THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN ESTABLISHING SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS: A MULTI-SITE CASE STUDY

by

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that:

THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN ESTABLISHING SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS: A MULTI-SITE CASE STUDY

is my own work, that all the sources used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this thesis was not previously submitted by me for a degree at another university.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

And I did it!

SUMMARY

In South Africa, the trend has been towards the decentralising of authority and giving greater powers to schools. This implies the active involvement of the school governing body members, the school management team members and the Level One educators in the day-to-day functioning of the school. Whilst some schools have welcomed this change and seen this devolution of power as an added advantage contributing to the efficacy of schools, some schools have struggled, while others have failed dismally to cope with this added responsibility of managing their own resources. The researcher, being an educator involved in this transition, has been intrigued by the success of some self-managing schools and the failure of others.

The following words of Oliver Wendell Holmes have inspired the investigator to conduct this research to ascertain the reasons for the success of certain schools and the failure of others: *"What lies behind us and what lies before us are tiny matters compared to what lies within us."*

Since the performance of schools is normally ranked according to their matriculation pass rates, this research focused on six self-managing schools in the Port Elizabeth District. These schools were selected on the basis of their matriculation performances in 2008. Two of the schools had achieved an above 85% matriculation pass rate (Category A); two obtained a 50% pass rate (Category B); while the other two schools obtained matriculation pass rates of between 25% and 30% (Category C).

Although the research relied strongly on a qualitative method of inquiry, because of the nature of the data and the need to obtain a better understanding of the feelings, attitude and perceptions of those in management positions, governing body positions and members of the personnel, multiple instruments for data collection such as a literature review and the study of school documents and questionnaires, were used. This inclusion of these multiple instruments for obtaining information, which is also called triangulation, contributed to the reliability and validity of the empirical investigation. Although the data was presented in the form of tables and graphs,

which alludes to a quantitative approach, a narrative interpretation of the findings, which is associated with a qualitative method of inquiry, was also presented.

An analysis of the findings revealed that there was a great amount of involvement of the principals, school management team members and Level One educators in Category A schools, which had a matriculation pass rate of above 85%, in the following change management strategies: the establishment of a vision, planning and organising, teamwork, training and development, communication, praise and incentives, and evaluation and feedback. There was also a great contribution by the school governing body members. However, the study revealed that Category B and Category C schools did not effectively use communication, praise and incentives and evaluation and feedback as change management strategies. It was evident from the empirical investigation that in Category B and C schools, the school governing body members were less, or not involved in the usage of the change management strategies applied.

According to the results based on the six-facet model of Emotional Intelligence, Category A schools obtained 80% and above in the competencies relating to the self and social domain. Category B schools fluctuated between 50% and 80% in both dimensions, while Category C schools fluctuated between 30% and 80%.

The findings suggest that there should be greater involvement of all stakeholders, especially the school governing body members, in the establishment of a vision, planning and organising, communication, teamwork, training and development, praise and incentives and the provision of feedback and evaluation for self-managing schools to become effective and improve their performances.   Professional development, especially in the areas pertaining to Emotional Intelligence competencies such as personal and interpersonal skills, should be prioritised.

This thesis proposes that, on the basis of the investigation carried out at the six participating schools on the influence of Emotional Intelligence on the change management strategies adopted in self-managing schools, schools use strategies such as the establishment of a vision, planning and organising, communication, teamwork, training and development, praise and incentives and evaluation and

feedback to ameliorate the damaging impact of change. There should be continuous training and development at schools, especially for the school governing body members, who are elected every three years. The newly elected school governing body members need to develop the necessary skills to effectively contribute to the efficacy of schools. The human resource is the vital ingredient in schools, thus for any progression or improvement, all stakeholders need to be informed, trained and enriched. Since Emotional Intelligence can be learned, professional development in the area of Emotional Intelligence should be given more thought and included in training courses, focusing on the development of personal and interpersonal skills. The Emotional Intelligence training should be conducted as part of teacher training courses as well as on an annual basis for educators already in the teaching system, since Emotional Intelligence can influence the use of change management strategies at schools and enhance the efficacy of the functioning of self-managing schools.

KEY CONCEPTS:

Change management strategies
Decentralisation
Efficacy
Emotional intelligence
Level One educators
Principals
School governing body members
School management teams
Section 21 status
Self-managing schools
Stakeholders

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CMSs	:	Change Management Strategies
DAS	:	Developmental Appraisal System
DoE	:	Department of Education
EI	:	Emotional Intelligence
ELRC	:	Education Labour Relations Council
EQ	:	Emotional Intelligence Quotient
FET	:	Further Education and Training
GET	:	General Education and Training
IQ	:	Intelligence Quotient
IQMS	:	Integrated Quality Management System
LEAs	:	Local Education Authorities
NCS	:	National Curriculum Statement
PMS	:	Performance Management Strategy
RCL	:	Representative Council of Learners
RNCS	:	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SASA	:	South African Schools' Act
SBM	:	Site-Based Management
SGB	:	School Governing Bodies
SDT	:	School Development Team
SIP	:	School Improvement Plan
SMSs	:	Self-Managing Schools
SMT	:	School Management Team
WSE	:	Whole School Evaluation

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CHAPTER ONE
ORIENTATION TO STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

The election of South Africa's first democratic government in 1994 heralded massive transformation, not only on political level, but also on educational level. The South African Schools' Act (SASA), No.84 of 1996 (Department of Education (DoE), 1996) which was introduced to steer this transformation process in education, calls for a more decentralised system of education, which requires schools to become progressively more responsible for their own existence and maintenance. Such schools are referred to as self-managing schools (SMSs).

According to Fullan (2004:xiii-xiv) and McCluskey (1997:1), schools are alive, growing, adapting and developing. All the roles, knowledge and actions of stakeholders are inextricably interwoven, as they interact with the rapidly changing environment in which South African schools function. Schools as organisations are continuously undergoing changes to meet the needs of this ever-changing and challenging environment. Recently, more demands have been placed on schools, as government devolved more powers to them. Schools now have to perform Section 21 functions, in terms of which they *inter alia* have to possess well functioning school governing bodies (SGBs) to ensure that all legal requirements are met (DoE, 1998:1). Authority over the budget, personnel and certain aspects of the curriculum has also been shifted from the districts to individual schools. Although the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) applies to all schools, schools may elect which subject packages and extra-curricular activities to offer. These are dependent on the availability of resources, both human and fiscal.

The greater power placed in the hands of schools and SGBs has rendered schools less dependent on the government. Schools are in fact assuming self-managing status. In order to effectively cope with this status, the staff at school sites needs to be empowered by having access to all information and documentation provided by the DoE

regarding changes in the curriculum. Schools also need to ascertain information from the Education Department regarding the strategies and procedures that need to be put into place in order to enlighten and prepare the educators for the transformational changes to the curriculum, methods of staff appraisal as well as the whole school evaluation (WSE) system (DoE, 2005).

The devolution of more powers to schools has meant that educators can no longer focus on classroom activities exclusively, but have to assume a more active role in the day-to-day functioning of the school. Since schools still need to support themselves financially, school leaders must possess competencies that will ensure the smooth running of their schools as organisations. The staff needs to be empowered by having free access to information regarding school operations as well as personnel and compensation issues. They should therefore be knowledgeable about issues such as whether additional educators are required, whether it will be possible to obtain these extra posts *via* the DoE and how the remuneration of such extra educators will be done.

The DoE, although devolving more power to schools, still requires information regarding the changes and improvements that they intend to make pertaining to personnel, the curriculum and infrastructure (e.g. building extensions to accommodate computers) and how these changes will take place. Schools are thus expected to annually submit a School Improvement Plan (SIP) to the DoE at District level. Central government is informed of the SIP *via* the regional and provincial DoE.

The total new approach to management, dictated by the devolution of greater powers to school leadership, presently requires different skills and competencies than those needed in the past. According to Fullan (2004:169) and Kane (1998:1), the job has become so complex and demanding that the need has arisen for leaders to possess competencies that can ensure the smooth running of their organisations. Adding to this, SMSs need to act as businesses, operating and existing in a financially sound environment, yet still primarily occupied with the development of the skills, knowledge

and attitudes of learners. This implies that schools have to operate by integrating a vast and diverse range of managerial and leadership skills and competencies.

The need has arisen for schools to determine what it is that separates those schools that thrive from those that barely survive. Underpinning this is the need to determine whether the competencies required to raise a school to a thriving and successful unit are inherent in the school leaders, or if they can be learned.

1.2   STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

From the introduction, it is evident that South African schools are currently subject to a major transformation process. Schools are becoming self-managed entities and various CMSs need to be honed or put into place in order to support this transition. Underlying these strategies could be emotional intelligence, hereafter referred to as EI.

Sterrett (2000:2) states that emotional intelligence (EI) is often referred to as EQ (Emotional Intelligence Quotient), which comprises "the array of personal management and social skills that allows one to succeed in the workplace and life in general". Furthermore, Sterrett (2000:5) contends that EI focuses on people, because it extends beyond the general Intelligence Quotient (IQ), encompassing competencies such as knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of both a self and a social dimension.

It has been my observation that the expression of emotions is not encouraged in many organisations. For instance, schools tend to concentrate on rational competencies for their functioning. Traditionally, managerial positions have always been predominately occupied by males, *inter alia*, because of the stereotype that males tend to be more rational in their thinking and decision-making processes than females. Females are regarded as emotional thinkers and therefore less suitable for managerial positions, which are primarily concerned with decision-making processes. In this regard, Goleman (1996:53) states that certain decisions cannot be made based solely on rationality, as "they require gut feeling, and the emotional wisdom gathered through past

experiences". In addition, Sterrett (2000:3) states that case studies conducted on leaders and other successful people have produced evidence that emotions play a vital role in the efficacy of decision-making and leadership and overall success in life.

Against this background, the problem that will be investigated in this study is:

A lack of Emotional Intelligence negatively impacts on the implementation of Change Management Strategies in establishing Self-Managing Schools.

In order to investigate the influence of EI on the efficacy of CMSs in the establishment of SMSs, this study will focus on the following sub-problems, namely:

- To define SMSs and identify their basic essential features within the context of educational settings.
- To determine the CMSs that are needed for the establishment of SMSs.
- To ascertain the extent to which EI influences the efficacy of SMSs.

The *primary research question* is thus:

Does Emotional Intelligence influence the efficacy of Change Management Strategies in establishing Self-Managing Schools?

The following *secondary research questions* will direct the research:

- **What are Self-Managing Schools?**
- **Which Change Management Strategies are required for establishing effective Self-Managing Schools?**
- **To what extent does Emotional Intelligence influence the establishment of effective Self-Managing Schools?**

1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH

1.3.1 Aim

The primary aim of this research was to establish whether EI influenced CMSs in the establishment of effective SMSs.

1.3.2 Objectives

This study proposed to:

- Define SMSs and identify their essential features within the context of educational settings.
- Ascertain the change-management skills required for establishing SMSs.
- Determine the extent to which EI influences the establishment of effective SMSs.

1.4 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

1.4.1 Self-managing schools

Self-managing schools (SMSs), also referred to as the local management of schools, have been defined by Riley and Louis (2000:31) as the decentralising of authority over budgets, resources and policies. Schools are expected to assume more responsibility for their day-to-day functioning. Schools need to manage their own resources (personnel, fiscal, infrastructure and stationery). The different stakeholders (parents, learners and teaching and non-teaching staff) need to be empowered, as this decentralisation requires that stakeholders acquire knowledge and skills for example in planning, budgeting, communication, trusting, decision-making, delegating, recording, conflict resolving, praising and motivating to fulfil their new mandate. Bizar and Barr (2001:9) also refer to SMSs as site-based management (SBM).

The shift towards the self-management of schools in South Africa rests upon the assumption that management decisions are more likely to be effective if they are made by those directly involved in the running of the school. The parents (through the SGB), learners (through the Representative Council of Learners (RCL)) and staff of the school are now collectively involved in the decision-making processes at school, since they are familiar with the needs of the learners and the expectations of the parents (Bizar & Barr, 2001:8). A SMS must therefore develop an appropriate, inclusive curriculum and form of instruction. These will vary from school to school, but must suit the needs of the learners at a particular school. A SMS aims to raise the level of learner performance and produce functional citizens of South Africa.

1.4.2   Change-management strategies

Whilst prior to 1996 schools were characterised by autocratic, top-down management structures, the shift towards SMSs calls for a flatter, more involved, participatory management structure involving local stakeholders. Stakeholders do not include parents only, but also businesses and organisations in the community (Bizar & Barr, 2001:9). In order to become self-managing entities, schools need to change their operational procedures. These changes must be introduced tactfully and skilfully, because it is human nature to fear change. The mindset of all stakeholders, for example, how they think, operate, react to and work with others, needs to change before any other changes or adaptations in school management can be fruitfully accomplished. According to Martin (2005:11), "soft skills", such as communication skills, empathy, confidence and humility, are important, as modern school management has become more participative, with the emphasis on teamwork and a more collaborative approach to leadership.

1.4.3   Emotional intelligence

Goleman (1999:26-27) defines EI as a combination of personal competencies that determines how we manage ourselves, and social competencies, which refer to our

ability to handle relationships. Azzopardi (2001:7) concurs, stating that EI consists of two qualities, namely self-discipline and the ability to understand one's own feelings as well as those of others.

Azzopardi (2001:7) further refers to two forms of intelligence: a mental aptitude involving the ability to reason, resolve problems, think abstractly and understand complex ideas (IQ); and the ability to understand one's environment, make sense of the people and things around one and to think of practical solutions to problems (EI). Orme (2001:6) also defines EI as the ability to tune into and understand emotions and being able to take appropriate action.

Since modern-day management involves teamwork, it is imperative that school management teams (SMTs) know how to manage their own emotions and the emotions of those around them in order to work constructively together in the pursuit of common goals. The question arises whether EI could be regarded as a key constituent in establishing and determining the effectiveness of the organisational climate at SMSs.

This research proposed to determine the influence of EI on CMSs in establishing SMSs.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design of this study will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five. However, a brief overview has been presented below to explain the research procedures followed.

1.5.1 Literature study

A literature review is an essential component of the research process, as it establishes what has already been done regarding the research topic or aspects thereof. The literature review provides the researcher with a framework within which to structure the relevant information. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:108) view the literature study as a summary and synthesis of all the related literature pertaining to the research problem.

De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2005:255) clearly state that case study researchers always try to enter the research field with a sound knowledge of the relevant literature before conducting the research. The researcher has used literature to relate this study to the work of authors who have written about and highlighted the importance of EI. The researcher has also used literature to show how EI contributes to other current and relevant educational issues. Various older texts were used in addition to recent ones because of their influential work, relevance and unique contribution to the research at hand, as well as the value they added to the investigation. Gay and Airasian (2003:46) contend that a literature review provides the researcher with insight and understanding pertinent to the topic as well as information regarding research strategies and data collection procedures.

The researcher has identified, located and analysed documents such as articles, dissertations, school policies and documents, journals and books that contain relevant information. The perusal of relevant documents was also used as a means of data triangulation, to determine the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs.

1.5.2   Research approach

Punch (2009:117), as well as Schwandt (2001:84) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:429) believe that qualitative research is a commitment to the study of human behaviour, since it deals with the lived experiences (interactions, intentions and the meaning they attach to their reactions) of humans. Scott and Usher (2000:87) add that qualitative research seeks to explore and describe phenomena and to develop theory by making logical inferences. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006:96-99) along with McMillan and Schumacher (2001:393) maintain that the qualitative research approach uses interactive data collection methods for the study of current social occurrences or happenings. As described above, they maintain that explanations to enhance understanding of a phenomenon are derived via an inductive analysis of the descriptive data provided by the meaning people attach to the phenomenon. Since the reality studied, was the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs and because of the nature of the

data, a qualitative research approach was selected. A qualitative approach enabled the researcher to acquire a better understanding of the feelings, attitudes and perceptions of those in management positions regarding EI and whether these could determine the success or failure of SMSs.

1.5.3 Research design

Various authors have tried to explain the nature and advantages of case studies. The term "case", according to Schwandt (2001:22), refers to a specific instance of a phenomenon that is bound in time and place and which is then selected to be studied. Case study research is, according to Schwandt (2001:22-23), a strategy for conducting a social inquiry. This strategy is preferred when the researcher has little control over the events being studied and when the object being studied is a contemporary phenomenon in a real-life situation. Punch (2009:119) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:255) view case studies as intensive investigations of particular individuals in their natural settings. Punch (2009:117) in conjunction with Sowell (2001:7) and Mertens (1998:159), also state that the best method of obtaining information about certain phenomena is by studying them in their natural settings.

Gay and Airasian (2003:164) add to the definitions of case studies by stating that the researcher not only focuses on the characteristics of a certain person or phenomenon, but does so in order to attain an understanding of that person or phenomenon. Case studies can therefore be summarised as focusing on individuals or groups in order to understand their perceptions of events. Case studies also highlight specific events that are relevant to the case. Most importantly, since the researcher needs access to and has to gain the confidence of the respondents in case studies (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:275), the researcher is integrally involved in the case. It is also said that the product of this type of research (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:275) is an in-depth description of a case or cases.

The advantage of using a case study is that it enhances understanding of various issues related to the case. A case study can be used to elaborate, thereby providing

more insight into and understanding of existing theory about a concept or occurrence. Babbie and Mouton (2009:278-279) as well as Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:180) describe the hallmark of case studies as being concerned with a rich and vivid description of events that are relevant to the relevant case. Case studies provide a chronological narrative of events that are relevant to the case and blend a description of events with an analysis of what happened.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher chose a multi-sited case study, since she needed to inquire about the activities and development that occurred at the six different participating schools since they attained Section 21 status and to establish how these activities and developments were either similar at different schools or whether the strategies and competencies that existed at one school, were replicated in a different setting, thus addressing the issue of the reliability of the research. This research design was selected by the researcher since it is descriptive in nature and, according to Punch (2009:117) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:255), provides substantive information about individuals or particular situations.

1.5.4   Sample

Seale, Gobo, Gubrium and Silverman (2004:448) state that there are four important sampling procedures in qualitative research, namely purposive sampling, quota sampling, the emblematic case, and snowball sampling. Sampling involves determining where and from whom data will be collected (Thomas, 2009:102-104; Cohen *et al*., 2000:141).   Johnson and Christen (2008:393) along with Henning (2004:71) and Schloss and Smith (1999:89) maintain that purposive sampling allows for the selection of people on the basis that they can contribute to and expand the researcher's database. For the purpose of this study, the researcher chose purposive sampling, which allowed her to conduct the research at six different multicultural high schools in Port Elizabeth that possessed Section 21 status and would contribute to and expand on the phenomenon being studied. The respondents were principals, deputy principals, head of departments, Level One educators and two members of each SGB. The power

and logic of "purposeful" sampling, as it is referred to by Thomas (2009:104) and McMillan and Schumacher (2001:401), is that the researcher selects information-rich cases for an in-depth study, because studying a few cases in depth will provide many insights about the topic. In this study, the researcher worked with the SMTs, Level One educators and the SGBs of the six schools that had Section 21 status, to ascertain the CMSs that facilitated their transformation and to determine the influence of EI on these strategies. The respondents in the research were restricted to the SMTs, Level One educators and the SGBs, because this research was conducted in the field of management in education and the respondents were knowledgeable and informative concerning the phenomenon the researcher was investigating, namely the CMSs put into place when the schools attained Section 21 status and whether or not EI could play a role in ensuring the success thereof.

1.5.5   Data collection instruments

According to Gay and Airasian (2003:219), common qualitative data collection approaches comprise face-to-face collection methods, such as observations, interviews, and audio- and videotaping. This study included a combination of data collection methods, such as documents, a literature review and questionnaires to collect the data. The researcher also perused the minutes of meetings, departmental handouts and policy documents at the six participating schools to establish what the requirements were to obtain Section 21 status and what other changes had been implemented by the DoE.

After collecting information from the field, the qualitative researcher undertook several activities, such as sorting the information into categories and formatting the information into a story or picture, before actually writing a qualitative text. Gay and Airasian (2003:5) maintain that when the data is in the form of narratives on tape recordings, it should be analysed using interpretive rather than statistical methods. The findings of this research, based on the questionnaires, were accordingly analysed and interpreted by the researcher according to broad schemes or categories, formulated on the basis of

the questionnaires and literature review. Data analysis emerged from the various forms of collecting data and the researcher used inductive reasoning to reach a conclusion. The researcher was involved in building an explanation in an attempt to understand human behaviour in the sites being researched, as suggested by Gay and Airasian (2003:14). It is, however, important to note that data analysis is ongoing, because as information is collected from literature studies, it is analysed and coded. As the relationship between the researcher and the respondent developed, more information emerged from the questionnaires. A rich description of the respondents and the setting enhanced certain aspects of the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2009:309; Gay & Airasian, 2003:14).

1.5.5.1   Questionnaires

The research questionnaires were discussed with the school principals. Thereafter, a group of volunteers, consisting of the principal, a deputy, a head of department, five Level One educators and two members of the SGB, were informed about the research and the questionnaires. The questionnaires were then distributed to the respondents at the six participating schools in Port Elizabeth. The purpose of having questionnaires was to corroborate the information provided in the literature review. The study was not restricted to the SMT only; the researcher also wanted to engage Level One educators, because of the knowledge and insight they could add to the investigation and their ability to add information-rich data for the study.

All questionnaires were analysed and coded according to themes or categories. In subsequent chapters, the findings will be discussed in detail and recommendations will be made in order to enhance the operational procedures at South African educational institutions.

Although the researcher made use of questionnaires as research instruments and graphic presentations to illustrate data, which are associated with quantitative research, this study was predominantly a qualitative case study. It involved understanding people

in their natural school environment and asking questions which not only focussed on their school environment, but which also elicit feelings and beliefs. All the information obtained for the purpose of this study, was analysed and interpreted qualitatively, including the findings of the questionnaire. Graphic presentations of the data were made to support and enhance the findings.

1.5.6   Procedures

The researcher first requested permission to conduct the research at departmental institutions. A written application was sent to the Acting District Manager, identifying the six schools that the researcher had identified through the basis of purposive sampling. The researcher also applied for approval from the Research Ethics Committee (Human) of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University to conduct the research. The research topic, the possible respondents, the questionnaire, the possible times for issuing and collecting the questionnaires, as well as the need for confidentiality, were stated in the application forms. The researcher highlighted the fact that this study would be of benefit to the DoE as the analysis, interpretation and recommendations made could lead to an improvement in the performance and functioning of schools.

Once permission was obtained to carry out the research, the researcher contacted the principals of the purposefully selected schools. Letters of permission were issued to them, requesting their assistance in the investigation and outlining the study. A consent form was also issued to the respective respondents. This was followed up by a phone call to establish the date and times for the issuing and collection of the questionnaires.

1.6   VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Thomas (2009:111-112) and Cohen *et al.* (2000:112) state that the process of triangulation attempts to give a detailed explanation of the rich and complex behaviour of humans by employing more than one method of studying it. Yin (2003:34) together with McMillan and Schumacher (2001:408) allude to the process of triangulation in

stating that the use of multi-method strategies enhances the design validity. The researcher used multi-method strategies for collecting data, as this allowed for triangulation in the data collection and data analysis. Triangulation, by using different methods of data collection (documents, a literature review and questionnaires), was also used to corroborate the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs, thus addressing the issues of internal validity. The researcher made a statistical presentation of the data (findings), in the form of graphs and tables, but presented a narrative interpretation of the findings.

1.7   ASSUMPTIONS, DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

It is assumed that most South African schools have changed their managerial methods and that strategies have been put into place that will allow for and cope with transformation. It is also assumed that by developing the EI of those in senior management teams, CMSs will be facilitated, ensuring effective SMSs. The training of senior management teams places particular emphasis on the development of their technical competencies (Riley & Louis, 2000:31). The researcher was, however, assuming that if EI could be learned, training should also focus on developing the personal and interpersonal skills of the members of senior management teams.

For the purpose of this study, the focus was placed primarily on the members of senior management teams and SGBs, who were collectively responsible for the effective functioning of their schools. The Level One educators were also included in the research process, because they provided the best information to address the purpose of the research and could therefore contribute to the findings. The Level One educators as well as members of the SGBs, were also included so as to establish *their* contribution to the effective operational procedures of their schools. The learners themselves were not included in the research, as they were not primarily responsible for the management of their schools and their involvement would be beyond the scope of this study.

The limitations of my study related to the site and the respondents. Although I would have preferred involving more schools, I was limited to six schools, because of time constraints and the practicality of the research. I was also restricted to high schools, because all high schools in the Eastern Cape had been afforded Section 21 status and since this study focused on the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs, schools with Section 21 status became the focus of the research.

Case study research on its own poses certain limitations. Gay and Airasian (2003:19) maintain that although qualitative research involves studying the respondent in his/her natural setting, no research can truly capture the full effect of the setting, nor the respondents, as they are complex entities. As pointed out by Gay and Airasian (2003:19), respondents may at times not provide the researcher with the true reflection of events or their understanding thereof, or they may withhold relevant information, because of a lack of understanding of the questions, or pressure because of time constraints. The completion of questionnaires (surroundings, time) or general fatigue or pressure on the respondent could also be problematic and not allow for a free flow of information.

Gay and Airasian (2003:19) also believe that the measuring instruments are not totally without error. Furthermore, during the research, the respondent must be informed about the research and protected by ensuring anonymity or confidentiality. This is regarded as a limitation by Gay and Airasian (2003:19) because the researcher, by being involved with human beings, will have to consider numerous ethical concerns and responsibilities to the respondents.

1.8   PROGRAMME OF RESEARCH

Chapter One orientates the reader. The reader is introduced to the research by being enlightened about the research problem, the aims and objectives of the study, the research methodology to be used, concept clarification and the assumptions and

delimitations of the study. The reader is also provided with a brief synopsis of what is to be expected in the following chapters.

For the purpose of this study and in order to attain an understanding of the aim of this research, which is to investigate the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs, the literature review has been divided into three chapters.

In **Chapter Two,** an overview of SMSs is presented. This chapter addresses the first sub-problem and simultaneously discusses related research findings pertaining to SMSs.

Chapter Three deals with the CMSs that foster the establishment of SMSs. This chapter examines the reasons for CMSs and simultaneously focuses on those strategies that play a vital role in coping with change.

EI is examined in **Chapter Four**. This chapter also focuses on the qualities of an emotionally intelligent person and highlights the role of EI in management.

Chapter Five examines the research methodology used during this research. It highlights the reasons for adopting a particular approach and design and also provides an outline of the sampling procedures and data collection techniques and analysis.

An analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings of the research are presented in **Chapter Six**.

Chapter Seven presents a summary of the research and conclusions are made. Recommendations for further research are also provided.

1.9   SUMMARY

The focus of this chapter was on providing an introduction to the study, discussing the statement of the research problem, the aims and objectives of the study, as well as clarifying key concepts. It also provided a broad outline of the research methodology followed, including the validity and reliability of the research and the assumptions and delimitations thereof. The researcher concluded the chapter by providing an outline of the research programme.

This study endeavoured to contribute to the development of SMSs by focusing on the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs, arriving at the notion that EI must be the core constituent of all management training. This will be obtained in Chapters Two, Three and Four by:

- defining self-managing strategies;
- identifying the CMSs needed in the establishment of SMSs;
- defining EI and investigating its influence pertaining to CMSs, regarding the transition to SMSs.

CHAPTER TWO

OVERVIEW OF SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprises a review of the literature on SMSs. In this chapter, the focus is placed on defining what SMSs are, the reasons why they were established and the roles of the various stakeholders in SMSs. The benefits and challenges of SMSs are also investigated by examining existing SMSs in other countries, such as the United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia and New Zealand.

2.2   SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

For the purpose of this study, the term s*elf-managing schools* will be used, while the acronym *SMSs* will be used to refer to self-managing schools*.* Whilst the concept of SMSs is relatively new in South Africa, such schools have been operational in many countries. Thomson (2001:1) contends that a number of countries have opted for school education policy agendas that include "site based management, local management, global budgets, devolution, self-managing schools or school based decision making". Irrespective of whether the various countries refer to these schools as SMSs or SBM, local management schools (LMSs), local education authority (LEA), self-governing, or schools as they are currently referred to in South Africa, schools with Section 21 status, they all have a common basis for operation. Thomson (2001:1) asserts that there is "a form of institutional steerage, with policy-makers moving to decide policy priorities, frame and audit local implementation, while individual schools manage their own budgets in concert with elected parent councils."

In South Africa, there has been a growing movement towards SMSs. The initial phase has been implemented in terms of which all secondary schools have been given self-managing status (Section 21 status). This, however, has not been made compulsory for primary schools.

The handout compiled in 2002 by the General Education and Training (GET) Directorate, in collaboration with the Further Education and Training (FET) Directorate of Secondary Schools, defines schools with Section 21 status as schools that have, *via* their SGBs, demonstrated the ability to manage their own financial affairs (DoE, 2002). Schools on the Section 21 list receive a fixed sum of money, per learner from the Education Department, based on the Resource Targeting Table. This implies that smaller amounts will be allocated to better-off schools, and larger amounts to poorer schools. If the school does not use all the funds for its day-to-day functioning, its SGB may allocate the excess for other educational needs at the school, such as learner programmes (relating to curriculum, sport, career choices, emotional upliftment, social upliftment, empowering courses or programmes that will provide the learner with information-rich experiences on drugs and HIV and AIDS, that will enable them to cope in life) or educator, personal and professional support and enrichment programmes (such as team building and conflict management) and functions, as well as for the purchase of support material for learners (such as videos for film studies and computers) and educators (such as study guides and laptops). Some of the funding could also be used to employ suitable educators to service the curriculum needs that integrate learning (Riley & Louis, 2000:79). According to the number of learners in attendance, schools are allocated a certain amount of educators; this is referred to as the "staff establishment" of the school. However, since schools offer learners various subject choices, there is often a need to employ more capable educators so that better subject packages can be offered to learners, thus improving learner outcomes. These additional educators are then paid by the school's SGB, who uses the school funds to make such payments. These amounts are budgeted for in the school's annual budget.

Schools on the Section 21 list should therefore demonstrate the capacity to execute additional functions. These additional functions include the ability and responsibility to procure for themselves stationery, equipment and other material needs. This implies that the relevant SGB should demonstrate the ability to handle and account for funding, they (the SGB) must be able to address contractual obligations to goods and service providers and demonstrate the ability to make sound financial decisions regarding the

purchase of textbooks and equipment. All the activities that they are involved in should be transparent and documentation should be readily made available for scrutiny at the request of departmental officials and for audit purposes (DoE, 1998:1).

The DoE requires from schools performing Section 21 functions to thus have in place a well functioning SGB, which will ensure that all legal requirements are met (DoE, 1998:1). Schools with Section 21 status have to maintain and improve all school property, including the buildings occupied by the school and school hostels, if applicable. This implies that school buildings must be upgraded to suit the needs of the "knowledge society" (Riley & Louis, 2000:79). Section 21 schools must determine their extramural curricula and the choice of subject options in terms of provincial curriculum policy. They are also expected to purchase textbooks, educational materials and equipment and to pay for services rendered to them. In addition to this, Section 21 schools are required to provide an adult basic training and education class or centre.

The key concepts underpinning SMSs are **devolution** and **decentralisation**.

Fink (2005:2-11) along with Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:140) state that the devolution of responsibility to schools implies that they will be held more accountable to the government and to the public in general and that they will show their accountability through a process of performance monitoring. In the school situation, this implies that authority is devolved and responsibilities are decentralised from the DoE to principals and teachers, whilst power is devolved to SGBs. The staff of the school is held more accountable for their actions to both the local communities (through the SGB) and to the government (through performance monitoring). Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:140) contend that a common way of monitoring the performance of a school is to reflect on the learner results as well as the functioning of the school. In other words, the performance of a school is measured in terms of the pass rate of the matriculants of that school over a particular period of time.

In South Africa, the government is currently involved in a restructuring programme in terms of which the responsibilities of the state DoE are devolved to individual schools. SMSs are the result of this devolution of responsibility. Control is decentralised from the central district offices to the schools. The educators, learners, administrators, parents and community members now have more control over what happens within schools. The emphasis is placed on improving the quality of education and the overall performance of schools and ensuring that the majority of schools reach self-managing status, also referred to as Section 21 status, which is a requirement of the SASA No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996). This Act encourages SGBs to take a more active role in school decision-making processes, thus promoting a teaching and learning environment that is conducive to life-long learning. The Act also encourages a movement away from the hierarchical systems in terms of which schools constantly relied on the Department for their effective functioning. Staff in SMSs have, according to Riley and Louis (2000:79), critical roles to play, as they are directly involved in the design, sharing of needs, aspirations and visions of their schools. Section 21 schools have cross-functional teams, that is, teams working together on different levels for a common purpose. Certain members of the staff or SGB may form part of more than one team, but at the end of the day, they all constructively work towards a common goal, namely the smooth and effective running of the school as an organisation.

Since schools need to perform all these functions in order to qualify for Section 21 status, it becomes evident that they must operate by integrating a synergy of managerial and leadership skills, accompanied by a wide range of diverse capabilities (Clarke, 2007:1; Kane, 1998:1). Schools need to provide evidence of their ability to perform these managerial functions, as well as proof of the existence of various committees, such as building, extra-curricular, learner support material and finance committees. Section 21 schools are also accountable for their financial resources, the progress made by learners, and their overall performance. A school's status can be revoked should it fail to comply, i.e. should the SGB demonstrate a lack of competence and ability in maintaining and improving the physical structure of the school, in

determining the curriculum, in purchasing resources, in providing training, and in not using funds appropriately (DoE, 1998:1).

The status of SMSs can thus be seen as a political tool, in terms of which power (authority) over the budget, personnel and curriculum is transferred to individual schools; or as an organisational approach that increases the responsibility and authority of the local school site, for the overall improvement of its level of performance.

2.3　　　CHARACTERISTICS OF SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

Thomson (2001:2) describes the status of SMSs as a way to improve learning by employing qualified and skilled personnel and by purchasing the necessary equipment or resource materials for learners. SMSs have more freedom in allocating funds to ensure their effective day-to-day functioning. The staff at SMSs are pleased with the new financial authority they have been given. There is also a greater capacity to innovate and be entrepreneurial, since schools are now in possession of more money through effecting savings, fund-raising efforts and sponsorships. SMSs often have more freedom regarding their employment of staff and the accompanying training deemed necessary to bring about the desired changes.

SMSs are also characterised by improved decision-making processes, since they allow parents greater participation in school decision-making processes. There is the belief that moving management away from central bureaucracy to the local level promotes local participation, commitment and participatory decision-making, because principals prefer to manage resources at local level (Thomson, 2001:13). They prefer to make decisions that address the unique teaching and learning environmental challenges at their specific school. Principals bear final responsibility for all school decisions and are held accountable by the community for the progress made by learners.

SMSs are also more accountable to the local community and the districts (Thomson, 2001:2). This implies that these schools have to act and conduct themselves as

businesses, allocating funds and operating in a financially sound environment, yet simultaneously developing and improving the skills of and empowering all the stakeholders. Many principals believe that the process of direct funding to schools, accompanied by school networking, improves the expertise and raises the aspirations of all the stakeholders. There are clear indications that the stakeholders at SMSs feel a new sense of empowerment. Principals also state that there is a direct relationship between the acceptance of accountability for the performance of learners and of the school itself and the growing need for the continuous professional development of educators (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:4). SMSs need to identify local needs as well as the system's needs. Principals can then plan strategies for success and take responsibility for the outcomes. It may also be stated that principals are generally in favour of SMSs, because they want the opportunity to be in charge of their schools.

Thomson (2001:12) has analysed the responses of various principals regarding the characteristics of SMSs, all of which support the movement towards SMSs. Bush and Gamage (2001:1) state that principals believe that the more autonomy entrusted on them, the greater the positive impact on the educational outcomes. Thomson (2001:12) takes this a step further, stating that there is a definite relationship between stakeholders accepting accountability for the outcomes of the school and growing professionalism. There is thus a positive shift in the attitude of parents towards school and school functioning.

2.4   REASONS FOR ESTABLISHMENT OF SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

Why the need for change? Thrupp and Willmott (2003:182) claim that the answer lies simply in the global transition to a new type of management in the public sector, which is inextricably bound to changes in the education system.

In South Africa, changes have been made to the curriculum to accommodate the changing needs of society. The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) has been introduced to improve the performance of learners. Also of importance is the

introduction of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS). Resolution 8 of 2003 is an agreement made in the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC), to integrate three existing programmes on quality management in education. These programmes, namely the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS), the Performance Management Strategy (PMS) and WSE, were integrated into one system, the IQMS (DoE, 2005).

The DAS came into being on 28 July 1998 (Resolution 4 of 1998). Its purpose was to appraise individual educators in a transparent manner, with the aim of determining areas of strength and weakness and of constructing a programme for individual development. The PMS was agreed to on 10 of April 2003 (Resolution 1 of 2003), with the purpose of evaluating individual teachers for salary progression, grade progression, affirmation of appointment, and rewards and incentives. The third programme, namely WSE, was introduced to evaluate the overall effectiveness of schools as well as the quality of teaching and learning.

Thus, the IQMS came into operation, a programme with the following purposes:

- To identify the specific needs of educators, schools and district offices for support and development;
- To provide support for continuous growth;
- To promote accountability;
- To monitor an institution's overall effectiveness; and
- To evaluate an educator's performance (Province of the Eastern Cape DoE, 2005:1).

Altogether twelve performance standards are measured. Each performance standard has a set of four criteria. These criteria are core components of EI. The integration of the aforementioned three programmes has allowed the evaluation of the effectiveness of the two core components of EI, namely intra-personal intelligence skills (those skills within ourselves), and inter-personal intelligence component (those skills associated

with our relationships with others). It seems therefore that if these criteria can be honed or developed, educators will perform better and obtain higher ratings on the rating instrument.

The SASA, No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996), initiated the process of a decentralised education system. This Act mandates SGBs with the rights and responsibilities to take a more active role in decision-making processes. The primary aim of establishing SMSs is to improve the teaching and learning situation and therefore promote an effective and efficient education system by acknowledging the fact that there is a link between the needs and priorities of the school and the learning outcomes (Riley & Louis, 2000:75). The Gauteng Province DoE, with the assistance of UNICEF, embarked on a SMSs Project in June/July 1997. Their primary aim was to bring *management* closer to the teaching and learning situation, in an attempt to improve the efficiency of the school system (Bernard, Govinda & Letshabo, 1999:1).

According to the handout compiled by the GET Directorate, in cooperation with the FET Directorate for Secondary Schools (2002), the reason for granting Section 21 status to schools was to empower them to manage their own finances and their day-to-day functioning and to assume responsibility for their professional development (DoE, 2002). The delegation of responsibilities to principals and governors implies the constructive use of funds and, hopefully, the raising of educational standards. The primary aim for the introduction of SMSs, is therefore to improve the current teaching and learning situation and to bring school management closer to the schools, by placing the onus of the management of the schools on those directly involved in the school, with the hope of attaining an effective and efficient education system. There is a need for a system that will meet the educational requirements of a new era; one that prepares learners for the democratic and technological changes which are occurring daily. It is important to note that the same emphasis on effective management on corporate level can be applied to schools, where there is a great need for a competent school management system.

The role of parents in the establishment of SMSs should not be underestimated, since there has been an increasing demand from parents for an educational system that meets the transformational changes occurring at macro level. In South Africa, as in many other countries, political, economical and technological changes directly influence and impact on the prevalent education systems.

During a baseline survey conducted in South Africa at the beginning of 2000, several essential needs were identified. The *Phakama* Project (*Phakama* means "stand up" in IsiXhosa) was initiated. This Project involves training that will ensure that the majority of participating schools will reach "self-managing", Section 21 status. The concept is innovation and it deals with "the role of systematic change in supporting effective self management of schools" (Link Community Development, 2006:3).

It appears therefore that the need to establish SMSs stems from the need to bring management closer to its beneficiaries, with the hope of improving the performance of the learners through improved teaching and learning. The school and the education system on the whole will benefit in the long run from such improvements on micro level.

2.5 ROLE OF STAKEHOLDERS IN SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

Schools as organisations need to dispense of rigid hierarchies which encourage power-play amongst the various stakeholders. The SGB, the principal, staff (teaching and non-teaching), the learners and various interested companies or groupings, including the community, now make up the stakeholders of a school. This comprises a more involved structure/system of participants who collectively work for the attainment of specific goals, as agreed upon. This now flatter, less hierarchical, structure will promote contribution, involvement, participation, teamwork and commitment. Soga (2004:1) states that research on SMSs in Gauteng has revealed that teamwork amongst educators, parents and communities is an essential ingredient of effective and efficient SMSs.

Figure 1 is an organogram of a typical structure of a SMS. These structures may vary from school to school, depending on the needs and requirements of each individual school. Although this structure seems to have a top-down approach, the principal forms part of the leadership (works with his/her team of staff members); governance (works with the parents, the SGB and the learner component); the RCL; and the non-teaching staff (such as groundsmen and secretaries).

