -	Politeness	(3 sub-questions)
7.7 - 7.9 -	Influence of space	(3 sub-questions)
7.10 - 7,12 -	Stamina	(3 sub-questions)
7.13 - 7 15 -	Tolerance	(3 sub-questions)
7.16 - 7.18 -	Confidence	(3 sub-questions).

For each item the respondents indicated on a four point Likert scale, the frequency of use of each skill for the effective performance of the job of the principal. For each item the respondents rated the use of each skill with learners as a managerial skill on a scale of 1 to 4 as follows (1=not at all, 2=to a lesser extent, 3=to an extent, 4=to a greater extent). A space was left open for the respondents to list other negotiation skills they use in their managerial task with learners.

### 4.2.6 Pilot study

A pilot study provides the researcher with a chance of exploring and field-testing the research elements, namely the questionnaire.

A major pre-test offers the advantage of being able to refine the techniques associated with the study. Consequently two pilot questionnaires were

prepared in order to improve the reliability and validity of items and to decide on the form in which certain questions should be presented.

The researcher utilised both techniques. The questionnaire was given to the researcher's supervisor and the university's computer analyst. There after the questionnaire was pre-tested in the Makgobistadt circuit using the sample of two principals (n = 2).

This group was similar to the intended respondents but were not part of the final sample in the study. At the end of the stipulated time the completed questionnaires were handed in and a brief period was devoted for questions and comments from the participants. Subsequently, the replies were analysed and notes were made of them as well as the verbal comments and criticisms (Borg & Gall, 1989:435). The pilot study was conducted to test the questionnaire for feasibility or semantic problems.

#### **4.2.7 The final questionnaire**

After the pilot study had been conducted and observations noted, the final questionnaire was designed and administered to 120 principals selected on systematic sampling basis.

#### **4.2.8 Covering letter**

Accompanying the questionnaires for all selected principals in the North West Province was a covering letter indicating the aims of the research and also a request that they should complete the questionnaires as faithfully as possible. The confidentiality of the information was also stressed. The purpose of the covering letter was to guide the respondents in filling the questionnaires to gain their cooperation to arouse the respondents' interest. So that he/she will complete the questionnaire as honestly as possible and return them with despatch (Sax, 1979:268).

#### **4.2.9 Administrative procedures**

The researcher, being a principal in Makgobistadt circuit was already in possession of the list of schools in the province. This list reflects the names

and addresses of the schools as well as the principals in permanent or acting positions.

A letter requesting for permission to conduct research in the North West Province was posted to the Director, Regional Coordination on the 12 of July 1997. A response to the request was received on 16th of July 1997 from the Director, Regional Coordination ( See Appendix.A). In his reply, the Director advised the researcher to contact the District, and Circuit managers as well as the principals concerned. This was done between August and September 1997 respectively.

#### 4.2.10 Population and sample

The target group for the empirical study included all the principals in the twelve (12) education districts comprising seventy-four (74) circuits in the North West Province of South Africa. The break down is as follows:

**Table 4.1: Population and sample**

Province	Districts	Circuits	Population (principals)	Sent out f.	Received back f.	Response %.
North West	Atamelang	4	10	4	3	75.0
	Brits	5	23	8	4	50.0
	Klerksdorp	9	42	15	9	60.0
	Lichtenburg	6	22	9	7	77.8
	Mabopane	6	20	10	7	70.0
	Mafikeng	6	24	14	12	85.7
	Mothibistadt	4	14	6	4	66.7
	Potchefstroom	6	32	10	9	90.0
	Rustenburg	7	33	11	8	72.7
	Temba	6	27	10	8	80.0
	Vryburg	9	26	11	7	63.6
	Zeerust	6	29	12	9	75.0
<b>Totals</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>302</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>72.5%</b>

A systematic sample of 120 secondary school principals was used as a study population. The above table indicates the distribution of school principals. Out of 120 principals selected on a systematic sampling basis, 87 respondents reacted to the request showing a response rate of 72.5%. Though this percentage rate indicates a favourable response, some principals ignored the request. Reasons for this stand could be that they were too busy with other things or that they have a negative attitudes towards questionnaires or were expecting remuneration of some kind.

#### **4.2.11 Follow-ups**

One of the disadvantages of the mailed questionnaire is a low rate of response. Bailey (1978:177) adds another disadvantage by observing that there is a lack of control over the time the questionnaire is to be completed. This shows that a follow-up is quite necessary. Consequently a follow-up letter was written and sent to the respondents. Few questionnaires were received there after.

#### **4.2.12 Statistical techniques**

A computer-aided statistical analysis was employed. The data that had been gathered was processed using the SAS Programme (SAS Institute Inc., 1985:403). The primary step in the analysis was to compute the descriptive data for each group of the skills of negotiation as used by the target population with learners. These include statistics like frequency distribution, percentages, means and standard deviation.

### **4.3 INTERPRETATION OF DATA**

#### **4.3.1 Biographical and demographic data**

The aim of these questions (cf. Questions 1-10, Appendix A) was to determine the personal background of the principals as well as the demographic information of their schools. Biographical details of principals include sex, age, experience, position held immediately before becoming a principal and qualifications.

The demographic details included the physical location of the school, school type, number of learners, and particulars of RCL in the schools.

Frequencies and percentages were used to discuss all the above biographical and demographical details of the principals and their schools.

The respondents data are summarised in Table 4.2.

#### **4.3.2 Analysis**

##### **\* Sex**

There is a vast difference between the number of male and female principals; males represented 71,3% while females represented only 27,6% according to table 4.2. These findings support the problem female under - representation in key management positions as highlighted by researchers like Legotlo (1994:176) and Teleki (1994:98-99).

##### **\* Age**

It is noted from the above table that only 1(1,1%) principal is above 60 years of age while 12(13,8%) principals are in the age group of 51 to 60 years. Majority of the principals, 43, fall between 41 and 50 years representing 49,4% with 26 of them representing 29,9% falling within 31 to 40 years age group. The rest of 5(5,7%) are below the age of 30 years.

##### **\* Experience**

The response to question 3 in section A indicates that 40(46,0%) of the principals have been in their posts for less than 3 years. 34(39,1%) have between 4 to 10 years experience while 13(14,9%) have experience of more than 8 years (cf. Table 4.2).

##### **\* Position occupied before becoming principal**

From the above table, it can be inferred that most of the principals 40(46,0%) were HOD's before. There were 35(40,2%) who were Deputy Principals before their role as principals. One (1,2%) was a lecturer and 11(12,6%) were assistant teachers before occupying the position of a principal.

**Table 4.2 Biographical characteristics of the respondents and their schools**

QUESTION	VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	%
Sex : A1	Male	62	71.3
	Female	24	27.6
	No response	1	1.1
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Age : A2	Below 30	5	5.7
	31 - 40	26	29.9
	41 - 50	43	49.4
	51 - 60	12	13.8
	60 +	1	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Experience : A3	0 - 3 years	40	46.0
	4 - 10 years	34	39.1
	10 + years	13	14.9
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Position before : A4	Assistant teacher	11	12.6
	HOD	40	46.0
	Deputy principal	35	40.2
	Lecturer	1	1.2
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Qualification : A5	Standard 10	2	2.3
	Diploma	15	17.2
	B.Degree	31	35.6
	B.Ed. (Honours)	28	32.2
	M. Degree	7	8.0
	D. Degree	1	1.2
	No response	3	3.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Location : A6	Rural	44	50.5
	Urban	41	47.1
	FARM	1	1.2
	No response	1	1.2
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
School Type : A7	Community	48	55.2
	State	35	40.2
	Other	4	4.6
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Number of Learners : A8	Less than 300	7	8.0
	300 - 500	18	20.7
	501 - 600	12	13.8
	601 - 700	9	10.3
	701 - 800	14	16.1
	801 - 900	10	11.5
	901 - 1000	3	3.5
	Above 1000	14	16.1
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
RCL in school : A9	Yes	71	81.6
	No	9	10.3
	No response	7	8.1
	<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>
When RCL formed : A10	May / June 1997	34	39.1
	1996	12	13.8
	1995	4	4.6
	1994	4	4.6
	Since school started	4	4.6
	15	17.2	
	No response	14	16.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

\* **Qualifications**

Table 4.2 shows that 2(2,3%) of the respondents had standard 10 qualifications and 15(17,2%) of the respondents had diploma qualifications. The rest of the respondents 67(77,0%) had B. Degrees and above. This is a great improvement in the highest qualifications of the principals since 1994 where Legotlo (1994:180-187) discovered that 68,5% of principals in almost the same area had standard 10 and below qualifications. Although frequency missing in this variable is three, if respondents had responded to the variable it would not have made much change in the percentage distribution pattern.

\* **Location**

Frequency missing in this variable is 1(1,2%) as indicated in Table 4.3. The table also presents that 44(50,5%) of the respondents were principals in rural schools while 41(47,1%) of the principals are appointed to urban schools. Only 1(1,2%) farm school principal in the study area was reported.

\* **School type**

The respondents were requested to indicate whether they were community, state or other school principals. Table 4.2 shows that 48(55,2%) were community school principals while 35(40,2%) were state school principals. State schools are funded and subsidised by the state while community schools are not highly subsidised by the government. Community schools are erected by the local community, with minimum support from the government (Weeto, 1997:76; Legotlo, 1994:184).

\* **Number of learners**

According to Table 4.2, the majority of the schools, 50 out of 87 representing 57,5% have a population ranging from 601 to over 1000 learners. This implies that most principals have difficult task in managing their schools, since schools with large learner population in general pose more disciplinary problems and conflict situations to handle than schools with small learner population (Weeto, 1997:73).

Large schools require principals very skilled in negotiations, delegating duties and managing staff and learners to maintain a balance through the utilisation of the available human and material resources.

**\* RCL**

Table 4.2 shows that 71(81,6%) principals responded that RCL (Representative Council of Learners) is formed in their schools while 9(10,3%) responded that there is no formation of RCL in their schools. 7(8,1%) principals did not respond to this question. This shows that some did not know what is meant by the RCL which is the new School Act name for the SRC. Though schools in the North West Province have been supplied with copies of the new South African Schools Act 1996 and that every secondary school should have an RCL formed by the end of June 1997, the no response rate indicates clearly that principals have not read the Act and thus do not know what RCL is all about in the new dispensation.

**\* When RCL formed?**

From Table 4.2, 73(83,9%) of responses received from principals have RCL in their schools while 14(16,1%) did not give any response to this question. It shows again that principals knew very little about the RCL. 34(39,1%) of the principals indicated that the RCL was formed in their schools in May/June 1997. This means that up until June 1997 there was no proper learner representation to negotiate or discuss learner needs and problems with the principals. No wonder there were serious learner unrest problems in schools in the North West Province in the past.

**4.3.3 Conclusion**

From the Table 4.2 above, the respondents were mainly males 71,3% in the age group of 41-50 years and have less than three years experience in management position in school. The majority of the principals 86,2% were HOD's or deputy principals before appointment as school principals and have at least a degree. It seems that the population of principals was evenly distributed between rural and urban schools as well as distributed between community and state schools. All the schools have more that 300 learners except seven

schools and 14 schools have more than 1000 learners. The majority of schools have RCL which were formed during the last two years.

#### 4.3.4 Mean score ratings of negotiation skills

An attempt was made to get a picture of the mean score ratings of the negotiation skills identified in Chapter 3 of the study.

A high mean score means that the item of the negotiation skill was often used or practised by the principals during negotiations with learners. That is, the higher the mean score (4,00 maximum mean score) on an item, the higher its frequency of use by the principals in their interaction or negotiation with learners. The items with the mean score of 2,80 (70,0%) and above were considered as crucial and therefore discussed briefly. From the data it seems therefore that only 41 of the 64 items will be discussed in this study.

In the analysis data, the items were clustered in the following seven skill groups:

**Table 4.3 Negotiation skills table**

RANK	NEGOTIATION SKILLS	TOTAL ITEMS	NO. OF ITEMS WITH MEAN SCORES ABOVE 2,80	% USE
1	Needs	6	5	83,3
2	Empathy	8	6	75,0
3	Other negotiation skills	18	13	72,2
4	Questioning	6	4	66,7
5	Listening	11	7	63,6
6	Patience	7	4	57,1
7	Trust	8	2	25,0
		64	41	63,3

#### 4.3.4.1 Mean score ratings of need skills

The aim of these questions was to find out from principals whether something necessary, desirable or very useful which is missing or wanted by learners is

taken into consideration and attended to by the principals in their managerial task. Five out of six items constructed under needs skills had a mean score of 2,80 and above indicating 83,3% rate of use of needs as a negotiation skill by principals. The frequent use of needs by principals as a negotiation skill with learners may stem out of the fact that needs of people and organizations lie at the basis of a negotiation potential, especially when resources to meet those needs are scarce in these days of economic recession (cf. 3.3.2.6). The data are summarised in Table 4.4 below.

**Table 4.4: Mean score ratings of needs skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B5-6	I negotiate with learners in order to create a culture of learning and teaching climate.	3,71	1
B5-1	I often use negotiations to match the needs of learners.	3,49	2
B5-5	When I negotiate on problems with learners we are seeking to satisfy needs.	3,47	3
B5-3	I tend to be guided by the needs of learners when I talk with them.	3,36	4
B5-2	I negotiate with learners when I perceive a deficiency in them.	3,11	5

### Analysis

B5-6 *I negotiate with learners in order to create a culture of learning and teaching climate.*

This question asked the respondents to indicate whether negotiation with learners sought to create a culture of learning and teaching services. According to the Table 4.4, respondents were positive that negotiation with learners sought to create a culture of learning and

teaching services in that 83 out of 87 principals with a mean score of 3,71 ranking first, were of this opinion. The majority opinion agrees with the review of literature. Schools in which principals negotiate with learners to create a culture of learning and teaching climate experience a significantly higher learner performances than those schools in which principals fear to negotiate (cf. 2,15).

- B5-1 Ranking second on Table 4.4 is *the question I often use negotiations to match the needs of learners*, mean score of 3,49.

The responses to this question testify that principals use negotiations to match the needs of learners which agree with the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.6). The implications to these responses are that principals use motivational skills to provide needs of learners through negotiation, which in turn encourages learners to study hard for improvement of academic results.

- B5-5 *When I negotiate on problems with learners we are seeking to satisfy needs.*

Evidence from the survey, Table 4.4 has shown that the majority of principals, means score 3,47 and ranked third on the table, agree that when they negotiate with learners they are seeking to satisfy needs. The implication of this claim by principals in the province is that they are sensitive to learners needs and concerns which they, the principals, strive to resolve through negotiations.

- B5-3 *I tend to be guided by the needs of learners when I talk with them.*

When answering the above-named question, principals answered positively, mean score 3,36 meaning that principals are guided by the needs of their learners as they (principals) talk with them. These findings prove the literature study correct (cf. 3.3.2.6.2) for according to Maslow, when a person is satisfied he/she will direct and control himself/herself properly.

B5-2 *I negotiate with learners when I perceive a deficiency in them.*

This item ranked fifth with a mean score of 3,11. These features which emerged from the responses received, showed that principals negotiate with learners when they perceive deficiency in the learners. This confirms the literature review which highlighted that needs and their satisfaction are the common denominators in negotiation (cf. 3.3.2.6.3).

#### **4.3.4.2 Mean score ratings of empathy skills**

The purpose of the questions on empathy skills (cf. Table 4.5) was to find out from principals how often they use empathy as a negotiation skill. The questions were also designed to test whether principals imagine themselves in the position of the learners and so to share and understand the learners' feelings. Six out of eight questions in this cluster showed a mean score of 2,80 and above representing 75,0% use of empathy as a negotiation skill. This high percentage of mean scores above 2,80 clearly shows that principals at least empathise with learners in resolving problems in their schools. The responses are summarised in Table 4.5 below.

**Table 4.5: Mean score ratings of empathy skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B2-2	I am aware of learners feelings.	3,57	1
B2-6	I am guided by the fact that empathy motivates.	3,52	2
B2-3	During interactions with learners, I imagine what it would be like, to be in their shoes.	3,50	3
B2-4	I experienced that empathy narrows the gap between "You" and "Me".	3,47	4
B2-8	I turn to empathise with learners to induce successful negotiation outcomes.	3,17	5
B2-7	As a weapon, I use the idea that empathy causes the other party (learners) to lower their verbal attack.	2,91	6

**B2-2** *I am aware of learners' feelings.*

This question is ranked first in the table (cf. Table 4.5, question B2-2, mean score 3,57). The high mean score response is surprising because there appears to be a continuous confrontation between learners and principals which result in learner violence and acts of vandalism in schools in the North West Province. Perhaps the situation could be different if principals genuinely become aware of learners feelings as the literature portrays that empathy narrows the gap between "you" and "me" (cf. 3.3.2.3).

**B2-6** Second in ranking on empathy skills is the item *I am guided by the fact that empathy motivates* (cf. Table 4.5, question B2-6, mean score 3,52). The positive high response of principals to this question indicated that they recognise that empathy motivates them to reduce distress of the learners in need which agrees with the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.3.1).