FIGURE 1:   Organogram of a School Structure in a Self-Managing School
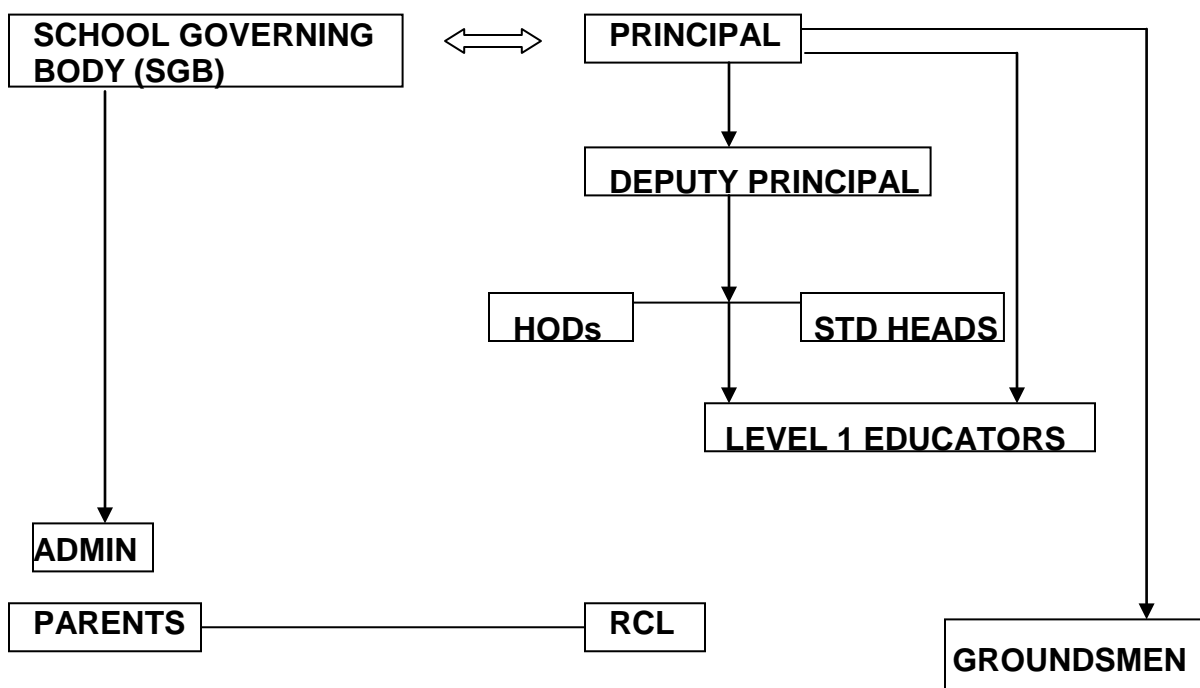
2.5.1   The principal

Although group empowerment is an effective means of school management, studies on effective public schools agree that the key to successful management is a strong central leader, who may be the principal (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:23). An effective leader can determine a school's vision, serve as an instructional leader, coordinate transformational efforts, and rally support for the school. As a result of the high expectations of and increased responsibility and accountability placed on principals,

they need to be equipped with a broad spectrum of tools, skills and procedures to assist them in their day-to-day functioning. It is one of the objectives of this study to determine strategies that will assist principals in achieving effective SMSs.

Although forms of shared leadership exist in SMSs, principals are still responsible for curriculum development, instructional improvement, pupil and educator development, community relations and financial and facility management. Principals have also gained additional power by being given increased responsibility and control over budgets and SIPs (Bizar & Barr, 2001:232). Bizar and Barr (2001:232) also maintain that principals now have greater influence and control over the hiring of educators, and are given more authority over the selection of curricular materials, professional development and assessment. Principals are also increasingly involved in shared decision-making with educators and SGB members. It is, however, a principal's knowledge and personal characteristics that will determine his/her leadership style, which will in turn determine his/her flexibility when problems arise.

Lindstrom and Speck (2004:xiv) state that principals must be seen as leaders responsible for the professional development of their schools. Principals should be actively involved in the planning, implementing and evaluating of the long-term professional development of their schools, as professional development is an essential and job-embedded component of any school improvement effort. Principals have a crucial role to play in any high-quality professional development. The authors maintain that if principals want to improve the achievement of their pupils, then they must have a thorough knowledge and understanding of what it takes to improve teaching and learning (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:4). Since professional development is a collaborative learning process and is instrumental in promoting adult-learner-centered growth (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:4), all the stakeholders of SMSs, that is, the adults and the learners, must work together to bring about the desired improved learning in the learners.

The decentralisation of authority and accountability creates new sets of contingencies that principals need to address. The principals of SMSs need to respond to new opportunities and pressures. SMSs thus call for skills and strategies of a new kind to deal with new trends and demands. It is the aim of this study to determine these CMSs and what it is that determines their success. Fink (2005:100) as well as Cuttance and Stokes (1999:4) argue that principals and teachers are both important in successful school transformation. Principals are important for meta-strategic leadership, while teacher-leaders are primarily responsible for teaching and learning matters.

2.5.2   Educators

Bizar and Barr (2001:6) maintain that educators should assume leadership roles in determining the curriculum and be innovative in developing instructional methods. This implies that there is a growing need for the professional development of educators in order to cope with various changes. Lindstrom and Speck (2004:4) purport that in order to improve classroom performance and behaviour, the personal and professional development of educators is vital, since this empowerment is central in determining the quality of teaching and learning prevalent in the organisation. New educators would need professional and personal support and guidance. They should be inducted, trained and provided with opportunities to observe and work with effective and experienced educators. Mentoring and monitoring should also be an ongoing process.

Educators in effective SMSs see themselves as actively contributing to the performance of the school. They should participate in professional roles and committees. Educators are much exposed to new instructional methods and forms of assessment; however, to assume leadership roles, they need to be in tune with themselves, be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses, be understanding and be sympathetic to the needs of others, as well as motivational and co-operative towards other team members.

2.5.3　　Representative Council of Learners

Learners are encouraged to participate in aspects of decision-making, as they form part of SGBs through RCLs. SMSs deepen the need for more collaboration amongst learners, educators and parents. The learners must also be constructively involved in their own learning and development. They must be part of the day-to-day managing of the school and its activities.

2.5.4　　School Governing Body

Bizar and Barr (2001:6) state that parents may be able to contribute to curriculum and instructional innovations, because some may have useful insights in fiscal operations, management and meeting procedures, or possess expertise in teaching and learning. However, their contribution is generally not welcomed by educators. Wylie (1999:2) concurs that parents should be responsible for managing the operations involved in maintaining an effective organisation. Parents in SMSs are involved in SGB meetings and school functions, form part of disciplinary committees, and are increasingly involved in fundraising activities and the development of policies and procedures for the effective functioning of the school. Since the role of parents in the day-to-day functioning of schools has increased, it is essential that they are equally equipped to co-operate and ensure the efficacy of the school as an organisation.

2.5.5　　Other

Fink (2005:120) and Cuttance and Stokes (1999:11) state that schools that have had an association with organisations outside the school display increased innovation. These associations could be with universities, other schools, businesses and other local community organisations, such as the church, cultural and youth groups, or through fundraising campaigns and sports organisations. In terms of the associations, external organisations could use school facilities and in turn lend a hand when the schools need assistance.

2.6 BENEFITS OF SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

Fink (2005:5) along with Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:20) maintain that decentralisation and devolution have resulted in several major positive outcomes, such as greater flexibility in decision-making, changes in role accountability, and the enhancement of school productivity.

Flexibility in decision-making allows initiatives and encourages long-term planning. Since the principal and staff have to implement decisions and have direct contact with the pupils, they are accountable for their actions. They are also in a good position to select instructional materials and methods and develop the curriculum according to the needs of their pupils. In so doing, SMSs can improve the quality of teaching and learning at schools.

The Commonwealth Department of Education, Science and Training (2001:9) purport the idea that SMSs have the flexibility to select and appoint staff. Based on their specific programme needs, these schools have the ability to appoint staff. SMSs also have the ability to manage resources in ways that are appropriate to their teaching and learning goals.

Lindstrom and Speck (2004:56) and Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:20) maintain that increased staff participation could generate greater enthusiasm, interest, commitment and effectiveness; thus the devolution of power may improve the self-esteem, morale and efficiency of all school personnel. Furthermore, the devolution process may improve the professionalism of teachers, as they are now in a position to exercise more authority and act in a responsible and accountable manner, as is expected of people of professional rank. Thomson (2001:1) agrees that SBM generally enjoys the support of principals, because of the devolution involved. Principals believe that devolution will improve the learning of students, as greater autonomy in the allocation of funds will allow schools to be more innovative and entrepreneurial. Schools will assume greater control over their finances, thus facilitating effective savings, fundraising and

sponsorship, as well the ability to obtain more staff or undertake more staff training. Devolution also facilitates improved decision-making and encourages greater parental involvement and a more democratically run school accountable to the community.

Thrupp and Willmott (2003:46-47) in addition to Wohlstetter and Mohrman (1996) contend that SBM is often seen as synonymous with empowering teachers. It is a vehicle for giving more authority to teachers and the constituents of the school. SMSs empower groups who were previously not involved in the management of schools. The power no longer lies in the hands of one or two people who are not directly involved in the running of the school, but will now be in the hands of groups of involved people from within the sites.

In a project by Bernard *et al.* (1999:2), it was found that SMS staff was generally pleased with the new financial authority entrusted to them. Most felt that control over all expenditures, except teachers' salaries, should be devolved to schools. There were clear indications that SMS staff felt a new sense of commitment and empowerment. Furthermore, both educators and learners in the project agreed that giving schools self-managing status had had a positive impact on teaching and learning (Bernard *et al.,* 1999).

The adoption of the local school management system in the United Kingdom was based on the belief that decentralisation had a direct influence on the effectiveness of schools (Riley & Louis, 2000:31). Thomson (2001:1) agrees that the vast majority of principals have been highly supportive of the introduction of a decentralised education system, as is found in SMSs. The assumption was that if decisions were to be made from within the institution, they would be more effective. Principals therefore welcomed the concept of SMSs, because it provided them with more control over policies, decision-making and the acquisition of relevant resources. It also led to expanded scope for those in leadership positions (Riley & Louis, 2000:31).

Fink (2005:118) as well as Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:21) maintain that a decentralised and devolved system will respond and adapt to the needs of the community. This implies that the devolution of power will ensure greater parental involvement. Bernard *et al.* (1999) relate that principals and teachers in SMSs have noted a positive shift in the attitude of parents towards the school and school functioning. SMSs therefore improve communication and encourage the development of networks between staff and parents.

Whilst studies have indicated that the decentralisation of power is likely to lead to performance improvement, Smith (2008:168-169) and Wohlstetter and Mohrman (1996) argue that it must be accompanied by organisational changes that will enhance the information, skills and knowledge of the local participants. Local districts are therefore faced with the challenge to actively create the conditions for the effective implementation of SMSs.

2.7   CHALLENGES OF SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS

Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:21) concur that although the decentralisation of authority and the devolution of responsibility are beneficial to schools and bring many benefits, a lack of clarity regarding changes in roles and responsibilities could be problematic. Evidently, the restructuring process calls for CMSs, to actively create the conditions for the effective implementation of SMSs. Principals cannot autocratically or single-handedly lead or manage their schools. There is a need to establish committees and sub-committees that could assist in the functioning of schools. All stakeholders must be empowered so that they can deal with challenges and initiate change. The movement towards SMSs implies the need to identify strategies that will improve the implementation of such schools and enhance school productivity.

Thomson (2001:1) advocates that local self-management will lead to an increase in the work of both educators and principals, due to the volume of their job descriptions, which include involvement in financial decisions and the expansion of policy making decisions.

Principals and teachers would be burdened with a lot of paperwork, in addition to their other new roles and responsibilities. According to the SMS Project (Bernard *et al.*, 1999:2), the placement of administrative clerks in schools has reduced the workloads of principals and teachers. This is an important conclusion which SMSs may do well to consider, to facilitate their effective functioning.

A major challenge that SMSs face is to constructively use the power that has been devolved to them. The challenge is to determine "who does what?" Since power has been shifted from districts to SMSs, committees must be established to execute the various functions. Committees should consist of teachers, administrators, parents and pupils. However, with such great power being entrusted to groups who have not previously been exposed to managing schools, the Education Department is faced with the huge challenge and responsibility of establishing effective and fully functioning SMSs. Thomson (2001:1) maintains that the various stakeholders must also be empowered to make sound decisions pertaining to the functioning of schools. This highlights the need for the state to assess the training needs of schools. A fully informed and flexible team to provide relevant training could be employed and money could be made available for the training of principals, council/committee members and teachers to fulfil their new roles and responsibilities.

Most importantly, SMSs should be provided with support from district level to meet their challenges and staff should receive continuous training in professional development. Principals and staff should be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses and know how to work with others, since teamwork underpins SMSs. The challenge to the district level is that of constant monitoring and evaluation to maintain schools that are more responsive, more effective, more efficient and more accountable. The Education Department should also ascertain what has happened in other countries, such as New Zealand and Australia, and use the findings in a constructive manner. South Africa must learn and adapt its education systems and school structures according to the strengths and weaknesses identified in other countries.

Thomson (2001:1) points out that numerous disadvantages are associated with SMSs. He contends that local self-management fragments public school systems and tends to foster an increase in distrust among school staff. Another disadvantage is the increase in the workload of teachers and principals, because the system of accountability requires that annual plans and reports be produced, that require an increased volume of written work. Thomson also states that SMSs increase social and educational inequities and that self-management is not the key component responsible for an improvement in student learning.

Thrupp and Willmott (2003:198-199) and Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:76) concur that devolution has increased the volume of work of school administrators, as they now have more tasks to complete. According to Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:140), the need for schools to demonstrate their accountability is a bureaucratic exercise, as principals are required to fill in forms and write reports when executing various activities. This implies that principals must be constantly alert and take the necessary precautions to ensure that they and their schools are legally protected, flowing from the responsibilities assigned to them.

According to literature, it is evident that the DoE previously issued schools with textbooks and stationery and paid for the general upkeep of schools, school buildings and school grounds. However, since power was devolved to these schools with Section 21 status, they have had to pay for their own general maintenance and the upkeep of buildings and the purchase of required equipment. SMSs can therefore not rely exclusively on the government for funding and have to develop ways and means of securing additional funds. Some SMSs have members on their SGBs who are not financially informed or literate and can therefore not assist in sound decision-making.

2.8   SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Economic changes, over-bureaucratisation and appeals for greater efficiency and effectiveness have led to the restructuring of educational systems throughout the world.

Fidler and Atton (2004:80-81) along with Gold and Evans (1998:68) maintain that these phenomena overlap and have resulted in a more decentralised and devolved education system. Fink (2005:8) and Wylie (1999:1), however, contend that educational reform now focuses more on autonomy regarding managerial functions, but within a more stringent responsibility and accountability framework.

The shift towards the self-management of schools in the United Kingdom was based primarily on the belief that more effective management decisions would be made if taken within the institution. Principals were in favour of SMSs because, according to Riley and Louis (2000:31), SMSs lend themselves to increased control over operational, instructional, financial and professional matters. The principals of SMSs have more freedom over their budgets, resources and improvement plans, as well as staff management issues.

The Hampshire County Council's educational purpose is to secure the highest quality of learning for all (Hampshire County Council, 2004). Hampshire's schools are self-managing institutions. The heads and the school governors are entrusted with the primary responsibility of ensuring and maintaining a high standard of teaching and learning, as well as an effective and efficient management system. A climate of trust, understanding and freedom exists amidst the free flow of information at these schools.

According to Fink (2005:36) and Gold and Evans (1998:66), the United Kingdom has not been alone in its search for new ways of organising the education system. Many developed countries, such as New Zealand, Australia and the United States of America, have recognised the need for a new education system, observing falling standards and the failure of schools to meet the transformational demands of the countries.

The need for a revised and suitable education system is also apparent in the United States of America, where a national report described the future of the country as problematic if educational standards were not improved (Gold & Evans, 1998:67). It was argued that the excessive bureaucratic system of school administration was

preventing growth and development. Local management, or SBM, as it is commonly referred to in the United States of America, was seen as the answer to the problems of a lack of accountability for improvement and a reluctance to change.

Fink (2005:5) and Gold and Evans (1998:67) also state that the financial crisis of the state was also instrumental in creating a need for educational reform. Money in the hands of bureaucratic organisations led to misuse and delays in responding to resource needs in schools. In the United Kingdom, it was believed that money would be more efficiently used if it was left to management within schools to make decisions regarding its usage. New Zealand, Australia, some states in the United States of America and some provinces of Canada have introduced similar changes.

2.9   SUMMARY

It is evident from this chapter that many factors coalesced over time to contribute to the need for the restructuring of the prevalent education systems in countries all over the world. The roles of stakeholders have changed and the devolution of power and authority began. SMSs have become local mechanisms; vehicles that demand new approaches to education. These approaches are expected to facilitate the achievement of effective performances that will satisfy the needs and expectations of local communities.

Various school leaders are searching for ways that will facilitate the process of educating students and enhance the performance of schools. SMSs represent a way to promote improvement by *decentralising* control from central district offices to individual school sites. More control over the school activities and what happens in schools is now in the hands of the various stakeholders – administrators, teachers, parents and other community members.

This chapter highlighted the need for SMSs. Whilst the associated transformation process has been generally favourably accepted by many principals, as they are now

directly involved in decisions regarding their budget, personnel, curriculum and the *modus operandi* of their organisation, it is important to investigate the CMSs that are necessary to make this transformation to SMSs possible.

The next chapter will focus on the CMSs that are necessary to make the transformation to SMSs possible. This chapter will also focus on the human resources, that is, the roles of the various stakeholders, which are vital for the implementation of SMSs.

CHAPTER THREE
CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

3.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides insight into the CMSs introduced and transformation into self-managing entities. The purpose of this chapter is to define these CMSs and to ascertain the effect they have had on the roles of the various stakeholders.

Given the numerous curriculum changes and the introduction of the IQMS, South African schools began to experience the need to change or adapt their management strategies. The transition to SMSs also requires complex and demanding changes at various levels. Understanding the need for change is the first step in the transition process. Transformation of any sort impacts on all the structures, policies, processes and resources available to schools. All the stakeholders need to be informed, trained and able to adapt to the new organisational requirements. However, they first need to let go of old traditional practices and customs. In this regard, Bridges (2003:39) states:

*One doesn't discover new lands without consenting to lose sight of the shore for a very long time (*André Gidé*).*

The onus rests on schools, specifically principals and their teams, to produce well-educated and productive citizens. Principals need to be well-informed about the prevailing situation at the schools and have a vision of where they need to go. They need to devise strategies that will not only assist in copying or adapting to the changes occurring in the communities and the world at large, but which will also ensure quality educational experiences for all learners (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:4).

3.2 CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Change has come to characterise our fast-paced modern era. Change is difficult and impacts on everyone. Change management is a process of developing a planned approach to accommodate change in organisations (Andersen, 2005:1). CMSs can therefore be considered to be planned methods to adapt to or accommodate changes. When change is introduced, it is important to prevent the chaos and disruption caused by the uncertainty of change from affecting the daily functioning of the organisation. Andersen (2005:1) maintains that change management can either be reactive, i.e. reacting to changes in the environment, or proactive, which implies that a stance is taken in order to obtain a desired outcome. CMSs should be introduced once feedback has been obtained on the performance of the school, with the desired goals in mind. Such feedback should act as a means of regulating the success of the organisation. Once a certain goal has been attained, feedback will provide insight as to what has been accomplished. It becomes the task of the leader and the teams to establish where they need to be and once again design strategies that will take them there.

Bridges (2003:3) believes that for any change to be truly effective, the people within the institution also need to undergo a transition. Cook, Macaulay and Coldicott (2004:1) concur, stating that the degree of change is directly related to the people who manage others in the organisation, irrespective of their titles, since they are in a position to influence the process and the outcomes of change. What they do and say, have a direct bearing on whether others will move from their comfort zone towards a different future (Cook *et al.*, 2004:1). According to Bridges (2003:3-5), managing transition involves helping people through three phases. The first phase of transition entails assisting people in dealing with their losses and teaching them to let go of their old ways of doing things and their old identity. The second phase, the neutral zone, involves realigning, rethinking and repatterning to get people used to the new ideas. This phase involves understanding that the old way of doing things is gone, but it also involves an understanding that the new way does not yet feel right/comfortable. The third and final

phase comprises a new beginning, in which people develop a new sense of belonging or identity as they realise a new sense of purpose that makes the change work.

Von Krosigk (2006:29) emphasises the importance of developing a positive attitude towards personal change in stakeholders. Change is generally threatening to the people involved, since it entails a change from the known – the comfort zone – to the unknown. With change, come new roles and responsibilities, as well as challenges and conflicting views. The researcher firmly believes that CMSs should be seen as a means of support offered to assist everyone during times of change. Thus, the entire process needs to be adroitly managed.

3.3   CHARACTERISTICS OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

For schools to become self-managing entities, structures and processes must be established that enable groups of people to work together and collaboratively make decisions. To stay abreast of change, CMSs must accomplish the overall goal of maintaining fully functioning institutions in which there are excellent performance by all the stakeholders. For CMSs to bring about the required changes, existing management strategies must be revisited and it must be established how the school's vision, change structures and roles, training and development, and resources should be adapted. In addition, the need for the implementation of other strategies must be determined.

3.3.1   Vision

Having a vision is believed to be a key strategy that has assisted schools in coping with changes when they assumed Section 21 status.   Bridges (2003:75), however, expresses the opinion that the term *vision* creates gaps between the leaders and the followers in an organisation, and that it is far-fetched that a simple term could change an organisation and its people. He prefers to use the term "picture". Cook *et al.* (2004:95) explain that having a vision is like having a picture of a future state that compels and inspires one to work in such a way that makes the desired state achievable.   The

researcher has chosen to use the term *vision,* because one of the DoE's first requests of principals was to formulate a vision for their schools. This required that the school's mission statement be prominently displayed at the entrance of the school.

Any organisation should have a vision. In order to attain the vision, all the stakeholders should be clear about the need for change and the purpose of the change process. Schools need to ascertain the needs of the community and be aware of technological advances as well as the demands made by the implementation of the curriculum and other related educational reforms. They should change to bridge gaps and accommodate new information. The stakeholders must also be aware of what the change entails. Thus, the formulation of a vision should be the joint effort of the various stakeholders. DeKlein (1997:3) believes that having a vision without a plan of action is like merely having a dream. On the other hand, action without a vision is merely passing time. He firmly believes that vision accompanied by action can change the world. In other words, there is a need to formulate a vision and establish a mission statement in conjunction with the vision, one that informs the public **what** it is the school wants to achieve and **how** it will work towards achieving these goals. Smith (2008:203-205) as well as DeKlein (1997:3) purport that visioning is a collaborative effort in which all roleplayers should be involved. This necessitates that all staff members be involved in the development of the organisation's vision, that will determine its future. The goals and criteria for changes should be clearly formulated by stakeholders at all levels so that they can have a sense of involvement and ownership, and therefore commitment to achieving it. McKee (2003:2) states that knowledge is the foundation upon which a vision may be built. He maintains that a team must have a unified mission, not only for its customers but also for its staff, and it should therefore be developed by the staff so that they can own and feel part of the mission. Covey (2004:143) supports this idea, indicating that a lack of involvement in the establishment of a vision is a fundamental problem in organisations, as it results in a lack of commitment among staff.

By setting realistic goals and objectives and obtaining tangible success, the group will be inspired to commit to further goals and objectives. Other stakeholders will then also

want to become part of the team. Schools could also accomplish more if they got the business sector on board with their missions and visions. Smith (2008:247) as well as Cook *et al.* (2004:106) regard having a vision as crucial to any organisation. They state that a vision provides people with a focal point during any change or during the actual transitional period. It explains why changes are occurring and how these can assist the school as an organisation to attain the desired state.

Fink (2005:41-68) together with Cook *et al.* (2004:106) assert that, apart from the vision, values must also be identified, as the two go hand in hand. Cook *et al.* (2004:106) refer to values as the guiding principles of organisations. Values reveal the operational procedures prevalent at schools and are important, as the different roleplayers need to know how they operate. Values are a set of expectations schools has of themselves and others. They reveal what is important to a school. Values, according to Fink (2005:80) and Cook *et al.* (2004:110), are important, especially during change, in order to keep things congruent.

Cook *et al.* (2004:107) also believe that there are five key components of people development in any organisation. If you have a clear set of values, it will inform your competencies, which in turn provides the basis for the five key people development components. They list the latter as recruitment and selection; performance management and coaching; succession planning and talent management; training and development; and reward and recognition. They believe that all the stakeholders should be involved in the development of a vision, thereby ensuring that the vision is relevant to all. They maintain that if people are involved, the vision and values will become meaningful, better understood, and owned by all, and so, too, will the need for change. Having a vision and values would thus facilitate people management. This concept is accepted as an important ingredient in facilitating the change process of schools attaining Section 21 status.

3.3.2　Change structures and roles of self-managing schools

Change is often met with suspicion, fear and resistance. It is therefore necessary to consider human resources as the main area of intervention. The single ultimate reason for the failure of organisational change, concludes Bridges (2003:37), is a lack of planning or the inability to manage the impact thereof on people. The role changes expected of the various stakeholders should be accompanied by an explanation of what needs to be done and why it should be done. There should also be intensive development of new skills and capabilities. The stakeholders will have to know how to design change, what change entails, and how to manage the change processes.

Fink (2005:102-103) and Ryan (1997:1-2) are convinced that the core component of a successful SMS is leadership, which entails the ability to empower others, especially regarding decision-making. The role of school principals is pivotal in attaining effective decentralisation. The principals of SMSs have to serve on many committees, such as the SMT, SGB and school development teams, and they should influence and lead as team players, not autocratically. This implies that school principals are seen as the key role players that will facilitate the CMSs required to promote change within their schools. Smith (2008:188) as well as McNamara (1999:1) indicate that change is best achieved as a team effort. However, a chief agent, responsible for translating the vision into a realistic plan and for bringing the plan to fruition, is required; this role is normally expected of principals. They must be champions of change. Smith (2008:247-248) and McNamara (1999:1) state that a champion takes the initiative to bring about change by pursuing a vision and being persuasive and consistent until it is achieved.

Lindstrom and Speck (2004:7) argue that principals should not be seen as the only ones responsible for professional development, since leadership within the school learning community is shared. Clarke (2007:131-133) and Cook *et al.* (2004:1) share this sentiment, stating that change leadership is no longer restricted to a person at the top of an organisation who is expected to drive the change forward; shared leadership is a core component within the school community (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:8). This is

possible, since all roleplayers are affected by change. By becoming involved in the strategies for change, they can collectively focus their energies, insights, ideas and practices to contribute to the overall improvement of the school. Cook *et al.* (2004:1) argue that anyone who has the power or ability to influence others, has the capacity via the use of his or her intelligence to become transformational leaders. Clarke (2007:1-3) in conjunction with Cook *et al.* (2004:1) state that the managers kept the wheels turning in the past. They were responsible for setting objectives, defining procedures and monitoring the process in order to get things done. The leaders had a more active role in change. Their focus was on inspiring others, setting strategies for the future, role modelling and coaching for improved performance. Managers focused on the here and now, whilst leaders were future orientated and focused on looking for new and different modes of operation. Cook *et al.* (2004:2) argue that managers should be allowed to move upwardly and become change leaders. In so doing, the role of management becomes one of empowering teachers to pursue new approaches to teaching and learning. Those in management should possess sound general knowledge about the school. This entails being aware of the vision and mission of the school, its goals (both long-term and short-term) and objectives, the SIP, the composition of the staff and the SGB, as well as what their roles and responsibilities are. They should facilitate and assist educators. They should make sure that educators have the necessary resources, address their developmental needs and promote an environment that will encourage and allow continuous improvement in teaching and learning.

The role of educators must also change. Whilst educators were previously only involved in managing their own classrooms, they should now become actively involved in designing policies, making decisions, creating the vision of the school, become responsible for resources and working with teams to bring about change and improvement in the school environment. They should become part of committees, groups and teams that are shaping the school environment and bringing about the necessary changes in order to realise the school's goals and vision.

SGBs should be seen as change agents. Since SGBs are now entrusted with authority, they have to be educated, informed and empowered so that they are in a position to make sound decisions. Although SGBs do receive training from the District Offices, more intensive training and empowering workshops must be introduced so that they remain abreast of changes and developments in the curriculum, management and governance. Some schools are fortunate enough to have members serving on their SBGs who are literate professionals and who have sound financial acumen. This facilitates their day-to-day running. Other schools, on the other hand, count themselves lucky to have members that can read or write. Some schools struggle to get at least *some* SGB members to attend school meetings. Pupils, parents and administrators should become actively involved through teams and must remain aware that they must address the needs of the school and not focus on their own personal and individual needs.

Teams have become an absolute necessity in organisations of any sort. Within a school itself, various teams are in operation that works together for the effective functioning of the school. Schools or organisations refer to these teams as committees that have come into operation for a common purpose and have an established goal or vision in mind. Examples include the examination committee, admission committee, irregularity committee, finance committee, maintenance committee, curriculum committee, time-tabling committee, RCL committee, sports committee, social committee and the SGB (which comprises the principal, staff members (both teaching and non-teaching), parents and learners). Some committees, which are often referred to as teams, are common to most schools, whilst others are specific to the needs of a specific school.

Cameron and Green (2004:55) remark that teams are collections of individuals who work closely together and who are well aware of who they are and what their purposes are. The team members, expound Cameron and Green (2004:56), work together, meet regularly and share common goals. Each member usually has clearly outlined job descriptions/roles and responsibilities.

Armstrong (2008:61) expresses the opinion that teams are groups of people who possess skills that are complementary in nature and who work together for the achievement of common goals. The author refers to the work of Katzenbach and Smith to define the characteristics of teams, stating that teams are basic units of performance existing in most organisations. They combine the skills, experiences and insights of many people. Furthermore, teamwork is not just limited to the teams, but applies to the entire organisation. Underlying teamwork is a set of values that enhances behaviours, such as listening, co-operatively responding to others' points of view, allowing others to put their thoughts across, and giving others the benefit of the doubt. It also allows for the recognition of the interests and achievements of others. Successful teams have performance challenges and are created and motivated for the attainment of these challenges. Teamwork offers advantages over working alone as individuals, especially when multiple skills, judgements and experiences are required. Teams are also characterised by being flexible and responsive to changing events or demands. They can change their approach very quickly and accurately when new information is given. Successful teams are also characterised by a deep sense of commitment to the attainment of high standards of performance.

Armstrong (2008:62) together with Smith (2008:187-189) contend that certain factors contribute to the efficacy of teams. Firstly, the purpose of operating as a team must be clear and all the team members must consider the task to be important to them as well as to the organisation. The way the team is structured, the leadership within the team and the methods of operation of the team must be relevant to the requirements of the task at hand, claims Armstrong (2008:62). Smith (2008:188-189) and Armstrong (2008:63) also refer to well functioning teams as functioning in an informal, relaxed and comfortable atmosphere in which members listen to each other and most decisions are reached by consensus. When actions are carried out, the team leaders do not dominate their teams, as the focus is not on *who* controls the team, but *how* the work or tasks are accomplished.

Since teams can enhance the efficacy of schools, one needs to determine how they should be constituted and on the characteristics or behaviour of members. Armstrong (2008:63) refers to the work of Hay/McBer when discussing the key competencies of team members, stating that there must be a sense of interpersonal understanding. In other words, each team member must be aware of the feelings, concerns, motives, strengths and weaknesses of his or her fellow team members. Team members should also be able to influence or convince other team members to accept ideas or initiatives, which entail using interpersonal styles of leadership and the ability to present arguments in a convincing manner. Another important competency is the ability to demonstrate a sense of concern to meet the needs of those within the organisation. Team members must be flexible enough to readily adapt to accommodate change. Team members must co-operate with one another and communicate effectively in expressing their ideas. It is also imperative for team members to set and meet challenging objectives. Last but not least, Armstrong (2008:63) and Clarke (2007:393) emphasise that team members must execute their tasks with organisational goals in mind.

Although the establishment of teams and the qualities of team members are important, the process does not end when a task/goal has been achieved. It is important to review or evaluate the entire process, because feedback is thereby provided as to the strengths, weaknesses or problems encountered and how the goals were actually attained. This entire process actually acts like a team-building effort. Thus, according to Armstrong (2008:64) as well as Clarke (2007:393), a meeting should be held during which the feedback of the team as a whole is given. This entails providing information as to the problems the team members encountered as well as the support they received along the way and the manner in which the team operated. Alternative measures that can be used to prevent the re-occurrence of any problems must also be explored and discussed. At a review meeting of any committee, Armstrong (2008:65) along with Clarke (2007:9) suggest that the team should look at possible new requirements and opportunities or threats, and then revisit the objectives or amend them accordingly. Armstrong (2008:65) proposes a checklist that could be used by teams in an

organisation to analyse their performance. This could also be used by teams in schools to ascertain how effective they really are.

Armstrong's checklist for analysing team performance:

1. How effective are we at achieving team goals?
2. How well do we work together?
3. Does everyone contribute?
4. How effectively is the team led?
5. How good are we at analysing problems and making decisions?
6. How good are we at initiating action?
7. Do we concentrate sufficiently on the priority issues?
8. Do we waste time on irrelevancies?
9. To what extent can team members speak their minds without being squashed by others?
10. If there is any conflict, is it openly expressed and is it about issues rather than personalities?

Armstrong (2008:65)

Since the emphasis is now placed on teams, one should pay attention to hints on how to achieve good teamwork. Armstrong (2008:65-66) refers to ten points that should be considered when building a team.

These are as follows:

1. Determine the need, how urgent it is and the direction.
2. Choose the members for the team based on their skills and their ability to work with others, as well as their ability to work independently.
3. Be particular regarding first meetings and actions.
4. Try to agree on certain immediate performance orientated tasks and goals, as well as those that overlap. This means that certain individuals will be

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involved in more than one task at a given time, which will require multi-tasking individuals.

5.   Be aware of members in the team who have put in a tremendous amount of work and recognise their efforts. Assess the performance of the team not merely by its collective result, but also by the individual efforts of the team members.

6.   Acknowledge the performance of the team as a whole and give praise and rewards to the entire team.

7.   Work on building and maintaining team spirit by planning outdoor activities.

8.   Ensure that there are review meetings and focus on both the attainment of goals and the team process.

9.   It is imperative that opportunities are created for learning and development activities to hone and improve the level of members' existing skills.

10.   Use the learning activities provided by the school that focus on teamwork.

Usually, it is the task of the team leader to provide the required direction, support and guidance, structure the activities of the group, assist each member of the team in fulfilling his/her role, enable each member to grow by promoting programmes for learning and development and discuss the team's progress and development. Finally, the team leader must also evaluate the performance of the team. Armstrong (2008:61) and Smith (2008:188) state that the trend is towards the formation of self-managing teams. These self-managing teams are autonomous; they plan and organise the work, develop their own performance indicators, and also set and monitor team performance, in line with predetermined quality standards. The key role of team leaders has now become that of co-ordinating and facilitating and their leadership style has become more supportive and facilitative; that is, there is a move away from the directive style of operation (Armstrong, 2008:61).

Teams have become increasingly popular in modern organisations, as the volume and complexity of tasks have multiplied. Cameron and Green (2004:57) have identified the main reason for the use of teams as the need to cope with the volume of tasks that

need to be accomplished. Since teams consist of more than one member, work, which is too complex to be understood and carried out by one person alone, is made easier and more manageable by the joint efforts of team members. A high volume of work that consists of interconnected pieces that cannot be completed by one person alone can be divided amongst the different members and thus completed within the required timeframe.

Teams are often strongly affected by restructuring processes, according to Cameron and Green (2004:188). It is therefore important to pay attention to both the people component and the task at hand during times of transition or change. They therefore propose a four-stage team alignment model. In terms of this model, teams will meet in a workshop-like situation and work through the model, thus establishing a sense of team togetherness, which is essential for working together to accomplish tasks in an effective manner. The model is reflected below.

FIGURE 2:   Four-stage Team Alignment Model
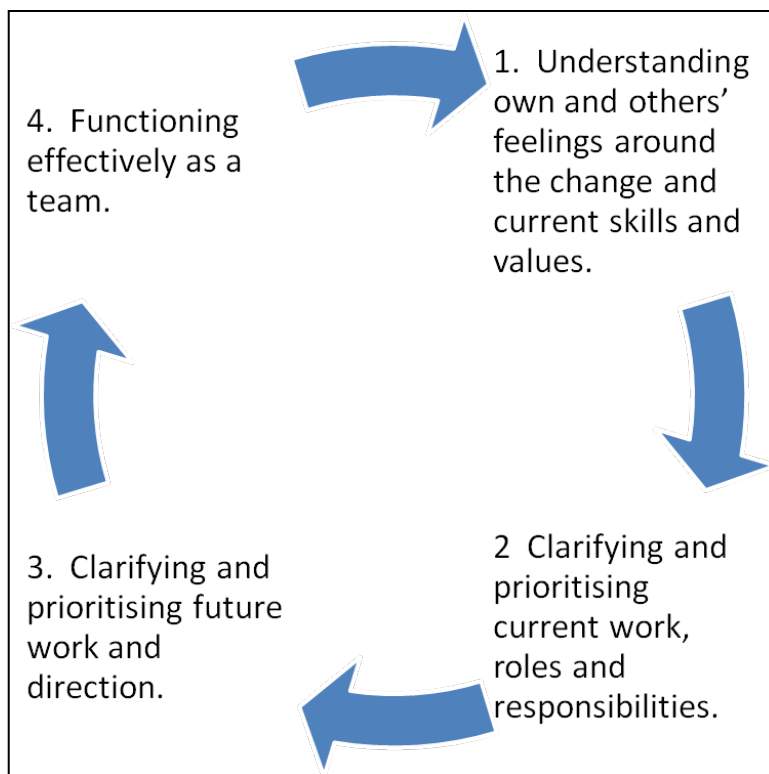
In order to attain the type of situation depicted in the model, teambuilding is important. The stakeholders must develop trust and willingness to participate and solve differences. Furthermore, the change in roles can be successful only if development is carefully planned and the required resources are provided. For example, when a newly elected SGB comes into operation, the school leadership must ensure that the SGB members receive training to cope with their new roles and expectancies. Any incumbent personnel should be mentored and fully informed about the new value system at the school. Furthermore, in order to survive in a world in which the pace of change is so rapid and the complexity of operations is high, schools as organisations need people who are *both* strong leaders and managers (Cook *et al.*, 2004:2). It is also imperative that managers ensure that change is implemented smoothly and with the minimum of disruption. In order to carry this out effectively, Armstrong (2008:130) reminds us that we should be knowledgeable of the general approaches that need to be carried out to manage change, the reasons why people resist change and how to overcome this resistance, as well as the specific steps to be taken to introduce change and ensure that it takes place as planned.

3.3.3   Training and development

According to Fink (2005:32-33) and DeKlein (1997:2), successful leaders continuously engage in training to empower themselves by learning and practising skills. Some of the more essential characteristics and requirements are a knowledge and understanding of specific tasks, acquiring communication skills, building teams, vision building, and taking risks. They also value individuals as well as the group and its responsibilities.

McKee (2003:2-3) has identified a few major competencies as models for human performance improvement, such as: awareness of the organisation, interpersonal-relationship skills, technological literacy, problem-solving skills, problem-definition skills, systems thinking and understanding, performance understanding, knowledge of interventions, business understanding, organisational understanding, advocacy skills,

coping skills and the ability to see the bigger picture. In the prevailing climate of rapid educational change, the training and development of team members is essential. Principals therefore need to receive ongoing training in curriculum development and implementation, staff appraisals, WSE and an IQMS if they are to initiate meaningful change and improvement in the school as an organisation.

Professional development must therefore be a critical component in any school improvement effort. Lindstrom and Speck (2004:5) assert that professional development is the cornerstone strategy, vital in the development of any approach to bring about change. Whilst educators are collectively responsible for the development of the school, they are also directly responsible for their own development (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:9). This implies that educators must continuously upgrade their knowledge of curriculum changes and practices to keep abreast of change. Management must be aware of changes and the needs of the human resources and design programmes/strategies for professional development.

3.3.4   Resources

In order for schools to become self-managing institutions, a transition is needed that will require a great amount of resources, *viz.* time, energy and money.   The various stakeholders will need to be extensively trained in the new skills and capabilities required.   Money will be required to find the expertise to assist in the process and ultimately to fund the process. The stakeholders will need to spend the requisite time and energy to attend workshops for the development of different skills. This is exactly what is currently (2009) happening in the Eastern Cape, for example, as educators are being empowered and informed about the new NCS. The problem of cascading is eradicated, as all learning area educators are expected to attend the training programmes. Energy and money should thus be seen as investments in ensuring a smooth and successful transition, especially regarding the attainment of effective SMSs.

Whilst access to information is important, transmitting this information to the school community is of equal importance. Parents provide information about themselves and their children (learners) when completing school admission forms, while the school provides information about its functioning by means of a written code of conduct, assemblies, parent-teacher meetings, as well as newsletters. There is a constant flow of information about and between the stakeholders. In this way, the SMT keeps abreast of the availability of human resources. Recently, portfolio assessments at cluster meetings have served to broaden the information systems and provide feedback on school productivity. This is one effective way of sharing information between schools and the District office.

For any change to be introduced successfully in schools as organisations, it is imperative that human resources, the key asset of organisations, the people within the organisations, their existence and contribution be heard. The work of the management behaviourist, Abraham Maslow, can be used to understand and relate the need to communicate and involve people as a factor that contributes to effective changes and that could be referred to as a change management strategy. Abraham Maslow, as referred to in Cook *et al.* (2004:75), talks about self-actualisation in his hierarchy of needs model. Maslow's hierarchy of needs model refers to people as having a physiological need (need for food and water); safety need (need for shelter, security and freedom from danger); belonging need (the need for identification and acceptance); esteem (the need to be recognised by others and feel good about self); and a self-actualisation need (the need for meaning and purpose in life).