**B2-3** Third in ranking on empathy skills in negotiation is the item, *During interactions with learners I imagine what it would be like, to be in their shoes*, (cf. Table 4.5, question B2-3, mean score 3,50). The high mean score shows that principals are able to see things from the learners' point of view which confirms the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.3.1).

**B2-4** *I experienced that empathy narrows the gap between "You" and "Me".*

Responses to this question (cf. Table 4.5) show that majority of principals 93,0% (mean score 3,47) positively agree that empathy narrows the gap between them and the learners. The above empirical findings prove literature study right (cf. 3.3.2.3).

**B2-8** *I turn to empathise with learners to induce successful negotiation outcomes.*

In this question the mean score was 3,17 ranking fifth in the items on empathy skills. This shows that principals do claim to empathise with

learners to induce successful negotiation outcomes. But the frequency of disruption in schools makes this claim by principals dubious.

B2-7 The last item ranked sixth on the empathy skills is: *As a weapon, I use the idea that empathy causes the other party (learners) to lower their verbal attack.* This question with a mean score of 2,91 confirms the literature conclusion that empathy lowers or reduces verbal or written action directed forcefully against learners intended to hurt or damage the learners (cf. 3.3.2.3.3).

#### **4.3.4.3 Mean score ratings of other negotiation skills**

The aim of these questions was to find out from respondents (principals) how and when they negotiate with learners. Do they exercise good manners, courtesy and sensitivity to other people's feelings? Do principals arrange proper negotiation setting with good ventilation channels as well as adequate rooms for caucusing? Are principals willing to accept or allow behaviour, beliefs, values, customs, etc. of learners which they, the principals, do not like or agree with, without opposition? Do principals have clean unworried feelings or manners based on a strong belief in their abilities? Lastly do principals fight against tiredness or illness during the process of negotiation? What are the responses of principals to the above questions?

Thirteen out of eighteen items constructed under other negotiation skills had mean score of 2,80 and above representing 72,2% use of these other skills by principals in their management task. The data are summarised below in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6: Mean score ratings of other negotiation skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B7-18	My basic educational training reasonably encourages me to negotiate skilfully with learners	3,72	1
B7-3	I have learnt in negotiations that timing is very important.	3,67	2
B7-17	I try to understand myself even before negotiating with learners.	3,63	3
B7-16	I trust myself so I do not get worried when negotiating with learners.	3,49	4
B7-5	When I invite visitors to my office for discussions, I wait for them to sit before I sit.	3,43	5
B7-15	I accommodate learner inability to pay fees only after negotiating with their parents.	3,37	6
B7-6	I normally introduce the Deputy Principal, the HOD's before other educators while the RCL President introduces the Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer before others.	3,23	7
B7-7	I use a large room for negotiations with learners.	3,16	8
B7-14	I cannot tolerate learner lateness without finding the cause.	3,10	9
B7-4	I usually consider it impolite to reject a compliment too strongly.	3,06	10
B7-2	I usually hold negotiations with learners when they are less busy with their academic work.	3,05	11
B7-13	As a negotiation skill, I do not accept learner utterances which I do not agree with.	2,87	12
B7-11	If I am tired during negotiations I do not show it.	2,83	13

## Analysis

- B7-18** *My basic educational training reasonably encourages me to negotiate skilfully with learners.*

Responses to the above question show that principals were confident that their basic educational training reasonably encourages them to negotiate skilfully with learners. These responses show a mean score of 3,72 (maximum mean score 4,00) and ranked first on Table 4.6. Referring then to Table 4.3, the qualifications of principals have improved considerably of recent, recording a 77,0% of the responded principals as having a B. degree and above. This gives principals the confidence to negotiate with the learners.

- B7-3** *I have learnt in negotiations that timing is very important.*

Table 4.6 shows the responses of the principals as positive with regard to the importance of timing in negotiations, mean score 3,67. Respondents were of the opinion that it matters less what one says than how and when one says it during negotiations (cf. 3.3.2.2). The authors consulted in Chapter 3 maintain that choosing of exactly the right moment to make an offer to learners so as to get the best effect, as with so many endeavours, is essential for success in negotiations which tallies with empirical findings.

- B7-17** *I try to understand myself even before negotiation with learners.*

This item, ranked third with a mean score of 3,63 according to Table 4.6, reveals that principals try to understand themselves even before negotiating with learners. This agrees with views shared by authors consulted in Chapter 3. A calm unworried feeling or manner based on a strong belief in the negotiator's abilities, therefore, is a requirement of arriving at good negotiation agreement (cf. Thorn, 1989:155).

- B7-16** *I trust myself so I do not get worried when negotiating with learners.*

This question was meant to surface the confidence that principals have in negotiating with learners. This item with a mean score of 3,49 and

ranked fourth indicates that principals agree that they trust themselves so they do not get worried when negotiating with learners, and this confirms the literature findings (cf. 3.3.2.7.5).

**B7-5** *When I invite visitors to my office for discussions, I wait for them to sit before I sit.*

This question required respondents to indicate who visits first as a sign of politeness during negotiations with invited guests, whether the hosts on their guests. Table 4.6 presents that principals wait for their guests to sit before they sit for this item was ranked fifth with a mean score of 3,43. The view expressed by majority principals agree with the authors consulted in the literature study (cf. 3.3.3.2.8).

**B7-15** *I accommodate learner inability to pay fees only after negotiating with their parents.*

In answering the above question, majority principals, mean score 3,37, explained positively that they accommodate learner inability to pay school fees only after negotiating with learners' parents.

The possible reason behind this may be that parents may have different financial problems at any given point in time and again working parents all do not receive the same salary or have equal number of children at school at a time, therefore principals are sympathetic and tolerant to parents with genuine financial problems and even suggest liberal terms of payment of the school fees or give names of some financial institutions that could help.

**B7-6** *I normally introduce the Deputy Principal, the HOD's before other educators while the RCL President introduces the Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer before others.*

The mean score for this item was 3,23 with a ranking of seven. Here, respondents answered that the most important persons greet each other first and then introduce their team members in sequence of importance, so that the person of least importance is introduced to the

host last. This order is in conformity with the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.8) The order also shows good manners, sensitivity to other people's feelings and positions and or correct social behaviour in especially the western countries.

**B7-7** *I use a large room for negotiations with learners.*

From Table 4.6 on the above question with mean score 3,16 deductions can be made that respondents maintain that they use a large room for negotiations with learners. This means that in meeting learners for negotiations, principals use a classroom or a hall for the purpose and not probably their offices which may be too small for negotiations. The literature consulted indicated that the negotiation room should have chalkboard and chalk in case the parties need to discuss cost figures, class scheduling and other topics for a large negotiation room enhances negotiation climate between parties (cf. 3.3.2.10).

**B7-14** *I cannot tolerate learner lateness without finding the cause.*

Table 4.6 reveals that principals cannot tolerate learner lateness without finding the cause of lateness, for majority of principals, mean score 3,10 share this view when answering the question. Some learners may have genuine transportation problems between their homes and school therefore it is always advisable to find out causes for arriving after the usual, arranged, necessary or expected time. Perhaps learner lateness may be due to improper bus arrangements or shortage of buses for the particular route.

**B7-4** *I usually consider it impolite to reject a compliment too strongly.*

In considering this question, mean score 3,06 and ranked nine, respondents answered that it is usually impolite to reject a compliment too strongly. This opinion agrees with the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.8) but it is advisable for negotiators to learn the culture of the community in which negotiations are taking place for forms of behaviour and

language which are considered to be polite in one society can sometimes seem strange or rude in another (cf. 3.3.2.8).

- B7-2 *I usually hold negotiations with learners when they are less busy with their academic work.*

This question required principals to indicate when they usually hold negotiations with learners. The above item had a mean score of 3,05 and Table 4.6, question B7-2 reveals that principals usually negotiate with learners when learners are less busy with their academic work. This agrees with the literature review in that common sense suggests that it is increasingly difficult to change someone or some group when there will be much loss of face due to pressure of examination preparations, real or imagined by doing so (cf. 3.3.2.2).

- B7-13 *As a negotiation skill, I do not accept learner utterances which I do not agree with.*

Respondents were of the opinion, mean score 2,87 as Table 4.6 shows, that they do accept learners utterances which they (principals) do not agree with. Since tolerance is a basic social requirement, majority of principals seem to tolerate their learners probably rather than using tolerance as a negotiation skill.

- B7-11 *If I am tired during negotiations I do not show it.*

Answers to the above question, (cf. Table 4.6) show that principals do not show signs of tiredness during negotiations with learners, mean score 2,83. The reason behind the stand of principals in this item may be that they may have developed the strength of body or mind to fight tiredness, discouragement or illness through long staff, management and school governing council meetings to acquire the necessary ability to withstand stress and exhibit stamina at meetings with learners (3.3.2.9 & 3.3.2.11).