According to the needs model, the lower order need remains dominant until satisfied; only then do you have movement to the next level. In the school environment, the need to belong exists among all stakeholders. This need can be effectively explored by management. People can be motivated to work and thus create a team with a single vision, based on the need to belong. Success in the workplace can then lead to esteem needs. Should the team successfully accomplish tasks, this could motivate them to

pursue other tasks and build on their need to reach self-actualisation, where they find meaning and purpose in their lives.

3.4   CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Clarke (2007:394) in conjunction with Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:22) contend that the change process is a complex one, because of concurrent demands for excellence and quality, for economic responsibility and accountability, and for an adaptive and responsive system able to meet the needs of our rapidly changing technological society.   Armstrong (2008:130) maintains that change, while often complex, is the only constant occurrence in any organisation and that it could enhance work methods and lead to the revision of existing job descriptions or management systems.

Clarke (2007:394-396) as well as McNamara (1999:1) state that the human element, the most important resource in any organisation, poses a threat to change. He states that people often resist change, as they fear the unknown. Many people operate in a comfort zone, insisting that things are fine as they are and that there is no need for change or adaptation. Andersen (2005:1) agrees that change management primarily involves human resource management, because overcoming resistance to change and implementing new procedures are primarily concerned with people. He further states that it is usually the *process* that people resist – not the change itself – and that this resistance can take the form of foot-dragging or even outright sabotage (Andersen, 2005:1). Similarly, Armstrong (2008:130) and Fink (2005:108-109) surmise that change in itself is not so much the problem, but the fact that people generally find change difficult to accept or cope with. From experience, it is evident that people usually resist change – *any* form of change. Even teenagers in schools or at home resist changes. Whilst some people may accept the need for change, the problem arises when they have to adjust their behaviour to respond to it. However, there are some people, although in the minority, who welcome change, as they view it as a challenge and/or opportunity to learn and grow (Armstrong, 2008:132).

Armstrong (2008:132) has identified ten "reasons" for non-compliance or, simply put, "for doing nothing". These are as follows:

- *It won't work.*
- *We're already doing it.*
- *It's been tried before without success.*
- *It's not practical.*
- *It won't solve the problem.*
- *It's too risky.*
- *It's based on pure theory.*
- *It will cost too much.*
- *It will antagonise the customers/management/the union/the workers/the shareholders.*
- *It will create more problems than it will solve.*

In order for schools to undergo change of any sort, a change must therefore first be made within the mindset of the various roleplayers. People need to see the bigger picture, i.e. they need to see the organisation in its entirety and let go of outdated values and beliefs that stunt their growth. They need to realise that schools as organisations are places where not only learners but all stakeholders need to learn and be able to grow and be of better service to others and to the organisation as a whole.

Many principals view change as a threat, because they are comfortable with the way in which they manage and lead their organisations. Bridges (2003:ix) quotes from the Greek historian, Herodotus (fifth century B.C.):

"Diseases always attack men when they are exposed to change to reveal the strong influence change has on individuals and that it could result in, or bring about feelings of uncertainty, anxiety, fear and disorientation".

Armstrong (2008:132) and Fullan (2004:97-100) concur that people resist change when they see it as a threat to their established life at work. They are fixed in their routines, their *modus operandi* and behavioural patterns and concerned about their ability to cope with new trends and the associated demands. Change is thus a threat to familiar behavioural patterns. People also believe that change will affect their income and position/status; their sense of security is threatened. They may also simply not believe management. These are some of the more common reasons for resistance to change. However, it is also important to note that change does not always serve the interests of individuals. A case in point was when South African schools had to redeploy educators, a few years ago. Many schools lost effective and efficient educators during the process. Any change is therefore always met with resistance of some sort, as those in affected organisations are wary of ulterior motives or hidden agendas.

However, those opposed to change can very easily be left behind, because changes are required every day and technological advances are being made virtually every minute. Thus, changes must be readily made to adapt to or cope with new development or advances. The process cannot wait or be delayed until everyone is comfortable and aboard. As Bridges (2003:x) very aptly puts it:

"Change is the name of the game today, and organisations that can't change quickly aren't going to be around for long".

This statement holds much truth, as is evident in the Port Elizabeth District, where schools in the Northern Areas are fast becoming "white elephants", mere structures that are not attracting learners. The learners are being bused out to schools situated further away from the local schools and their homes, because their local schools are not servicing the needs of the learners/parents. It is evident that change needs to be managed, since it is not sufficient to merely change the situation; one needs to also change the mindsets of those within the situation. Leaders must welcome change and have some ideas about the needs and desires of the various roleplayers, as well as how to make the future different. This implies that leaders must be creative and intellectually

driven (Larson, 2004:1). Change therefore requires commitment and considerable energy.

Cook *et al.* (2004:25) declare that change, irrespective of the volume of preparation completed, rarely follows a set process. In recent studies, certain common reasons for failure have been identified, including a lack of compelling reasons for change; goals and objectives that are not clear; lack of planning; external factors having an adverse effect; failure to involve all those who will be affected by change; and the setting of unrealistic timeframes.

Cook *et al.* (2004:26) point out that research has indicated that most leaders are rational and logical in their approach; however, studies have also revealed that this sort of business intelligence cannot on its own initiate or influence change. Cook *et al.* (2004:26) explain how SHELL developed a global knowledge network that has enabled its employees globally to request assistance from their international colleagues in solving problems. The system has encouraged the sharing of knowledge and finding cooperative solutions to problems. Cook *et al.* (2004:26) point out that for any change to be effective, a change in the mindset of the people is required. For SHELL, a change in the mindsets of its people and a new way of working for many employees were required, rather than the use of new technology (Cook *et al.*, 2004:26).

Change can also be viewed as an opportunity to progress and develop. It could instil feelings of positivism, excitement and confidence. It is the task of management to develop strategies that will assist the various stakeholders in times of change and in establishing a way of dealing with all the stakeholders in a way that will make everyone feel comfortable (Bridges, 2003:xi). Changes can result in success or failure, depending on whether the people affected are able to do things differently (Bridges, 2003:5-6). CMSs must therefore be seen as a means of support offered to assist everyone, especially when changes must be made in times of transformation.

Below is a model which can be adopted to advocate change.

FIGURE 3: Cyclic Model for Change Management Strategies

Step 1: CMS identified

Step 4: Feedback and revision

Step 2: Implementation

Step 3: Evaluation
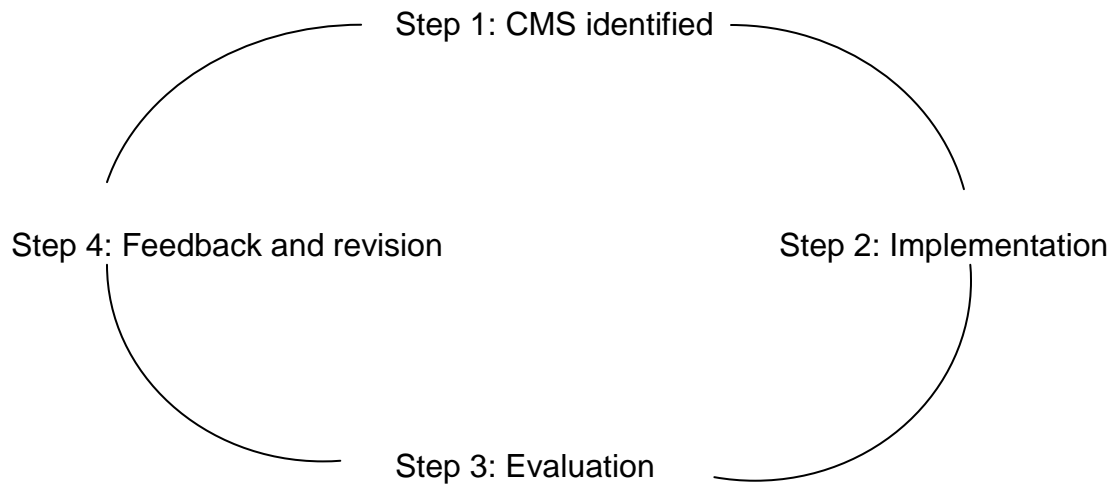
Step 1:   The stakeholders of a school must first identify the problem. They reach consensus that the educators need training and development in a specific area, such as the NCS.

Step 2:   The educators attend the NCS workshops.

Step 3:   The educators return to their schools, incorporating the new ideas. They evaluate each other (one-on-one/buddy system); then the head of department/deputy principal/principal evaluates their work and, finally, moderation is done at cluster level.

Step 4:   Using the feedback provided in steps 1, 2 and 3, the educators revise their ideas/methods/material and the cycle resumes.

The process should be cyclic in order to reveal an ongoing attempt to be proactive or keep abreast of change.

3.5 TRAITS OF EMERGING LEADERS

Fink (2005:102) in conjunction with Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:13-14) have indicated that personality is an important factor in effective leadership. A good leader is characterised by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion. A good leader is also defined, according to Smith (2008:243-244), Fink (2005:112) and Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:13-14), as one who displays vigour and persistence in the pursuit of goals and venturesomeness and originality in problem solving. He/She exercises initiative in social situations and displays self-confidence and a sense of personal integrity, a willingness to accept the consequences of decisions and actions, and a readiness to absorb interpersonal stress. A good leader is further characterised as being willing to tolerate frustration and delay; and has the ability to influence other people's behaviour and the capacity to structure interaction systems to suit the purpose at hand.

According to Fullan (2004:86) and Kane (1998:1), school leadership calls for different skills and competencies and a move away from flaunting authority, behaving autocratically, and exercising rigid control over the organisation. There is a need to focus on visions, values, objectives, processes and, most importantly, the key asset of the organisation, the stakeholders. Networking and sharing ideas and information are prerequisites for success. Schools must focus on the changing needs of their learners. They need to focus on their human resources, by providing opportunities for growth. Leaders must be purposeful and pro-active. This implies that the task of running a school has become extremely complex and demanding. Nowadays schools, because of decentralisation, have to operate as businesses. The need is for management and leadership skills as well as capabilities that are diverse in nature. Smith (2008:188) together with Kane (1998:1) maintain that these competencies can be learned. He identifies the following as core competencies, skills, knowledge and attitudes that effective leaders share: intelligence, integrity, and a sense of caring.

In a study carried out by Von Krosigk (2006:29), leadership attributes were linked to personality traits. Where the leaders came from problematic backgrounds, they displayed a sense of caring and self-sufficiency. Von Krosigk (2006:29) emphasises that we should not only concentrate on leadership attributes such as thinking strategically, establishing direction, having a vision, leading change and placing emphasis on values, but also on "soft skills" such as communication, inspiring others and being emotionally aware of different cultures and religions. These findings recall research carried out in the 1980s by authors like Mayer and Salovey (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:x). According to Caruso and Salovey (2004:ix), emotion is not only important, but in fact a necessity. It is fundamental to the action that is taken in order to solve problems, cope with change and being successful. In the late 1980s, two psychologists, Mayer and Salovey, developed an ability-based approach to emotional competencies. They dubbed a successful manager as "the emotionally intelligent manager", based on his/her ability-based approach to emotional competencies (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:x).

This approach is used to identify four emotional skills upon which an emotionally intelligent manager is built (Caruso & Salovey, 2004:x). The emotionally intelligent manager should be able to identify emotions; use emotions; understand emotions; and manage emotions. In other words, in order to *identify emotions,* the emotionally intelligent manager should be able to read people and understand the signals they are sending about the situation or environment in which they find themselves. By identifying the messages they are trying to send, the leader is able to react appropriately. This leads to effective communication, as the leader is now in a position to accurately respond or convey messages to those with whom he/she is interacting. Furthermore, Caruso and Salovey (2004:x) refer to the *use of emotions* or to "get in the mood" as being an essential skill for effective performance. They believe that how we feel, influences how we think as well as what we think about. Thus, emotions tend to guide our thought processes. It is therefore essential that we understand our emotions. According to Caruso and Salovey (2004:x), emotions have underlying causes; they change according to a set of rules and can thus be understood. Lastly, Caruso and

Salovey identify the fourth emotional skill necessary for an effective manager as the ability to *manage* one's emotions. In other words, managers must be aware of how they feel and use this selectively and appropriately in their reasoning, judging, problem solving or decision-making.

FIGURE 4:   Emotional Intelligence: Four Skills of Emotional Intelligence

1. Identify Emotion. Become aware of emotions.

2. Use Emotion. Let emotions influence thinking. Match emotion to task.

4. Manage Emotion. Stay open to emotions. Integrate emotions into thinking.

3. Understand Emotion. Find out what emotions mean. Conduct what-if analyses.
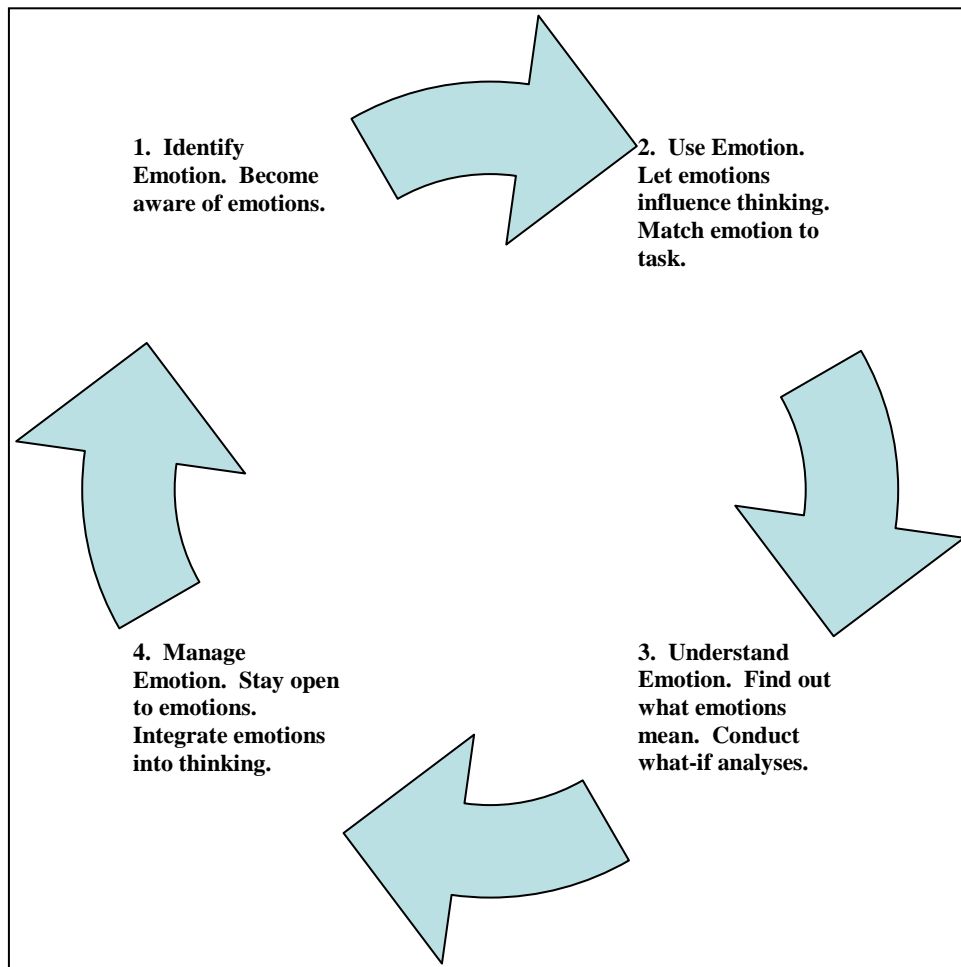
(Caruso & Salovey, 2004:xi)

Interestingly, techniques can be used to either acquire or hone EI skills in the workplace. Goleman (2002:38) states that EI competencies are not innate talents, but

abilities that can be learnt. He adds that these EI competencies have a unique contribution in making leaders more resonant and therefore facilitating their effectiveness.

3.5.1 Skills and knowledge for successful leadership

Kane (1998:2-7) has identified nine skills and knowledge for successful leadership, namely competence, team building, use of power, people management, community involvement, political astuteness, productive use of conflict, self-awareness, and EI.

McKee (2003:2) states that the leader must have knowledge about the type of organisation in which he/she operates. He states that a learning organisation should have a belief that systems thinking is fundamental; a climate that encourages, rewards and enhances individual and collective learning; a view that hold surprises, mistakes and failures as learning opportunities; a desire for continuous improvement and renewal; and learning that is integrated with work.

Leaders must also possess knowledge about the employees. Selection processes should be in place that ensures the employment of effective and efficient employees. According to McKee (2003:2), successful businesses today are characterised by knowledgeable workers. This implies workers who are entrepreneurial, have a vision and who are creative.

Armstrong (2008:7) concurs that there are certain attributes or qualities which successful leaders possess. He refers to the following attributes, based on the research of Michael Pedler and his colleagues:

- Command of basic facts
- Relevant professional knowledge
- Continuing sensitivity to events
- Analytical, problem-solving and decision/judgement making skills

- Social skills and abilities
- Emotional resilience
- Proactivity
- Creativity
- Mental agility
- Balanced learning habits and skills
- Self-knowledge (Armstrong, 2008:7).

3.5.2   Attitudes for successful leadership

According to Kane (1998:5), the required traits and attitudes for successful leadership are commitment, continuous improvement, understanding, diversity, intra-organisational skills and the formation of alliances.

Larson (2004:1) supports the idea that effective leaders are passionate about the cause. They believe they can contribute to the improvement of society, or at least a portion thereof. Leaders with passion will be courageous enough to meet challenges and make innovations and sometimes difficult decisions in order to reach their goals and objectives. Von Krosigk (2006:28) concurs that not only does successful leaders derive great pleasure from assisting others in developing their potential, but they also focus on positive interactions to accomplish goals.

3.5.3   Skills and ability to communicate

A leader is effective in that he/she knows "how to do the right thing", while a manager is efficient as he/she knows " how to do things right" (Larson, 2004:2). This implies that a leader must also be a manager, since the skills and abilities of both the leader and the manager are inextricably intertwined and cannot be easily separated.

Effective leaders should be able to communicate with others. This does not only imply that they must be good speakers, but more importantly, that they must be good

listeners. The key component of effective communication, according to DeKlein (1997:2), is listening. Leaders need to communicate effectively and comfortably with all those they come into contact with on a daily basis. They must be open and honest. Accepting criticism can be difficult to handle. Therefore, leaders should be able to criticise constructively. Bridges (2003:47) affirms that good communication assist in making people feel included in and connected to the school or any organisation. Cook *et al.* (2004:159) claim that when there is little or no communication, rumours can easily start and mistrust can arise. They emphasise the importance of communicating regularly with all stakeholders to keep them informed of the position of the school and to provide them with relevant information that affects them. The schools that formed part of this research held various meetings with stakeholders to keep them informed. SMT meetings were held to discuss the planning and organisational tasks of the school. Staff meetings were held to obtain the input of the staff on various issues. Parent-teacher meetings were also held per grade to discuss the progress and performance of the learners. Various other meetings were conducted by the subject committees, fundraising committees and sports committees respectively.

Another form of communication used by the participating schools, was the letters sent to parents informing them of the plans for each term as well as keeping them abreast of the changes and the success/failure of activities carried out during each term. These letters also informed parents of the dates and times of parent-teacher meetings, SGB meetings, examinations, excursions, functions and the results of any sporting/cultural activities. Staff development programmes as well as staff-related events and issues, such as the successful passing of examinations, marriages, births and new additions/departures, were also published in these newsletters. Most of the participating schools used these newsletters as a means of keeping their stakeholders informed and maintaining contact with them. Provision was also made for telephone calls to parents to inform them of any emergency or of the misbehaviour of a pupil if a letter had been sent home and there had been no response within three days thereafter. Two of the schools in the research programme actually held briefing sessions every morning to inform the personnel of the expectations of the day, to remind them of their

duties, and to obtain input from the staff on recent developments. Assemblies were held at all the participating schools to inform the learners of recent developments, to acknowledge excellence in the various codes of sport, to observe a moment of silence in the event of the passing away of learners/family members, to allow motivational speakers to address the learners, and to observe a prayer. Communication channels are therefore vital for the effective functioning of a school. Larson (2004:2) asserts that leaders need to accomplish tasks, whilst simultaneously keeping the whole organisation together; therefore, they must master the skills of open communication and delegation as well as the ability to handle conflict situations.

CMSs must effectively motivate people to perform better, even under organisation-wide changes. According to Fink (2005:48) and DeKlein (1997:3), people must be praised or rewarded for their achievements. Leaders must therefore communicate their satisfaction and joy about a well-accomplished task by means of praise or a token of appreciation. An effective leader must recognise and reward the members of the team for their efforts. Those that are struggling should be supported so that they become motivated to proceed triumphantly. Members who fail to accomplish tasks set before them tend to give up; therefore, the encouragement of leaders is essential. Furthermore, realistic expectations should be set, which could inspire group participation.

Leaders should therefore be in contact with their underlings and provide encouragement at all times. They must empower others. They must encourage team members to also take the lead and assume responsibility, since outstanding leadership is determined by the ability to show a genuine interest in and concern for the work, the people and the community (Fink, 2005:47-48; DeKlein, 1997:3).

3.5.4 Teamwork

Successful leaders delegate tasks; they divide tasks amongst the team members. According to Smith (2008:188) and DeKlein (1997:2), effective leaders are involved and constructively work with group members. This implies that management in schools

must not only be aware of team members' needs in the classroom situation, but also of their social and emotional needs. Successful leaders think in terms of "we", not "I", according to Smith (2008:188-189) and DeKlein (1997:2).

McKee (2003:3) contends that great teams consist of knowledgeable workers who have a focused vision, who believe in their mission, and who empower each other through their initiative and skills development.

Certain people thrive on change; they manage change in such a way that they not only survive, but excel. In other words, some people have the ability to make change work for them. Transition provokes change management strategies. McKee (2003:1) contends that the cornerstone for success in a transformational period is teambuilding. Leaders that have the ability to challenge, motivate and empower their teams through change are successful. Since most changes disrupt teamwork, those leaders who can maintain order and keep their teams focused, will be able to facilitate and thrive on change. McKee (2003:2) states that there are five essentials in guiding a team through transitional times, namely: knowledge, a focused vision, faith, initiative, and training and development. Von Krosigk (2006:28) refers to successful leaders as those who value the unique contribution of every team member, taking into consideration his/her strengths and weaknesses. He also observes that successful leaders work in a "companionable and cooperative style" with his/her team members, for the benefit of all.

3.5.5   Risk taking

True leaders are pioneers; people who are willing to step out into the unknown, to go where nobody has been before (Fullan, 2004:1-9; DeKlein, 1997:2). This implies that leaders must be innovative and be prepared to recognise, try and support new ideas. However, leaders must also be prepared to learn from their mistakes, since mistakes lead to new learning experiences and ultimately some form of growth. Leaders should therefore be willing to take risks, meet challenges and confront changes with innovative minds. This implies flexibility, which Von Krosigk (2006:29) believes is an important trait

of successful leaders, in order to adjust to different cultures or situations, thus facilitating the effective accomplishment of tasks.

3.5.6   Holder of values

To be a leader implies that one has certain values, maintains Larson (2004:1). In our diverse school communities, respect is a critical competency of leaders. Kouzes and Posner (2001:85) maintain that *trust* lies at the heart of effective leadership; there should be trust between those who are leading and those who are following. It is not possible to lead without trust. McKee (2003:2) states that doubt and scepticism will tarnish a team's spirit. A dynamic leader must have strong faith, believe in a vision and display qualities indicative of trustworthiness. Teams like to be led by someone they can *trust.* Von Krosigk (2006:29) alludes to trust as the core attribute of effective leadership. In fact, Von Krosigk (2006:29) emphasises the need for *trust* as an important strategy, by referring to it as "the cornerstone of effective leadership during times of organisational transformations". Since leaders need to instil a positive mind-set in their stakeholders, are interacting with them, giving them direction, allowing them to be part of the decision-making processes and providing them with feedback as to the progress made in the school, they need to trust their stakeholders and be trusted by them in return in order to effect any changes.

3.5.7   Confidence and humility combined

Although leaders may have a good vision in place and great strategies for dealing with the challenges presented by change, they must be confident enough to put their plans into action. Leaders also need to be humble enough to accept the ideas of others. Since leaders work in teams, they need to realise the importance of the other team members. All members should be willing to contribute their energies and ideas in realising the vision of the organisation. Leaders therefore cannot always be seen as the initiators/vehicles that will achieve the desired outcomes (Larson, 2004:1). They should

however possess sufficient confidence in themselves to initiate and follow through with certain tasks.

3.5.8 Planner and organiser

Larson (2004:2) defines management as the ability to get things done through other people. This implies that managers get others to do something that needs to be done, such as realising the vision of the school, by informing the roleplayers and subsequently delegating the task to them. Clarke (2007:3) supports this idea, stating that managers must make sure that all systems are operating effectively. In order for this to happen, managers must be planners. They need to introduce new and adapt and enhance existing systems for policies, procedures and time-tables that will enhance the efficacy of the school as an organisation. McKee (2003:2) states that leaders must ensure that each person is doing a part of the whole so that he or she will realise the overall mission to which he/she is contributing. Leaders should be knowledgeable and have a strong enough vision and faith to complete tasks and also to ensure that everyone knows what to do, how to do it and when it is due.

3.5.9 Traits of good business leaders

The need has emerged for principals to serve as educational leaders on the one hand and business leaders on the other. This dilemma results from the increasing expectations placed on principals to obtain quality teaching standards, better results and an overall improvement in learner outcomes. Principals are required to simultaneously cope with restructuring and the devolved financial and personnel responsibilities associated with SMSs.

According to Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997:21), the success of a devolved education system is dependent upon technical skills such as school-based budgeting techniques and the ability to execute tasks, such as short-term and long-term goal setting and policy planning, time management and the art of delegation. Since

principals are expected to work with the parents in the wider community, who may hold different value systems, they will have to develop skills to communicate and negotiate successfully. Principals are also expected to exercise more control over the fiscal operations of the school and they therefore need to behave more like business managers.

Maminza (2001:1) states that the DoE previously issued schools with textbooks and stationery and also paid for the general upkeep of schools, school buildings and school grounds. However, since schools received Section 21 status, they have had to pay for their own general maintenance, the upkeep of school buildings and the purchase of the required equipment. SMSs can therefore not rely exclusively on the government for funding and have to develop methods of securing additional funds. SMSs need to learn how to budget appropriately by looking at the requirements that will facilitate their smooth running. Executing such a mammoth task requires certain additional financial, budgetary and interpersonal skills and curriculum knowledge. The principal and his management team now need to co-operate effectively with the rest of the stakeholders in order to facilitate the entire process. This means that they need a strong sense of interpersonal intelligence, since they are working with groups of people from diverse backgrounds, with varying skills and competencies. These stakeholders also have different personalities and preferences.

However, since the parent body and the community at large generally do not have any expertise in school operations, various problems can be envisaged. Furthermore, the changing roles of principals and teachers need to be managed.

Since schools are increasingly run like business concerns, the leaders require skills in areas such as financial management and marketing. Schools, like so many organisations in the public sector, are expected to be more accountable to their various stakeholders, particularly the parents. The introduction of the RNCS and the IQMS has ensured that most schools regard improvement and effectiveness as priority objectives in marketing themselves.

The *attitudes for successful leadership,* as described by Kane (1998) and the *traits of good business leaders,* as discussed by DeKlein (1997), are the essential components of EI. In becoming emotionally literate, one learns that emotions can bestow power on people. Steiner and Perry (1999:3) maintain that the key to personal power is emotional literacy, because emotions are extremely powerful. EI makes it possible to ensure that all conversations, group work, partnerships and every instance of human contact, irrespective of the period of engagement, will produce the best results and overall performance (Steiner & Perry, 1999:3).

Sterrett (2000:9) contends that real leaders are those who are actively involved in inspiring and motivating others, creating opportunities for teamwork, and achieving outstanding results; they portray the behaviour they want to see in their employees. EI can propel one from a management position to a leadership position.

The leader of a school should also be in tune with the needs and requirements of that specific school. Von Krosigk (2006:30) states that leaders should recognise the need to achieve a "goodness of fit", in order to ensure the success of the school and their own success. Leaders should therefore be engaged in a symbiotic relationship, in which both parties benefit.

Kouzes and Posner (2001:85) maintain that trust lies at the heart of effective leadership. There should be trust between those who are leading and those who are following. It is not possible to lead without trust. Von Krosigk (2006:29) echoes the sentiment held by Kouzes and Posner (2001:85), stating that trustworthiness amongst educators or those working in teams for a common goal is an important strategy. In fact, he views this strategy as the cornerstone of effective leadership, especially in a time of transformation and transition in an organisation. Leaders need to instil a positive mindset in their stakeholders by interacting with them, giving them direction, allowing them to be part of the decision-making processes and providing them with feedback as to the progress made in the school. Andersen (2005:1) concurs that change management primarily involves human resources management, because overcoming resistance to change and

implementing new procedures are primarily concerned with people. He adds that change management can either be reactive, i.e. reacting to changes in the environment, or proactive, which implies that a stance is taken in order to obtain a desired outcome.

3.6 SUMMARY

The various stakeholders in a school need to pool their resources to share effective practices and to investigate problems and concerns of common interest, as this will contribute to educational advancement. In order to cope with the pace of change, leaders' greatest challenge is to keep abreast and informed of change, constantly allowing for opportunities for professional development and reflecting on where they are and where they need to be.

In order to adapt to or cope with change, a planned approach will facilitate the progress and continued existence of the organisation. Whilst flatter structures, more team effort and commitment seem to be the order of the day, vast emphasis is nowadays placed on the human resources component of organisations. The empowerment and true professional development of this asset are essential in order to cope with, manage and be proactive during change.

Successful leaders should therefore be able to create and successfully articulate a vision, passionately own this vision and relentlessly strive to achieve it. Successful leaders are characterised by openness, informality, unconventionality, straightness with people, and accessibility. Most importantly, successful leaders are good listeners and able to focus on human beings, inspiring and motivating them, and reaching consensus.

In the next chapter, some recent research on EI will be reviewed in an attempt to determine its effect on the human resources component of SMSs.

CHAPTER FOUR
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a phrase which has gained popularity in the 1990s. However, researchers have been aware of the power of EI for many years. Recently, a significant amount of research has been conducted in the field of EI, as highlighted by a number of authors (Goleman, 2004; Orme, 2001; Bar-On & Parker, 2000) investigating the EI approach to understanding human behaviour. Many of the findings of other authors have also been used to explain human behaviour in relation to others in organisations (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Azzopardi, 2001; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Weisinger, 1998). This chapter will offer a review of various definitions of EI, highlight models of EI, attempt to define the qualities of an emotionally intelligent person, discuss the role of EI in management, outline the advantages EI has for individuals in the organisation, and determine its effect on the ultimate smooth running of the organisation.

The very root of the word *emotion* is *motere,* the Latin word "to move", adding the prefix "e" connotes "to move away". This denotes that a tendency to act is implicit in every emotion (Goleman, 2004:6). The manner in which a human being will act, is dependent on two minds, an emotional mind that feels, and a rational mind that thinks. Goleman (2004:8) states that the rational mind has the ability to comprehend, to be aware, to be thoughtful and to ponder and reflect. Alongside this rational mind is another system of knowing, namely, the impulsive, powerful emotional mind. This explains the distinction between the *heart* and the *head*, i.e. the emotional/rational dichotomy. It may therefore be said that our minds are exquisitely coordinated, because feelings are as essential to thought as thought is to feeling.

A high IQ, which is purely based on intellect, does not prepare one for the turmoil or opportunities that present themselves in the vicissitudes of life. Depending on the

definition of success, a high IQ does not guarantee prosperity or success. However, there is sufficient proof that people who are emotionally adept; who know and can manage their own feelings well, and who read and deal effectively with other people's feelings, are at an advantage in any domain of life, whether in romantic and intimate relationships or in organisational environments (Goleman, 2004:36). Goleman (2004:36) asserts that people who are emotionally adept, tend to be content and effective in their lives. Employers are increasingly realising that the *people component* is of the utmost importance in an organisation (McBride & Maitland, 2002:2). McBride and Maitland (2002:2) offer support for this statement by citing an example of when EI testing was carried out in a group of owner-managers. The results revealed that managers who delegated and devolved power to their employees, obtained higher scores in consideration for others, tolerance and sociability questions. They handled stress well and had profitable, booming companies.

Various paradigm changes are occurring in society. This increasing rate of change is accompanied by a new emphasis on leadership. In the business world, there has been a reassessment of existing practices, because of the uncertainty of the global market as well as the need for flatter organisations. Any change in the business world has a ripple effect on schools as organisations that have to meet the current demands of the global market. Thus, there has been an increasing need for a less hierarchical, flatter, more involved, collegial climate in schools (Singh, Manser & Mestry, 2007:548). Flatter organisations, implies that principals are no longer single-handedly responsible for the functioning of their schools. Recently, various stakeholders have been empowered to participate in the daily plans, decision-making processes and operations carried out at schools.

Whilst principals in the past were expected only to produce good school results, the forces of change now necessitate a type of leadership that will not only secure good results, but also sustain reform and the effective functioning of the school. Good leaders should be able to tolerate frustration and stress. Overall, they must be well adjusted and have the psychological maturity to deal with any problem or circumstance

they are faced with. This implies that organisations can no longer rely on rational skills only, but need interpersonal behaviour and emotional stability. Studies on EI have been increasing, providing new and important insights into the way in which people in various organisations behave (Von Krosigk, 2006:26).

4.2   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Scientists refer to the emotional brain as the limbic system, since it is the storage place of all our memories from the moment of birth (Cook *et al.*, 2004:165). We learn from our past experiences, as that form part of what we commonly refer to as our intuition, which becomes stronger with age. This form of EI, according to Cook *et al.* (2004:166), should guide and assist our behaviour.   However, studies in neuroscience have revealed that "the ancient brain centers for emotion also harbour the skills needed for managing ourselves effectively and for social adeptness" (Goleman, 1999:6).   This implies that skills for survival and adaptation are part of our evolutionary heritage. According to the neurosciences, it is important to note that the emotional part of the brain "learns differently from the thinking brain" (Goleman, 1999:6). It is also important to note that EI does not simply imply expressing ones feelings freely (Goleman, 1999:7); it concerns the managing of feelings in such a way that they are expressed in an appropriate and effective manner, so that people can work together harmoniously towards a common goal. Salovey (Goleman, 1996:43) uses Gardner's definition of EI, but expands on it.   He identifies five main domains in his definition of EI, namely knowing one's emotions; managing emotions; motivating oneself; recognising emotions in others; and handling relationships. Salovey (Goleman, 1996:43) maintains that "self-awareness" is the fundamental basis of EI. The ability to manage one's emotions is dependent on one's self-awareness, i.e. you are only capable of acting appropriately if you have an understanding of what you can do and what is expected of you. The third domain, *viz.* motivating oneself, leads to highly productive people who are effective in whatever they pursue. The fourth domain, *viz.* recognising emotions in others, is the fundamental "people skill".   This entails being sympathetic and more attuned to the needs and wants of others, in other words, having empathy. The fifth domain, *viz.*

handling relationships, refers to the ability to manage the emotions of others and thus interact smoothly with them.

Goleman (1996:39) indicates that IQ is not the sole factor determining one's success in life. He refers to Gardner's definition of EI, which differentiates between two kinds of personal intelligence, namely that of *intrapersonal* and *interpersonal* intelligence, which both contribute to success. This can be explained further as knowledge of one's self – the ability to understand one's own feelings, shortcomings, thinking patterns, etc. and to be able to use these to guide and determine one's behaviour (*intrapersonal* intelligence). Then there is *interpersonal* intelligence, which is the ability to understand other people, what motivates them and how they work; and how to work cooperatively with them. This is very much like Sterrett's K-A-B Model (2000:7), which includes the *self* and the *social* domains. Weisinger (1998:xvi) defines EI as "the intelligent use of emotions". The implication is that emotions exist and that they must be used in such a manner as to guide behaviour and thinking, thus enabling successful results. Cook *et al.* (2004:164) seem inclined towards the idea that true intelligence is the ability to balance the information received from the emotional and the rational sides of the brain and then to appropriately deal with the information. Weisinger advocates that EI is at all times present in the workplace and that its suitable application can enhance the results of the organisation, since it can resolve a difficult problem with a co-worker, keep groups involved and committed to a task until its completion, or even assist one in dealing with a challenge.

Weisinger (1998:xvii) proceeds on the supposition that EI is used both intrapersonally (helping oneself) and interpersonally (helping others). Bar-On (2005:43-44) concurs that there is an *emotional* and a *social* component of EI. He maintains that *interpersonal* competence, i.e. the ability to understand others and relate to them, depends on *intrapersonal* competence, i.e. the ability to understand and express our own emotions. He thus sees *interpersonal* and *intrapersonal* competence as two "interrelated parts of the same construct" (Bar-On, 2005:43-44).

Bar-On (2005:43-44) has defined EI as an "array of emotional, personal and social abilities which influence one's overall ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures". Orme (2001:6-70) defines EI as the ability to tune into and being able to understand emotions, as well as the ability to take appropriate action. Orme (2001:7) indicates that all three elements in the definition are applicable to our own emotions and those of others. This means that there is a *self* and a *social* aspect. According to Orme (2001:51), Mayer, Salovey and Caruso also refer to the *self* and the *social* in their definition of EI. They define EI as the ability to identify emotions in yourself as well as in others, being able to in engage in relationships by relating to other people, by reading their emotions and that of your own, and managing emotions in ways that assist thought (Orme, 2001:51). Pawliw-Fry defines EI as the ability to effectively recognise and manage our own emotions and those of others (Orme, 2001:54). This belief in the need for both aspects is further reinforced by Sterrett's definition of EI. EI, which is often referred to as EQ, is defined by Sterrett (2000:2) as a well ordered series of personal-management and social skills that allows one to succeed in the workplace and in life in general. EI includes intuition, character, integrity, and motivation. It also includes the ability to communicate well and establish sound relationship skills. Barry (2007:1) also identifies a *self* and a *social* aspect to EI in his definition of EI as being the ability to comprehend, attach value to and appropriately manage emotions "in relationship to oneself and others".

4.3   MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Various schools view EI as contributing to successful lives. Each of these schools focuses on certain aspects of behaviour. They use models or frameworks as a means of explaining what EI is. The researcher has referred to the works of McBride and Maitland (2002), Cherniss and Goleman (2001) and Sterrett (2000).

McBride and Maitland (2002:11) maintain that EI comprises three types of intelligence:

- *Abstract intelligence –* the type of intelligence that is judged in traditional IQ tests. The ability to think things through in our minds, using the cognitive abilities – to calculate, to rationalise, to evaluate.
- *Concrete intelligence –* the ability to perform concrete tasks that require physical skills. Skilled sportsmen or craft workers would be examples of people with concrete intelligence.
- *Social intelligence –* the ability to empathise with others and to communicate effectively.

Bar-On and Parker (2000:384) refer to *social intelligence* as the ability to show respect and have consideration for others, being loyal towards people and the goals of the organisation, co-operating and accepting responsibility for the success or failure of the organisation.

Because EI is concerned with people, two major dimensions play a very important role, *viz.* that of the s*elf* and the s*ocial*. Thus, according to Sterrett (2000:5), "The high-EI person must have knowledge and a positive attitude, and behave skilfully in the self and social dimensions". Sterrett (2000:5-6) breaks EI into six areas and defines them as follows:

Self dimension of EI

Our EI comes, in part, from our understanding and acceptance of ourselves in three areas:

- Knowledge = Self-Awareness:

Accurately knowing our own feelings, preferences, goals and values; sensing how others feel about us and using that information to guide our behaviour.

- Attitude = Self-Confidence:

A "can-do" attitude, a belief in ourselves; overcoming self-doubt and taking reasonable risk; being assertive and not aggressive; being goal-directed; admitting mistakes and moving on.

- Behaviour = Self-Control:

Dealing well with stress; controlling emotional moods or outbursts without over control; being adaptable; balancing rational and emotional considerations.

Social dimension of EI

The other three facets of EI have to do with the experience and interactions with others – our social relationships:

- Knowledge = Empathy:

Easily reading and understanding others; having empathy; listening well; reading non-verbal cues.

- Attitude = Motivation:

Taking initiative; having a positive outlook; being creative; inspiring others; doing things we believe in and are committed to.

- Behaviour = Social Competency:

Finding common ground to establish rapport and minimise conflict; persuading and influencing others; being likeable and having positive relationships; having integrity.