#### 4.3.4.4 Mean score ratings of questioning skills

The purpose of these questions was to find out from principals whether they are sufficiently aware that the skills at identifying, producing and using information could be acquired through their asking learners productive questions. The other aim of these questions was to test the frequency of use of questioning as a negotiation skill in their management task. From Table 4.6, there were six items on the questioning skill and four out of eight items had a mean score of 2,80 and above, representing 66,7% use of questioning as a negotiation skill in schools by principals with learners. This shows that principals do use questioning as a skill of negotiation in their management task. The data are summarised in Table 4.7 below.

**Table 4.7: Mean score ratings of questioning skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B4-2	I need information because it is one of the tools for productive negotiations.	3,62	1
B4-6	Learning to question oneself is as valuable as asking questions to other s during negotiations.	3,57	2
B4-4	When I am not sure that learners understand me, I give additional information.	3,48	3
B4-1	I get new information from learners through questioning.	3,20	4

#### Analysis

B4-2 First on the ranking of questioning skills is the item: *I need information because it is one of the tools for productive negotiation*, with a mean score of 3,62. It is believed that principals are aware that ordinarily questions are tools that should be used to help reach negotiation tasks of discovering information presentation of a persuasive case and completion of a satisfactory agreement. Hence a large number of

principals 91,9% answered positively to this question. Interestingly, this view is shared by Johnson (1993:53) and Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994:54).

B4-6 *Learning to question oneself is as valuable as asking questions to others during negotiation* ranked second in Table 4.7 on questioning as a negotiation skill with a mean score of 3,57. The reason why this item is frequently used by principals may be that questions stimulate the mind and offer people an opportunity to examine themselves and their stand on a particular issue(s) with the view to changing their mind (cf. 3.3.2.4.4).

B4-4 *When I am not sure that learners understand me, I give additional information.* The above-mentioned question required respondents to indicate whether they encourage their learners to question them when they (principals) think they are not well understood by learners.

The responses received from principals seem to show that they give additional information to be understood. Mean score recorded in this question was 3,48 (cf. Table 4.7). Implications are that if principals do give additional information to learners in order to be understood then it suggests an indication that principals want to defuse volatile encounters (cf. 3.3.2.5.3).

B4-1 The fourth ranked item on questioning skills with a mean score 3,20 was the question: *I get new information from learners through questioning.* Table 4.7 shows that principals use the above item as a skill in their management task. Here, it could be argued that principals are aware that questioning is a way of getting information which seeks to reduce mistakes and this is part of everyday life (cf. 3.3.2.5.3).

#### **4.3.4.5 Mean score ratings of listening skills**

The aim of the questions on listening skills (cf. Table 4.8) was to determine whether secondary school principals are caring, attentive, alert, non-destructive and are keen in finding solutions to the concerns of learners in their schools.

The questions also sought to confirm or disagree with the literature study (cf. 3.3.2.1.2) that in listening there must be no evaluation, no judgement, no agreement or disagreement, just an effort to understand another. The table displays the mean score ratings of listening as a negotiation skill. The mean scores have been arranged in rank order to help reveal items on listening most frequently used by principals in their management task. As stated above (cf. 4.4) the cut-off point is 2,80 (with maximum mean score as 4,00). The table shows a percentage rate of 63,6% (7 out of 11 questions) of mean scores of 2,80 and above. This high percentage of mean scores of 2,80 and above shows that principals use listening as a negotiation skill in their management task. The responses are summarised in Table 4.8 below.

**Table 4.8: Mean score ratings of listening skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B1-9	Listening is essential to any relationship.	4,00	1
B1-10	I give encouraging acknowledgements like, "I see", "tell me more", "good observation".	3,61	2
B1-11	I tell learners that their requests are understood.	3,60	3
B1-5	I listen to all stories of learners even if irrelevant.	3,13	4
B1-6	As a principal I want learners to hear me at all times.	3,08	5
B1-8	When with learners I put off all disruptions.	2,87	6
B1-1	I normally think of a response while learners are busy talking to me.	2,84	7

### Analysis

B1-9 : Responses to this question show that all principals acknowledge that *listening is essential to any relationship* as it ranks first on Table 4.8

above. This finding is supported by the literature study which states that good listening is the foundation of successful problem solving and a good negotiator concentrates on listening. Thus for principals to indicate that good listening is essential to any relationship demonstrates that they have a strong desire to know what the learners are saying and to establish good relationships with them in order to work together as a team (cf. 3.3.2.1.4).

- B1-10: Second in ratings in this section with means score of 3,61 is the remark "*I give encouraging acknowledgements like 'I see', 'tell me more', 'good observation'*" (cf. Table 4.8). The possible reason for rating this item so high may be that principals want learners to open up for serious negotiations of bargaining in that it provides the emotional conditions which help them to be open to the changes which may be required to solve the problem (cf. 3.3.2.1.5).
- B1-11: Principals indicated that they *tell learners that their (learners) requests are understood*. These findings suggest that principals do listen to their learners and are ready to do something about the learners' concerns. This is in line with the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.1.5) which provides that listening allows the presenter's feeling - which are part of the reality of the situation - to be recognised and given full weight.
- B 1-5 *Learners are fond of telling irrelevant stories*, so this question was included in the questionnaire to know whether principals listen to learners' irrelevant tales. The rather high mean score rating, 3,13, of the item may stem out of the fact that principals want to indicate that learners needs as well as their proposals no matter how unimportant they may appear to be are of great concern to them (principals). As revealed by the literature consulted, the principals' careful listening would help the learners to start sorting out the confusions in their own mind through the process of articulating them (cf. 3.3.2.1.5). A great learning process takes place even through listening.

- B 1-6 *As a principal I want learners to hear me at all times.* The literature consulted (cf. 3.3.2.1.1) revealed that every negotiator wants to be heard. Principals therefore must be heard during negotiation sessions with learners. A possible reason why principals want learners to listen to them may be that principals feel they are the accounting officers in their schools and therefore subordinates must listen to them when they, (the principals) , speak. Another possible reason may be that principals believe that they hold important information to give to both staff and learners and therefore they expect these subordinates to listen to them.
- B 1-8 *I put off all disruptions when with learners* (cf. Table 4.8, mean score 2, 87) was the last but one item in ranking on listening skills. The literature consulted (cf. 3.3.2.1.2) reveal that if negotiators care, they would attend to the other person, would focus their full and undivided attention on understanding the other party. The principals responses agree with the literature. The deduction which is made here is that principals want to start sorting out the confusion in their own minds through the process of articulating learners' complaints by putting off all disruptions in order to listen to the full stories from learners.
- B 1-1 *I normally think of a response while learners are busy talking to me* was the last ranked item on listening skills with a means score of 2,84 (cf. Table 4.8). The responses here show clearly that principals do not either listen to their learners or did not understand the question properly, because their responses all along showed that they listen to their learners. According to the literature study (cf. 3.3.2.1.6) when negotiators think of responses while their opponents are busy talking to them constitutes behaviour rehearsal and therefore a barrier to listening.

#### **4.3.4.6 Mean score ratings of patience skills**

The aim of these questions was to find out from principals whether they exercise the ability to wait calmly for a long time and not be made angry by delay, or whether they exercise the ability to accept pain, trouble or anything

that causes annoyance without complaining or losing their self-control especially in their dealings with learners. Four out of seven items constructed under patience skills had a mean score of 2.80 and above, portraying a percentage rate of use of patience by principals as a negotiation skill as 57,1%. The data are summarised in Table 4.9 below.

**Table 4.9: Mean score ratings of patience skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B6-6	In all my management tasks, I have learnt that the only requirement of a good negotiation is patience.	3,56	1
B6-2	I wait for learners to present their side of a case to me.	3,30	2
B6-3	When learners are rude to a teacher, I make them to ask for forgiveness immediately.	3,09	3
B6-1	It takes time to listen to important issues presented by learners.	3,05	4

### Analysis

B6-6 *In all my management tasks, I have learnt that the only requirement of a good negotiation is patience.* This question with a mean score of 3,56 ranked first on patience skills, Table 4.9. Responses to this question reveal that principals were of the opinion that in all their management task, they have learned that the only requirement of a good negotiation is patience. This observation by principals agrees with the views shared by authors consulted in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.3.2.7.4).

B6-2 *I wait for learners to present their side of a case to me.* In responding to the above question, principals indicated that they exercise the ability to wait calmly for a long time and not be made angry by delay or without losing their self-control to listen to learners side of a case first. The implication here is that if principals show care and pay close attention to the difficult or tiring task of listening to the frequent complaints of

learners and do seek for solutions through negotiations, then there is a great indication that the culture of learning and teaching services would soon be established in school in the North West Province at least. This comes through the provision of a healthy climate of negotiation session (cf. 3.3.2.7.2).

B6-3 *When learners are rude to a teacher, I make them to ask for forgiveness immediately.* This question was aimed at discovering from principals whether they wait patiently for tempers to cool down naturally with time or whether they act immediately by telling learners to ask for forgiveness from their teachers when they (the learners) are rude to teachers. Principals answered positively, mean score 3,09, that they act immediately by making learners to ask for forgiveness when they are rude to their teachers. By so doing principals establish immediate cordial relationships between learners and their teachers to bring back a healthy learning-teaching climate in their schools (cf. 2.4).

B6-1 *It takes time to listen to important issues presented by learners.* From the data in Table 4.9, principals hold the view that it takes time to listen to important issues presented by learners. Mean score on this item was 3,05. In other words principals displayed an exercise of patience in listening to learners, which agrees with the review of literature (cf. 3.3.2.7.3).

#### **4.3.4.7 Mean score ratings of trust skills**

The aim of these questions was to test the firm belief in the honesty, goodness and worth of principals for their learners especially the representative council of learners (RCL) in schools. Only two out of eight items of trust skills showed a mean score ratings of 2,80 and above. This represents a 25,0 % rate of use of trust as a whole as a negotiation skill by principals. The high rate of mistrust by principals for learners probably stems out from the South African environment which works against trust (cf. 3.3.2.4). The data are summarised in Table 4.10 below.

**Table 4.10: Mean score ratings of trust skills**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B3-4	I try to build consistency between what I say and what I do as a principal.	3,83	1
B3-1	To succeed as a principal, I feel a shared confidence between me and learners in each others willingness to reach a common goal.	3,62	2

### **Analysis**

B3-4 *I try to build consistency between what I say and what I do as a principal.* According to Table 4.10 the responses to the above question were positive with mean score of 3,83 representing 98,8% principals agreeing with the statement. Even though in this item, principals appear to be consistent in their management style, they do not seem to be enjoying trust with learners. Perhaps with time, learners may experience consistency in their principals and so learn from them to earn trust from each other (cf. 3.3.2.3.3).

B3-1 The large positive response by principals to the question: *To succeed as a principal, I feel a shared confidence between me and learners in each others willingness to reach a common goal,* does not reflect the true state of affairs in schools especially in the North West Province as a lot of unrests as well as violence and strikes have been reported in the media. These responses by principals do agree with the literature review (cf. 3.3.2.3.3)

### **4.4 SUMMARY**

The aim of the foregoing chapter was to find out what principals have to say with regard to the actual use of negotiation skills with learners as a managerial task in their schools. The measuring instrument used was the questionnaire. The questionnaires were sent out to principals to be duly completed by them

and returned. The distribution of the questionnaires was not too much of a problem though it entailed some expenditure on the posting. Not all the questionnaires posted were returned by principals (cf. Table 4.1).

The purpose of the biographical and demographic data was clarified and there after the data were analysed (cf. 4.3.3). Population and sample and statistical techniques were briefly outlined.

On the interpretation of the statistical data, Table 4.3 reveals that, of the skills of negotiation discussed in Chapter 3 of this study, principals used needs skills the most (83,3%) with learners, followed by empathy skills (75,0%) and other negotiation skills (72,2%) while trust skills are the least used (25,0%). Questioning (66,7%), listening (63,6%) and patience (57,1%) negotiation skills are also used by principals with learners in the order listed above in their management task in their schools.

The next chapter will include the summary of all the previous chapters, findings, recommendations and final remark on the study.

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## CHAPTER 5

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### **SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this final chapter, a summary of the previous chapters of the research study is given. This is followed by the overall findings of both the literature study and die empirical research. Furthermore, a set of suggestions and recommendations for the improvement of negotiation skills in secondary schools as well as a conclusion is provided.

#### **5.2 SUMMARY**

In Chapter 1, the background to the study was discussed and the problem of the research stated. The research aims were stated from both theoretical and empirical perspective and the methodology of achieving these aims was given. In addition, a division according to chapters was made. The chapter ended with a discussion of related research.

Chapter 2 addressed the first aim of this study, i.e. the nature of negotiations in general and negotiation in schools in particular. This includes an examination of various definitions of negotiation with the aim of arriving at a more applicable definition of negotiations in schools. The chapter also includes principles underlying negotiation, forms of negotiation, when is negotiation necessary, the role of a mediator in negotiations, factors of negotiations and the general mistakes that occur during negotiations.

In Chapter 3, the context and skills needed for successful negotiations in schools by principals with learners were reviewed and analysed from a managerial perspective. Power and perspective as negotiation elements were also highlighted as well as the legal basis of negotiations in schools.

Negotiation skills such as listening, empathy , trust, questioning, needs, patience, timing, politeness, influence of space, ability to withstand stress, stamina, tolerance confidence and possession of a sting and formal scientific education were all briefly discussed in this chapter.

In Chapter 4, the empirical aspects of the study were presented. The chapter included a discussion of the design of the study, population and sample, method of gathering data, advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires as research tool, development of the questionnaire items, format and content of the questionnaire, pilot study, covering letter, administrative procedure and statistical techniques used in analysing the data. Attention is given to the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data. The responses to each question item were presented in the form of tables indicating frequencies and percentages, followed by a summary of the chapter.

In Chapter 5, the last chapter, a summary of the chapters is given, findings of research aims are also presented as well as recommendations and a final remark.

### **5.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS**

#### **5.3.1 Findings on research aim 1**

Findings with regard to Aim 1 (cf. 1.2) which is to determine the nature of negotiations in general and in schools in particular were made as follows:

5.3.1.1 Negotiation is a transaction, a method or strategy and a process of reconciling and conferring through which an elegant win/win solution or compromise or consensus is voluntarily reached which meets the differing needs of the two or more parties, for example, principal and learners involved in a conflict or misunderstanding (cf. 2.2.7).

5.3.1.2 There are terms which are related to negotiation such as persuasion, mediation, arbitration, talks, lobbying, bargaining, collective bargaining and consultation but each of these related words is different from negotiation (cf. 2.3).

- 5.3.1.3 Negotiation is significant for everything in life is negotiable under all conditions and at all times, for example students and learners negotiate with administrators, attorneys with judges, children with parents, supervisors with subordinates, unions with management, and nations with one another (cf. 2.5).
- 5.3.1.4 Principle underlying negotiation is that when people find that what they want or need is available only at the cost or in the form they desire through someone else then they negotiate. Negotiation therefore is a struggle for a solution between principals and learners in a school, or is used to manage change (cf. 2.5).
- 5.3.1.5 There are some common sense guidelines that appear to have general utility in negotiations. These guidelines have been put down as models of negotiation. Mastenbroek (1983), Nel and Van Rooyen (1985), Leritz (1987), Nieuwmeijer (1989), Tillet (1991), Helps (1992), Nel *et al.* (1993) and Falkenberg (1995) to mention eight researchers, have put down principles which are considered as models of negotiation with learners (cf. 2.6).
- 5.3.1.6 Negotiation can take many forms for example it may include many people or only two, it may focus on one simple problem or many complex issues, it may be concluded in one session or may be an ongoing process, or it may be an effort to maintain a relationship between principal and learners or endorse changes (cf. 2.7).
- 5.3.1.7 Negotiation is necessary when parties are interdependent and must rely on the co-operation of one another in order to meet their goals or satisfy their interests or when parties are able to influence one another and can undertake or prevent actions that either harm or reward (cf. 2.9).
- 5.3.1.8 Mediation is usually initiated when the parties in negotiation, principal and learners, no longer believe that they can handle the conflict on their own and when the only means of resolution appears to involve

impartial third-party who listens to opposing sides in the conflict and suggests solutions, which carry no binding authority (cf. 2.9).

5.3.1.9 Mediators may find themselves in a variety of roles, such as peace-keeping, peace-making or peace-building by suggesting strategies and tactics which will lead to a mutually acceptable agreements. He may also assist in broadening the search for solution or settlements and steers parties to an acceptable agreement (cf. 2.9).

5.3.1.10 Some general mistakes occur during negotiations which have to be avoided. These are poor listening, poor questioning, debating instead of negotiating, use of irritating tactics, too much aggression and notes taking by either the principal or learners (cf. 2.12).

5.3.1.11 Negotiation is a process consisting of three phases, to wit, prelude (the need to negotiate and the preparation for the negotiation), duration (the face to face persuasive communication) and termination (the implementation of the agreement) (cf. 2.13).

5.3.1.12 In the school, like any other organization there are causes for negotiation. Some of these causes are conflict, violence, students or learners strike actions, negative attitudes, vandalism, power struggles, intimidation, limited resources, resistance to change, differences in opinion, accommodation, and transportation requirements. These causes occur frequently in work situations thus the need for negotiation as a managerial task of the school principal with learners (cf. 2.14).