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These six facets of EI overlap, i.e. The s*elf* and the s*ocial* dimensions intermingle, as is illustrated in the diagram that follows:

FIGURE 5:   K-A-B Model of Emotional Intelligence

Attitude
(Self-Confidence)
SELF DIMENSION

Knowledge
(Self-Awareness)

Behaviour
(Self-Control)

Behaviour
(Social competency)

Knowledge
(Empathy)

SOCIAL DIMENSION

Attitude
(Motivation)
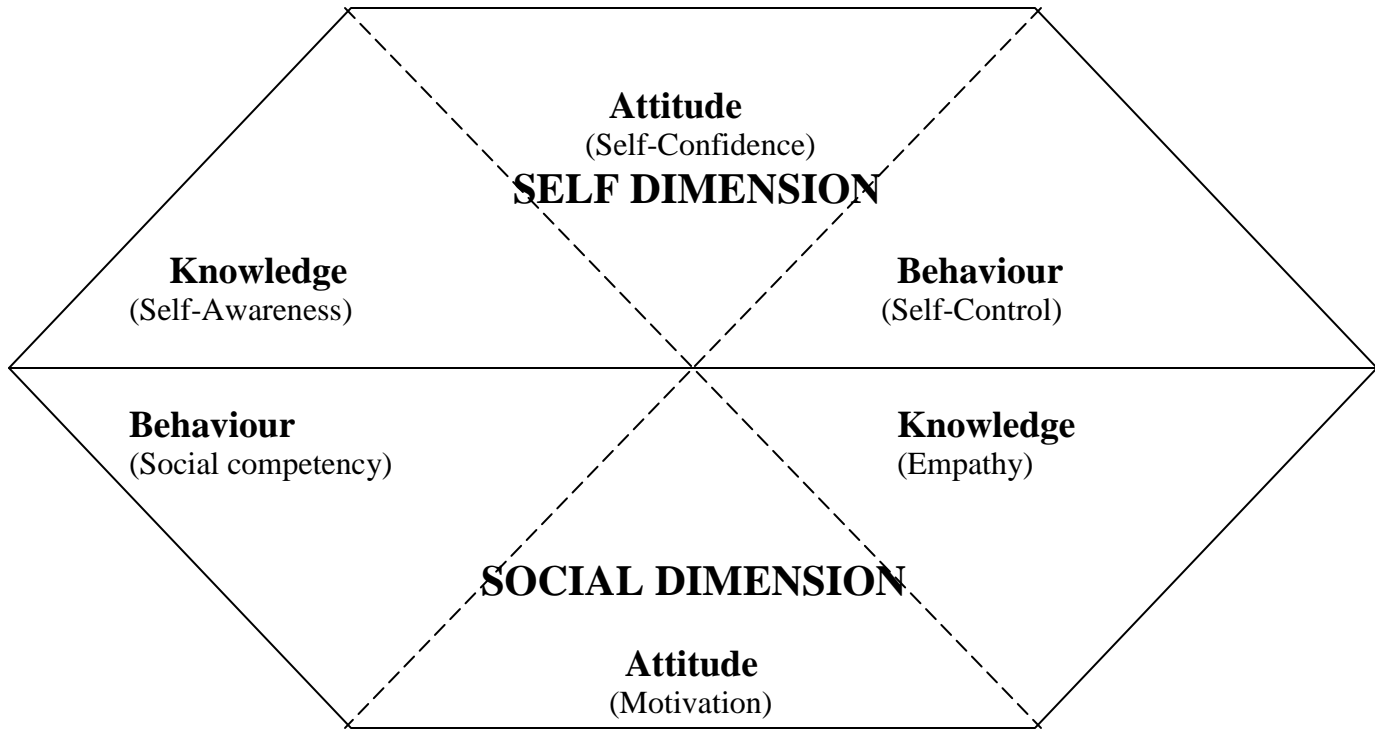
(Sterrett, 2000:7)

According to Sterrett (2000:8-9), the emotional and rational aspects of our lives are inextricably interwoven and can therefore not be viewed in isolation. With this in mind, emotions in the workplace should not be seen as problematic, since the correct emotions increase productivity and harmonious relationships (Sterrett, 2000:9). EI is thus required to manage these emotions and rational thinking processes.

Managers in schools, who deal with ever- increasing changes, such as changes in the curriculum, changes in the methods of teaching and functioning as an organisation, need to be adept in all of these domains. As a result of the many committees they

belong to, that are expected to function as teams, and being required to work with people with diverse personalities in order to be successful, they need to be adept in all of these domains. This is not unattainable, as long as they remain aware of their own strengths and weaknesses; they can therefore build on those domains in which they are inept so as to become adept at handling any of the previously mentioned domains. EQ should also be seen as is a prerequisite for creating an organisational mission statement, because getting involved in such a task implies that one has to have "time, patience, involvement, skill and empathy" (Covey, 2004:143), which are all characteristics of EQ, as defined in Sterrett's model.

Cherniss and Goleman seem inclined towards the idea that EI comprises *four clusters* in which there is a total of twenty competencies. Cherniss and Goleman (2001:28) present the EI framework as follows:

FIGURE 6: Framework of Emotional Competencies

	Self (Personal Competence)	**Other (Social Competence)**
Recognition	**Self-awareness** Emotional self-awareness Accurate self-assessment Self confidence	**Social-awareness** Empathy Service orientation Organisational awareness
Regulation	**Self-management** Emotional self-control Trustworthiness Adaptability Achievement drive Initiative	**Relationship-management** Developing others Influence Conflict management Visionary leadership Catalysing change Building bonds Teamwork and collaboration

(Source: Cherniss & Goleman, 2001:28)

According to this framework, there are twenty competencies in the four clusters of EI. These are:

1. **Self-awareness:** This implies being aware of your own emotions and their significance; knowing your strengths and weaknesses and possessing confidence in yourself and your abilities.

2. **Self-management:** Being able to control your emotions; being honest and trustworthy; as well as being flexible and dedicated.

3. **Social awareness:** This implies being empathetic, being able to understand the points of view of others; being aware of and sensing a group's dynamics and inter-relationships; and focusing on the needs of others in the group.

4. **Relationship management:** This involves providing assistance to others so that they may help themselves; providing effective leadership; having influencing skills; having excellent interpersonal communication and change management skills; possessing the ability to resolve arguments and discord; having the ability to nourish and build good relationships; and possessing team-player skills.

4.4   QUALITIES OF AN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT PERSON

Goleman seems inclined towards the idea that an emotionally intelligent person will have both interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. Goleman (2004:118) refers to four essential components of interpersonal intelligence. These are organising groups; negotiating solutions; personal connections; and social analysis. Organising groups is an important leadership skill, as leaders are expected to initiate and co-ordinate the efforts of a network of people. Since a number of people are involved in groups, there will always be the need to negotiate solutions in order to prevent or resolve conflict and motivate for consensus. Furthermore, since groups work together, one needs to be aware of the feelings and concerns of others. Goleman (2004:118) alludes to this as "the art of relationships". Thus, an emotionally intelligent person would be able to work

effectively with other team members towards the achievement of common goals agreed upon by the team.

McBride and Maitland (2002:10) express the conviction that emotionally intelligent people are in touch with their emotions and able to control their emotions sufficiently to have the best possible communication with others. They are able to express their emotions appropriately; deal with conflict appropriately; set good "boundaries"; have integrity, are trusted by others; and are flexible in their approach to life and other people. Furthermore, they cope with change effectively; feel confident; have a realistic awareness of their strengths and weaknesses; give constructive feedback to others; accept feedback appropriately; and learn from their mistakes.

Dann (2008:18) is of the opinion that an emotionally intelligent manager will have the following characteristics:

- Is aware of himself/herself, is motivated and perceives others justly;
- Will manage emotions in order to create winning solutions;
- Is "emotionally literate", i.e. will be able to recognise, identify and understand different emotions;
- Prepares for working together with others by looking at the people, the task, the emotional processes involved and the goal so that help can be offered when anticipating reactions to the task;
- Thinks positively and does not quit any given task;
- Is flexible;
- Has good social skills and is able to balance work and life;
- Tries to provide solutions and is resilient;
- Is committed to personal development;
- Inspires others.

Emotionally intelligent persons will be able to perceive, assess and manage their own emotions and that of others/groups. They will be able to make informed decisions,

based on their ability to manage their emotions with intelligence. Essentially, they should possess the following components of EI:

- Self-awareness – the ability to be aware of your feelings at any given time.
- Emotional literacy – being able to identify emotions within yourself and that of others.
- Empathy and compassion – the ability to interpret and understand the feelings/emotions of others.
- Balance – the ability to make informed decisions using a balance of emotions and rational thought processes.
- Responsibility – being able to take responsibility for one's own emotions and being accountable (Dann, 2008:30).

Armstrong (2008:27) sums an emotionally intelligent person up as someone that is very aware of and understands his/her strengths and weaknesses and who knows that it is more productive to manage and control emotions than to be controlled by them.

4.5 ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN MANAGEMENT

Goleman (1996:4) believes that to ignore the power of emotions as an important part of human nature would be shortsighted. The very term used to define humans, namely *homo sapiens*, the thinking species, is no longer a true reflection of what differentiates successful humans from less successful ones. Goleman (1996:4) maintains that decision-making and our very actions are all directly determined by our feelings rather than by our thoughts. Emotions guide us to make decisions in various situations.

Since women seem to feel more free in expressing their emotions in general, it should not be taken for granted that they are therefore better at understanding and empathising with others than their male counterparts. According to Goleman (1996:7), studies have revealed that there are *NO* gender differences when it comes to total EI, because some men display empathy as the most interpersonally sensitive women do, whilst some

women are able to withstand stress as the most emotionally adept men do. However, because males and females have been socialised into particular methods of conforming, their behaviour in certain situations will vary. Although no difference between men and women on *total* EI was found in Reuven Bar-On's study, women scored higher on all three *interpersonal* abilities (empathy, interpersonal relationships and social responsibility (Orme, 2001:17). Men, according to Orme (2001:17), scored higher on *intrapersonal* aspects (self-actualisation and assertiveness), *stress management* (stress tolerance and impulse control) and *adaptability* (reality-testing and problem-solving). McBride and Maitland (2002:3) concur that as a result of constant changes in our world, people no longer feel that emotions should not be displayed. In order to make positive contributions to any organisation, one should be in a position to identify and recognise where one's responses are coming from in order to make an informed decision that is not based on emotions only. Steiner and Perry (1999:20) maintain that in our modern society, power is generally considered to be a means of control. In other words, those people who can control people and/or money are seen as powerful. Thus, powerful people are visualised as captains or politicians but rarely as "women" (Steiner & Perry, 1999:3). However, Steiner maintains that emotionally literate people are powerful and empowered, since they have learnt how to make emotions work for them. Therefore, you do not have to be a captain or a politician in order to be powerful. Steiner and Perry (1999:11) contend that emotional literacy is made up of three abilities, *viz.* "the ability to understand your emotions, the ability to listen to others and empathise with their emotions and the ability to express emotions productively". Although Steiner and Perry (1999:11) have mentioned only three abilities, these can be identified in Sterrett's K-A-B Model (2000:7), which consists of both the *self* and *social* dimensions of EI.

Associated with superior performances in the workplace are emotional or social competencies such as self-confidence, flexibility, persistence, empathy and the ability to get along with others (Bar-On & Parker, 2000:435). People with EI are associated with qualities such as adaptability in crisis situations, self-management, confidence,

motivation, goal driven, involvement in teams, conflict management skills and also negotiating and decision-making skills (Bar-On & Parker, 2000:434).

According to Kelly (2004:27), being in possession of a high IQ is not enough to turn a shy person into a prominent and successful businessman. Intelligence is vital, but, as people are discovering internationally, it is EI that separates the CEOs from the clerks. EQ, as EI is also known, is the concept of understanding one's emotions and being able to use them constructively.

The business world and schools share a common ground: they both deal with people. People have emotions. Since feelings provide a basis for decision-making, according to McBride and Maitland (2002:2), it is the emotional aspect of people that needs to be developed or honed. This seems to be the answer, the key to better organisations.

Goleman (1996:3) maintains that organisations are changing. The focus in effective organisations is no longer on how smart the people are, or how much training and expertise they have, the emphasis has been moved to how well the people handle themselves and each other. In other words, when applying for a job, the interviews will assume that you have the necessary knowledge and the technical know-how, and will focus on your personal qualities, such as the ability to display initiative, empathy, adaptability and persuasiveness (Goleman, 1996:3).

A good leader should also be able to do a "social analysis" (Goleman, 1996:118). This implies being aware of others in the group, their moods, how they feel, their concerns and the motives for their actions. Having this insight places the leader in a better position to provide the necessary support and praise. If teachers were more sensitive to each other's feelings, reactions, moods and concerns, they would most probably be able to communicate more effectively and to lead, initiate and organise group activities more effectively.

Since there is a need to be accountable and work with people, there is a need to influence them in a positive way. This entails learning how to effectively manage the emotions of other people. Since we are working with people, communication is involved. In order to get a message across, the moods, feelings, concerns and beliefs of the people involved, in whatever mode of communication is taking place, will influence the final interpretations and, with that, the final decisions taken.

Goleman (2004:165) contends that being emotionally adept facilitates constructive interaction. Knowledge of and insight into the moods of the people with whom we interact could therefore have immense benefits for various contracts/meetings and subsequently determine the atmosphere and modus operandi prevalent in schools as organisations. Sterrett (2000:5) supports this argument, by identifying EI as a prerequisite for success.

Whilst continuous educational training is taking place in various provinces, most training programmes are academically inclined, i.e. embracing a model to promote academic excellence (Goleman, 2004:6). Therefore, they are not focusing on developing human assets, by developing EI in the various stakeholders, which would lead to the improvement of schools. EI could also help with six core challenges identified in management and leadership. These are, according to Caruso and Salovey (2004:196), building effective teams; planning and making decisions effectively; motivating people; to communicate a vision; promoting change; and creating effective interpersonal relationships.

Studies have established that stress and negative emotions tend to weaken the immune system (Goleman, 2004:168). People who experience prolonged periods of anxiety, sadness or pessimism are more vulnerable to disease (Goleman, 2004:169). Positive emotions, on the other hand, are beneficial and could even speed up the process of medical recovery (Goleman, 2004:177).

An interesting contribution on the powerful influence of emotions in a normal group setting was made by Caruso and Salovey (2004:8). If the leader was happy, creative and original contributions were generated. According to Caruso and Salovey (2004:8), emotional "contagion" has a powerful effect on a group. If one considers the bigger picture, it will ultimately effect the functioning of the organisation, since a leader's mood affects how others respond.

4.6   ADVANTAGES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Orme (2001:16), Emotional Intelligence (EI) can be learned or even developed. This is an important deduction, as it implies that anyone can become emotionally intelligent and therefore become more effective in relationships and organisations. Although we are all different, emotional intelligence reduces conflict and misunderstanding, since emotionally intelligent people are able to understand, interpret and manage their own emotions and the emotions of others and therefore act in an appropriate manner (Orme, 2001:17).

EI helps one cope with one's environment by making one aware of the emotional aspects of what is happening and by assisting one in solving problems and being realistic (Orme, 2001:18). Another advantage of EI is the ability to use thought and feelings to make an informed decision (Orme, 2001:18). People with EI are comfortable with themselves and others and enjoy close relationships. They also tend to stay healthy because of their positive emotions, states Orme (2001:18). As established in the research and studies conducted by Bar-On, Mayer and Caruso and Salovey (Orme, 2001:19), EI holds benefits for business ventures, relationships and health. People who develop in the area of EI and interpersonal skills and believe in their own intuition, will also have more control over their own lives, obtain peace in the workplace and a sense of successful self-management (Von Krosigk, 2006:30).

McBride and Maitland (2002:12-14) maintain that EI has many advantages. These are as follows:

4.6.1 Improved relationships

The ability to empathise, to keep calm in the face of another person's needs and wants and to be flexible enough to sustain a relationship, prevents things from going wrong, because it promotes sound relationships (Fullan, 2004:93-96; McBride & Maitland, 2002:12).

EI is therefore of utmost importance in any relationship, be it with a friend, colleague or spouse. At school, one is constantly dealing with people and it is therefore important to develop the self and social skills, in order to ensure the effective functioning of the school.

4.6.2 Improved communication with others

It is important to hone and develop the EI of people in organisations. When we use EI, our communication processes improve, because we apply skills and strategies that promote effective communication (Fink, 2005:47-49; McBride & Maitland, 2002:12). Managers would like to get the best out of their people; thus, how they communicate with others will have to be improved upon in order to get their employees to contribute to team/individual work, which would enhance the organisation's performance.

4.6.3 Better empathy skills

Empathy is an integral skill in communication. One needs to be able to understand how the other person feels in order to have a close relationship with the person or to influence him/her. It is also by literally walking in the other person's shoes that one can better understand the concerns, moods and motives behind his/her actions (McBride & Maitland, 2002:12). Armstrong (2008:28) maintains that empathy, a component of EI, is an important component of effective organisations. People need to be treated according to their emotional reactions. This necessitates the need for managers/leaders to

understand the emotional background of those we interact with and be empathetic when dealing with them.

4.6.4   Acting with integrity

Another integral skill is the ability to act with integrity. According to McBride and Maitland (2002:13), it means "being integrated; behaving in a way that is consistent with our core beliefs; being true to ourselves and honest with others".

4.6.5   Respect from others

Having the ability to act with EI and integrity will earn the trust and respect of others, since they know that one is empathetic, honest and transparent in the manner in which one conducts oneself and in important matters (McBride & Maitland, 2002:13). Herbst (2007:87) concurs that an emotional attachment occurs between certain leaders and their followers so that the followers tend to identify with the leaders and will go beyond the call of duty to achieve the mission of the organisation. This nature of "connectedness" could also be attributed to the leader's trustworthiness (Herbst, 2007:87).

4.6.6   Improved career prospects

EI is an important skill to have; people can be trained to perform various tasks or technical skills, but it will be time consuming to train them to acquire EI. At interviews the interviewers will establish whether the applicant possess good communication skills; the ability to work as part of a team; and is creative, flexible and able to work independently and proactively (Fink, 2005:108-109; McBride & Maitland, 2002:13). These are all indications as to whether the candidate is emotionally adept, as these are traits of a good leader.

4.6.7 Manage change more confidently

People with EI generally feel confident about change and will bend and adapt their approaches or plans to embrace change (Fullan, 2004:99; McBride & Maitland, 2002:13). With so many changes currently happening at South African schools, there is a definite need to have people who are willing to embrace the changes called for by the DoE, be it in the curriculum, examinations, personnel, the status of the school, more parental involvement or the IQMS, which is a PMS, in terms of which teachers are being appraised and held accountable for their tasks.

4.6.8 Fewer power games at work and at home

Blaming others because of one's lack of success in a given area and the propensity to seek advice but failure to take the advice are examples of "power games". These games are played by people who avoid responsibility. According to McBride and Maitland (2002:14), people with EI are responsible and bear the consequences of their actions.

4.6.9 Feeling confident, positive and at peace with oneself

McBride and Maitland (2002:14) maintain that being emotionally intelligent increases one's confidence, allows one to be at peace with oneself and adopt a positive view of life, as EQ promotes the development of the personality and equips one with skills that enable one to react appropriately in various situations.

This is important in the school environment, because teachers or members of the management team are confronted with numerous matters and have to deal with various stakeholders. They need to deal confidently and positively with people and resolve issues. With the numerous changes happening in schools, they have to manage these changes confidently. EI equips them with the skills to do so.

4.6.10   Reduced stress levels

Being part of the management team means that one has to constantly prioritise and review situations, bearing in mind the mission and vision of the school.   Being emotionally intelligent will not totally eliminate stress; however, it will assist you in prioritising, enable you to view situations from both a subjective as well as an objective stance and equip you with a wide range of coping skills (Fullan 2004:96; McBride & Maitland, 2002:15).

4.6.11   Increased creativity

EI promotes creativity. This concept, according to Fullan (2004:96) and McBride and Maitland (2002:15), is the ability to view situations from different angles and consider various solutions. Curriculum changes and changes in the status of schools call for new ways of management in order to adapt to the challenges that these changes bring with them.

4.6.12   Learning from mistakes

Being emotionally intelligent enables one to learn from one's mistakes, because one begins to reflect on one's experiences, understand what happened and then plan for the next time (McBride & Maitland, 2002:15).   This cyclic learning is also required in schools, since the stakeholders need to reflect on their interaction with other stakeholders, the decisions they make, their development plans as well as the day-to-day functioning of the school, because it is only through reflecting that they can establish how far they have progressed, or what needs to be done in order to get to where they planned to be.

According to Dann (2008:83), there are many reasons that make EI vital in any organisation. They are as follows:

- As a result of globalisation, there has been an increase in competitive behaviour in order to keep abreast of technological advances. This implies that there is a need for creativity and flexibility, which are traits of EI.
- Bureaucracy and hierarchy have decreased, resulting in flatter structures requiring self and relationship management.
- As a result of the increase in teamwork, there has been an increased demand for relationship management, to assist collegial and collaborative approaches.
- Since people readily leave one organisation for another and take with them knowledge of the modus operandi of their previous employer, it has become essential to invest in them by empowering them through development programmes that are personally as well as technically orientated.
- Everyone is responsible and accountable for the performance of the organisation and this means that everyone must be emotionally intelligent and possess strong interpersonal skills in order to network with others for the improvement of the organisation.
- Organisations are flatter by design, which calls for self-management techniques.

These reasons make EI vital; a sought-after commodity that has to be seriously considered as it is the only domain that can be developed in order to make an impact on all in the organisation and ultimately enhance its success.

Whilst it is believed that emotions are problematic in any organisation, Sterrett (2000:9) maintains that the correct emotions promote productivity and harmony in relationships. The question which arises is if it requires EI to know how to manage these relationships in order to positively influence the performance and functioning of the school as an organisation.

4.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the concept EI was clearly defined and models/frameworks were used to expand on the definitions. Whilst most definitions refer to the development of skills that enable people to engage in relationships more effectively, it is important to realise the effect that EI has on those working in organisations. EI is made up of intrapersonal skills that are about the self: self-awareness, self-confidence and self-control. It is also made up of interpersonal skills, which relate to our ability to successful communicate with others: empathy, motivation and social competency. This chapter highlighted the advantages of EI as leading to improved communication and relationships, since it focuses on empathy skills, acting with integrity, respect, confidence and responsibility and being positive and at peace with oneself. Emotionally intelligent people are very creative, manage change more confidently, learn from their mistakes and subsequently have lower stress levels.

In discussing the qualities of an emotionally intelligent person, it has become evident that emotionally intelligent people have more satisfying results in their personal lives and, more importantly, in their workplace. We have also learned in this chapter that EI can be learned or even developed.

The subsequent chapter outlines the research paradigm.

CHAPTER FIVE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the research paradigm that will assist in understanding and interpreting events and different forms of behaviour with regard to the establishment of SMSs. The data collection strategies selected, will have to be compatible with the research approach and should provide the researcher with the optimal data required to facilitate the answering of the problem to be investigated in this study, which is:

The influence of emotional intelligence (EI) on the efficacy of change management strategies (CMSs) in establishing self-managing schools (SMSs).

In order to investigate the influence of EI on the efficacy of CMSs in the establishment of SMSs, this study will focus on the following sub-problems, namely:

- To define SMSs and identify their basic essential features within the context of educational settings.
- To determine the CMSs that are needed for the establishment of SMSs.
- To ascertain the extent to which EI influences the efficacy of SMSs.

The **Primary Research Question** is therefore:

Does emotional intelligence (EI) influence the efficacy of change management strategies (CMSs) in establishing self-managing schools (SMSs)?

The following **Secondary Research Questions** will direct the research:

- What do SMSs stand for?
- Which CMSs are required for establishing effective SMSs?

- To what extent does EI influence the establishment of effective SMSs?

The objectives of this study will therefore be to:

- Define SMSs and identify their basic features within the context of educational settings.
- Ascertain the CMSs required for establishing SMSs.
- Determine the extent to which EI influences the establishment of effective SMSs.

This chapter provides an in-depth description of the research approach and the design used in this study. It also presents the data collection strategies, data analysis and interpretation procedures, limitations, assumptions and delimitations of the study.

5.2   RESEARCH APPROACH

Two main research approaches may be adopted, *viz. quantitative research* and *qualitative research.* Schwandt (2001:214) states that the term *qualitative* refers to a quality, a characteristic of an object, action or experience, whilst *quantitative* indicates that something can be expressed in terms of a numerical status or quantity. Henning (2004:3), however, contends that the difference between *quantitative* and *qualitative* research lies predominantly in the search for understanding an in-depth inquiry. *Qualitative* research aims for depth (Henning, 2004:3), while *qualitative* research methods are based on a different belief system.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001:15) draw a distinction between *qualitative* and *quantitative* research, based on two levels. On the one level, research is concerned with obtaining a greater understanding of the world, as well as the purpose of the research. The next level is concerned with the research methods involved, how the data is collected and analysed and the type of generalisations and representations that are derived from the collected data.

In order to distinguish between qualitative and quantitative research and use the two levels as described by McMillan and Schumacher (2001:15), the researcher has made reference to the following aspects of relevance to the investigation, namely the *assumptions about the world, purpose of the research, the research method and processes, prototypical studies, the role of the researcher* and *the context of the study*, as distinguished in the table below.

TABLE 1: Comparison between Qualitative and Quantitative Research Approach

	ORIENTATION	QUALITATIVE	QUANTITATIVE
1.	Assumptions about the world	Multiple realities exist which are time and context bound, e.g. interviews with principals.	A single reality, which is acted upon by other influences, is measured by an instrument.
2.	Research purpose	Understanding an event or social situation from the respondent's perspective.	Relationships are established between measured variables.
3.	Research methods and process	Strategies are flexible; the design develops as the data is collected. The collection of non-numerical data.	The procedures are decided/planned prior to the commencement of the study. Statistical result represented with numbers.
4.	Prototypical studies	Ethnography using "disciplined subjectivity".	Experimental design to reduce error and bias.
5.	Role of the researcher	Involved, planned person in the social situation.	Researcher does not have contact, is detached by the use of the instrument.
6.	Context of the study	Detailed goal and context bound generalisations.	Goal is universal and the generalisations are context-free.

Gay & Airasian (2003); McMillan & Schumacher (2001); Bless & Higson-Smith (2000); Mertens (1998).

There are therefore two ways to go about conducting research. The researcher can work from the data of specific cases and reach a general conclusion, which is referred

to as inductive research; or start with a general statement and, after logical, legitimate reasoning, reach a specific conclusion. The latter is commonly referred to as deductive research (Gay & Airasian, 2003:4; Schwandt, 2001:125-126). Gay and Airasian (2003:4) state that when research is based on the development of specific predictions, based on general principles, observations or experiences, it involves deductive reasoning, which is a characteristic of *quantitative research*. The researcher examined both approaches in order to select the approach that best answers the research questions in this study.

Quantitative research can be summarised as follows: In quantitative studies, the settings are controlled and selected samples are used. The aim of the research is to produce a quantitative description and the research strategy is deductive. Quantitative studies are in essence nomothetic by nature (nomothetic studies generalise their findings to larger populations and other settings) (Babbie & Mouton, 2009:273). McMillan and Schumacher (2001:11) summarise quantitative research as using clear, precise descriptions of data collection and analysis procedures. There is precision regarding measurement and statistics, and the results of the research can be replicated by others. Numerical data is used and, through a process of logical reasoning, which is deductive in nature, conclusions are reached that are statements of statistical probability.

In this study, the researcher is interested in a contextual understanding of events and specifically in determining the influence of emotional intelligence on CMSs that have arisen as a result of schools becoming self-managing entities. This means that the researcher is working with idiographic research strategies (Babbie & Mouton, 2009:272), because the researcher is interested in understanding schools within their own contexts.

Since there was a need to understand the research problem from the respondents' perspective, as they were interacting in the environment and ascribing meanings to the environment and the researcher was an instrument in the data collection and analysis

process, the qualitative research approach was selected. The rationale for the selection of this approach is discussed below.

5.2.1   Qualitative research

5.2.1.1   Assumptions about the world

Johnson and Christensen (2008:35) as well as Mertens (1998:161) state that if the researcher believes that multiple realities exist that are time and context bound, then he/she will prefer to use the qualitative research approach, so that an understanding of the constructions of a situation or phenomenon held by people in that context can be obtained. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:15) concur that, in qualitative research, a reality is constructed by both individual as well as collective views and perceptions of the same situation. This implies that in qualitative research, one is led to understand a situation, based on the varied feelings and beliefs of those within the situation.

5.2.1.2   Purpose of research

The nature of the research question, which requires the need for detailed, in-depth information about specific people or a specific phenomenon, prompted the researcher to resort to the use of a qualitative research approach (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:393; Mertens, 1998:161-162). Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:38), state that certain research topics require the researcher to use words and sentences (language) to record the respondents' responses and provide a more sensitive perspective of the respondents' understanding of events, actions or happenings. This would involve a research method that is *qualitative* in nature.

According to Johnson and Christensen (2008:34-35) and Bryman and Burgess (1999:36), a qualitative research approach is a means to explore the respondents' interpretations of the situation or phenomenon. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:15-16) concur that the researcher, in qualitative research, is primarily concerned with the

understanding of a social phenomenon from the perspectives of the various respondents.

5.2.1.3   Research methods and process

The data in qualitative research is both rich and deep, because it is the perspectives of those interacting and directly involved in the real situation (Punch, 2009:170; Bryman & Burgess, 1999:36).   Whilst Gay and Airasian (2003:20) maintain that *qualitative* research methods involve collecting and analysing non-numerical data, which is obtained *via* observations, interviews, documents or tape recordings, McMillan and Schumacher (2001:16) state that there is considerable flexibility in both the strategies and the research process followed in qualitative studies.   Thus, the design evolves during the study and this allows the researcher greater freedom to revise decisions, for example about data collection strategies, should the need arise, whilst the research is in progress.

The qualitative researcher works with a small sample size, because the focus is on information-rich cases and the analytical capabilities of the researcher, not on the sample size (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:404).   In the last phase of the research process, in which the researcher has to analyse the data, the researcher, using a qualitative approach, provides a narrative description and interpretation of the findings of the research.   McMillan and Schumacher (2001:11) describe qualitative research as using clear descriptions of data collection and analysis procedures and using a detailed description of phenomenon.   The results of qualitative research lead to an increase in the understanding of an event or action by others.   Qualitative research relies heavily on sources and evidence to make a summary, *via* inductive reasoning.   The results are in the form of interpretations or narratives.   Gay and Airasian (2003:9) agree that instead of a statistical analysis of results, *qualitative* researchers present an interpretation of the analysed data. This is achieved by synthesising the received data, placing it into categories, and then organising the data into patterns so that a descriptive, narrative synthesis is produced.

In this study, the researcher included a graphic presentation of the data as it is visually effective and enhances interpretation.

5.2.1.4 Prototypical studies

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:16), the prototypical qualitative study of ongoing events is an ethnography that basically provides the reader with an understanding of the situation by being exposed to the different perspectives of the persons studied.

5.2.1.5 Role of researcher

In qualitative studies, the researcher is totally involved in the situation and the phenomenon being studied, as observations or the interview is being recorded with the respondents in the social situation. Although the researcher, in this study, used questionnaires as the research instrument, the researcher decided, based on the information from documentation as well as the literature review, what questions to ask and, as Henning (2004:7) in conjunction with Mertens (1998:175) state, the researcher is the instrument for data collection in qualitative research, as the researcher decides which questions to ask. Anderson (2004:134), Henning (2004:7) and Mertens (1998:317) subsequently add that the researcher is the instrument that collects the data by observing, interviewing, and examining records and documents in the research setting. The focus in qualitative studies is then placed on the data collected by skilled individuals, not on the actual instruments. It is important to note at this stage that the emphasis in qualitative research is not so much on the data collection strategies or tools, but on the involvement of the researcher. Punch (2009:117) as well as Bryman and Burgess (1999:37) maintain that there is also a great deal of interaction between the researcher and the respondents in qualitative research, because the researcher needs to perceive and understand the world as the respondent does. The researcher should therefore foster close relationships with the respondents, as this will also facilitate an insider approach to the research at hand (Punch, 2009:117; Bryman &

Burgess, 1999:36). McMillan and Schumacher (2001) also refer to the importance of interaction between the researcher and the respondents in order to gain insight into the research at hand, since the researcher has to establish a *rapport* with the respondents and win their trust in order to get them to complete the questionnaires or conduct the research. Anderson (2004:134) together with McMillan and Schumacher (2001:16) state that qualitative research is noted for disciplined subjectivity and reflexivity, which alludes to the critical self-examination of the role of the researcher during the entire research process. It should also be noted here that because of the focus on the human component, qualitative research takes into account subjectivity in data analysis and interpretation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:16). Henning (2004:6) also alludes to the important role played by the researcher in qualitative research, by referring to the researcher as the analytical instrument in the study. This is so, because the researcher had to use her knowledge, understanding and expertise to determine what was going to happen to the data collected.

5.2.1.6   Context of study

Yin (2003:1-2) as well as Mertens (1998:317) maintain that qualitative observation occurs in naturalistic settings, because the researcher is interested in observing the behaviour of people as they naturally occur in terms that appear to be meaningful to the people involved. Babbie and Mouton (2009:273) agree that qualitative research is carried out in natural settings, since the research aims at producing thick descriptions and an interpretive understanding of the research problem. They also believe that the research strategy used to arrive at an answer is inductive by nature and that the researcher is concerned with the content of the real event. Gay and Airasian (2003:9) agree that meaning is within a certain context or in a particular perspective and that as different people and groups have different perspectives and contexts, there are therefore different meanings in the world. In qualitative studies, the scientific thoughts are thus idiographic/contextualising, because the researcher is interested in understanding the particular event or action within its own context. Anderson (2004:119) and McMillan and Schumacher (2001:15) maintain that *qualitative* research

is conducted in settings in which the phenomenon is naturally occurring and the participants are freely interacting. The researcher can capture this natural development of action and the respondents' perspectives via the respondents' responses. This is possible because the researcher becomes involved in the participants' lives, although for a short space of time, during the meeting and the issuing and collection of questionnaires. The qualitative researcher believes that the actions of humans are strongly influenced by the context/settings in which they occur (Anderson, 2004:119-120; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:16). This leads us to believe that in order to understand the behaviour of individuals, their thoughts, feelings and actions must be understood within the given situation. This context or situation is observed and noted by the researcher whilst meeting with the respondents and issuing and collecting the questionnaires. The results or generalisations made in qualitative research are therefore context-bound. It is interesting at this point to note that the researcher used inductive reasoning to draw conclusions, based on her observations of particular individuals, situations or events. These conclusions were, however, as indicated by Pring (2004:40) and McMillan and Schumacher (2001:13), limited to the particular cases that were observed. Anderson (2004:119) as well as Gay and Airasian (2003:4) also believe that qualitative research entails a context-bound generalisation, after having made observations about a certain experience or event. These authors also refer to the process of inductive reasoning.

The distinction between the *qualitative* and *quantitative* research paradigms has been presented in order to justify the researcher's choice of a particular research approach. Since the researcher needs to *understand* the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs and provide insights into the way people feel about changes at school, it would be more suitable to use a *qualitative* research method in this study.

5.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

There are various definitions of a research design. Whilst some authors refer to "design" as all the decisions made by the researcher in planning the study, other

authors, according to De Vos *et al.* (2005:271), use the term to refer to those groups of small, worked-out formulas from which quantitative orientated researchers select or develop one (or more) that would be suitable for their specific research goal. Quantitative researchers always consult their list of possible designs and choose one from the models available, while qualitative researchers develop their own designs as they proceed, using one or more of the strategies as a tool or guideline (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:175). It is important to note at this stage that terms such as strategies, methods, traditions of enquiry and approaches are related, according to De Vos *et al.* (2005:175). The research design therefore refers to the way in which a study is planned and carried out. It includes when, from whom and how data will be obtained (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:70).

According to De Vos *et al.* (2005:275), case studies are regarded as an exploration or an in-depth analysis of a system that is either bound in time or place, or an in-depth analysis of a single case or multiple cases over a period of time. The case being researched, state De Vos *et al.* (2005:275), could refer to a process, activity, event, programme, or an individual or groups of individuals. It could also refer to a period of time. Scott and Usher (2000:87) maintain that case studies use methods of data collection that attempt to capture the participants, events or actions in their actual settings.

De Vos *et al.* (2005:275) concur that the exploration and the description of the case takes place through detailed, in-depth data collection methods that involve multiple sources of information that are rich in context. Thus, in this study, literature and documents were reviewed and questionnaires were also used as a means of data collection. These will serve as a source of evidence (Gay & Airasian, 2003:21).

The researcher chose the multi-site case study because of the need to focus on activities and developments at different schools over a determined time period. Access to respondents and the need to obtain their confidence were essential to the research but, as De Vos *et al.* (2005:275) state, the product of case study research is an in-depth

description of a case or cases. This was seen as an added advantage for the researcher, since the ultimate criterion for selecting a multi-site case study was that it would provide the researcher with an opportunity to learn and understand what it is that made one site thrive, whilst the other was struggling to stay alive.

The researcher intends to present the findings from the questionnaires conducted at the six participating schools. These schools were selected on the basis that they could contribute to the research, as mentioned in Chapter One and Chapter Five. Through the DoE, the results of the performance of the schools were established and the six schools were chosen accordingly. Two schools with accumulative results of above 85% were selected, and as a matter of interest, one of these schools was an ex-Model C school, whilst the other school was located in the previously disadvantaged Northern Areas of Port Elizabeth. Two other schools were selected on the basis that they had achieved an overall 50% pass rate. The final set of two schools was selected from the underperforming list, where the pass rate ranged between 25 and 30%. It is also important to bear in mind that these were all secondary schools with Section 21 status. Whilst three of the schools were situated in the previously disadvantaged areas of Port Elizabeth, all six schools serviced the needs of previously disadvantaged learners. The three schools located in previously disadvantaged areas were all within walking distance of the homes of learners. Learners from the previously disadvantaged areas were bused on a daily basis to the remaining three schools.

Gaining access to these schools required considerable planning and patience. Firstly, a letter requesting permission to conduct the research had to be submitted to the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. Thereafter, the Education Department in the Port Elizabeth District was given a similar letter, since the researcher needed to conduct research at schools in the Port Elizabeth District. The District Manager requested that the researcher choose schools from all areas, since that would ensure better and more representative findings. This request was discussed with the promoters, who concurred. This meant a change in the original selection of schools, based on their old status as

ex-Xhosa, White, Coloured or Indian. This request led to the selection of schools based on performance, instead of former affiliations.

Letters requesting an appointment with the principals were submitted to the selected schools. The researcher personally met with the principals, after appointments had been made. The research at stake was discussed and the researcher managed to obtain the buy-in of the principals. The researcher and principals subsequently met with staff volunteers and explained the purpose of the research and that they would be required to complete a questionnaire. A timeframe was agreed upon as to when the questionnaires would be collected.   The researcher undertook to collect the questionnaires after two weeks. At the end of the first week, the researcher enquired about the progress made with the completion of questionnaires, and if the respondents had any queries. However, this period unfortunately overlapped with the examination period, which caused a delay in the completion and collection of the questionnaires at all but one school. The researcher realised that although the process had been meticulously planned, certain aspects were out of her control. After making telephone calls or sending text messages to remind the principals of the collection dates, the researcher drove to the schools on the scheduled days, only to be told that the questionnaires were not ready for collection. The researcher realised that others did not necessarily share her enthusiasm, as the research was not of vital importance to them. However, the researcher then tried another tactic, which was to set an alternative date, promising to supply snacks on the day of collection. This met with approval and facilitated the collection process. However, one school had to be re-issued with questionnaires, as the principal had mislaid them. Finally, the questionnaires were collected. Two of the six schools did not return all ten questionnaires. One school returned eight out of the ten questionnaires, whilst another school returned nine of the ten questionnaires. Another very keen and interested school returned all ten questionnaires, as well as the sample the researcher had used to explain the sections/questions. It was decided to omit this eleventh questionnaire from the analysis, as it would not be fair on the other schools and could adversely affect the analysis and interpretation of the results.

The results had to be submitted to the Statistics Department of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University for a quantitative presentation of the findings. Again, appointments had to be made, which consumed a great deal of time. However, the Statistics Department completed its part of the research process and readily and willingly assisted the researcher.

5.3.1 Sampling

According to Thomas (2009:102-104) and Mertens (1998:253), sampling refers to the method used by the researcher to select a certain number of people (or things) from a population. It is imperative that the researcher is very careful and clear about the nature of the research when selecting the sample, because it will influence the quality of the data, as well as the inferences made from the data (Thomas, 2009:104; Mertens, 1998:253).

Thomas (2009:102-104) in conjunction with Mertens (1998:258) refer to three types of sampling strategies, namely probabilistic, non-probabilistic (commonly referred to as purposive or theoretical by qualitative researchers) and convenience sampling. Probability-based sampling includes simple random sampling; systematic sampling; stratified sampling; cluster sampling; and multistage sampling. Purposeful or theoretical sampling includes extreme or deviant cases; intensity sampling; maximum-variation sampling; homogeneous sampling; typical-case sampling; stratified purposeful sampling; snowball sampling; criterion sampling, theory-based or operational construct sampling; confirming and disconfirming cases; opportunistic sampling; purposeful random sampling; and sampling politically important cases. Convenience sampling, the third category of sampling, is often used and implies that the respondents in a study were chosen on the basis of availability.

Based on the premise that researchers working within the interpretive/constructionist paradigm select their samples with the aim in mind of selecting information-rich cases that promote an in-depth study of a case, the researcher chose the purposeful sampling

method for this study. Purposeful sampling implies that the researcher will choose participants that can contribute information-rich data for the research. Therefore, people who were knowledgeable and part of Section 21 schools, which were being investigated, and whose perceptions and insight could possibly shed light on the issues under investigation, were strategically selected. It is also believed that purposeful sampling is conducted to increase the utility of information obtained from small, but information-rich samples (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:401), since the focus is on an in-depth understanding and a detailed explanation of the process and the context within which the phenomenon exists.

Six multi-cultural high schools were purposefully identified in the district of Port Elizabeth. Two of these schools obtained matriculation pass rates of above 85%, two obtained matriculation pass rates of 50% and two of these schools obtained matriculation pass rates of between 25 and 30%. These high schools all obtained Section 21 status, which would contribute to and expand on the phenomenon being studied. These schools were also chosen because they were within close proximity of the researcher, thus facilitating movement to and from the schools, as well as ensuring the accessibility of relevant information.