5.3.1.13 Negotiation establishes a basis for co-operation, joint responsibility, joint planning and joint problem-solving in that schools in which principals practice negotiation with learners experience a significantly higher learner performance than those schools in which principals fear to negotiate or negotiate out of fear (cf. 2.15).

5.3.1.14 Some principals have negative attitudes towards negotiation as a managerial task in that they fear that using negotiations will cause

them to be overshadowed by their subordinates i.e. educators and learners. Again, practicing negotiation would make it difficult for them to control staff and learners thereby creating lack of discipline situations in the schools. They also believe that negotiation with learners is time-consuming and will result in wasted effort and so the job will not get done especially by delegating. All these are wrong attitudes, held by some principals since negotiation creates better understanding between principals and learners and thus establishing transparency and culture of learning and teaching services (cf. 2.17).

### **5.3.2 Findings on research aim 2**

With regard to research aim 2 (cf. 1.2), namely to determine what skills are needed for successful negotiations, the following were found from the literature:

- 5.3.2.1 Listening is a powerful skill needed in successful negotiations. A good negotiator like a principal concentrates on listening, asks frequently for clarification and tries to ensure that his own comments are being clearly heard and absorbed by learners (cf. 3.3.2.1).
- 5.3.2.2 The primary requirement for listening to learners is caring about what the learners have to say (cf. 3.3.2.1.1).
- 5.3.2.3 Good listening is the foundation of successful problem solving because it allows the presenter's feelings to be recognised and given full weight (cf. 3.3.2.1.1). Timing is a negotiation skill and it matters less what one says than how and when one says it (cf. 3.3.2.2).
- 5.3.2.4 The best time of the day for negotiation between principal and learners is in the morning since people are fresh and more intellectually active than in the afternoon (cf. 3.3.2.2).
- 5.3.2.5 The best time of the month for negotiation with learners is the middle of the month for most managers are busy preparing and evaluating reports at the end and probably the beginning of the month (cf. 3.3.2.2).

- 5.3.2.6 Empathy is a negotiation skill, is a motivation, is being attuned to and the ability to put oneself in another person's shoes and to see a situation from this person's point of view (cf. 3.3.2.3.1).
- 5.3.2.7 Principals should tune themselves in the learners situation and see from the point of view of these learners for a satisfactory negotiation climate to induce successful outcomes (cf. 3.3.2.3.3).
- 5.3.2.8 Trust is a skill of negotiation, is a perception, a result of and a firm belief in the honesty, reliability, goodness and worth of a person or a thing (cf. 3.3.2.4.1). All acts of honesty, respect, concern, help and courtesy build trust while all acts of deceit, dishonesty, contempt or disdain and saying one thing and doing another destroy trust (cf. 3.3.2.4.2).
- 5.3.2.9 Questions play an important role as a negotiation skill, for the literature reveals that questions are used to get information, gain attention, give information and handle pressure (cf. 3.3.2.5.3).
- 5.3.2.10 Needs and their satisfaction are the common denominators in negotiation. People will never negotiate if they have no unsatisfied needs. Encouraging learners to perform is by knowing their needs through negotiation and doing something about it (cf. 3.3.2.6.3).
- 5.3.2.11 Patience as a negotiation skill with learners is the ability or forbearance to hold back on one's haste in either condemning people or losing self-control under suffering and endurance and not be made angry in the face of adversity (cf. 3.3.2.7.1).
- 5.3.2.12 Negotiators should not allow themselves to be rushed for those who panic become susceptible to whatever the other side proposes. It takes patience by all parties to live up to expectation. Principals should therefore exercise patience when negotiating with learners so learners can learn from them (cf. 3.3.2.7.3).

- 5.3.2.13 In considering politeness as a negotiation skill, if the principal is very happy with the outcome of the negotiation with learners, he must not show it, instead he should be gracious and let the learners believe it is they who have been the skilful negotiators (cf. 3.3.2.8).
- 5.3.2.14 The principal should develop the ability to withstand stress when negotiating with learners to avoid work attitudes and behaviour (cf. 3.3.2.9).
- 5.3.2.15 As a strategy the negotiation room should be large enough to comfortably hold both negotiating teams principal and learners to induce a good negotiation climate (cf. 3.3.2.10).
- 5.3.2.16 Principals should tolerate learners even if learners' complaints are unreasonable (cf. 3.3.2.11).

### **5.3.3 Findings on research aim 3**

Findings with regard to the empirical investigation (research aim 3) which is to determine empirically to what extent do principals use negotiation skills in resolving problems with learners, the following findings were made:

- 5.3.3.1 The empirical investigation conducted revealed that principals in the North West Province of South Africa do use negotiation skills with learners especially the Representative Council of Learners (RCL) during negotiations or discussions with them (cf. 4.4).
- 5.3.3.2 The study further revealed that principals do take the needs of learners into consideration when negotiating with them, empathise with learners, as well as listen to and question learners in general and the representative council of learners in particular (cf. 4.3.4.1; 4.3.4.2; 4.3.4.4; 4.3.4.5).
- 5.3.3.3 The study again revealed that principals do not trust learners so much to negotiate with them. However, principals exhibit timing, patience and polite skills with learners in schools during negotiations (cf. 4.3.4.7; 4.3.4.3).

- 5.3.3.4 The biographical data of principals show that the respondents were mostly males 71,3% in the age group of 41-50 years and have less than three years experience in management position in schools. The majority of the principals 86,2% were H.O.D's or deputy principals before appointment as school principals and have at least a degree.
- 5.3.3.5 The demographic data of respondents portray that principals were evenly distributed between rural and urban schools. All the schools have more than 300 learners except seven schools and 14 schools have learner population of more than 1000. Majority of sample schools have an RCL which are formed during the last two years.
- 5.3.3.6 The empirical study reveals that principals use needs skills the most (83,2%) while trust skills are the least negotiation skill (25,0%) used with learners.

The following table (Table 5.1) shows the five negotiation skills most frequently used by principals with learners as a managerial task in their schools.

**Table 5.1: Negotiation skills most often used by principals with learners**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B1-9	Listening is essential to any relationship.	4,00	1
B3-4	I try to build consistency between what I say and what I do as a principal.	3,83	2
B7-18	My basic educational training reasonably encourages me to negotiate skillfully with learners.	3,72	3
B5-6	I negotiate with learners in order to create a culture of teaching and learning.	3,71	4
B7-3	I have learnt in negotiations that timing is very important.	3,67	5

Table 5.1 reveals that question B1-9, that is, *listening is essential to any relationship* (mean score 4,00), was rated as the most important negotiation skill used frequently by principals with learners in the North West Province.

This finding may be due to the fact that principals have to pay thoughtful attention to learners so as to be sure of hearing or taking notice of what the learners are saying during negotiations.

The next negotiation skill which is also frequently used by principals with learners in their managerial task, is question B3-4, *I try to build consistency between what I say and what I do as a principal* (mean score 3,83). The reason for the frequent use of this trust negotiation skill by principals with learners may be due to the fact that each party has to accept the other without proof or close examination or suspicion to the integrity of one another.

*My basic educational training reasonably encourages me to negotiate skilfully with learners* (mean score 3,72) was the third negotiation skill most frequently used by principals with learners. A proof that principals have passed various examinations and gained a certain level of knowledge or skill which make them suitable for their job or position gives them the confidence to negotiate with learners may be the reason for the high rating of this skill.

The fourth rated negotiation skill being a needs skill, B5-6, most importantly used by principals with learners is: *I negotiate with learners in order to create a culture of teaching and learning* (mean score 3,71). Every school has a vision and mission statements which have to be fulfilled. The first requirement is the establishment and sustainance of the culture of learning and teaching services which comes through negotiations between principal and learners. Hence the important rating of this needs skill.

Question B7-3, *I have learnt in negotiations that timing is very important* (mean score 3,67). The high mean score rating of this negotiation skill indicates that principals choose exactly the right moment to negotiate with learners so as to get the best negotiation agreements or results.

The following table (Table 5.2) portrays the five negotiation skills less often used by principals with learners in their managerial task in schools.

**Table 5.2: Negotiation skills less often used by principals with learners**

ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN SCORE	RANK
B3-7	Many at times I succeed in building trust with learners by wild promises.	1.40	1
B3-6	Learners cannot be trusted to be involved in building healthy school climate with me.	1.42	2
B7-12	I dissolve the negotiation meeting when ever I am tired.	1.49	3
B1-2	I interrupt and speak to learners at the same time.	1.55	4
B3-3	I do not strive to achieve trust with learners because the environment works against it.	1.55	5

A close look at the above table shows that the least important negotiation skill seldomly used by principals with learners in their managerial task in school is: *many at times I succeed in building trust with learners by making wild promises* (B3-7) with a mean score of 1,40.

The reason may be that showing lack of thought, order or direction in a statement, which learners have a right to believe and depend on, that the principal will do, provide or give something to learners or the school without fulfilling the promise destroys the principals' image and weakens their position as principals.

Skill no. B3-6, *learners cannot be trusted to be involved in building healthy school climate with me* with a mean score 1,42 was the second least important negotiation skill used by principals with learners (cf. Table 5.2). The reason may be due to the fact that the South African Schools Act (SASA) recognizes learners as partners in building schools and therefore have to be involved in school related matters.

The negotiation skill no. B7-12, *I dissolve the negotiation meeting whenever I am tired*, was the third least skill of importance used by principals with learners (cf. Table 5.2). Having stamina and the ability to withstand stress are both skills of negotiation. Therefore to dissolve the negotiation meeting at the middle of the meeting because the principal was feeling weak and lacking power in the body or mind could mean inefficiency and ineffectiveness on the part of the principal.

Another negotiation skill (B1-2) not used often by principals with learners and hence being less important is: *I interrupt and speak to learners at the same time*. Any principal wanting to have peace and stability in school will have to listen to the complaints of learners without interruption.

B3-3. The skill, *I do not strive to achieve trust with learners because the environment works against it*, was of less importance to principals and therefore lowly rated (mean score 1,55). The principals' low rating could be explained that the school is considered a close family with the principal and educators acting as parents. Therefore the mistrust found in the South African society could not be carried over to the school since nothing could work well in the school under such conditions. Learners would even not trust what their educators were teaching them.

## **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.4.1 Recommendation 1**

More attention should be paid to the professional development of school principals with particular focus on the use of negotiation skills as a managerial task of the school principal with learners.

#### **Motivation**

Very little is done to support principals in the discharge of their duties especially in their role as negotiators. Principals, whether their appointments are a calling or not do not just need to survive, but have to be seen to be effective in the performance of their duties. Therefore without effective performance roles, excellent education for the future citizenry of South Africa will be an exercise in

futility. Again since it is simply not realistic to work towards a total eradication of conflict within an institution like a school, principals should be well trained in negotiations. This is because rich, diverse and sometimes conflicting ideas do promote personal, intellectual and organizational growth through negotiations of principals with learners.

#### **5.4.2 Recommendation 2**

Principal centres and forums and various other opportunities should be made available for the professional development of school principals as negotiators.

##### **Motivation**

Principals should take opportunities to share ideas, and common problems, even if these opportunities are not created by the Department of Education. To see how others build their schools and how they deal with disciplinary problems of learners and other related violence problems, help a lot at Principals' forum.

#### **5.4.3 Recommendation 3**

One way of curbing violence in schools for the Department of Education is to train principals, as school heads in negotiations.

##### **Motivation**

The effective management development of school principal and of instituting the culture of learning and teaching in the schools can be realised if the Department of Education would support development programmes on negotiations for school principals to curb violence in schools. Uncontrolled conflict is a symptom of an uncontrolled organisation and an unmanaged organisation; the school then becomes a ship without a rudder' it is the negation of management.

#### **5.4.4 Recommendation 4**

Professional Associations of school principals should be encouraged and established and should be supported by the Department of Education in the various provinces in the country.

## **Motivation**

Principals seem to learn better in the hands of other principals who share to a greater or lesser extent the same feelings, strengths, weakness, opportunities, threats and frustrations. Principals need support and encouragement from other principals in order to be more effective and efficient in their jobs especially their dealings with learners.

### **5.4.5 Recommendation 5**

Educational management unit and research units at the universities should include negotiations and conciliation in the management development of school principals with learners.

## **Motivation**

Few universities in the country offer specialised programmes in Educational Management let alone including negotiation and conciliation on their programmes. It is strongly recommended that universities could contribute effectively to how to handle acts of violence, vandalism, class boycotts and student strikes if they could offer course on conflict management, negotiation and conciliation on their programmes.

### **5.4.6 Recommendation 6**

To arrest unrests in institutions of learning especially pre-tertiary level, universities and the department of education need to pay more attention to the improvement of the managerial capabilities of school principals with learners in the North West Province of South Africa.

## **Motivation**

The morale of principals has run low, matric pass rates are also very low which have given way to low productivity as indicated by low internal efficiency and effectiveness of the school system. These are indicators which seriously challenge the managerial capabilities of the school principal in particular and the academic staff as well as the management teams in the school in general. The Universities and Departments of Education should be concerned about this

disturbing situation in schools and actually do something about it. The Department of Education could start in-service courses on negotiations, conciliation and conflict management courses for existing principals while the universities include such courses on their educational management programmes.

#### **5.4.7 Recommendation 7**

School principals should ensure that they engage in participative, consultative and negotiation management styles when dealing with learners and parents.

#### **Motivation**

Principals currently experience serious problems in their managerial task which are to a great extent influenced by the manner in which they handle learners, parents and the community. Decisions on school policy matters, the vision and mission of the school are decided only by the school without the direct or indirect involvement of the community. Principals would ordinarily inform the school governing body and ignore the community who are in majority the privilege of being part of the problem solving and decision making in the school.

### **5.5 FINAL REMARK**

This study has opened the door to the complex nature of the problems school principals experience whenever they have to deal with learners. Learners contain a reservoir of untapped skills and can be very effective in problem-solving and maintenance of stability of non-violence tone in schools if climate is right. In other words, if principals could use negotiations as a management task the untapped skills of learners could be surfaced and utilised for the benefit of the school and the community. For, the end product of a negotiation process is to bring an acceptable degree of order and stability to a zone of potential disruption and discord.

Furthermore, the causes for negotiations with learners in schools could be an interesting study. The new educational dispensation in South Africa especially the *audi alteram partem* rule calls for all to be given a fair hearing in all cases.

In the light of this, much of the work of the school principal in negotiations could be made easier if a closer look is taken at examining the CAUSES for negotiations such as violence, vandalism and strikes which are associated with learners in schools. Consequently this could be an interesting future research study to give further insight into the new dimensions of negotiations in schools. Another area of this study which could be expanded or researched is negotiation skills training programmes for principals in the North West Province of South Africa. The negotiation skills training programme, it is believed would find solutions to conflicts which really deal with the concerns, fears, and issues that are important to the parties on both sides of the conflict. The principal recognises that this is a shared problem and looks for solution where both sides gain. When this approach works, it builds co-operation, teamwork, transparency, respect, trust, confidence, sound judgement, objectivity, culture of learning and teaching services and thus improves academic results.

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**APPENDIX A**

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**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, SPORT, RECREATION,  
ARTS AND CULTURE  
NORTH WEST PROVINCE**

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PRIVATE BAG X2044, MMABATHO, 2735 TEL. (0140-3411) FAX 874097

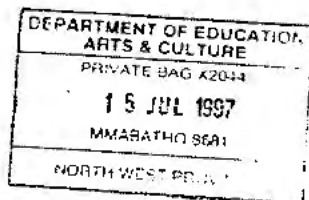
**TO :** ALL DISTRICT MANAGERS  
**FROM:** I. S. MOLALE  
**DATE:** 15 JULY 1997

**REQUEST TO ALLOW MR FOSU-AMOAH ACCESS TO SCHOOLS FOR THE  
PURPOSE OF CONDUCTING RESEARCH**

With reference to the above-mentioned matter you are kindly requested to allow the bearer of this letter access to schools for the purpose of conducting a research for study purposes.

Your co-operation in this regard would be appreciated.

  
PP DEPUTY - DIRECTOR - GENERAL



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## APPENDIX B

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P.O. Box 4710  
MMABATHO  
2735  
25-09-97

The Principal  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting a research study for M.Ed. degree at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education entitled:

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

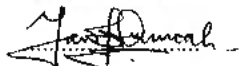
I have obtained permission from the Director of Regional Co-ordination, North West Provincial Department of Education, Mmabatho to distribute the questionnaires to the principals for completion. Your school has been chosen on a systematic sampling basis.

I shall therefore be very grateful to you indeed if you will be so kind enough to complete the accompanying questionnaires. All information will be treated in the strictest confidence without any reservations.

Please return the duly completed questionnaire to the above address using the self-addressed enclosed envelope as soon as possible.

May God richly bless you for your usual co-operation.

Yours faithfully



Yaw Fosu-Amoah

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## APPENDIX C

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### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPALS

CONFIDENTIAL

Questionnaire 

1	2	3
1		

 (1-3)  
Card no. 