The participants were three (3) members of the SMT (a principal, a deputy principal and a head of department), five (5) Level One educators and two (2) members of the SGB involved at the selected schools. The researcher endeavoured to find out from the SMT, Level One educators and the SGBs of the six selected schools which CMSs had facilitated transformation and tried to determine the influence of EI in relation to the CMSs. The participants in the research were to be restricted to SMTs, Level One educators and SGBs, because this research was conducted in the field of Management in Education and the selected samples would be knowledgeable and informative concerning the phenomenon the researcher was investigating.

5.3.2   Ethics in qualitative research

Ethics clearance is important in research. De Vos *et al.* (2005:63) define ethics as a set of moral principles that is suggested by an individual or a group of people. These principles are then accepted and become the rules and expectations for behaviour and proper conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. Ethical guidelines form the basis upon which researchers evaluate their own conduct.

De Vos *et al.* (2005:63-73) identify the following as some of the ethical issues that should be considered by any researcher:

5.3.2.1   <u>Harm to experimental subjects and/or respondents</u>

Should a researcher be aware of the possibility of any physical and/or emotional harm that may exist, he/she is ethically expected to change the nature of the research, rather than expose the respondents to this situation. In the current research, no harm to any respondent is expected.

5.3.2.2   <u>Informed consent</u>

De Vos *et al.* (2005:65-66) state that it is expected of a researcher that a full explanation of the total investigation be given in clear and simple language; i.e. the respondents must be aware of the aim of the research, the procedures that will be carried out, whether a tape-recording will be made, if there are any dangers or disadvantages regarding participation, and be reassured regarding the credibility of the researcher. Respondents may then voluntarily participate or decide against participating. In this study, permission was requested for the research to be carried out, from both the DoE as well as the principals of the relevant schools. The principals then held meetings with the staff and the SGBs to brief them about the proposed research. Respondents were

also informed that their input provided during the completion of the questionnaire would be confidential.

5.3.2.3 Deception of subjects and/or respondents

De Vos *et al.* (2005:66-67) firmly state that no form of deception should ever be inflicted upon respondents. All facts should be clearly stated and no information should be withheld. In this study, this was achieved verbally as well as in all correspondence with the DoE and the selected schools. The researcher clearly outlined the aim of the research and the procedures that would be followed.

5.3.2.4 Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality

The violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality refers to the individual's right to decide when, where, to whom and to what extent his/her attitudes, beliefs and behaviour will be revealed. The privacy of the respondents should under no circumstances be violated. In this study, the researcher received written consent from the DoE as well as the respective schools for the investigation to be conducted. The respondents asked to remain anonymous and also requested that a copy of the final document be made available to them.

5.3.2.5 Actions and competence of researchers

De Vos *et al.* (2005:69) maintain that researchers have to make sure that they are competent and appropriately and adequately skilled to conduct the research. From the proposal, the researcher clarified the reasons for the research as well as how the ethical guidelines would be adhered to. The researcher ensured that the entire research project ran its course in an ethically correct manner. The researcher was constantly aware of her ethical responsibilities regarding the composition of the population, the sampling procedure, the methodology selected, and the processing of the data, including the writing of the reports.

5.3.2.6   Debriefing of respondents

After the collection of the questionnaires, the researcher promised the respondents that the findings of the research would be discussed with them. To ensure that ethical considerations were in place, the following procedures were put into effect: A request for permission to conduct the research at departmental institutions was made to the Acting District Manager of the DoE. A second request had to be made when a new director was appointed. Approval to conduct research was also requested from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Research Ethics Committee (Human). The research topic and the possible respondents, the questionnaire and the possible dates for issuing and collecting the questionnaires, as well as the need for confidentiality, were stated in the application forms. The researcher highlighted the fact that the study would be of benefit to the National DoE, as the analysis, interpretation and recommendations made, could lead to an improvement in the performance and functioning of schools.

Once the researcher had obtained approval from the abovementioned Departments, she also obtained permission from the six relevant school principals. This was done telephonically and thereafter followed up by a letter of request to conduct research at the school. An information and informed consent form was also presented to them. Again, the aim of the research, the possible participants, the time frame for the issuing and collection of the questionnaires and the need for confidentiality were discussed with the principals. Once the principals gave permission that the research could be conducted, the researcher arranged for an initial meeting with the school staff and members of the relevant SGBs to explain the research topic and aim, guaranteeing the confidentiality of their responses as well as emphasising the value of their input. The researcher then asked for three volunteers from each SMT (a principal, a deputy principal and a head of department), five Level One educators and also two members of each SGB. Arrangements were made to issue and collect the questionnaires without disturbing the normal functioning of the school. These volunteers were information-rich individuals, because they were part of Section 21 status schools and had all been

subjected to changes, be it as a member of the SMT or as a member of the SGB. The researcher preferred to work with volunteers, as they were generally more eager to participate and their participation would therefore not be reluctantly given later on in the research process. It is also important to note that these volunteers were actually serving as a means of corroborating information. The researcher issued the questionnaires to the three SMT members, the five Level One educators and the two SGB members who volunteered. They were assured that their input would be treated with the greatest of confidentiality. A debriefing session followed after the collection and analysis of the questionnaires.

5.3.3 Data collection instruments and strategies

The researcher used a multi-method approach to data collection. This would promote data variety and enhance the validity of the qualitative research undertaken. A literature review, perusal of documents such as the school's budget, the SASA No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996), the school development plan and policies as well as questionnaires, served as sources and instruments for obtaining the relevant data. Such multiple strategies for the collection of data also allowed for the triangulation of data.

5.3.3.1 Literature review

A literature review, according to Thomas (2009:30) and Gay and Airasian (2003:38), refers to the locating, reviewing, summarising and classifying of references related to the topic under investigation. In this study, referring to literature also served as a guide for the completion of subsequent processes in the research, such as the selection of research instruments and the analysis of data. The literature review is to be found in Chapters Two, Three and Four of this study, in which an overview of SMSs, CMSs and EI was presented. Other literature has continuously been referred to in the research report. Extensive reading was important to the researcher, as it not only provided a guideline for thoughts, but also prompted the researcher to make an attempt at comprehending the influence or the impact of EI. Various older texts were also

consulted in addition to recent ones because of the influential work covered, relevance, value and unique contribution they could add to the research at hand. The literature review thus served as a valuable source of information.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001:13) state that the most important literature is reviewed prior to the research and that literature could serve as a framework that assists the researcher in conveying the discussions or thoughts of other researchers and authors relating to the researcher's field of study. Extensive reading on EI, SMSs and CMSs from different perspectives and as found in other countries was conducted by the researcher. Literature on the different research approaches was also consulted to assist with the actual research process. From the literature, certain trends were identified. There is a need to establish what is going on in schools, what is lacking, and what it is that makes some schools more effective than others.   The dimensions of SMSs, CMSs and EI will be highlighted in an attempt to explain how the data collection instrument was created in order to focus on the gaps in knowledge.

5.3.3.1.1 *Self-managing schools*

Published literature pertaining to SMSs (Fidler & Atton, 2004:19; Thrupp & Willmott, 2003:3) discusses the transition of power in education from local education authorities (LEAs) to schools as an era of devolved management. The power of LEAs over financial matters pertaining to schools and curriculum decisions, as well as their professional influence, has decreased, while parental influence has increased. The various stakeholders at schools, such as the principals, members of staff, parent bodies and learners, now all have a say regarding the school budget and how the funds are to be allocated. Power with regard to fiscal operations, such as the purchasing of furniture, equipment, books and stationery as well as the maintenance of the school grounds and buildings and decisions regarding the kind of curriculum that will be offered at the school, now lies in the hands of the stakeholders of that particular school. Parents can elect to send their children to schools of their choice and can also join

SGBs, thereby acquiring more power and influence concerning the modus operandi at schools.

Lindstrom and Speck (2004:38), as well as Davies and Ellison (1999:24-25), however, see this period of devolution and decentralisation as an age that demands more accountability of schools. They believe that this devolution of power means that certain standards need to be in place. For example, learner performances in Grade Twelve are publicised for the information of the community. When a school reveals an increase in the standard attained by learners, it is acknowledged as being able to provide effective education and becomes a sought-after institution. No school wants to be underachieving or to become one of the Matric Intervention Programme schools, a programme that the Education Department implements when schools are not performing according to the acceptable standards. Learners are thus expected to perform according to certain standards. A performance indicator, known as the IQMS, has been put into place for educators. The IQMS provides principals and management teams with a clear indication as to the knowledge and strengths and weaknesses of the staff. It serves as a measuring tool or yardstick that can be used to gain knowledge of areas in need of improvement or members of staff in need of professional development.

Other literature (Thomson, 2001:1-2; Riley & Louis, 2000:31) has emphasised the immense benefits that SMS status bring. They believe that as more control has been entrusted to such schools, there will be an overall improvement in the teaching and learning situation, as schools can now allocate funds according to their needs. Schools will also be more innovative and entrepreneurial, and more money can be secured through effective savings, fundraising efforts and sponsorships. Furthermore, devolved power could also mean improved decision-making processes that involve the input of the parent component. Accountability could be seen in a positive light, as a means of ensuring a high standard of performance from all stakeholders, since they now need to take responsibility for their actions.

It is important to note at this stage that decentralisation and the devolution of power accompanied by changes in school structures, modus operandi and curriculum

requirements, impact on the performance of learners. To ensure that schools stay abreast of change and have the ability to cope with transformation, certain CMSs need to be in place. Whilst Chapter Two concentrated on SMSs, Chapter Three explored the CMSs needed to ensure the efficacy of SMSs. The key implication is that any significant organisational change warrants an alignment of some sort. Certain strategies need to be put into place to ensure that people within organisations are adequately prepared for and adapt to change.

5.3.3.1.2 *Change management strategies*

The devolution of greater power and authority to schools has increased the managerial responsibilities of the various stakeholders within these schools. This change presents a challenge to the stakeholders, as they generally have not received sufficient training to adapt to the new changes and demands. Research findings suggest that in order to reinforce this need to empower through the devolution of authority, leaders should be able to invest in the development of their most sacred resource, the human asset. Strategies must be implemented to ensure that all stakeholders undergo continuous development. This idea has been promoted by several authors (Herbst, 2007:85; Lindstrom & Speck, 2004:12). Finally, if we apply some of the findings from the literature to effective companies and combine these with the notion that schools should function more and more like companies, then training *is* essential – not only to cope with change, but also to ensure that the roleplayers stay abreast of the ongoing challenges it presents. Grobler (2008:21) states that great organisations train and develop their staff. Staff members are provided with individual coaching and mentoring opportunities so that they can become innovative, team players, technically strong and acquire skills in building relationships with their clients. Once development and training have taken place, these staff members add value to the teams and the organisation at large.

The research literature shows that strategies to bring about effective schools should include planning, organising, learning, assisting, sharing, communicating, working in teams, risk taking, values and interpersonal skills (Larson, 2004:1-2; Lindstrom &

Speck, 2004:8; McKee, 2003:2; Kane, 1998:1). Although it is imperative that educators are academically prepared to cope with changes in the curriculum, it is of equal importance that all the stakeholders are prepared to put into effect strategies to ensure that schools can cope not only with being self-managing entities, but also keep abreast of the problems associated with drugs, teenage pregnancies and HIV and AIDS.

CMSs need to be in place in order to develop effective SMSs. Schools should have a vision. All stakeholders should know what they aim to achieve and how they are going to get there. Having a vision is having a plan; a picture of what is required. Once there is a plan, the need arises to organise and put into place structures, teams and processes that will ensure that the mission of the school becomes a reality. The various roleplayers need to be assisted in achieving the mission. This implies that people – an organisation's greatest asset – need to be trained, developed and empowered in order to adapt to and cope with change.

The roles of the various stakeholders will also need to change, since they will no longer be operating in isolation, but will form part of groups/teams established to accomplish objectives. At times, they could serve on more than one team, but always need to attain their goals as part of a team. Support and assistance should be offered at all times. Rendering assistance necessitates the need for interpersonal skills. Management is no longer simply a name; it evokes actively involved people who are all working towards a common goal. People should therefore receive training in interpersonal skills, because they are making joint decisions and are actively involved in groups. The managerial approach can no longer be from the top downwards; in fact, informed decision-making starts at the bottom. People also need rewards; these do not only promote creativity, but also encourage performance. People need to feel important, as recognition of their potential motivates them to higher levels.

Strategies provide direction and contribute to the success of organisations. While one needs to know what needs to be done in order to attain the desired results, one should also know more about the people involved in the process. Their knowledge, skills, behaviour and attitudes will to a large degree determine the level of success achieved.

Monitoring must also be seen as an essential strategy to assess the performance of the various stakeholders and the needs of the organisation.

The previous section on CMSs highlighted the importance of being focused and having clearly established aims and objectives, support, reward, training, empowerment and evaluation in place. As is evident from the previous chapters, the balance between change and strategies to accommodate change is also important. Consequently, in effective schools, stakeholders (which include the learners, educators, members of the management team as well as members of the SGB (parents)) have been empowered. Similarly, in management, certain skills, values, knowledge and interpersonal skills need to be either developed or honed in order to meet the challenges of transformation.

It is essential that we constantly remind ourselves that the primary objective – the core business – of schooling is concerned with the ability of learners to learn and that the most important indicators of the performance of a school are therefore teaching and learning and ways to improve this. As outlined earlier, management needs to communicate the vision of the school to all stakeholders; consequently, a repertoire of skills is needed in order to work efficiently to bring about effective teaching and learning. Management should therefore be willing to change their mindset by involving *all* stakeholders and empowering *all*, to avoid arresting both their own development and that of their teams/school.

Orme (2001:134) reports that a group of researchers predicted that future leaders would have to meet the following requirements, namely have a knowledge-based technical speciality; have cross-functional and international experience; the ability to lead a project team or be a team member, i.e. portray a collaborative leadership style; display self-management skills, i.e. see learning as a life-long process and are constantly involved in career planning; and possess the traits of flexibility, integrity and trustworthiness. These skills, according to Orme (2001:134), will require some EI. She adds that studies on team leadership have revealed a relationship between a leader's EI and his/her performance. Those team leaders who were high performers, scored well in EI tests. Leaders, according to Orme (2001:138), need to have a clearer

understanding of their own emotions and others' emotions, regulate their own emotions and the emotions of others, and be more competent in using their EI in order to make important decisions.

5.3.3.1.3 *Emotional intelligence*

What is Emotional Intelligence?

EI is often referred to as EQ. Sterrett (2000:2) defines EI as "the array of personal-management and social skills that allows one to succeed in the workplace and life in general". Similarly, Orme (2001:48) states that Bar-On has defined EI as "an array of emotional, personal and social abilities which influences one's overall ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures". She also refers to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso's definition of EI. They define EI as "the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotion accurately and adaptively; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; the ability to access and/generate feelings when they facilitate thought; and the ability to regulate emotions in ways that assist thought" (Orme, 2001:51).

Orme (2001:54) alludes to Pawliw-Fry's definition of EI as the "capacity for effectively recognising and managing our own emotions and those of others". Elias, Arnold and Hussey (2003:4) concur that EQ is a "set of social-emotional skills that enables intellect to turn into action and accomplishment". There are many definitions of EI, but to omit Goleman's definition would be an injustice since he has done extensive research in this field. According to Elias *et al.* (2003:4-5), Goleman's definition of EI includes self-awareness (this refers to the ability to recognise feelings as they appear in real-life situations); management and self-regulation of emotions (this implies being able to cope with strong feelings and not being controlled by them); self-motivation and performance (which means having goals and being able to regulate emotions towards desired outcomes); empathy and perspective taking (which alludes to being able to recognise emotions in others and being able to understand others' point of view); and social skills

(which refers to one's ability to be in and control a wide range of social relationships). All the definitions of EI ultimately imply *being in tune with one's own emotions and those of others, understanding one's own emotions and those of others, and being able to use one's emotions to make sound decisions and take appropriate action.* It is evident from the previous chapter, which examined EI and the various definitions of EI, that the skill of being emotionally intelligent is an important strategy in amplifying the success of an institution. From the literature based on the dimensions of SMSs, CMSs and EI, a number of key features emerged. The researcher used this information to select the research instruments and applied the information in the construction of the instrument.

5.3.3.2   Perusal of relevant documents

Documents are important, as they provide the researcher with background information pertaining to a topic (Punch, 2009:158-159; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:42). In this study, relevant documents provided answers and increased the researcher's understanding of the operational procedures at the selected schools. Each school's budget was used and discussed in order to obtain insight regarding the involvement and contribution of the respondents in the actual drawing up of the budget. Each school's improvement plan was also analysed in order to determine the insight and commitment of all stakeholders as well as their involvement, training and development plans that will enhance the performance development and functioning of that school. The documents revealing each school's Section 21 status as well as the policies (discipline, Section 21 status, AIDS and financial) of each school served as information rich literature which the researcher used to answer the research questions.

5.3.3.3   Questionnaires

Although questionnaires are classified as a quantitative research instrument, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:40), the researcher used it to obtain information from respondents. The data was presented quantitatively, using bar-graphs to make it visually easier to interpret. The data was analysed qualitatively. The data on the

questionnaire focused on feelings, views and experiences and required a narrative interpretation of the findings.

The design of the questionnaires used in this research was informed by the literature study. The questionnaire consisted of four sections. Section A required biographical information from the respondents, such as age, gender, qualifications and years of experience. Section B included questions on CMSs. Questions pertaining to the strategies that had to be put into effect in order to cope with the change-over to SMSs were included in the questionnaires. The aim was to identify the strategies, other than those found in the literature study, which had been put into effect by all the stakeholders and to determine how the change in status had affected their roles and normal day-to-day functioning. Section C involved the completion of a self-assessment on EI. The researcher needed to determine, of all the characteristics of effective schools, whether those relating to EI had contributed to their success. The researcher also needed to know if this EI was an inherent or acquired skill and whether it had facilitated transformation within the participating schools. It was also essential to enquire if the stakeholders realised the importance of EI and wanted to attend in-set programmes to attain, develop or hone this skill. The fourth section covered the change to Section 21 status. Whilst the literature review defined what SMSs stood for, questions pertaining to SMSs were included in the questionnaires to the principal, the SGB members, the SMT members and Level One educators, in order to identify other salient features of SMSs and to ascertain the changes in roles/behaviour this transformation to a self-managing status had brought about. The questionnaire was used to elicit responses from the educators, allowing them time to organise their thoughts and provide written, constructive feedback regarding SMSs, CMSs and EI.

5.4   DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

According to Gay and Airasian (2003:229), all qualitative researchers face the same problems with the analysis of the information provided, because there are no fixed processes or approaches for the analysis and narration of qualitative data. It is,

however, necessary to plan in advance for the arrangement of the research results to be placed in an organised form (Punch, 2009:171; Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990:467). The researcher should refer to the research questions of the study as a guide. Punch (2009:171-172) and Ary *et al.* (1990:467) maintain that planning in advance for the organisation and presentation of data assists the researcher in determining whether the information collected is relevant to the research questions.

De Vos *et al.* (2005:305) state that the researcher should avoid stacking the data obtained. The data should be analysed whilst they are still fresh, and common themes must be used to categorise the information obtained from the respondent (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:42). The challenge is that the information could easily become voluminous and unorganised. However, since qualitative analysis involves an inductive approach, the researcher must determine the patterns that emerge from the information and make sense of them (Gay & Airasian, 2003:229) by breaking up the data into smaller relevant groups or categories. Based on the respondents' information, the researcher will identify the themes and categories and make interpretations of the data provided.

Thus, once the researcher has collected all the data, the researcher will be involved in a process of organising, categorising, synthesising, interpreting and writing about the data (Gay & Airasian, 2003:229). Johnson and Christensen (2008:454) as well as Mouton (1996:67) agree, stating that having collected data, new information or data will require further processing. Johnson and Christensen (2008:454) together with Mouton (1996:67) maintain that data processing involves two kinds of operations, namely data reduction, during which the qualitative data is summarised, and data analysis. Qualitative data analysis would include such processes as thematical and content analysis. This is a time-consuming process, as the researcher constantly has to go through the abovementioned processes in order to make sense of the data and develop some sort of pattern to organise the data to facilitate the interpretation thereof. The typical way in which data is broken down, is through a process of coding or classifying

(Gay & Airasian, 2003:232). De Vos *et al.* (2005:305) suggest that preliminary coding could be useful in the analysis process.

In this study, the researcher looked at the various responses and started coding them, especially when it came to the details and information in Section A. De Vos *et al.* (2005:318) also emphasise the use of a qualitative analysis to capture the richness of themes emerging from the respondents, as opposed to reducing the responses to quantitative categories. They view the critical characteristics of a qualitative analysis as being systematic, sequential, verifiable and continuous. However, a large amount of time is required to complete the analysis and it is jeopardised by any delay. The analysis must seek to enlighten the researcher, must entertain alternative explanations, will be improved by feedback and will involve a process of comparison with existing literature and events (De Vos *et al.,* 2005:318).

In this study, the researcher analysed the data based on the relevant data provided by the respondents, with the expertise and assistance of the Statistics Department of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. Graphic presentations, in the form of bar graphs, which are essentially pictorial devices, were used to illustrate the data. The researcher applied this quantitative method because pictorial devices are visually effective and facilitates the interpretation of the data as suggested by De Vos *et al*., (2005:227). According to Johnson and Christensen (2008:216), visual data, the image, is one of the richest methods of data presentation, as the old saying goes: "A picture is worth a thousand words". This holds true in many research situations, according to Johnson and Christensen (2008:216). Thereafter an interpretation of the data, in narrative form was presented. This mixed-method approach to the collection, analysis, presentation and interpretation of the data was conducted in order to attain answers to the research questions, enhance the credibility of the findings and achieve the purpose of the study. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008:280-281), the combined methods of data collection and analysis promote the prevalence of better evidence. Babbie and Mouton (2009:273) concur with Johnson and Christensen (2008:201) that by combining methods in the same study, the researcher can partially overcome the

deficiencies prevalent in each method. Triangulation of methods of data collection not only promoted the validity and the reliability of the research, but through the rich information gathered from the literature, documents and questionnaires the researcher developed a better understanding of the phenomena.

Johnson and Christensen (2008:276) as well as Mertens (1998:180) point out that there are certain criteria and strategies to promote qualitative research that the researcher can use to ensure that the quality of qualitative research is enhanced. The following criteria are listed: credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, authenticity and an emancipatory paradigm. The researcher made use of the *credibility* criterion, which parallels internal validity, according to Babbie and Mouton (2009:277), Johnson and Christensen (2008:276;279) and Mertens (1998:181), by using triangulation and peer debriefing. Babbie and Mouton (2009:276-277) along with Bryman and Burgess (1999:xxi) also relate to credibility by proposing that *trustworthiness* be used as a criterion of good qualitative research. The researcher attained this sense of *trustworthiness* by graphically presenting the data. Besides being visually more effective and easy to interpret, pictorial devices enhance the credibility of the findings. Confidentiality, according to Johnson and Christensen (2008:119) and Mertens (1998:279), means that the privacy of individuals is protected in that the data they provide, is treated and reported in such a manner that it cannot be personally associated with them. Anonymity, on the other hand, means that no uniquely identifying information is attached to the data and that no one can therefore trace the data back to the individual that provided the data (Johnson and Christensen, 2008:119; Mertens, 1998:279). The researcher also used triangulation. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:408), the use of multi-method strategies to collect information/data may produce different insights into the research problem and thus increase the credibility of the findings.

Another criterion for judging quality in qualitative research is the use of *transferability* (this parallels external validity, according to Johnson and Christensen (2008:281) and Mertens (1998:181). The researcher used a multi-site case study and the respondents

provided thick descriptions of the issues concerned, via questionnaires. The multi-site case study and the thick descriptions formed components of the *transferability* criteria.

Dependability is the qualitative parallel of reliability. In this study, the researcher used a case study protocol that described in detail each step in the research process. A dependability audit can be used to establish the appropriateness of the inquiry process.

The *confirmability* criterion is the qualitative parallel to objectivity. *Confirmability* means that the data and the interpretation thereof can be traced to its source. In this study, this was possible, because the researcher numbered and recorded the questionnaires, so as to confirm to which school they belonged. *Ontological authenticity* occurred when the research was over, because the respondents were more informed and had learnt something from having been involved in the research. Finally, an *emancipatory paradigm* criterion that describes the inherent characteristics of all research as being representative of the opinion/point of view of the researcher is required.

5.5   LIMITATIONS

Although the researcher planned to understand the respondents in their natural setting, this was not always possible, because a research study cannot totally capture the full richness of the individuals and sites being studied (Gay & Airasian, 2003:19). The researcher was only at the relevant sites for short periods of time and could therefore not be expected to fully observe the respondents in their natural surroundings. The respondents were obviously also aware of the researcher's presence and therefore did not behave completely normally.

Certain problems were experienced with the completion of the questionnaire and the elicitation of open and honest answers. The first problem was associated with the intrusive nature of questionnaires (Scott & Usher, 2000:110). Hollway and Jefferson (2000:41) agree that there is a need to understand the role played by the researcher in the production of data as well as in the analysis thereof. For example, the mere fact

that the respondents were aware of the researcher as well as the need to complete the questionnaire within a certain amount of time may have prevented them from responding openly and truthfully. The researcher tried to eradicate this problem by informing the respondents beforehand that their responses would be treated with respect and confidentiality. The respondents might, however, have felt that their privacy could be breached (Scott & Usher, 2000:110), especially since they indicated their status, for example, being a principal. However, the researcher again assured the respondents of the confidentiality of their participation in the study.

Scott and Usher (2000:109) state that another aspect to consider is the presence of the researcher. His/Her gender, race, class and other types of power relations may also be carried over, influencing or causing changes in the responses of the respondent. Specific mannerisms of the researcher may also make the respondent uncomfortable. Responses given during interviews are not always honest, because the respondents could be influenced by the researcher's facial expressions or by the responses given by other respondents. Sometimes, a researcher may raise an eyebrow or frown, and this could result in the respondent changing his or her response to be in line with the perceived expectancies of the researcher. This implies that research instruments such as interviews have limitations. This is also the case with questionnaires, because the respondents may assume that the researcher will think that they are ignorant if they ask questions to clarify uncertainties. Also, respondents do not want to score low on the EI assessment sheet, thus their responses would be biased/untrue. The time factor, pressure and peer/colleague influence all affect the results of a questionnaire.

5.6 ASSUMPTIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

It is assumed that management generally refers to the SMT, but for the purpose of this study, Level One educators as well as the members of the SGB were included, because they could provide the researcher with rich, interesting information pertaining to what was actually happening at their schools. This study did not involve the learners, because the researcher was interested in determining the influence that EI had on

CMSs in SMSs. Learners are not directly involved in the operational procedures of their schools. The focus was on those responsible for the performance and the functioning of the participating schools. This study focused on secondary schools only, since all secondary schools in the Eastern Cape have been afforded Section 21 status.

5.7   SUMMARY

In this chapter, the two main research approaches were discussed, with the aim of choosing an approach that would best enable the researcher to successfully conduct the investigation. An in-depth justification of the selection of a multi-site case study, the sampling procedures, the data collection strategies and the data analysis procedures was provided. The limitations, assumptions and delimitations regarding the research were also discussed in detail.

The subsequent chapter deals with the findings, analysis and interpretations of the data collected from the sample through the use of questionnaires.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research findings will be presented quantitatively, followed by a qualitative analysis. Thereafter, the researcher will interpret the findings according to the prevalence of recurring categories, themes and thoughts that manifest themselves in the data collected.

This chapter will now focus on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings obtained from the questionnaires completed by the six participating schools regarding their transition to a Section 21 status or, as it is also referred to, SMSs; the strategies they employed; their trials and tribulations; as well as the competencies of EI.

6.2 PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF QUALITATIVE RESULTS: SECTION A OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Ninety-five percent (95%) of the questionnaires were duly completed and returned. In order to respect the anonymity of the respondents, the selected schools and their matriculation pass rates; they will be referred to in this research as follows:

- Carnations - 49,5%
- Petunias - 50,5%
- Roses - 98,7%
- Lilies - 86,4%
- Dahlias - 30,5%
- Daffodils - 25,3%

6.2.1 Data presentation of Section A: Questions 1 – 6

Section A of the questionnaire covered the personal details of the respondents at the six selected schools. It included the gender, age, home language as well as the position that the respondents occupied at the school (educator, head of department, deputy principal or principal). It also provided feedback as to the number of SGB members who participated in the research. Information on the number of years of teaching, and the level of education of the respondents also had to be provided.

TABLE 2: CARNATIONS:

Gender		Age		Home Language		Current Position		SGB		Years of Teaching		Level of Education	
Male	6	20 – 29	-	English	4	Educator	6	Members	2	1-4	-	Gr 10	-
Female	4	30 – 39	1	Afrik	4	HOD	2			5-9	1	Gr 12	-
		40 – 49	6	IsiXhosa	-	Deputy principal	1			10-19	4	Teacher's Diploma	3
		50 – 59	3	Zulu	2	Principal	1			20+	5	B.Sc, B.A.	5
		60+										B.Hon. B.Ed.	2
												Masters	-

TABLE 3: PETUNIAS:

Gender		Age		Home Language		Current Position		SGB		Years Teaching		Level of Education	
Male	7	20 – 29	-	Eng	3	Educator	7	Member	1	1-4	-	Gr 10	-
Female	3	30 – 39	2	Afrik	6	HOD	1			5-9	-	Gr 12	-
		40 – 49	4	Xhosa	-	Deputy principal	1			10-19	4	Teacher's Diploma	2
		50 – 59	4	Zulu	1	Principal	1			20+	6	B.Sc, B.A.	7
		60+										B.Hon. B.Ed.	1
												Masters	-

TABLE 4: ROSES:

Gender		Age		Home Language		Current Position		SGB		Years Teaching		Level of Education	
Male	2	20 – 29	1	Eng	5	Educator	6	Member	2	1 – 4	2	Gr 10	-
Female	8	30 – 39	3	Afrik	4	HOD	1			5 – 9	2	Gr 12	-
		40 – 49	4	Xhosa	1	Deputy principal	2			10 – 19	3	Teacher's Diploma	-
		50 – 59	2	Zulu	-	Principal	1			20+	3	B.Sc, B.A.	7
		60+	-									B.Hon. B.Ed.	3
												Masters	

TABLE 5: LILLIES:

Gender		Age		Home Language		Current Position		SGB		Years Teaching		Level of Education	
Male	1	20 – 29	-	Eng	-	Educator	5	Member	2	1 – 4	-	Gr 10	-
Female	7	30 – 39	1	Afrik	-	HOD	1			5 – 9	-	Gr 12	-
		40 – 49	3	Xhosa	8	Deputy principal	1			10 – 19	4	Teacher's Diploma	1
		50 – 59	3	Zulu	-	Principal	1			20+	4	B.Sc, B.A.	5
		60+	1									B.Hon. B.Ed.	2
												Masters	-

TABLE 6: DAHLIAS:

Gender		Age		Home Language		Current Position		SGB		Years Teaching		Level of Education	
Male	6	20 – 29	-	Eng	-	Educator	4	Member	2	1 – 4	-	Gr 10	-
Female	3	30 – 39	4	Afrik	1	HOD	3			5 – 9	-	Gr 12	-
		40 – 49	4	Xhosa	8	Deputy principal	1			10 – 19	8	Teacher's Diploma	4
		50 – 59	1	Zulu	-	Principal	1			20+	1	B.Sc, B.A.	2
		60+										B.Hon. B.Ed.	2
												Masters	1

TABLE 7: DAFFODILS:

Gender		Age		Home Language		Current Position		SGB		Years Teaching		Level of Education	
Male	5	20 – 29	-	Eng	-	Educator	6	Member	1	1 – 4	1	Gr 10	-
Female	5	30 – 39	-	Afrik	2	HOD	2			5 – 9	-	Gr 12	-
		40 – 49	8	Xhosa	8	Deputy principal	1			10 – 19	7	Teacher's Diploma	5
		50 – 59	2	Zulu	-	Principal	1			20+	2	B.Sc, B.A.	2
		60+										B.Hon. B.Ed.	3
												Masters	-

6.2.2   Data interpretation and analysis of Section A: Questions 1 – 6

Altogether 60 questionnaires were issued and 57 were returned. The 57 volunteer respondents' personal details were reflected per school. Of the 57 respondents, 27 were male and 30 were female.

Since the researcher was interested in analysing the performances of management at top performing, mediocre and the poor performing schools in an attempt to determine

the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs, the researcher analysed and compared the results of Category A, B and C schools.

According to the researcher, Category A schools were those that attained a pass rate of above 85%; Category B were those schools that attained a pass rate of approximately 50%; while Category C schools were those schools that attained a pass rate of 30% and below.

Of the 18 respondents in the combined Category A schools, 3 were male, of which two were school principals, while 15 were female. Of the 20 respondents in the combined Category B schools, 11 were male, while 9 were female. Of the 19 respondents in the combined Category C schools, 11 were male, while 8 were female. In all three categories, all the principals were male. Whilst there was one respondent between the ages of 20 and 29 in a Category A school, there was no respondent in that age group in the other two categories. All three categories had respondents varying in ages between 30 and 59 years, but one Category A school had a respondent in the 60+ age group.

The home languages amongst the categories of schools varied. It is interesting to note that in the top performing (Category A) schools, all three languages, namely English, Afrikaans and IsiXhosa, prevailed, whilst in the low performing (Category C) schools, there were no respondents whose home language was either English or Afrikaans.

There were 11 Level One respondents from Category A schools, whilst there were 13 respondents from Category B and 10 from Category C schools. Two head of departments from Category A schools participated, three from Category B schools and five from Category C schools. Three deputy principals from Category A schools participated, which implied that one of the schools had more than one deputy principal. This could be so because of the staff establishment requirements: if the numbers of learners in a school exceeds 1000, then that school is allowed to have two deputy principals. Having more senior managers involved in the management and the day-to-day functioning of the school could have tremendous benefits.

All six school principals participated in the research. While one Category A school managed to get two respondents from its SGB to participate, Categories B and C had three SGB respondents each.

Regarding the number of years of teaching, two respondents from Category A schools had been teaching for between one and four years; two respondents had been teaching for between five and nine years; seven respondents had been teaching for between ten and nineteen years; and seven respondents had been teaching for over twenty years. In Category B schools, no respondents had been teaching for fewer than four years; while one respondent had been teaching for more than five years, but less than nine years. Altogether eight respondents had been teaching for more than ten years, while eleven had been teaching for more than twenty years. In Category C schools, one respondent had been teaching for fewer than four years; no respondents had been teaching for more than five years but less than nine years; and fifteen respondents had been teaching for more than ten years, but less than twenty years. It is interesting to note that only three respondents had been teaching for over twenty years in Category C schools. The number of years of teaching is normally related to experience attained. It is said that the longer one teaches, the more experience one acquires. Could it be that Category C schools did not have experienced educators and that this lack of experience was adversely affecting the learners' performance?

Regarding the highest level of education attained by the respondents in the research, it is interesting to note that in Category A, there was only one respondent with a Teacher's Diploma, whilst there were five such respondents in Category B and nine in Category C. Altogether twelve respondents in Categories A had attained degrees, such as BA or Bachelor of Science Degrees, while only four respondents from Category C schools were graduates. Five respondents from Category A schools had furthered their education and attained Honours degrees, such as Bachelor of Education or a BA Honours degree, as compared to three respondents in Category B and C schools. Only one respondent had attained a Master's Degree; it is important to note that this respondent was from a Category C school.

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6.2.3　Presentation, analysis and interpretation of results: Question 7

Question seven required from the respondents to indicate and specify the empowering courses that they had attended.

The courses attended by the respondents in the various categories are reflected in the table below:

TABLE 8: COURSES

COURSE	CATEGORY A	CATEGORY B	CATEGORY C
COMPUTER	2	3	6
FIRST AID		1	
CUSTOMER SERVICES		1	
SAFETY AND SECURITY		1	2
ASSESSORS COURSE		1	
TOOLMAKING		1	
SPORTS MANAGEMENT	1	3	1
ISIXHOSA		1	
CONFLICT MANAGEMENT		1	1
LEADERSHIP	3		
FLOWER ARRANGING	1		
POTTERY	1		
INTERIOR DECORATING	1		
PROGRO (DISCIPLINE)	1		
HIV AND AIDS			3
LIFE LINE	1		
RAPE CRISIS	1		
TEAM BUILDING	2		
NCS	1		1
FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT	1		
LABOUR RELATIONS (DISPUTES)	1		
RAISING QUALITY STANDARDS	1		
SKILLS TRAINING			1
ADVANCED EDUCATION CERTIFICATE			3

Whilst some of the respondents responded positively and indicated the courses that they had attended, it is imperative to note that not all respondents completed this question on the questionnaire. Of the 57 respondents, only 27 completed Question 7. Those who completed Question 7 had attended empowering courses. Computer and sports management courses were common to all three categories. It is interesting to note that Category A schools concentrated on courses in computers, sports management, discipline, Life Line, rape crisis, team building, National Senior Certificate, labour relations and raising quality standards. These courses clearly assisted the educators in Category A schools to teach according to the current National Senior Certificate curriculum and prepared them to raise their standards (raising quality standards). They had been equipped to present their planning and capture data on computer. They had also been prepared for a better teaching-learning environment by attending courses pertaining to discipline, Rape Crisis and Life Line, which assisted them in handling problematic learners or learners from problematic backgrounds. These teachers clearly wanted to contribute to the all-round development of their learners, therefore their involvement in sports management courses.

In Category B schools, the emphasis was on computer courses and sports management. The computer courses would have assisted the educators with lesson presentation and the capturing of marks, while the sports management courses would have enabled the educators to present more extramural activities, thus contributing to the development of well-rounded individuals. The first aid and safety and security courses would also have assisted during extramural activities, thus ensuring the safety of learners. It is interesting to note that Category B educators had attended courses that would empower them as individuals. For example, conflict management courses would definitely assist in the smooth running of an organisation.

The respondents from Category C schools had completed computer courses, which would have assisted them in their lesson preparation and in the capturing of marks. Participation in skills development courses and NCS courses would also have enhanced their curriculum knowledge and the delivery thereof. The respondents from

Category C schools also showed an interest in the development of well-rounded learners, as was revealed in their attendance of courses contributing to the development and well-being of learners. This was evident from the respondents' completion of sports management, HIV and AIDS and safety and security courses. The respondents from Category C schools were also well aware of conflict situations and their effect on the smooth running of a school as was evident from their attendance of conflict management courses.

The question arises that if the respondents of all three categories of schools were empowering themselves and contributing to rounded learner development, what was causing some of the participating schools to perform exceptionally well, whilst other schools were underperforming.

In an attempt to answer this question, the researcher took a step further and tried to comprehend the performance of Category A, B and C schools by examining the sub-problem relating to Section 21 status schools, namely CMSs.