 (4)

#### SECTION A

#### BIOGRAPHICAL

*Kindly answer the following questions by making a cross (x) on the appropriate number block. I shall be very grateful to you if the duly completed questionnaire could be posted to reach me on or before 3rd October 1997.*

1. What is your sex? 

1.1	Male	1
1.2	Female	2

 (5)

2. What is your age category in years? 

2.1	Below 30	1
2.2	31 - 40	2
2.3	41 - 50	3
2.4	51 - 60	4
2.5	60 +	5

 (6)

3. Number of years as school principal? 

3.1	0 - 3	1
3.2	4 - 10	2
3.2	10 +	3

 (7)

4. What position did you hold immediately before becoming a principal? 

4.1	Asst. Teacher	1
4.2	HOD	2
4.1	Deputy Principal	3
4.4	Lecturer	4

 (8)

5. What is your highest qualification? 

5.1	Standard 10	1
5.2	Diploma	2
5.3	B. Degree	3
5.4	B. Ed. (Honours)	4
5.5	M. Degree	5
5.6	D. Degree	6

 (9)

6. Physical location of school? 

6.1	Rural	1
6.2	Urban	2
6.3	Farm	3

 (10)

7. School type?

7.1	Community	1	(11)
7.2	State	2	
7.3	Other	3	

8. Number of learners in your school.

8.1	Less than 300	1	(12)
8.2	300 - 500	2	
8.3	501 - 600	3	
8.4	601 - 700	4	
8.5	701 - 800	5	
8.6	801 - 900	6	
8.7	901 - 1000	7	
8.8	Above 1000	8	

9. Do you have RCL in your school?

9.1	Yes	1	(13)
9.2	No	2	

10. If yes when was it formed?

10.1	May/June 1997	1	(14)
10.2	1996	2	
10.3	1995	3	
10.4	1994	4	
10.5	1993	5	
10.6	Since school started	6	

## SECTION B

**INSTRUCTIONS:** Please indicate by a cross (x) on the appropriate box number scale shown in the blocks that follow with numbers, the frequency of use of each negotiation skill for the effective performance of your management work as a principal.

- 1. Not at all**  
**2. To a lesser extent**  
**3. To an extent**  
**4. To a great extent**

Kindly work through the following:

### Question 1

1.1	I normally think of a response while learners are busy talking to me.	1	2	3	4	(15)
1.2	I interrupt and speak to learners at the same time.	1	2	3	4	(16)
1.3	Learners demands are unreasonable therefore I do not listen to all their demands/complaints.	1	2	3	4	(17)
1.4	Learners do not express themselves in good language which hinders my listening.	1	2	3	4	(18)
1.5	I listen to all stories of learners even if irrelevant.	1	2	3	4	(19)
1.6	As a principal I want learners to hear me at all times.	1	2	3	4	(20)
1.7	Learners worry a lot with their frequent complaints and I get bored.	1	2	3	4	(21)
1.8	When with learners I put off all disruptions.	1	2	3	4	(22)
1.9	Listening is essential to any relationship.	1	2	3	4	(23)
1.10	I give encouraging acknowledgements like "I see", "tell me more", "good observation".	1	2	3	4	(24)
1.11	I tell learners that their requests are understood.	1	2	3	4	(25)

### Question 2

2.1	I am unable to understand the feelings of the learners when they act irrationally.	1	2	3	4	(26)
2.2	I am aware of learners feelings.	1	2	3	4	(27)
2.3	During interactions with learners, I imagine what I would be like, to be in their shoes.	1	2	3	4	(28)
2.4	I experienced that empathy narrows the gap between "you" and "me".	1	2	3	4	(29)
2.5	I normally tell the RCL members that I understand what they are saying but I disagree with them.	1	2	3	4	(30)
2.6	I am guided by the fact that empathy motivates.	1	2	3	4	(31)
2.7	As a weapon, I use the idea that empathy causes the other party (learners) to lower the length of their verbal attack.	1	2	3	4	(32)
2.8	I turn to empathise with learners to induce successful negotiation outcomes.	1	2	3	4	(33)

**Question 3**

3.1	To succeed as a principal, I feel a shared confidence between me and learners in each other's willingness to reach a common goal.	1	2	3	4	(34)
3.2	It is difficult to achieve trust with learners.	1	2	3	4	(35)
3.3	I do not strive to achieve trust with learners because the environment works against it.	1	2	3	4	(36)
3.4	I try to build consistency between what I say and what I do as a principal.	1	2	3	4	(37)
3.5	Learners are too young to exhibit acts of trust in dealing with them.	1	2	3	4	(38)
3.6	Learners cannot be trusted to be involved in building a healthy school climate with me.	1	2	3	4	(39)
3.7	Many at times I succeed in building trust with learners by wild promises.	1	2	3	4	(40)
3.8	I develop trust with learners by enforcing strict status differences between us.	1	2	3	4	(41)

**Question 4**

4.1	I get new information from learners through questioning.	1	2	3	4	(42)
4.2	I need information because it is one of the tools for productive negotiations.	1	2	3	4	(43)
4.3	I demand for an answer through questioning.	1	2	3	4	(44)
4.4	When I am not sure that learners understand me, I give additional information.	1	2	3	4	(45)
4.5	Sometimes I withhold responses when I feel that the information will be used against me.	1	2	3	4	(46)
4.6	Learning to question one self is as valuable as asking questions to others during negotiations.	1	2	3	4	(47)

**Question 5**

5.1	I often use negotiations to match the needs of learners.	1	2	3	4	(48)
5.2	I negotiate with learners when I perceive a deficiency in them.	1	2	3	4	(49)
5.3	I tend to be guided by the needs of learners when I talk with them.	1	2	3	4	(50)
5.4	There is no need to negotiate if learner's problems are solved.	1	2	3	4	(51)
5.5	When I negotiate on problems with learners we are seeking to satisfy needs.	1	2	3	4	(52)
5.6	I negotiate with learners in order to create a culture of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	(53)

1. Not at all  
 2. To a lesser extent  
 3. To an extent  
 4. To a great extent

**Question 6**

6.1	It takes time to listen to important issues presented by learners.	1	2	3	4	(54)
6.2	I wait for learners to present their side of a case to me.	1	2	3	4	(55)
6.3	When learners are rude to a teacher, I make them to ask for forgiveness immediately.	1	2	3	4	(56)
6.4	I am normally in a hurry when I realise that learners demands are not strong.	1	2	3	4	(57)
6.5	I love to be victorious over learners without making long and painful negotiations.	1	2	3	4	(58)
6.6	In all my management tasks, I have learnt that the only requirement of a good negotiation is patience.	1	2	3	4	(59)
6.7	I do rush when I realise that my negotiation tactics would delay.	1	2	3	4	(60)

**Question 7**

7.1	It matters not what learners say during negotiations but how and when they say it.	1	2	3	4	(61)
7.2	I usually hold negotiations with learners when they are less busy with their academic work.	1	2	3	4	(62)
7.3	I have learnt in negotiations that timing is very important.	1	2	3	4	(63)
7.4	I usually consider it impolite to reject a compliment too strongly.	1	2	3	4	(64)
7.5	When I invite learners or parents or education managers to my office for discussions, I wait for them to be seated before I sit.	1	2	3	4	(65)
7.6	I normally introduce the Deputy Principal, the HOD's before other educators while the RCL President introduces the Vice President, Secretary and Treasurer before other members.	1	2	3	4	(66)
7.7	I use a large room for negotiations with learners.	1	2	3	4	(67)
7.8	I place the RCL members one to another during negotiations.	1	2	3	4	(68)
7.9	I try to avoid the competitive position of learners sitting opposite to me during negotiations.	1	2	3	4	(69)
7.10	I do not allow persistent demands from learners to discourage me.	1	2	3	4	(70)
7.11	If I am tired during negotiations I do not show it.	1	2	3	4	(71)
7.12	I dissolve the negotiation meeting whenever I am tired.	1	2	3	4	(72)
7.13	As a negotiation skill, I do accept learner utterances which I do not agree with.	1	2	3	4	(73)
7.14	I cannot tolerate learner lateness without finding the cause.	1	2	3	4	(74)

1. Not at all
2. To a lesser extent
3. To an extent
4. To a great extent

7.15	I accommodate learner inability to pay school fees only after negotiating with their parents.	1	2	3	4	(75)
7.16	I trust myself so I do not get worried when negotiating with learners.	1	2	3	4	(76)
7.17	I try to understand myself even before negotiating with learners.	1	2	3	4	(77)
7.18	My basic educational training reasonably encourages me to negotiate skillfully with learners.	1	2	3	4	(78)

**Question 8**

Please list other negotiation skills that you use as a principal.

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*Kindly return this questionnaire duly completed to me at your earliest convenience. May God bless you for having answered the above questions objectively.*