6.3   SECTION B: CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Certain CMSs were identified in the literature review, which had been introduced in various organisations and structures to assist during times of change. They were as follows:

- Vision
- Planning and organising
- Communication
- Teamwork
- Training and development
- Praise/Incentives
- Evaluation/Feedback

These CMSs were used in the questionnaires to rate the response of the various stakeholders in the institution. The results obtained in this section are presented below:
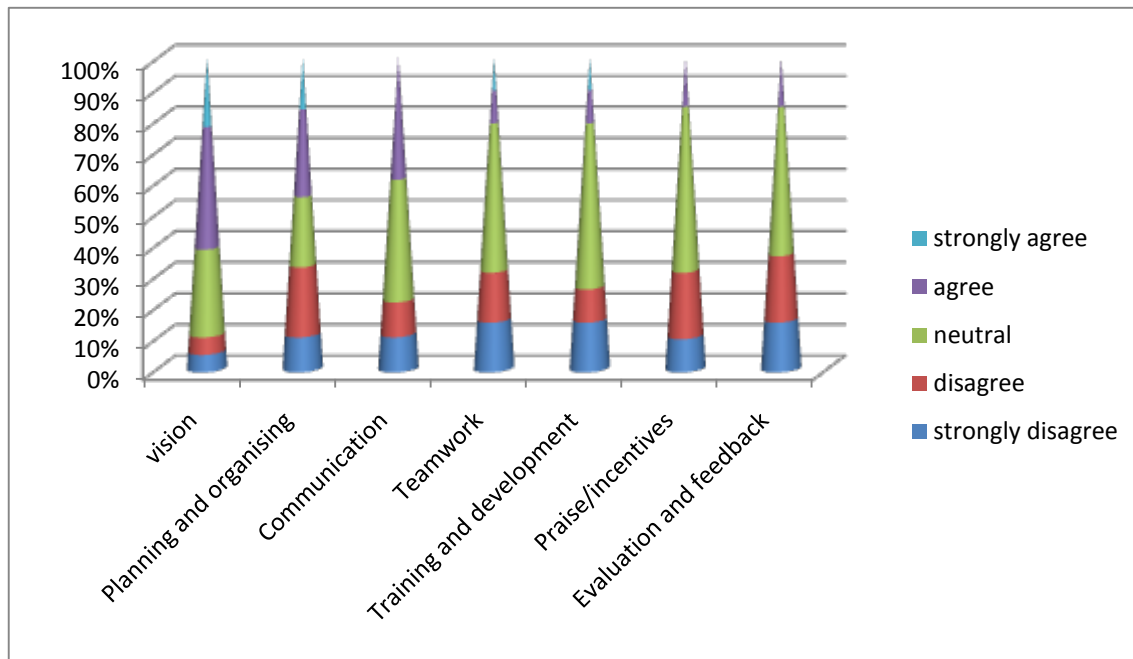
GRAPH 1: CMSs in Category A schools:
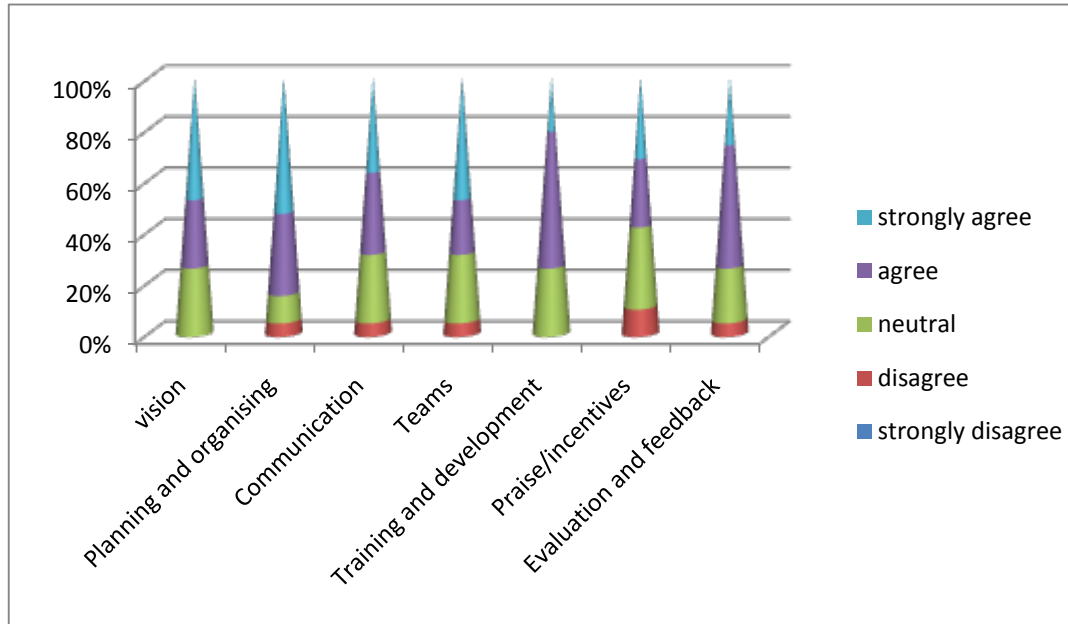
GRAPH 2: CMSs in Category B schools:
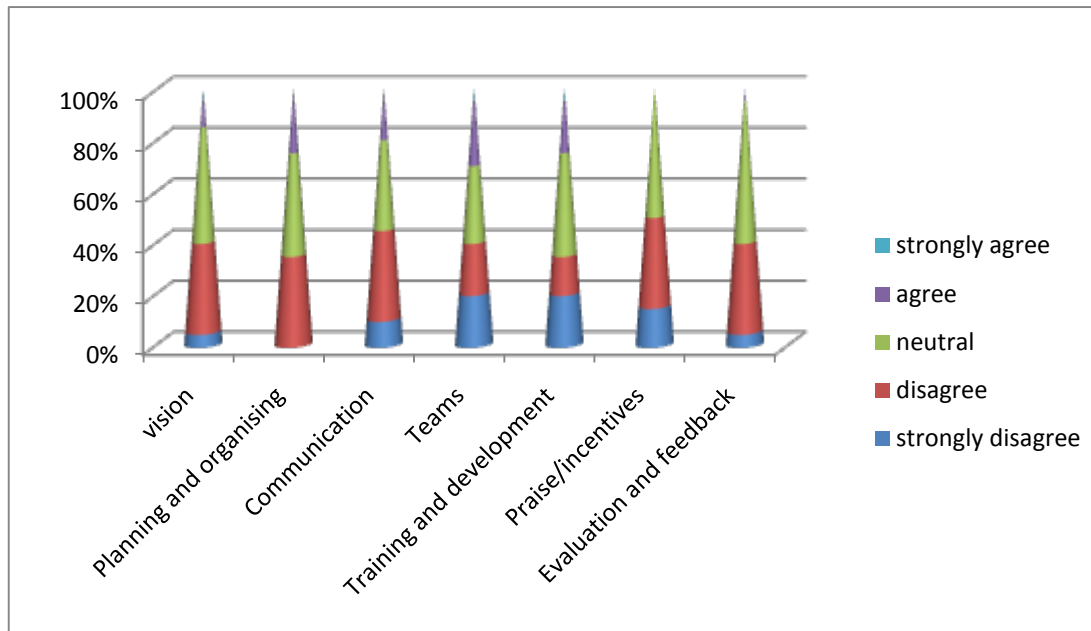
GRAPH 3: CMSs in Category C schools:

Armstrong (2008:134) maintains that change is inevitable and necessary. In order for the six participating schools to become Section 21 schools, they introduced certain CMSs that enabled them to make the change. The graphs presented will demonstrate exactly how strongly they relied on the CMSs the researcher envisioned as important, based on a prior literature study.

Although a minority of the participating Category A schools disagreed with the implementation of CMSs, such as the establishment of a vision, planning and organising, communication, teamwork, training and development, the use of praise and incentives and the provision of feedback or some kind of evaluation to cope with change, the majority of the respondents agreed/strongly agreed to their usage. Educators from Category B schools mostly disagreed with or remained neutral to the use of the above stated CMSs in the transition to a SMS. Educators from Category C schools were generally in favour of the implementation of some CMSs, such as developing a vision, planning and organising, teamwork, and training and development during the transition to a SMS. However, they were of the opinion that not much

emphasis had been placed on communication, praise and incentives and evaluation and feedback processes during transition to Section 21 status.

The researcher returned to the input provided in the completed questionnaires in an attempt to ascertain the input of the individual respondents, that is, the principals, SMT members, educators, and members of the SGB regarding CMSs. This information has been depicted in the form of graphs, reflecting the involvement and effectiveness of the various respondents in Categories A, B and C.

VISION:

According to Smith (2008:247) in conjunction with Covey (2004:70), vision is the ability to see what can happen and be achieved in the future. Covey (2004:70) believes that all things are created twice; first in the mind (mental vision); and thereafter in reality: the physical creation. According to Cook *et al.* (2004:214), the use of skilful leadership and possessing a strong vision are success factors that support change. People need to have a clear image or vision of what is expected and where they are heading.

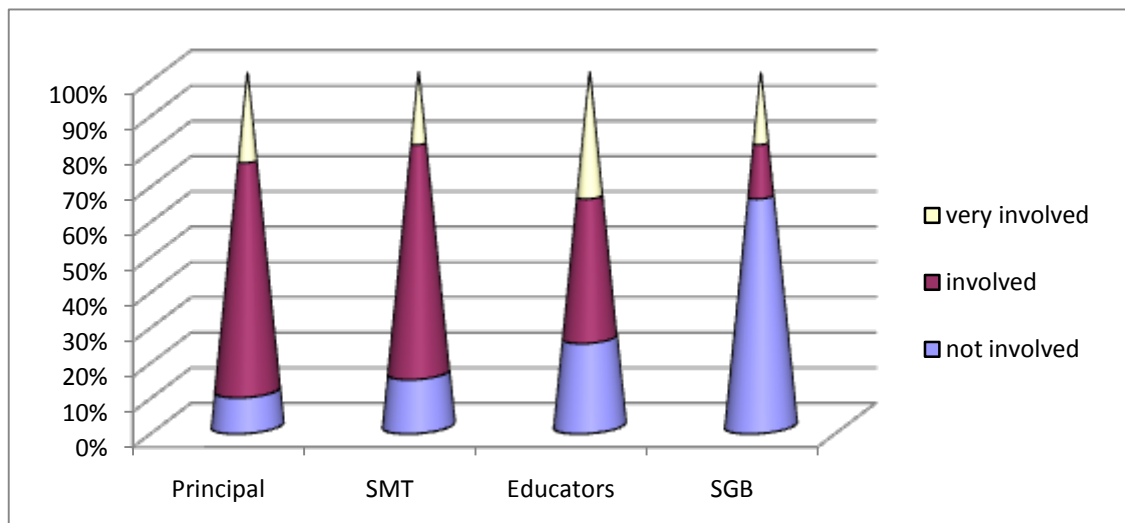**GRAPH 4: CMSs in Category A schools: VISION – INVOLVEMENT**
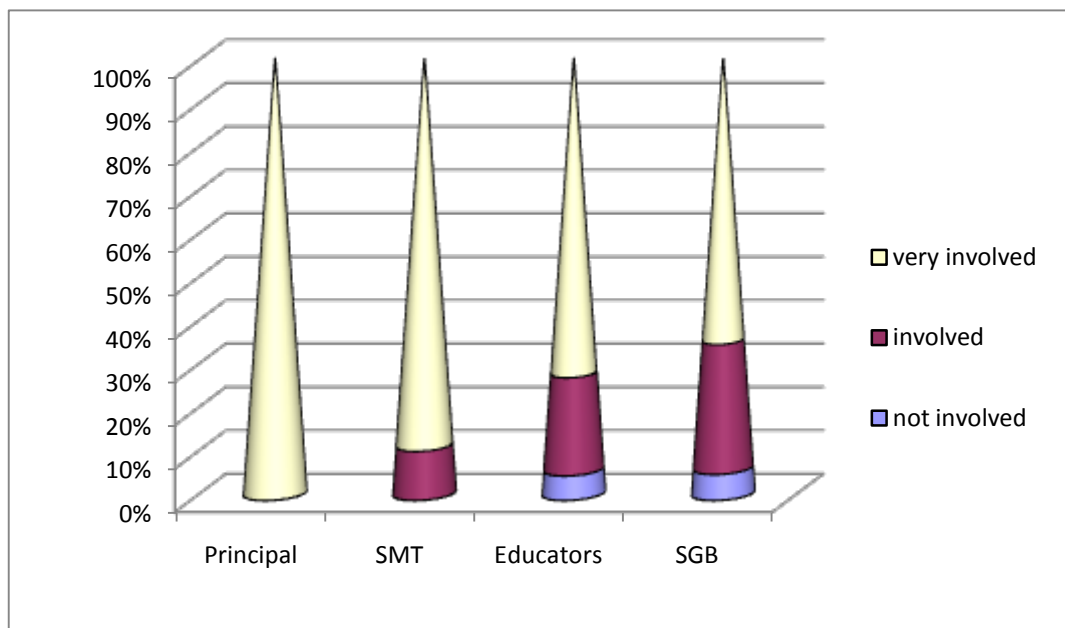
**GRAPH 5: CMSs in Category A schools: 1. VISION – EFFECTIVENESS**
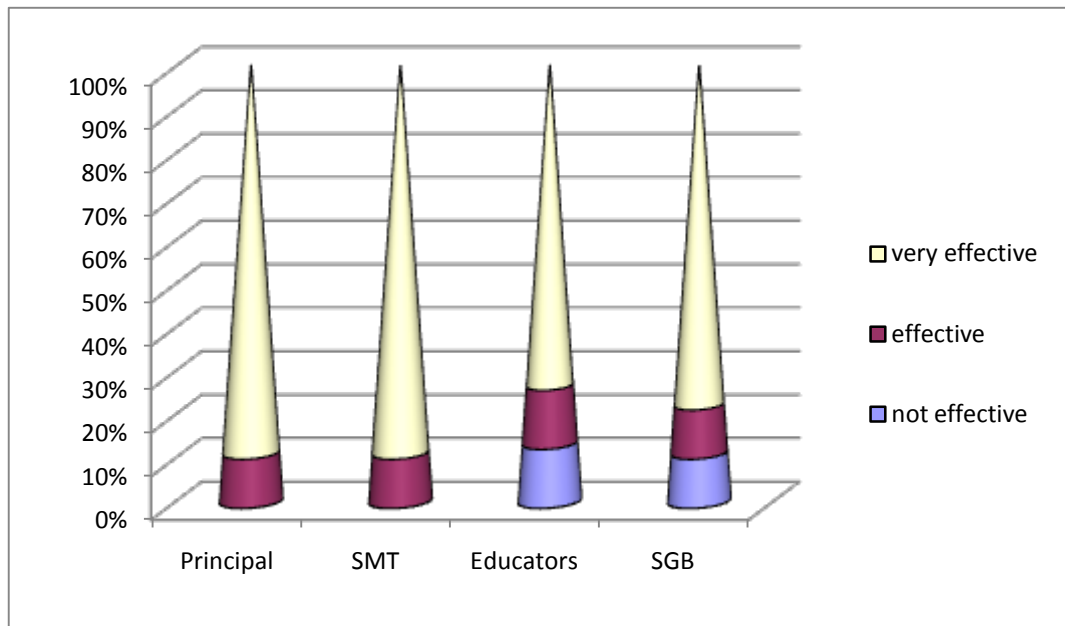
In Category A schools, vision was used effectively as a strategy by all the stakeholders. Only a small percentage of educators and SGB members were not involved in or effectively using vision as a strategy.

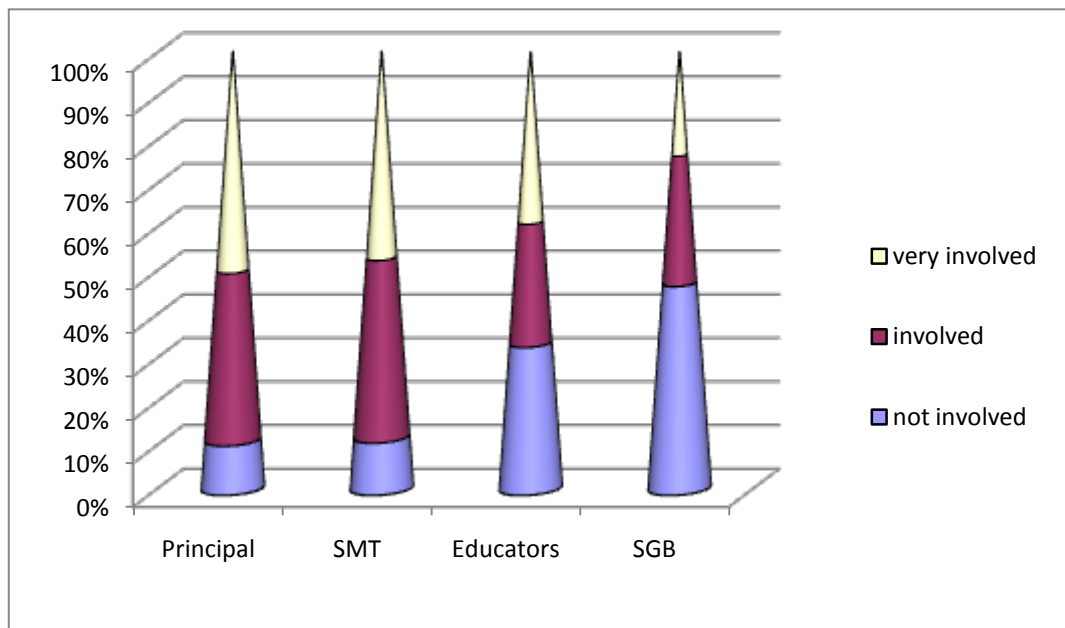**GRAPH 6: CMSs in Category B schools: VISION – INVOLVEMENT**

GRAPH 7: CMSs in Category B schools: VISION – EFFECTIVENESS
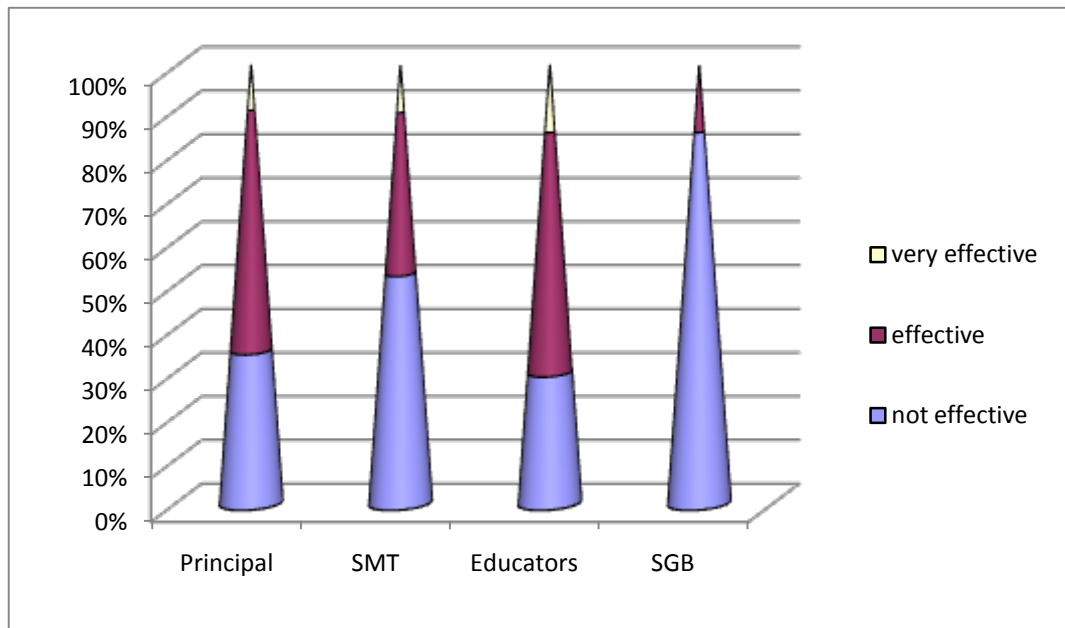

In Category B schools, the principals and SMT members were involved and effectively using vision as a strategy. There was, however, more involvement in the development and usage of a vision among the educators, while less involvement and effectiveness were being displayed by the SGBs.

GRAPH 8: CMSs in Category C schools: VISION – INVOLVEMENT

**GRAPH 9: CMSs in Category C schools: VISION – EFFECTIVENESS**
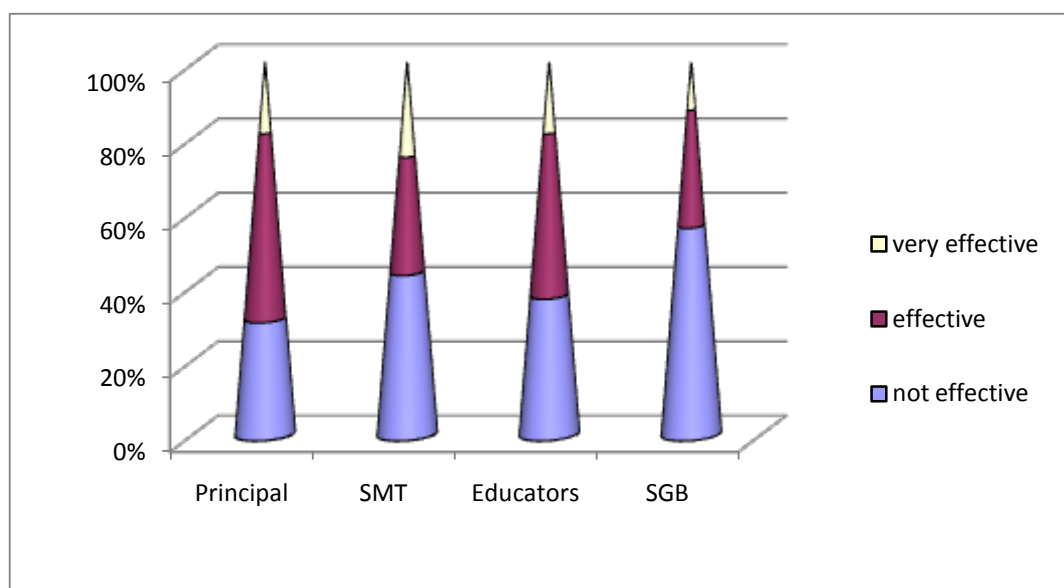
In Category C schools, more than 20% of all the stakeholders mentioned, were neither involved nor effective in using *vision* as a CMS. According to the information provided in the graphs, *vision*, as a CMS, was effectively used by all stakeholders in Category A schools, as compared to Category B and C schools. In Category A schools, there was remarkably greater involvement and effectiveness among the principals and the members of the SGB in this regard. This could be one of the factors contributing to the good performance of schools in Category A. Furthermore, Category A schools had numerous policies in place which provided clear guidelines pertaining to the modus operandi of the school. The following policies were in place: Admissions; Code of Conduct; Language; Health and Aids; Safety and Security; Fundraising; Textbooks; Buildings, Grounds and Maintenance; Leave-taking; Pregnancy; Extra-curricular and Excursions. It was quite clear that Category A schools were prepared, and knew how to deal with various issues.

PLANNING AND ORGANISING:

Leaders of educational change need to balance their knowledge and interpersonal and intrapersonal skills to keep schools running effectively. This calls for good planning and

organising. Armstrong (2008:50-51) describes the process of organising as the design, development and maintenance of a system involving co-ordinated activities, whereby the various roleplayers work together under leadership towards goals that have been accepted, understood and agreed upon. The findings of this strategy are reflected in the graphs presented below.

GRAPH 10: CMSs in Category A schools: PLANNING AND ORGANISING – INVOLVEMENT
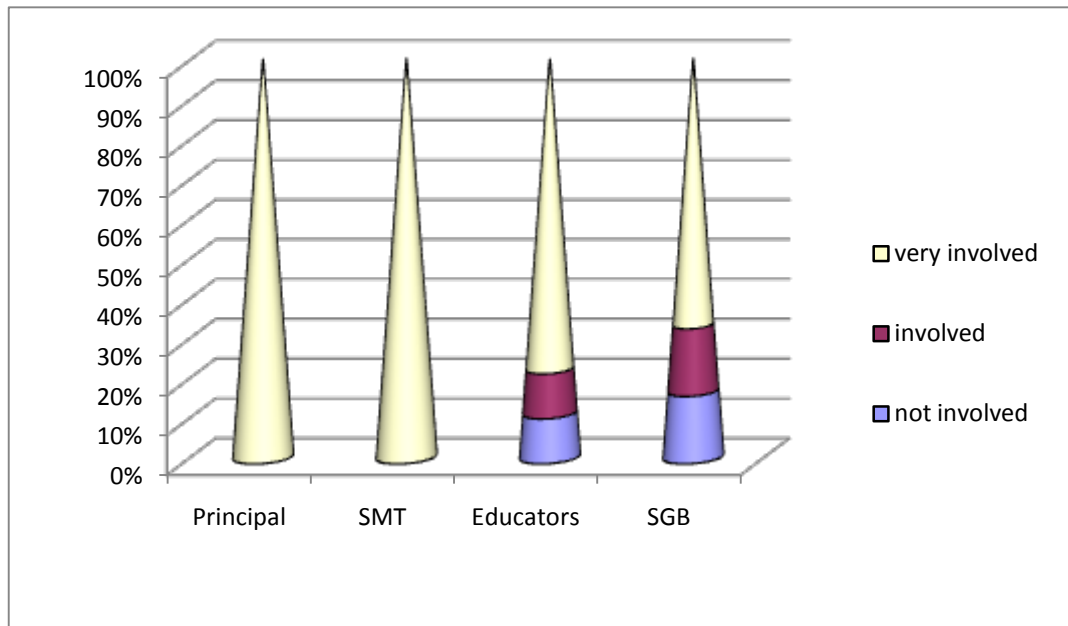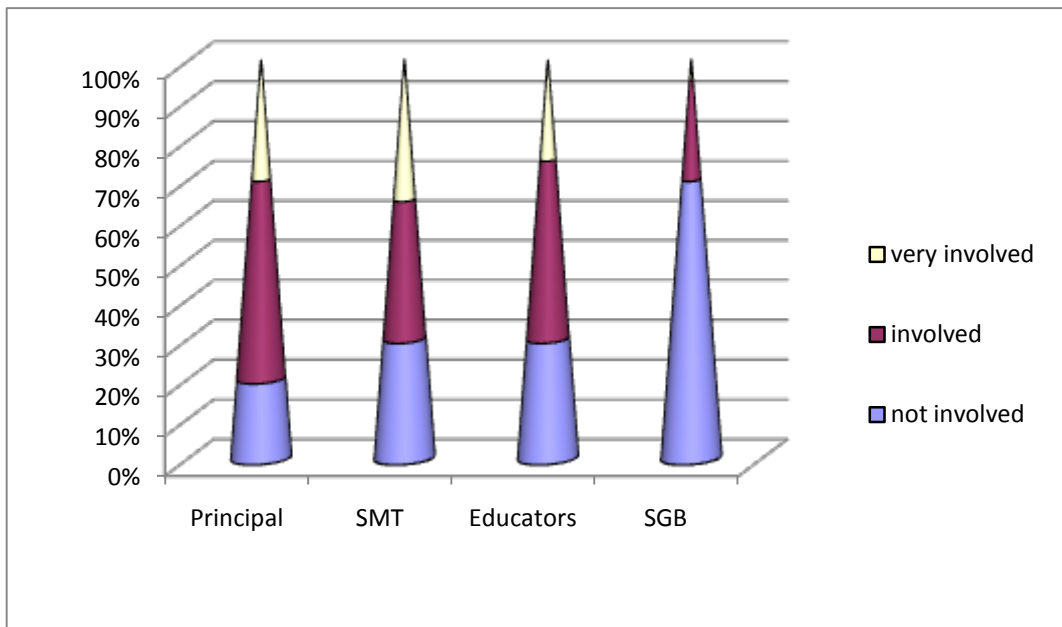
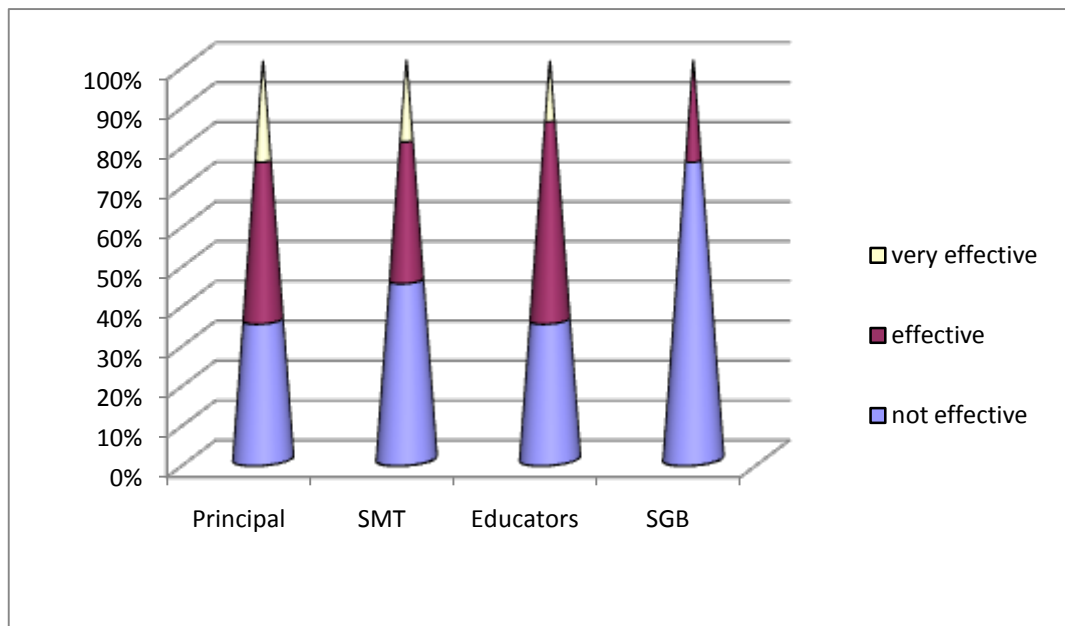**GRAPH 11: CMSs in Category A schools: PLANNING AND ORGANISING – EFFECTIVENESS**
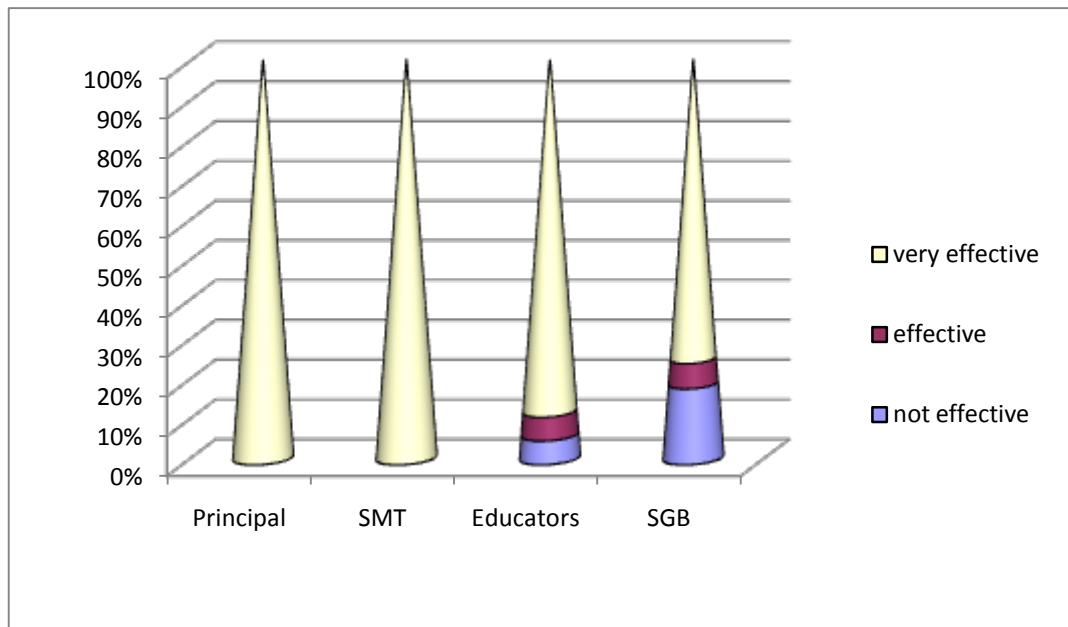
In Category A, the principals and SMTs were 100% involved in the planning and organising of the daily activities of their schools. The educators were also very involved; while less than 20% of the SGB members were neither involved nor effective in that regard.

GRAPH 12: CMSs in Category B schools: PLANNING AND ORGANISING – INVOLVEMENT

GRAPH 13: CMSs in Category B schools: PLANNING AND ORGANISING – EFFECTIVENESS

Although more than 20% of the educators and the SMT members were involved in planning and organising at school level, the principals in Category B schools were less

involved and effective.   More than 60% of the members of the SGB were neither involved nor effective in that regard.

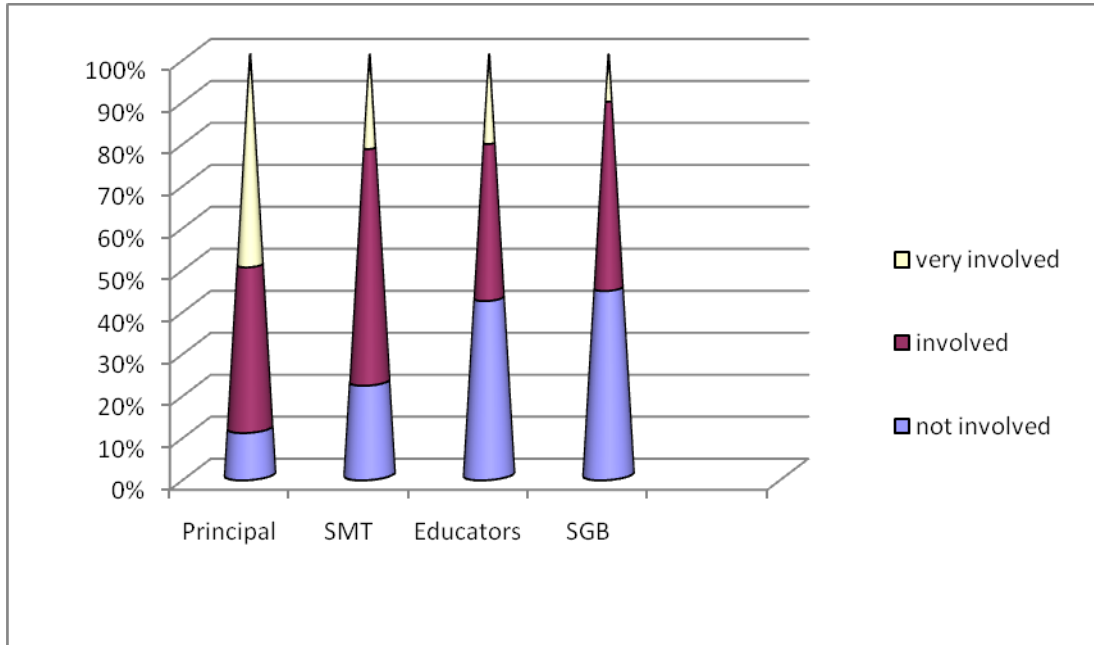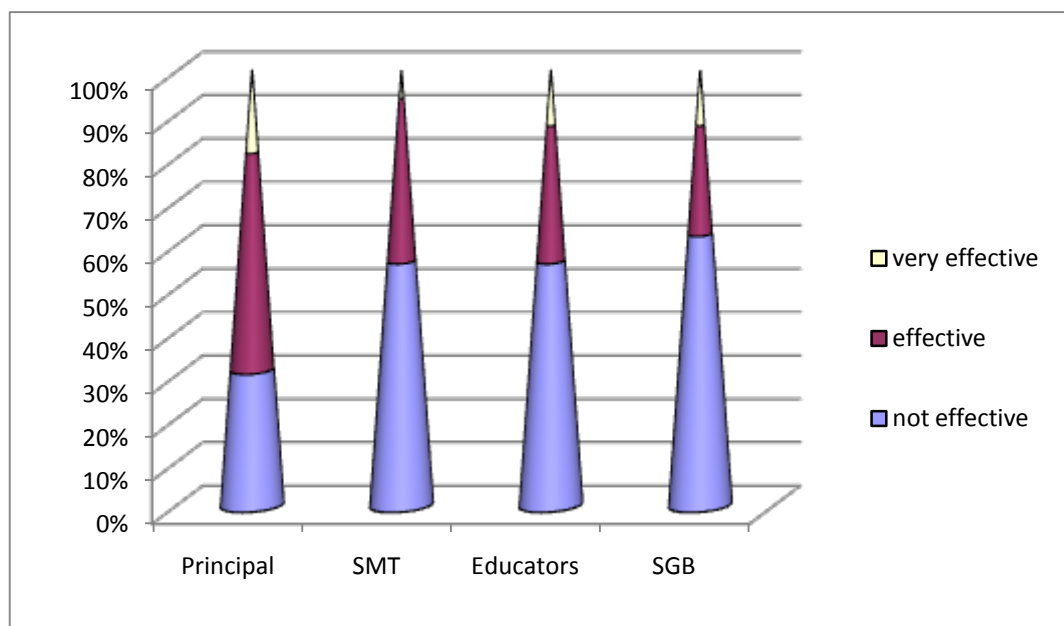**GRAPH 14:   CMSs in Category C schools: PLANNING AND ORGANISING – INVOLVEMENT**

GRAPH 15: CMSs in Category C schools: PLANNING AND ORGANISING – EFFECTIVENESS

In Category C, the principals were quite involved in the planning and organising of the daily activities of their schools. More than 20% of SMT members and educators were involved, but 40% of the SGB members were not involved. The respondents claimed, however, that despite efforts to become involved in planning and organising at school level, more than 20% of the efforts of the principals and 40% of the efforts of SMT members, educators and SGB members were *not effective.*

Whilst documentation which reflects planning and organising, such as School Improvement Plans and Budgets were readily available in Category A schools, these were either incomplete or mislaid in Category B and C schools. It is also interesting to note that in Category A schools, planning and organisation were apparently predominantly carried out by the principals, the SMT members and the educators. Armstrong (2008:135) states that there are always people in an organisation who welcome change and who will take the lead in planning and organising. They embrace challenges and function as change agents, or catalysts of change. The principals, Management Team members and educators in Category A schools were clearly

committed to change and to participating as fully as possible in planning and effectively implementing the changes. Whilst there was a substantial level of involvement of the stakeholders in Categories B and C schools regarding planning and organising, *something* was clearly affecting the quality of their input, as it was detected that a large percentage of the stakeholders were ineffective.

COMMUNICATION:

Clarke (2007:379-380) as well as Cook *et al.* (2004:217) assert that communication is vital during change. In order to overcome any hurdles, such as resistance, or to work effectively towards common goals, networking and two-way communication are of the utmost importance (Smith, 2008:256-257; Cook *et al.*, 2004:217).

GRAPH 16: CMSs in Category A schools: COMMUNICATION – INVOLVEMENT
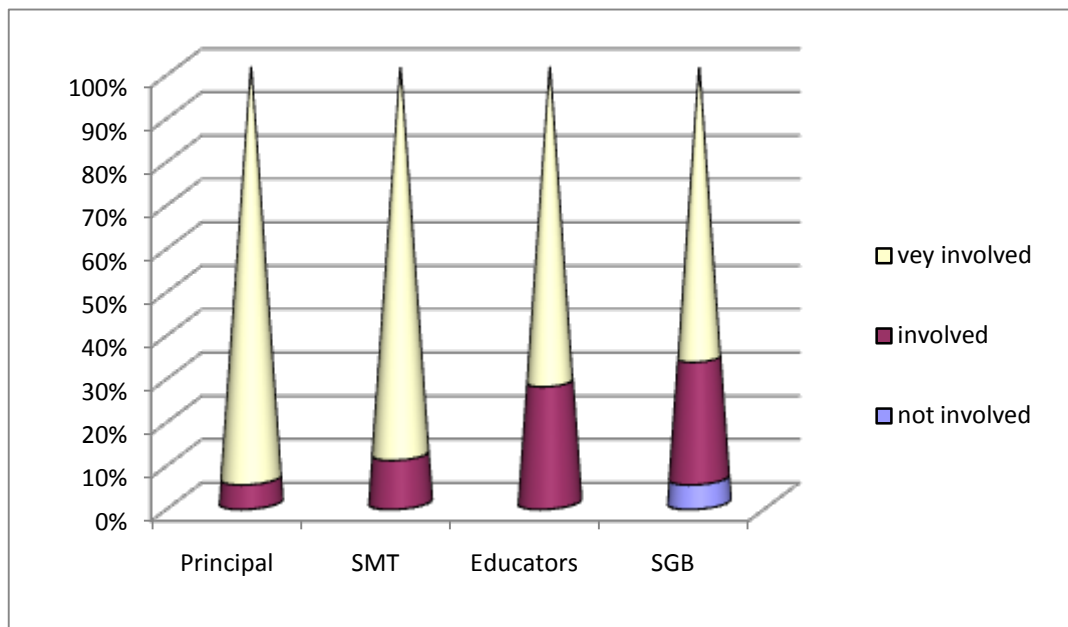
**GRAPH 17:   CMSs   in   Category   A   schools: COMMUNICATION   –
EFFECTIVENESS**
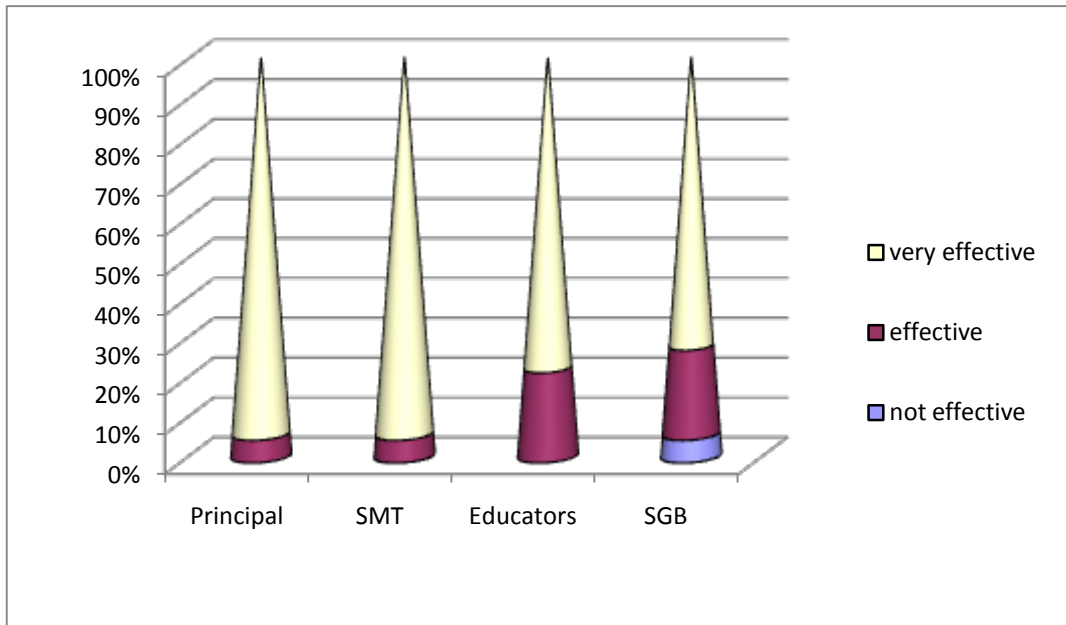
In Category A schools, the principals, SMT members and Level One educators were effectively involved in communicating. However, a small percentage of the members of the SGB were neither involved, nor effective. Less than 20% of the SGB members in Category A schools were neither involved nor effective in communicating.

GRAPH 18: CMSs in Category B schools: COMMUNICATION – INVOLVEMENT
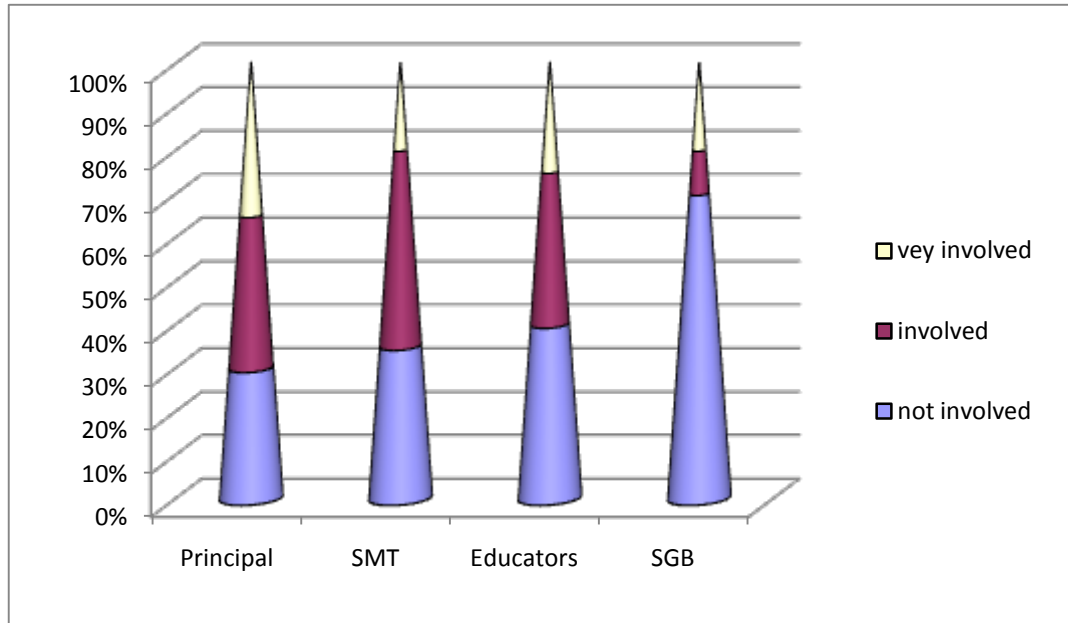
GRAPH   19:   CMSs   in   Category   B   schools: COMMUNICATION   –   EFFECTIVENESS

More than 20% of the principals, SMT members and educators were not effectively involved in communication processes, while more than 60% of SGB members were neither involved nor effective in Category B schools.

GRAPH 20: CMSs in Category C schools: COMMUNICATION – INVOLVEMENT

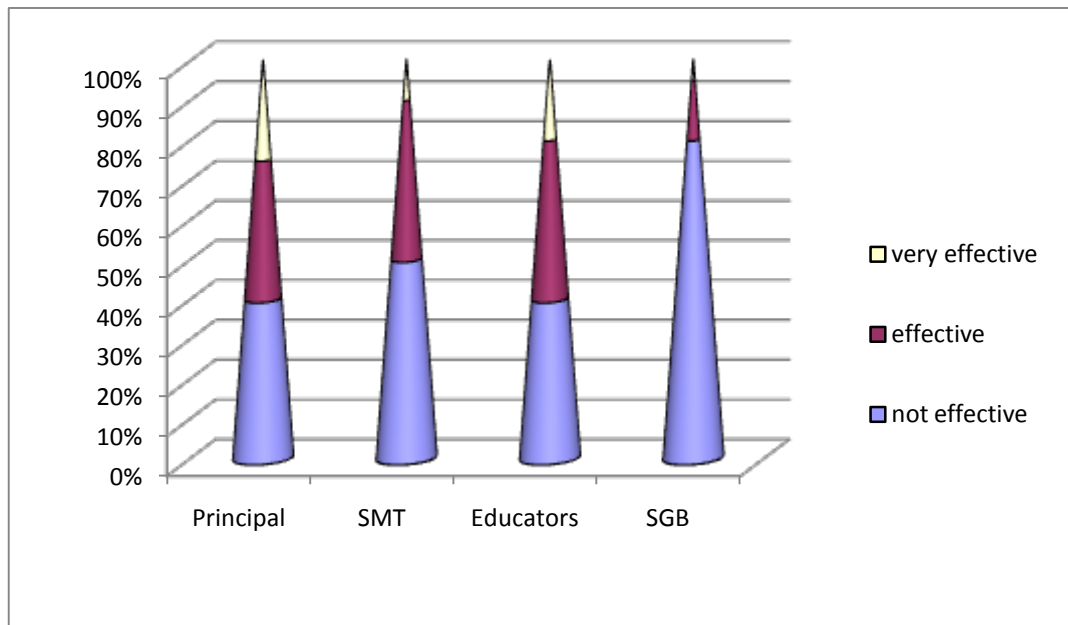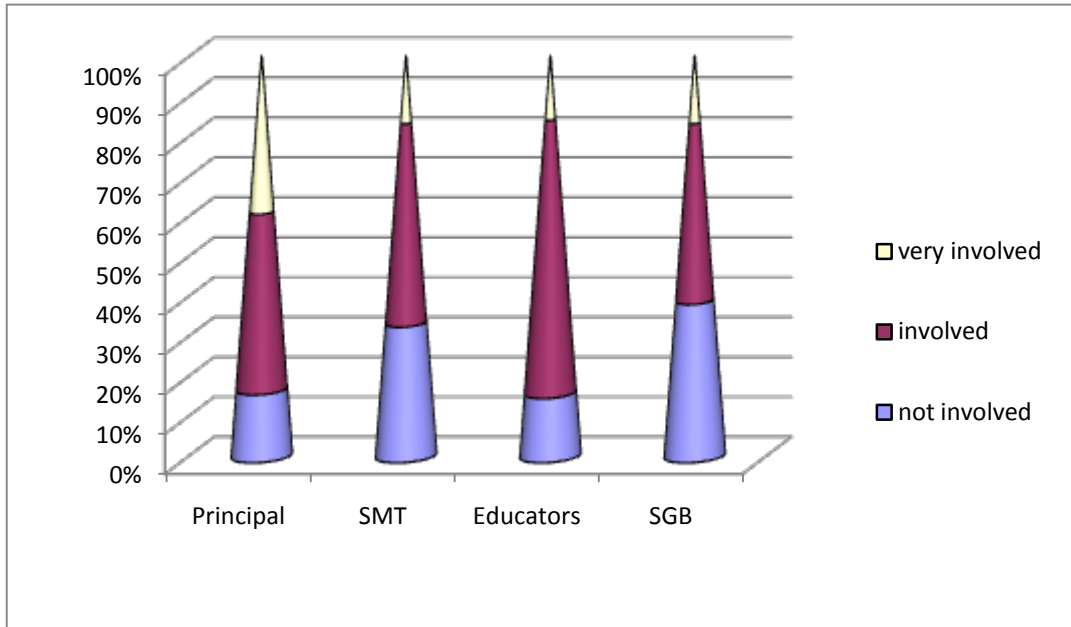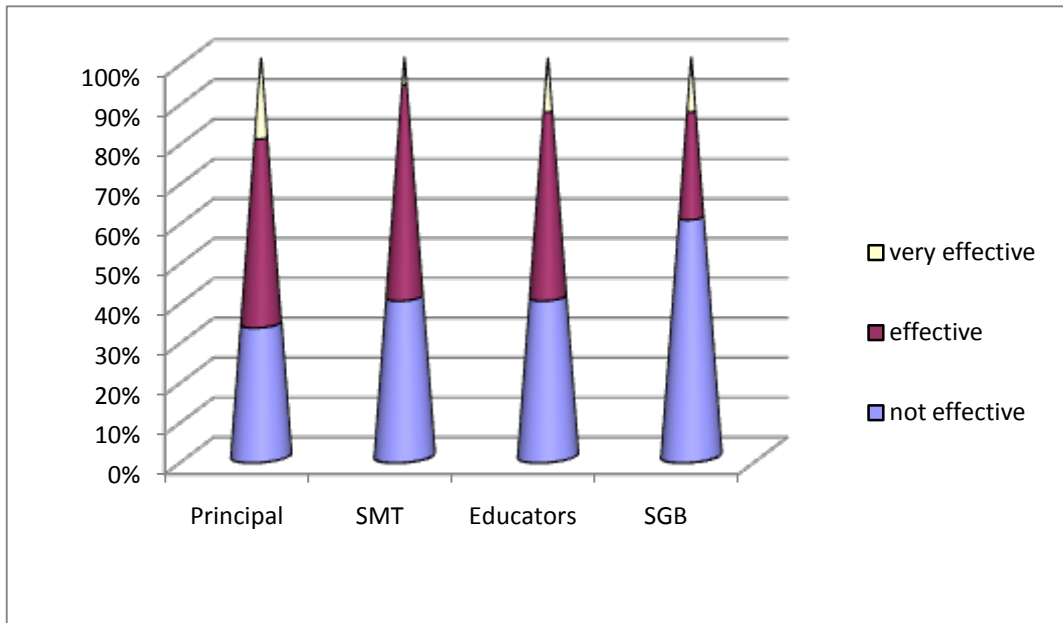**GRAPH 21: CMSs in Category C schools: COMMUNICATION – EFFECTIVENESS**

Category C schools recorded greater involvement by the various stakeholders in communication processes than Category B schools; however, more than 50% of the SGB members were not effective; more than 30% of the SMT members and educators were not effective; and more than 20% of the principals were not effective in communicating.

In Category A schools, there was definite evidence of effective communication amongst all the stakeholders, with the emphasis on the principals, SMT members and the educators. The SGB members were also effectively involved in the communication system. Besides the input made by the respondents, minutes of meetings (staff, departmental and school governing body minutes) and copies of newsletters in Category A schools also supported the findings. This, however, was lacking in both Category B and C schools.

TEAMWORK:

Armstrong (2008:63) together with Clarke (2007:15) list the main characteristics of well-functioning teams as an informal, comfortable and relaxed atmosphere in which members work together by listening to each other and made decisions by consensus. When a decision is taken, everyone is clear as to what is expected of him or her and accepts the responsibility for carrying out his or her tasks. It is also imperative that the team leaders do not dominate their teams, emphasises Armstrong (2008:63), as the *work* itself is of importance – not *who* is in charge.

GRAPH 22:   CMSs in Category A schools: TEAMWORK – INVOLVEMENT

Graph showing Principal, SMT, Educators, SGB with legend: very involved, involved, not involved.
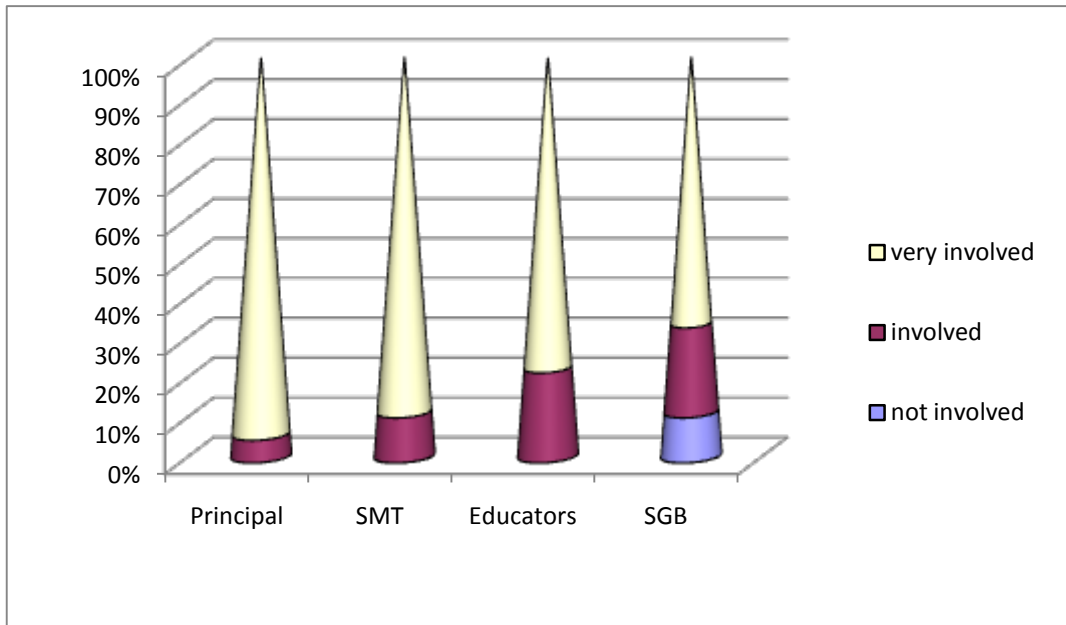
GRAPH 23: CMSs in Category A schools: TEAMWORK – EFFECTIVENESS

Graph showing Principal, SMT, Educators, SGB with legend: very effective, effective, not effective.
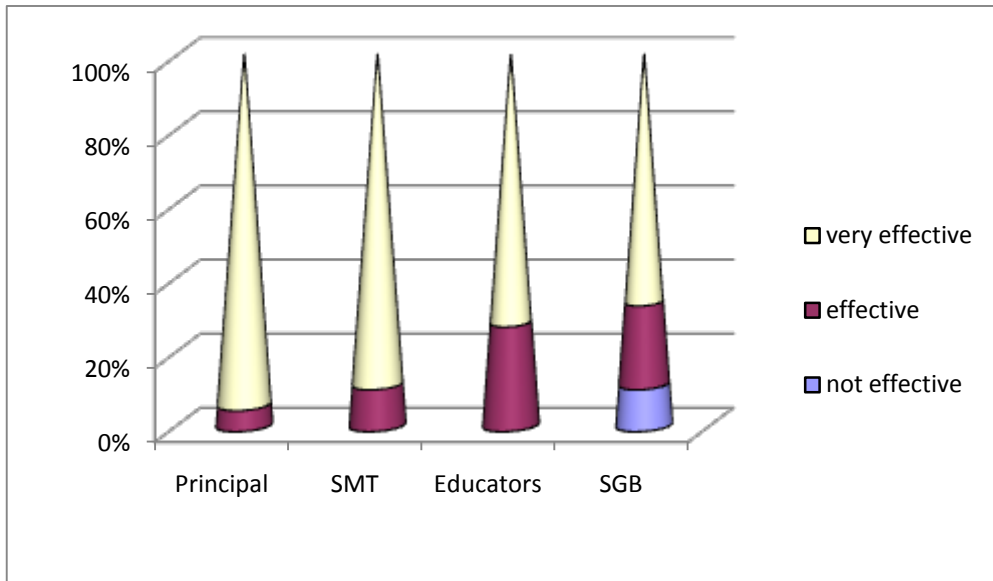
Within Category A schools, the principals, SMT members and educators were very involved in teamwork. Only a small percentage, less than 20% of the SGB component, were not actively involved in teamwork.

GRAPH 24: CMSs in Category B schools: TEAMWORK – INVOLVEMENT
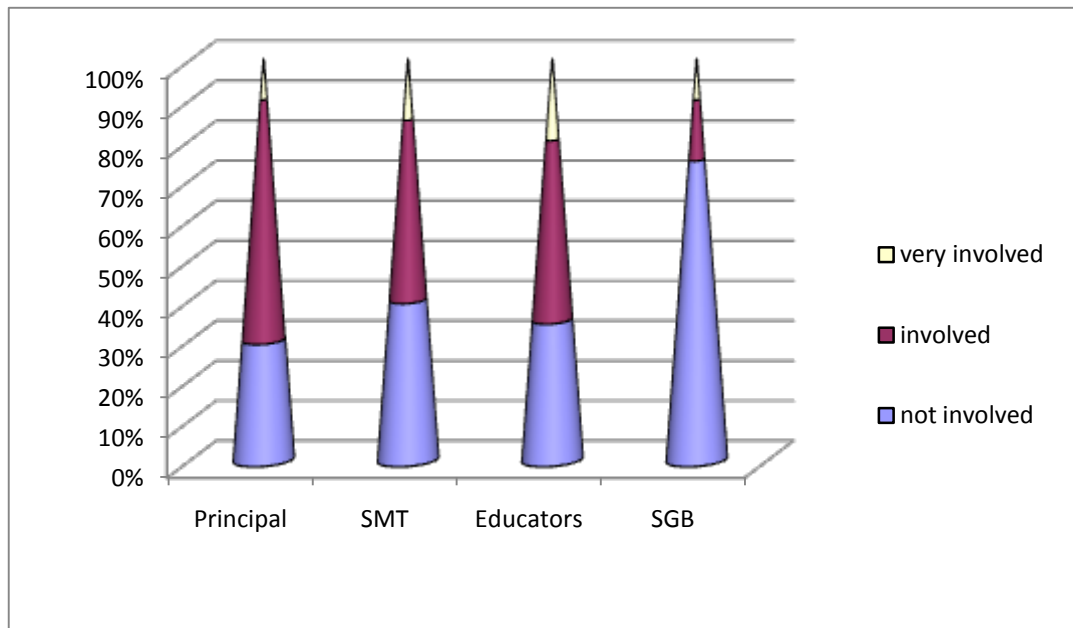
GRAPH 25: CMSs in Category B schools: TEAMWORK – EFFECTIVENESS

In Category B schools, more than 20% of the principals and educators, more than 30% of SMT members and more than 60% of the SGB members were not involved or effective in teamwork.

GRAPH 26: CMSs in Category C schools: TEAMWORK – INVOLVEMENT

GRAPH 27: CMSs in Category C schools: TEAMWORK – EFFECTIVENESS

Within Category C schools, there seemed to be a lack of interest and efficiency in working in teams, as more than 20% of the principals were not involved, more than 30% of the educators and members of the SMT were not involved, and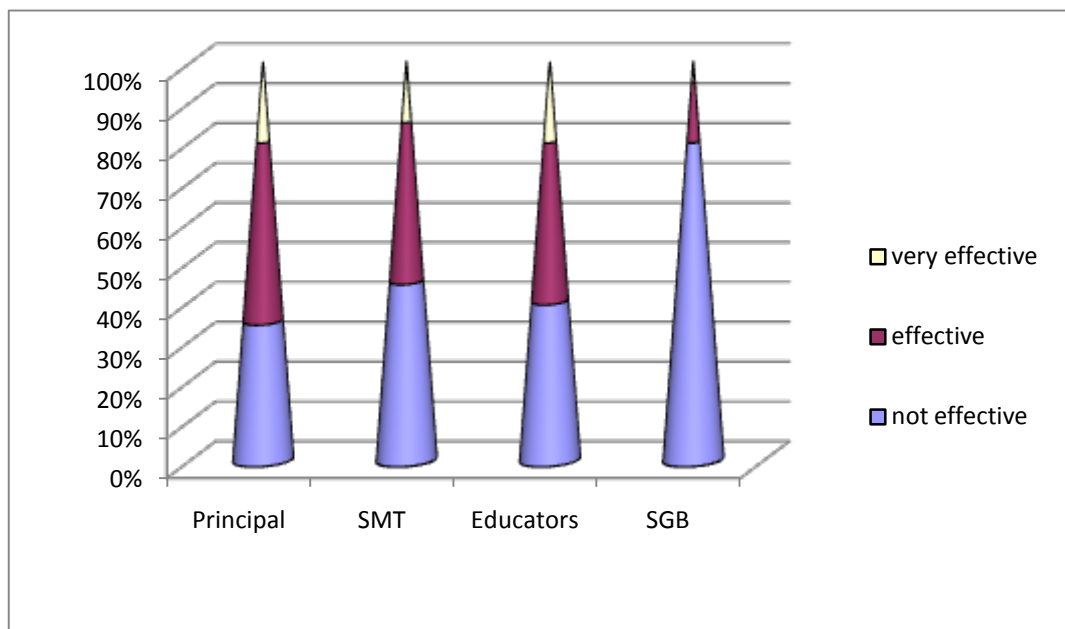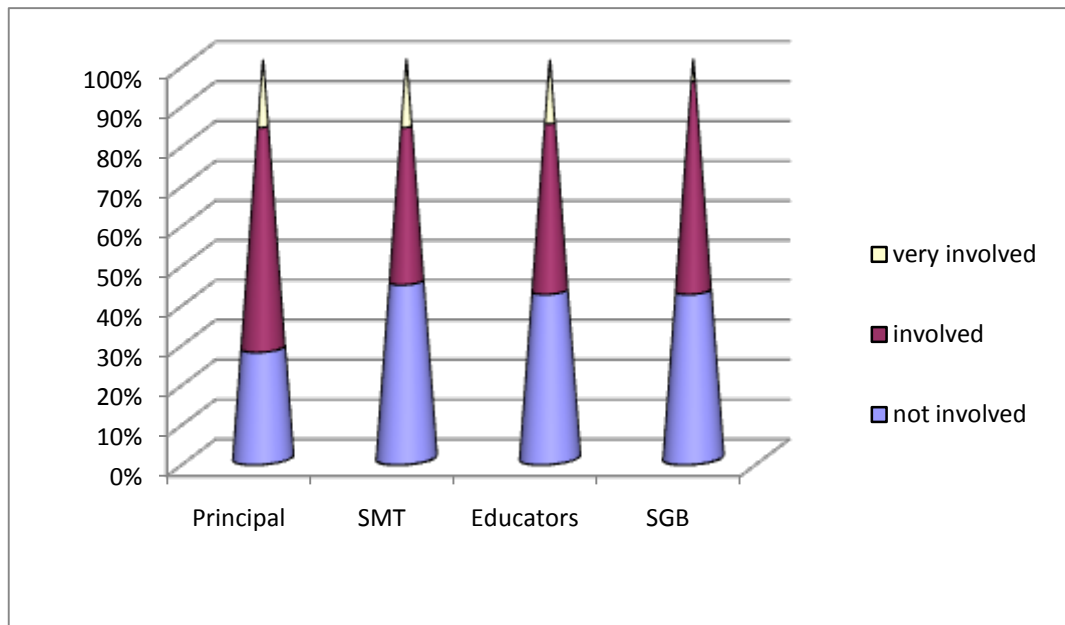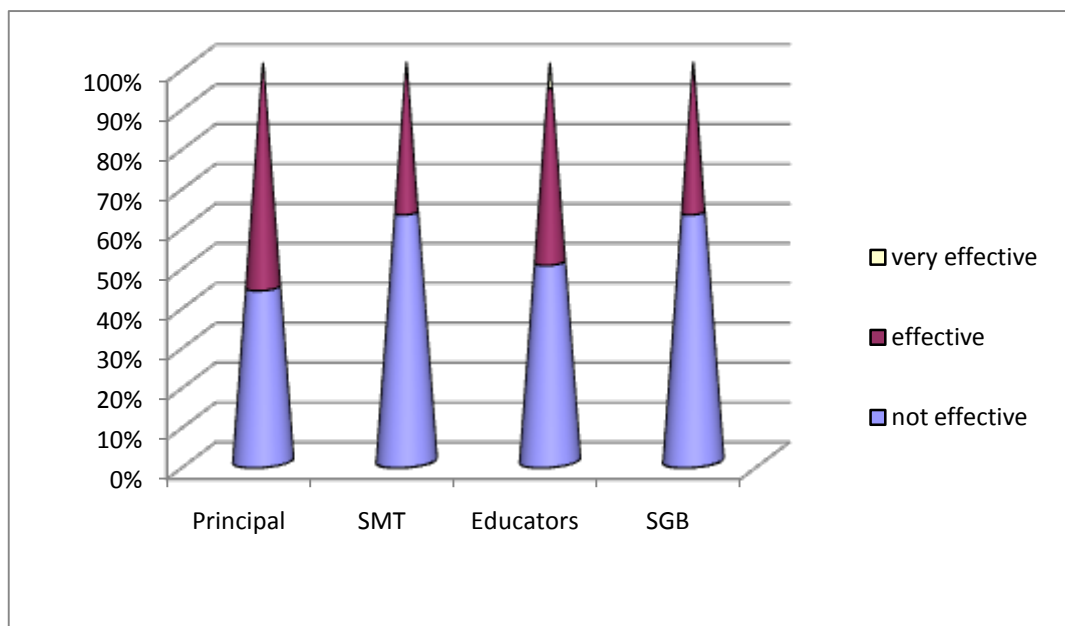 more than 50% of the members of the SGB were not involved. Although some sort of teamwork had been established at Category C schools, approximately 40% of the principals' input was ineffective; more than 40% of the educators' input was ineffective; and more than 50% of the input of the members of the SMTs and SGBs was ineffective. Schools in this category obviously found it difficult to work together for a common purpose. The problems could be of personal origin or might have been merely a lack of clarity regarding what was expected.

The implementation of effective teams in a school has tremendous value, as is evident from the schools in Category A. Armstrong (2008:62) contends that the combination of the multiple skills, experiences and judgements of team members can contribute to the effective functioning and performances of schools, or any organisation. Key in the success of Category A schools could be the fact that these schools involved their members in teams. Teamwork also encourages members to compromise and accept other members' thinking and beliefs. In working together for the attainment of common goals, members begin to find their strengths and weaknesses and become more flexible. They also tend to hone their interpersonal skills by listening to others, motivating them and being empathetic to their individual needs, thus enhancing their individual performances, as well as that of the team members.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT:

According to Cameron and Green (2004:226), the various stakeholders within schools need to be supported through changes and the transition process itself with relevant coaching and training. For any changes to be implemented successfully, the stakeholders within the schools themselves need to be informed and get involved. For this to happen, they need to be inducted or mentored into the changing situation and to

develop the necessary skills to effectively deal with and cope with the new situation. Thus, training and development could enhance the performance at schools.

GRAPH 28:   CMSs in Category A schools: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT – INVOLVEMENT
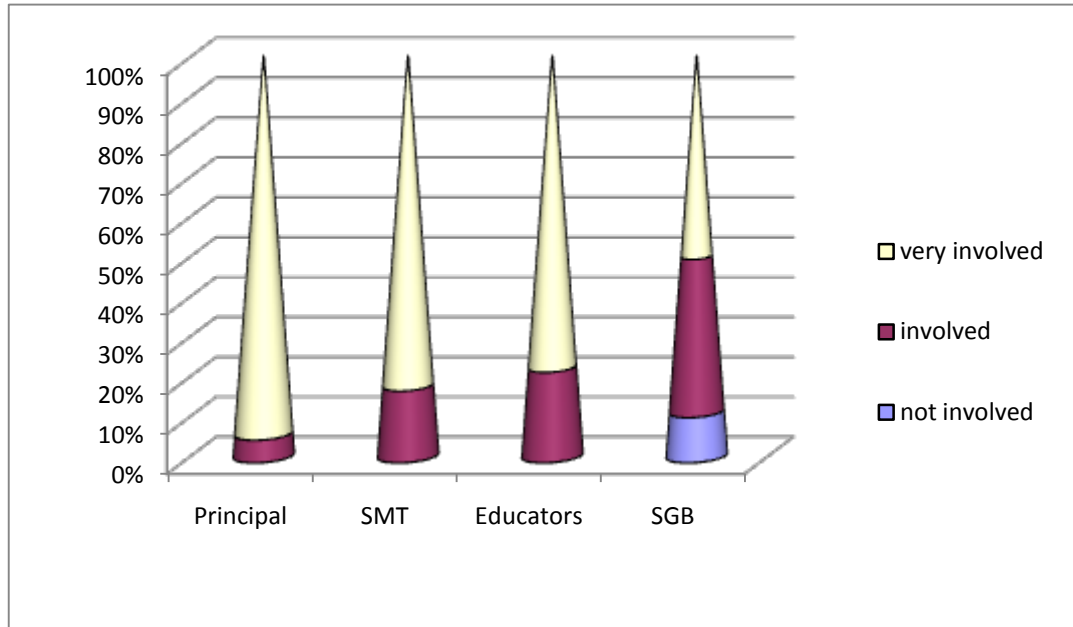
GRAPH 29:   CMSs in Category A schools: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT – EFFECTIVENESS
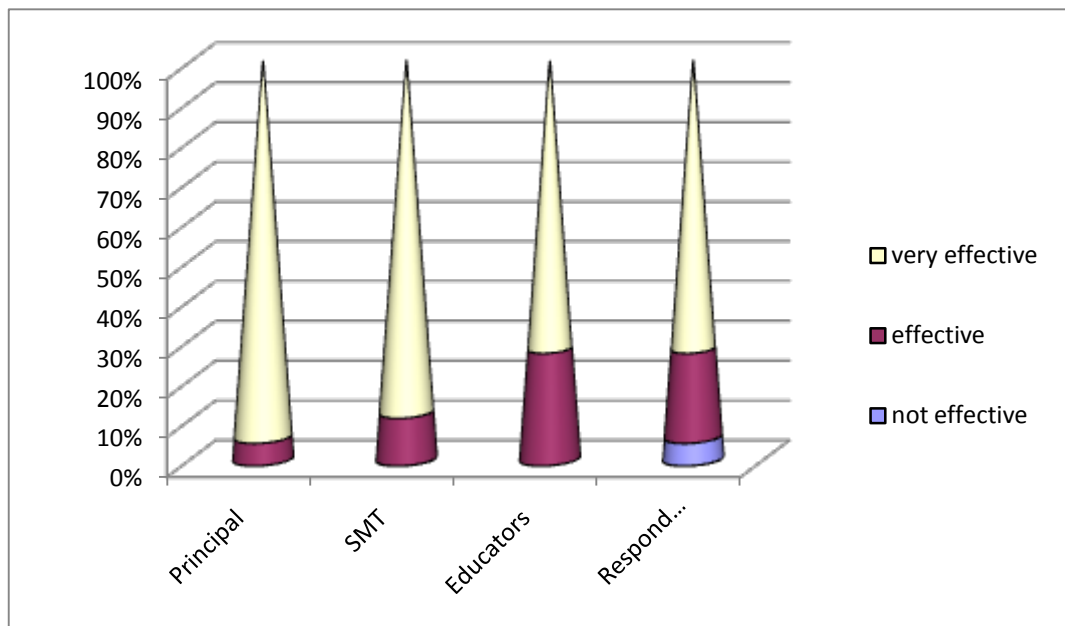
In Category A schools, the SGBs had not been fully exposed to training and development; therefore, the above graph reflects a percentage of below 20% only in this regard. The principals, SMT members and educators in Category A schools had all undergone training and development, and the skills acquired had been put into practice.

GRAPH 30: CMSs in Category B schools: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT – INVOLVEMENT
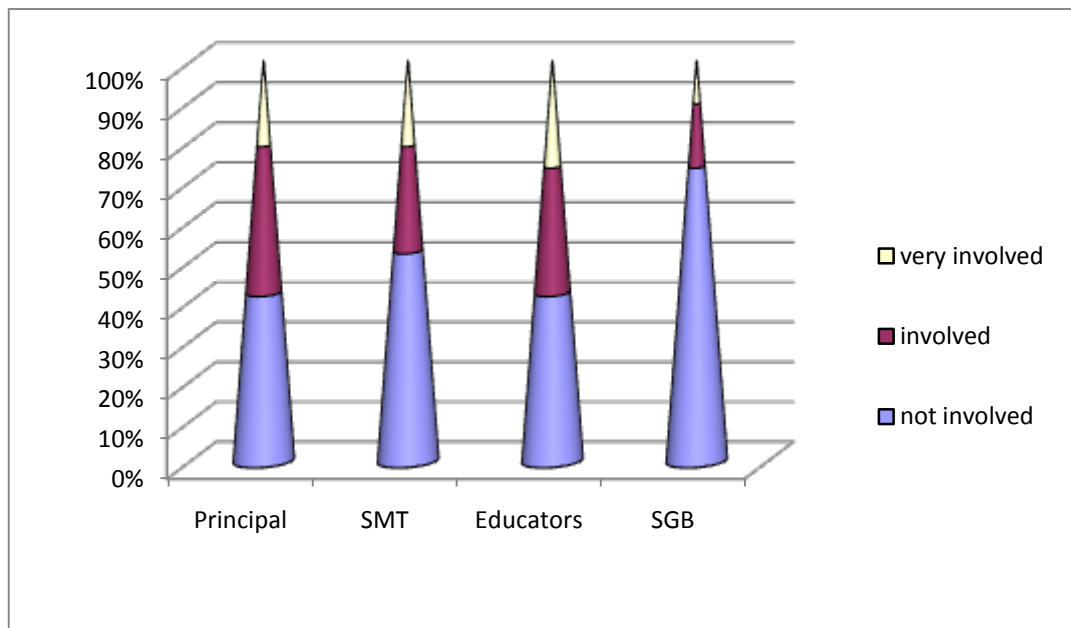
GRAPH 31: CMSs in Category B schools: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT – EFFECTIVENESS
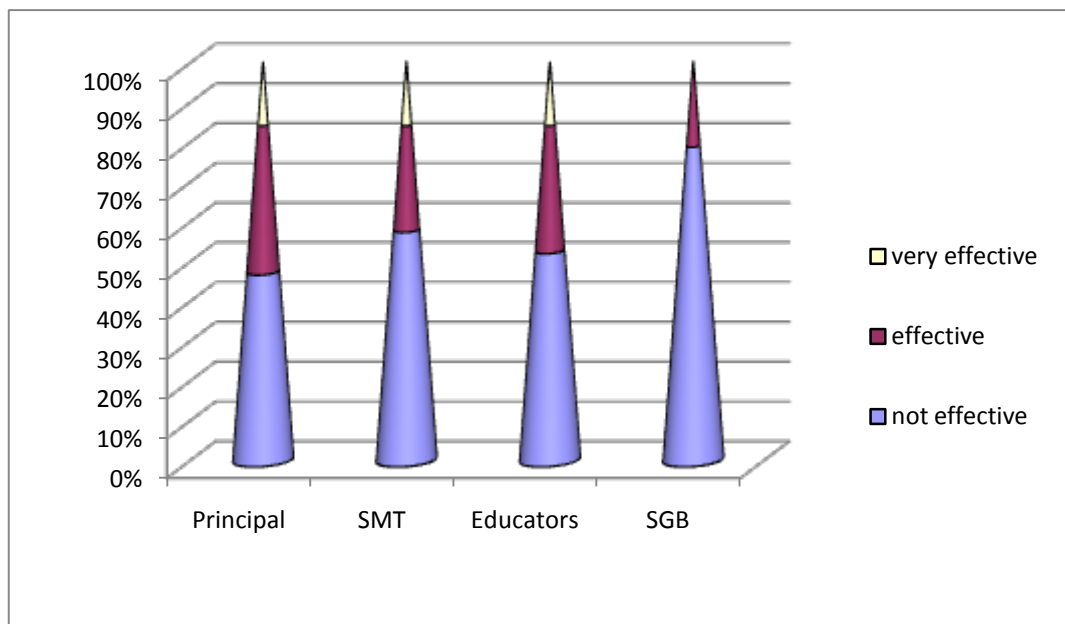
In Category B schools, more than 60% of the SGB members had not been exposed to any training and development. The educators and SMT members had also not received sufficient training and development. More than 40% of the SMT members had not been involved in further training and development, whilst just under 40% of the educators had not received any training and development whatsoever.

GRAPH 32: CMSs in Category C schools: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT – INVOLVEMENT
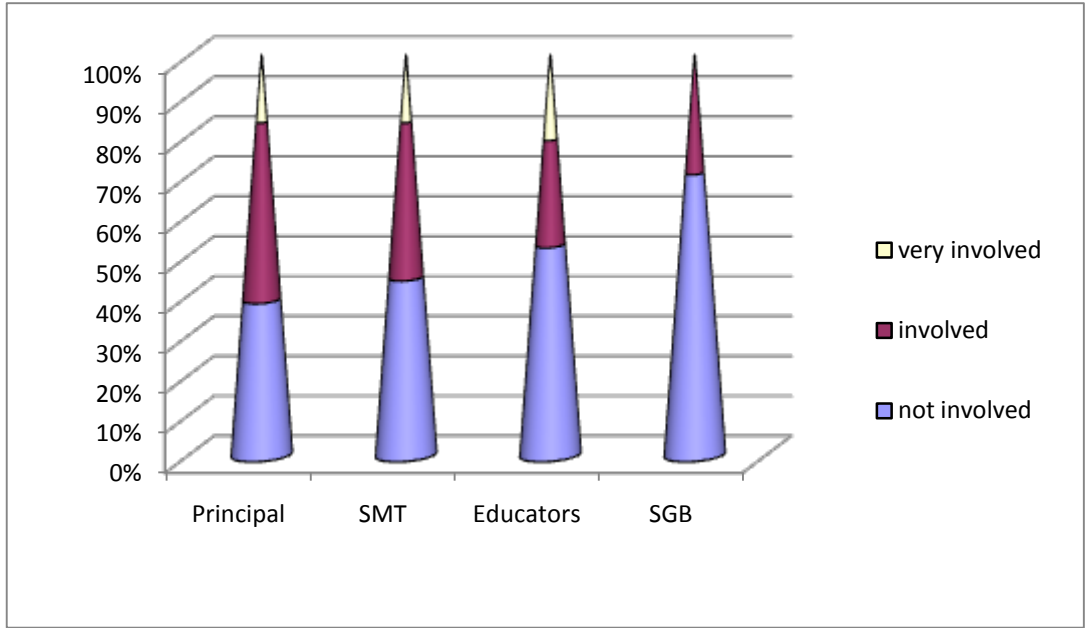
GRAPH 33: CMSs in Category C schools: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT – EFFECTIVENESS
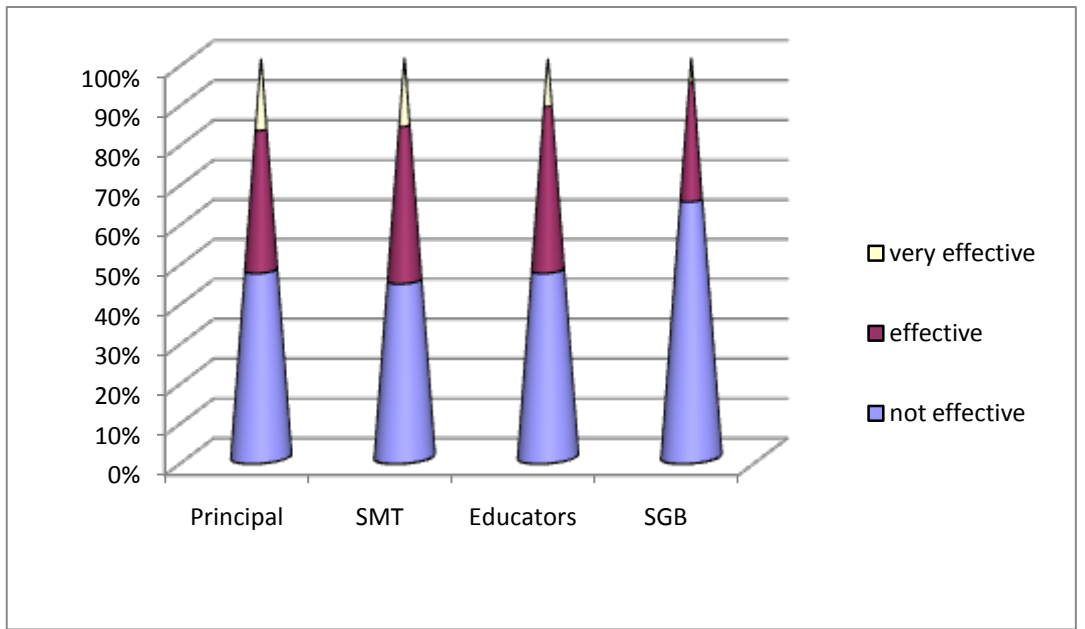
In Category C schools, more than 60% of the SGB members had not been involved in training and development. Less than 40% of the SMT members had not received training and development, whilst more than 40% of the educators had not received any training and development whatsoever.

Based on the results reflected in the above graphs, it is clear that all the participating schools were involved in training and development in order to keep abreast of change. However, since SGBs are still a relatively new concept, some schools had still not sent their SGB members for training.

Although the stakeholders, such as the principals, SMT members and educators, had received some level of training and development, they appeared ineffective, or at least more than 40% ineffective. This could be attributed to the kind of courses that they had attended. Various stakeholders had attended courses that were not relevant to the existing needs of the schools. Some stakeholders had attended craft and hobby courses, for example, pottery classes that were intended to enrich them out of the school situation. Sometimes the courses were not "cascading friendly", in other words, the course attendees found it difficult to brief the rest of the staff on their return to the school environment.

PRAISE AND INCENTIVES:

Clarke (2007:45) as well as Cameron and Green (2004:17) believe that positive reinforcement such as praise and incentives is pleasurable and promotes the repetition of certain behavioural patterns. Praise and incentives have a positive effect on human behaviour and tend to impact on performance. When people are praised, they feel that they are being recognised for their input and are encouraged to pursue related activities with the same drive and enthusiasm. Praise is an example of a non-financial reinforcement and may also be referred to as a form of social reinforcement, according to Cameron and Green (2004:18). Praise can be given in a one-on-one situation or in a group setting. Incentives can take the form of a monetary reward, an allowance, cellular

phone airtime, or a bonus. Recently, the trend is to give the stakeholders laptops, if they need them and if the school has the financial means to do so.

GRAPH 34:   CMSs in Category A schools: PRAISE AND INCENTIVES – INVOLVEMENT
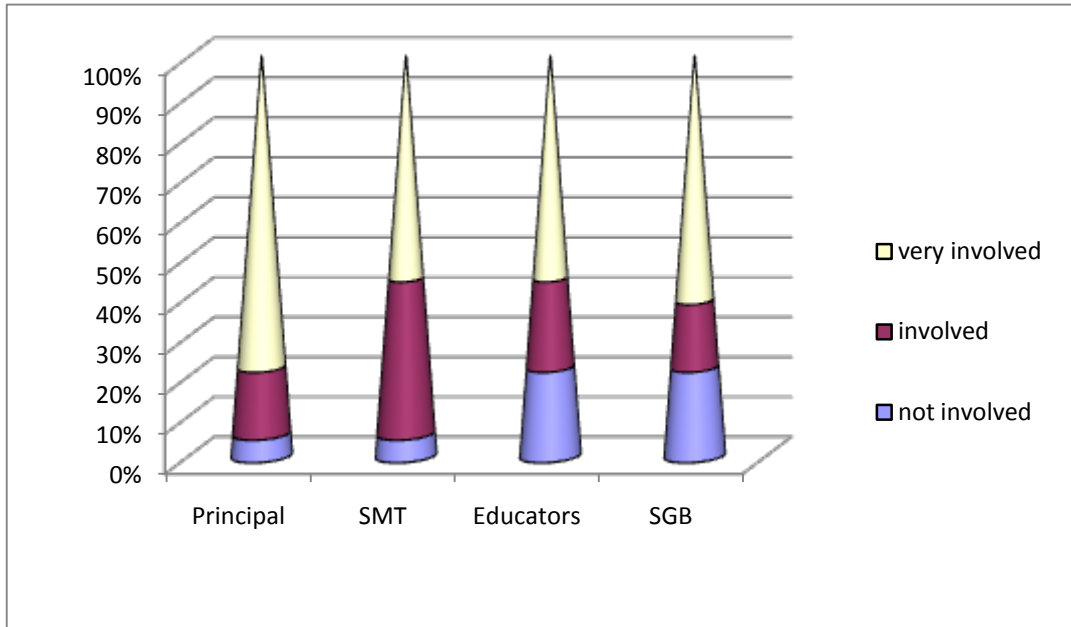
GRAPH 35:   CMSs in Category A schools: PRAISE AND INCENTIVES – EFFECTIVENESS
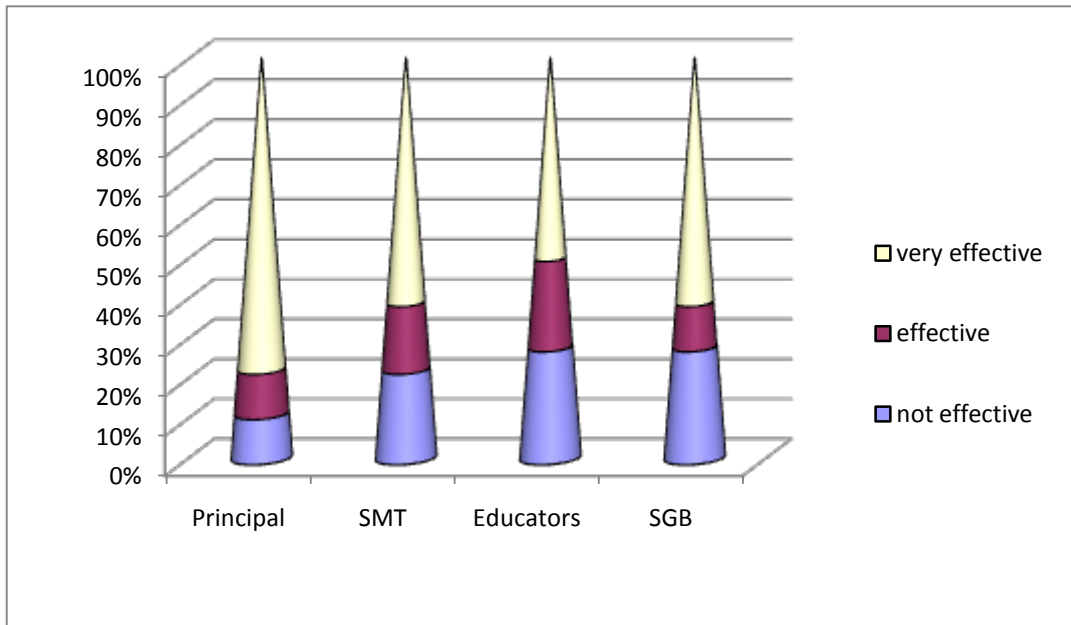
All stakeholders in Category A schools used praise and incentives effectively. It is impressive to note, however, that more than 70% of the principals in Category A schools used praise and incentives effectively.

GRAPH 36: CMSs in Category B schools: PRAISE AND INCENTIVES – INVOLVEMENT
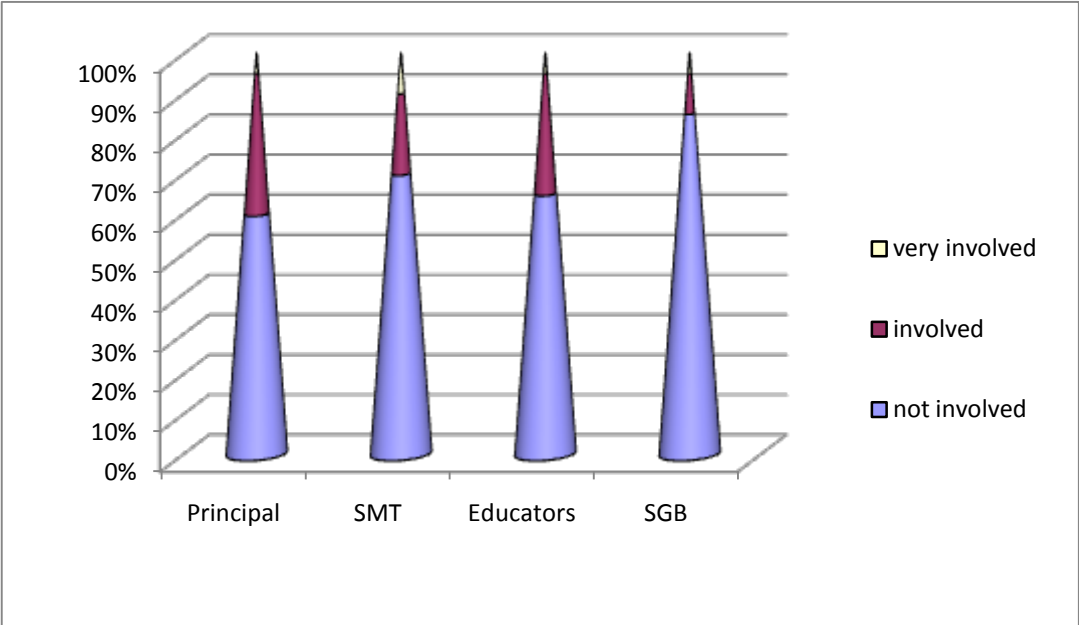
GRAPH 37: CMSs in Category B schools: PRAISE AND INCENTIVES – EFFECTIVENESS
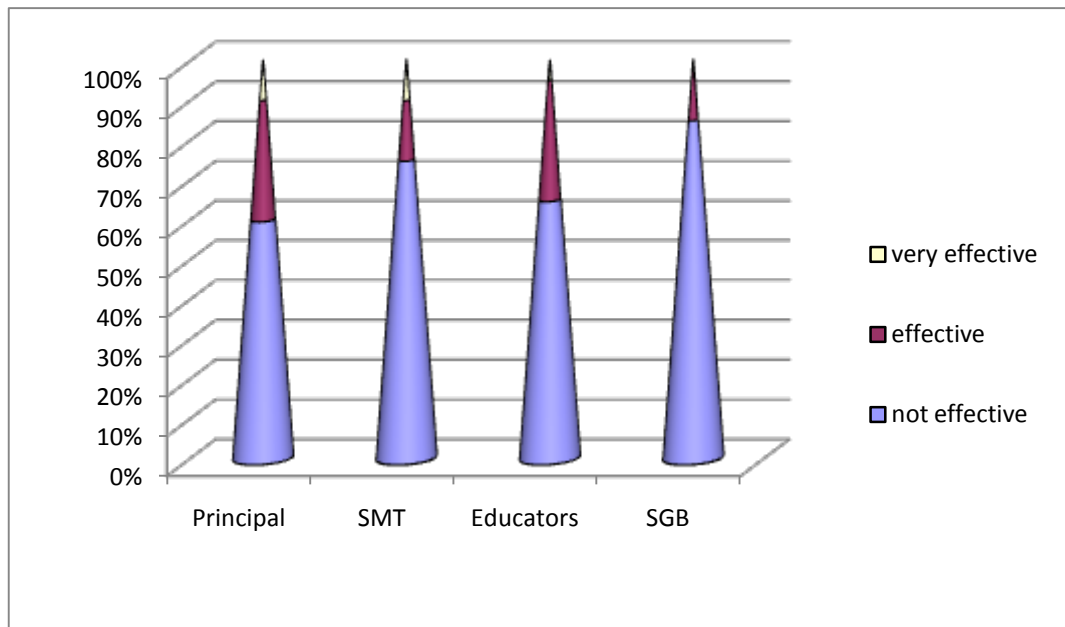
In Category B schools, more than 50% of the principals were *not* providing praise and incentives; more than 60% of the SMT members and educators did not resort to the use of praise and incentives; and more than 70% of the SGB members refrained from the use of praise and incentives.

GRAPH 38: CMSs in Category C schools: PRAISE AND INCENTIVES – INVOLVEMENT
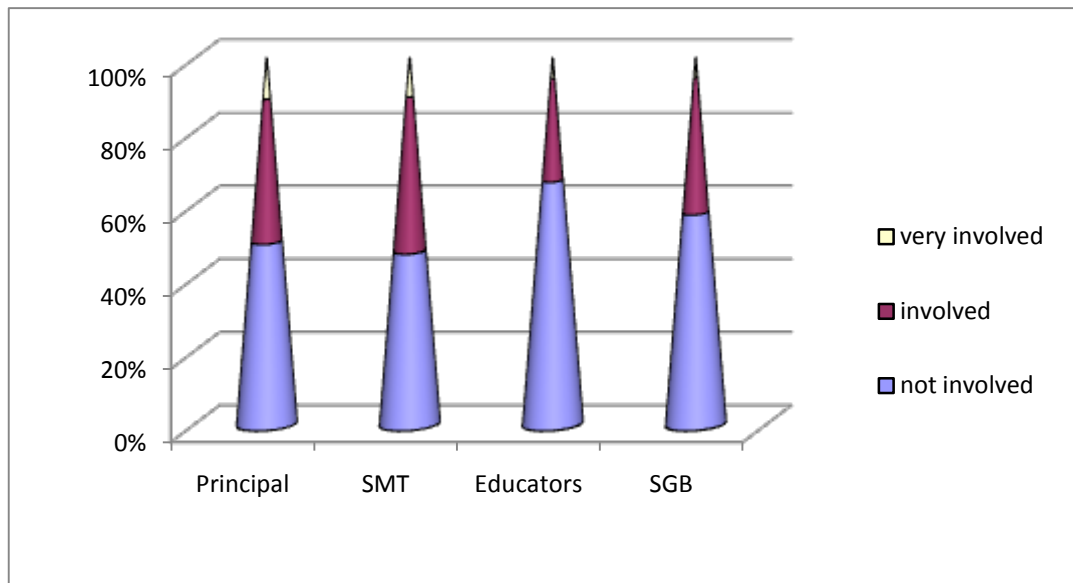
GRAPH 39: CMSs in Category C schools: PRAISE AND INCENTIVES – EFFECTIVENESS
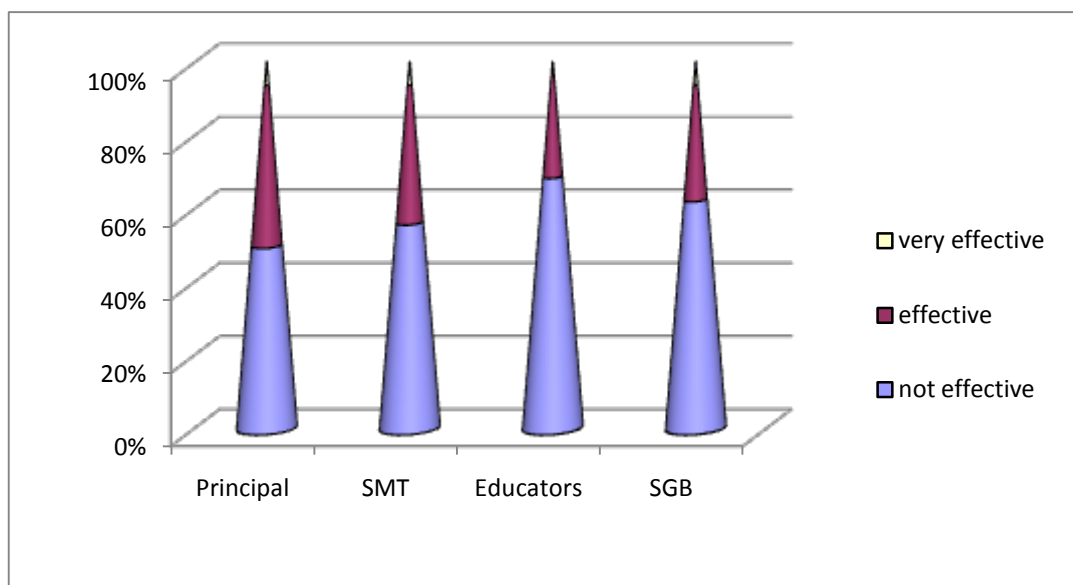
In Category C schools, more than 40% of principals and SMT members and more than 60% of the Level One educators were *no*t involved in the issuing of praise and incentives. Altogether 50% of the SGB members refrained from the use of praise and incentives.

From the information reflected on the graphs, it is interesting to note that principals, SMT members, educators and SGB members in Category A schools used praise and incentives effectively, whilst this was definitely lacking in Category B and C schools.

Human resources are of vital importance in the school or any organisation; yet, this component receives very little, if any, recognition. Praise and incentives are a strategy that could lead to better performance; the effective use of praise and incentives in Category A schools could have been a contributory factor that enhanced their excellent performance.

EVALUATION/FEEDBACK:

Dann (2008:93) in conjunction with Cook *et al.* (2004) state that the provision of feedback encourages greater openness in organisations. The authors place emphasis on the need to provide feedback of 360 degrees, which is a method of appraisal that involves *all* persons in an organisation. To promote a sense of commitment in the school and to foster an open climate in which everyone is allowed to speak out about that which they believe is correct/incorrect, is the new way of coping with change.

GRAPH 40:   CMSs in Category A schools: EVALUATION/FEEDBACK – INVOLVEMENT
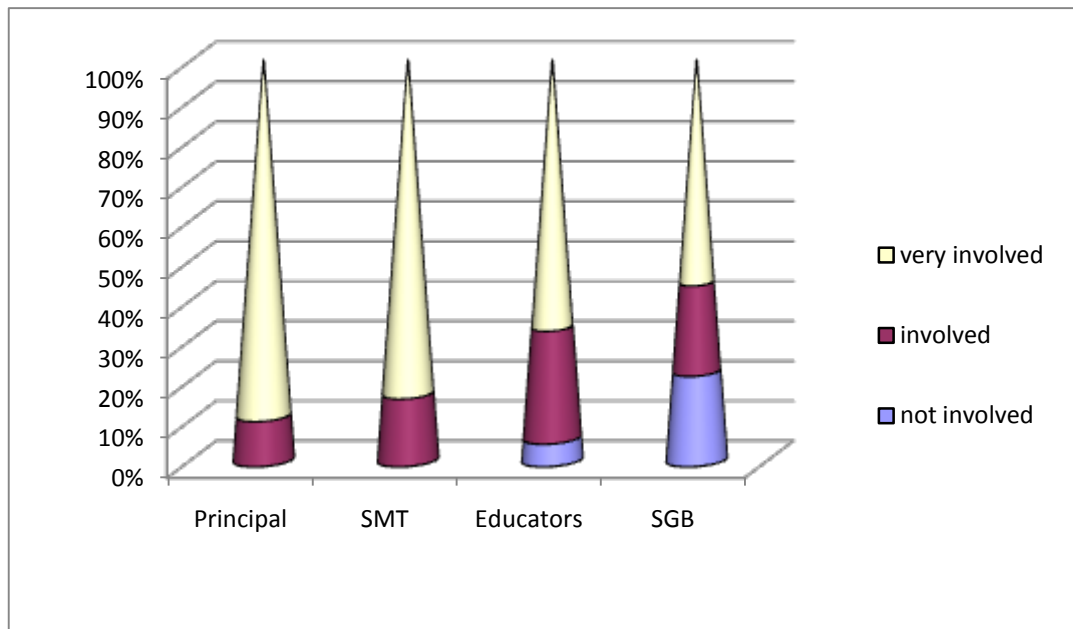
GRAPH 41:   CMSs in Category A schools: EVALUATION/FEEDBACK – EFFECTIVENESS
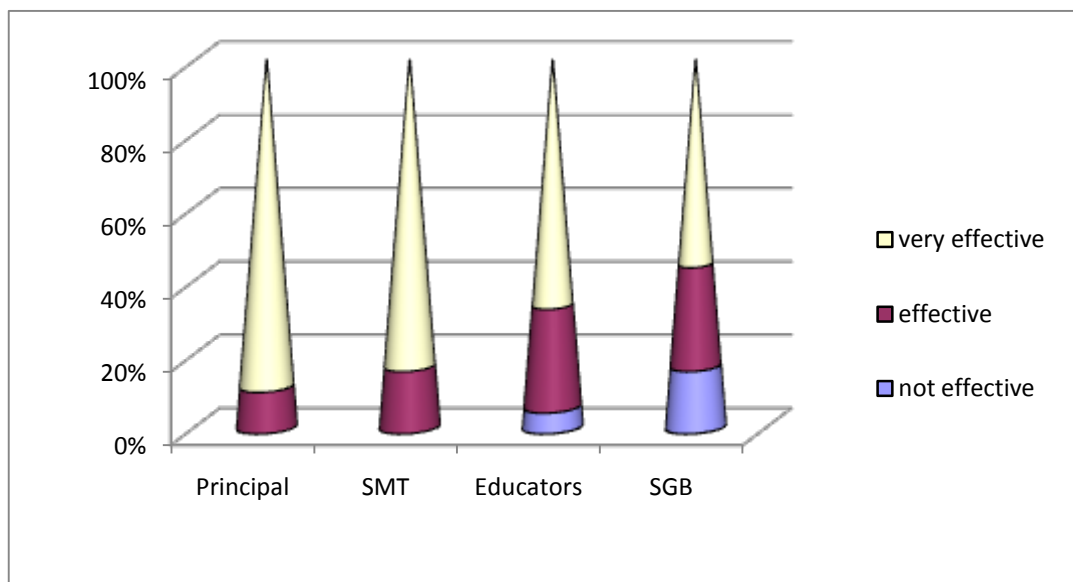
In Category A schools, the principals, SMT members and Level One educators were effectively involved in evaluation and the provision of feedback, while more than 40% of all SGB members were also effectively involved.

GRAPH 42: CMSs in Category B schools: EVALUATION/FEEDBACK – INVOLVEMENT
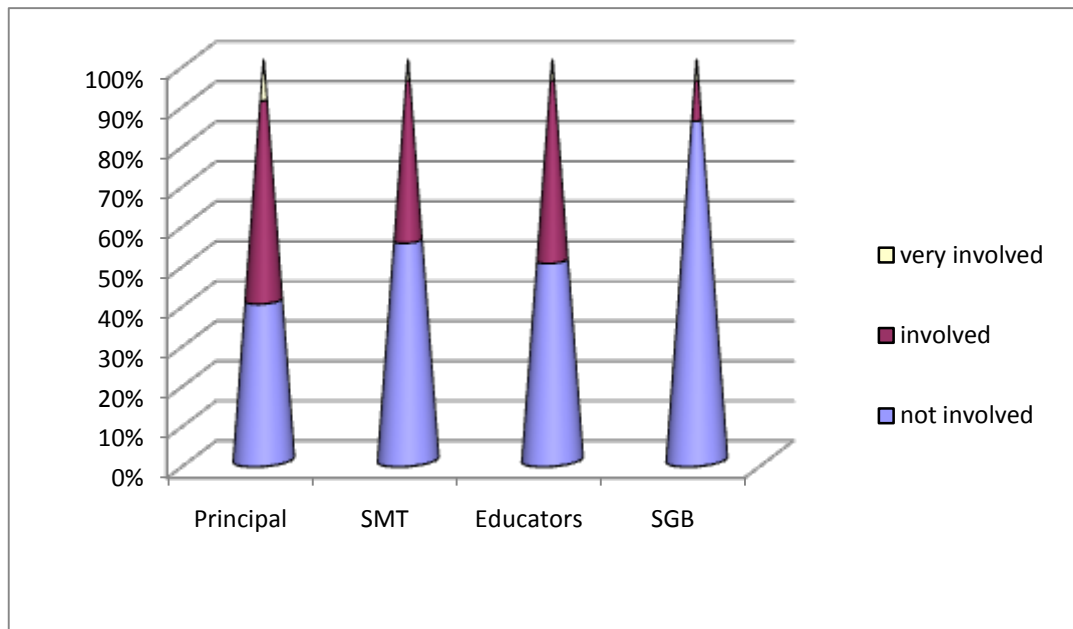
GRAPH 43: CMSs in Category B schools: EVALUATION/FEEDBACK – EFFECTIVENESS
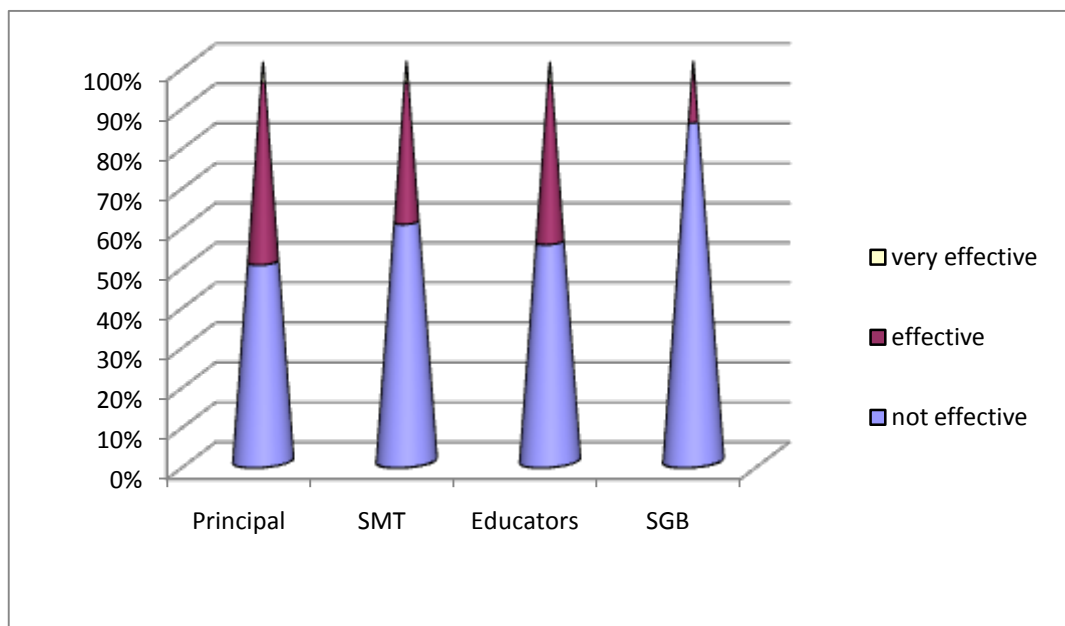
In Category B schools, the rate of non-involvement of principals in the provision of feedback to the stakeholders in the school was more than 30%, compared to the rate of

more than 40% of SMT members and educators and the rate of more than 70% among SGB members.

GRAPH 44: CMSs in Category C schools: EVALUATION/FEEDBACK – INVOLVEMENT
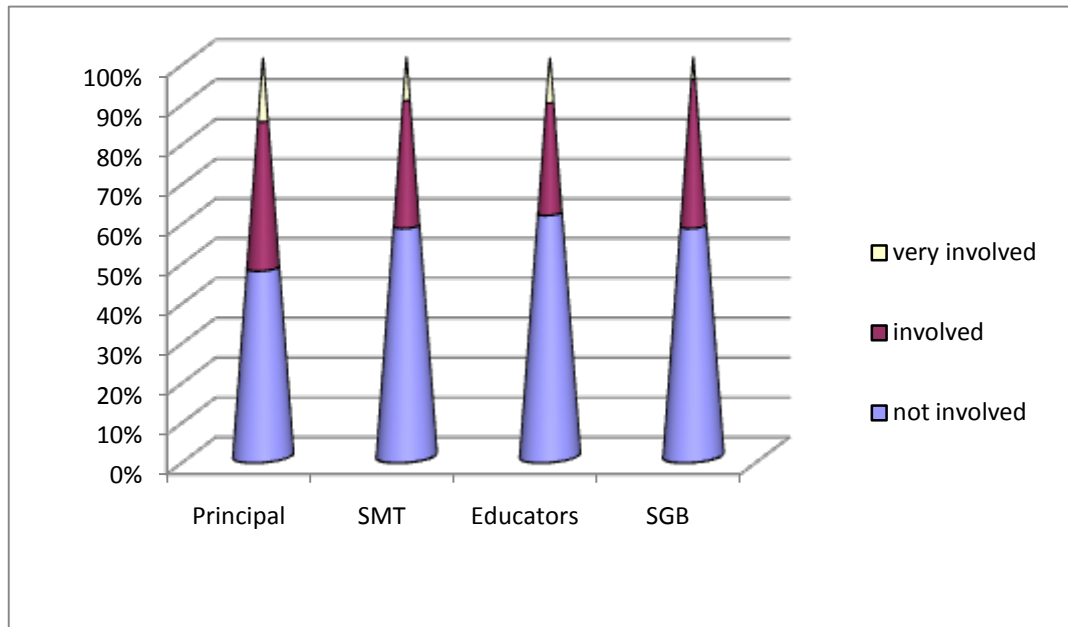
GRAPH 45: CMSs in Category C schools: EVALUATION/FEEDBACK – EFFECTIVENESS
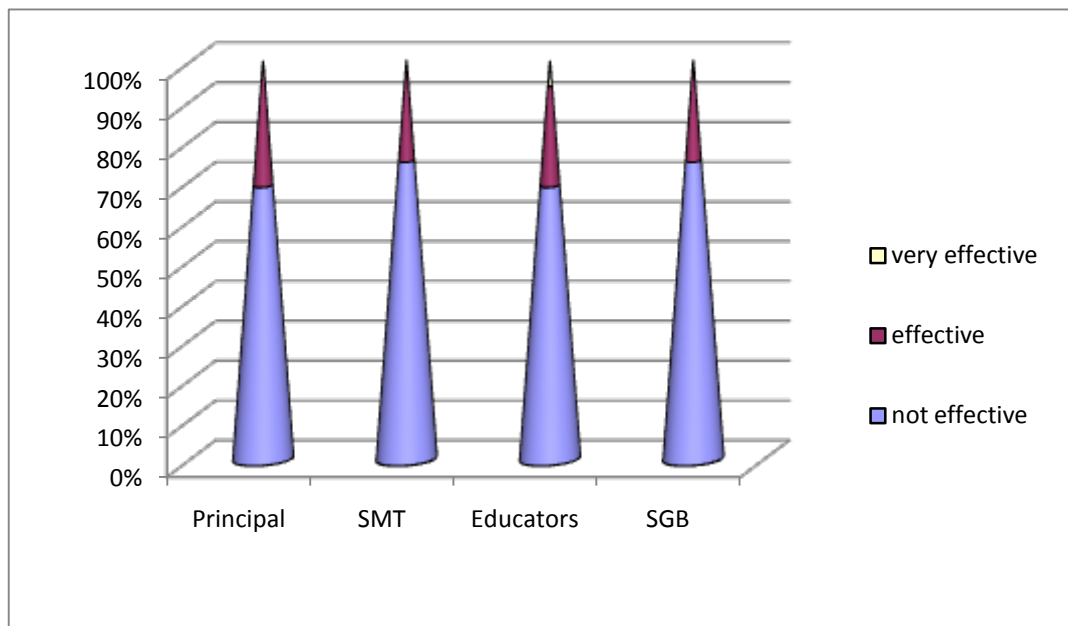
In Category C schools, there was also a low rate of feedback to the stakeholders, as is evident from the graph: 40% of the principals were not involved in the provision of feedback, whilst more than 50% of the educators and SGB and SMT members did not provide feedback in their schools.

Covey (2004:241) states that feedback is an aligning tool; an essential ingredient in the change process. He remarks that constant feedback provides the opportunity to check on progress and then reset the course, in order to achieve the identified goals. Feedback – which allows roleplayers to realign themselves in order to attain desired states or envisioned paths – whilst prominent in Category A schools, is lacking in Category B and C schools.

In Question 8, the respondents were required to comment on the previously mentioned CMSs, or mention other strategies for managing change effectively. The following input was received:

- The change to Section 21 status had not been clarified to all the stakeholders.
- The change to Section 21 status resulted in an increasing financial burden.
- The change to Section 21 status resulted in the existence of well planned and organised managers.
- There was a need to first redress past imbalances.
- Resources were inadequate.
- SGBs gradually became more involved.
- The change had resulted in a lack of accountability on the DoE's side and an increase in accountability within the schools themselves.
- There was a lack of cooperation amongst the various stakeholders, especially the DoE, during the changes as well as after the transition to Section 21 status.

In Category A schools, it was believed that the resources available or provided to the schools were inadequate. The respondents in Category B schools felt that the change to Section 21 status was both problematic and positive. They stated that there was a definite lack of resources in Section 21 schools. They also stated that the change or the need for change, and how it was going to be implemented had not been clarified. They maintained that the change to Section 21 status could be put into effect only once the imbalances of the past had been redressed. Positive aspects about Section 21 status listed were that this status resulted in *well-organised and planned managers, a greater involvement on the part of SGBs,* as well as a greater need for *accountability.*

Category C schools stated that the move to Section 21 status had not been clarified and had also resulted in an increased financial burden. However, they also stated that there were some positive occurrences after the change to Section 21 status. They believed that the change called for greater involvement of SGBs, that managers had been forced to plan more carefully and that there had been an increase in accountability among all the stakeholders.

6.4 SECTION C: SELF-ASSESSMENT

According to Sterrett (2000:21), certain emotional competencies have a direct influence on the success in any organisation and the world at large. It is therefore imperative that the stakeholders in an organisation are aware of their strengths and weaknesses pertaining to emotional intelligence. Sterrett has designed a self-assessment checklist, based on the six-facet model of EI. This model was referred to in Chapter Four, which deals with EI. The researcher used this self-assessment checklist in order to assess the respondents' emotional competencies. The aim was to determine the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs. The researcher wanted to see if there was a relationship between EI and the performance of the three categories of schools.

The self-assessment sheet consisted of 30 questions. The questions were rated on a scale of 1 – 5. The respondent could choose between 1 – 5, based on how accurately it

reflected the respondent's behaviour; 1 and 2 meant "never", 3 referred to a possibility; and 4 – 5 meant "always". The ratings of the respondents were put under six specific headings. The scoring of numbers 1, 7, 13, 19 and 25 were put under the heading *Self-awareness*, while the scoring of numbers 4, 10, 16, 22 and 28 were put under the heading *Empathy*. The scoring of numbers 2, 8, 14, 20 and 26 were put under the heading *Self-confidence,* and the scoring of numbers 5, 11, 17, 23 and 29 were placed under the heading *Motivation.* The scoring of numbers 3, 9, 15, 21 and 27 were placed under the heading *Self-control*, while the scoring of numbers 6, 12, 18, 24 and 30 were placed under the heading *Social Competency.*

Any score below 20 indicated an area requiring improvement. A "3" allocation meant "average". If one is emotionally intelligent, one is above average, contends Sterrett (2000:25), which implies that one cannot obtain a 3. Sterrett (2000:25) maintains that effective leaders should score high in all six areas.

Only seventeen of the eighteen respondents in Category A schools completed Section C (self-assessment), whilst all twenty of the respondents in Category B schools completed Section C. All nineteen respondents in Category C schools completed Section C. However, the respondents did not always provide answers to all 30 questions. The results per category are reflected in the tables below.

GRAPH 46: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF SELF-AWARENESS IN CATEGORIES A, B AND C SCHOOLS
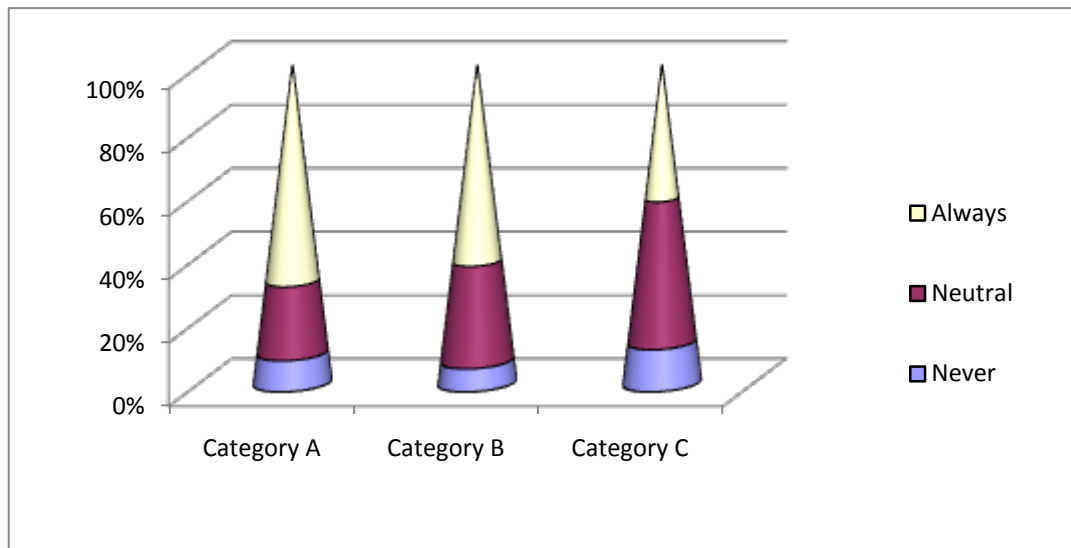
In Category A schools, 80% of the respondents were well-developed in the self-awareness competency of EI. This implies that the respondents from Category A schools were aware of their own feelings, preferences, goals and values (Sterrett, 2000:5). They could also sense how others felt about them and they used this information to guide their behaviour. Self-awareness forms part of the "self-dimension" of EI and is also an aspect of the knowledge component of EI. Only 50% of the respondents from Category B schools were well-developed in this competency, compared to 30% in Category C schools.

GRAPH 47: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF EMPATHY IN CATEGORIES A, B AND C SCHOOLS
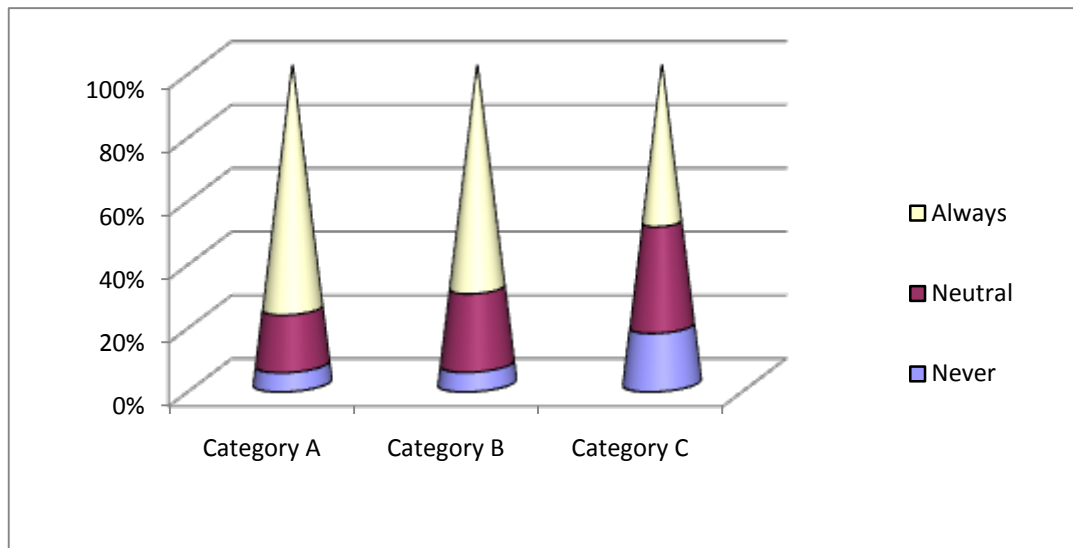
Empathy is a component of the social dimension of EI. Sterret (2000:6) maintains that EI also concerns our experience and interaction with others. Empathy is therefore the knowledge we have of others; it refers to the ability to understand others, based on listening to them and reading their behaviour. According to the results on the graphs, the respondents from Category C schools only possessed 60% empathy, whilst the respondents from Category B schools had 80% empathy. The respondents from Category A schools obtained more than 80% in the empathy competency.

GRAPH 48: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF SELF-CONFIDENCE IN CATEGORIES A, B AND C SCHOOLS
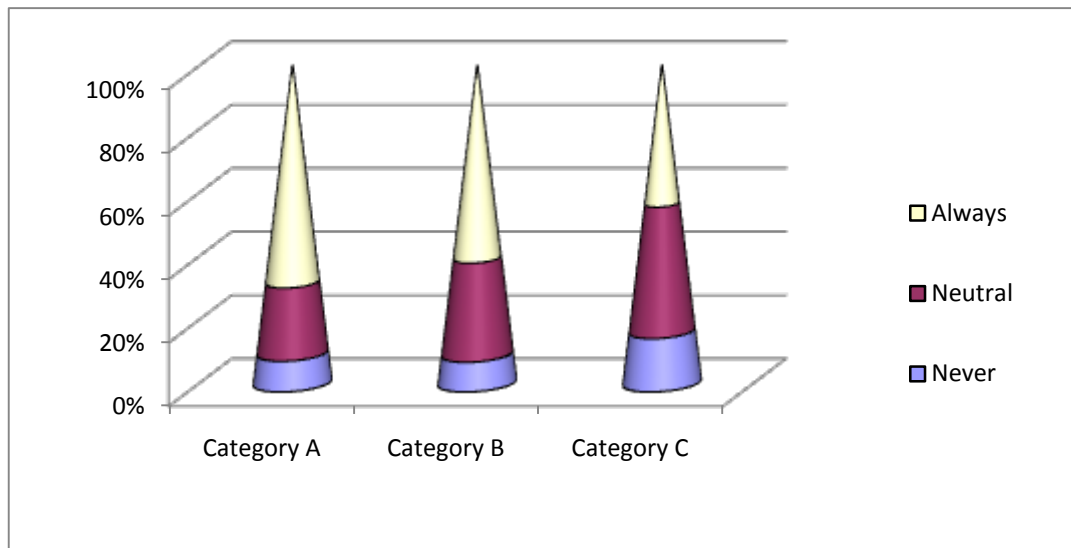
Self-confidence is another competency that arises from the "self-dimension" (Sterrett, 2000:5) of EI and forms a part of the attitude component of EI. Self-dimension implies that EI is based on an understanding and acceptance of ourselves. One of the areas of the "self" is self-confidence. In Category A schools, 80% of the respondents displayed self-confidence, compared to 70% of the respondents from Category B schools. Approximately 50% of the respondents from Category C schools displayed self-confidence.

GRAPH 49: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF MOTIVATION IN CATEGORIES A, B AND C SCHOOLS
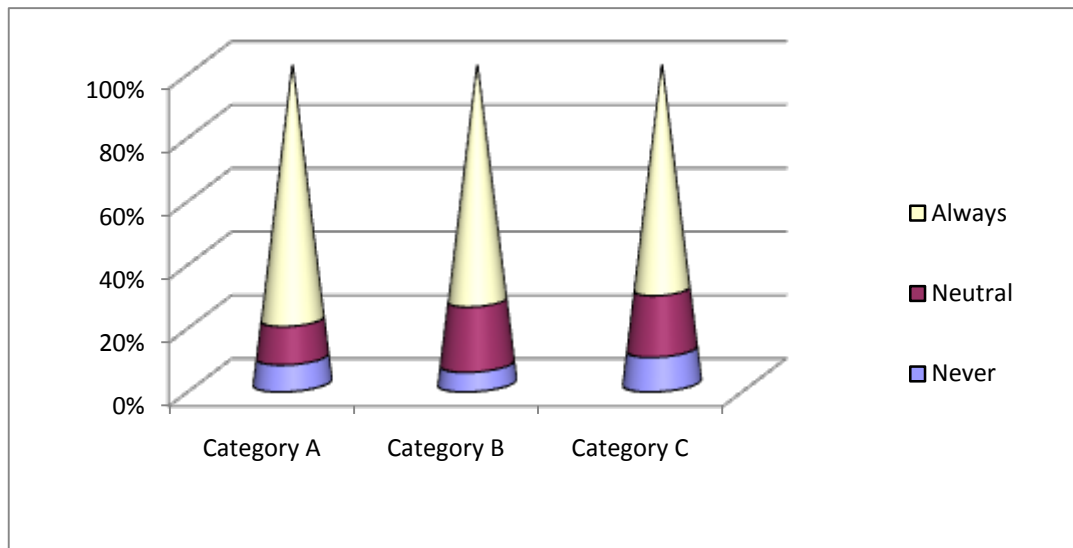
Motivation is a competency of the social dimension of emotional behaviour. Motivation is an attitude. According to Sterrett (2000:6), attitude refers to the ability to take the initiative to do something, having a positive outlook, being creative, the ability to inspire others, and the ability to do the things that we believe in and remain committed to. According to the findings, the respondents from Category A schools were 90% motivated, compared to the percentages of 85% and 80% respectively recorded by the respondents from Category B and C schools.

GRAPH 50: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF SELF-CONTROL IN CATEGORIES A, B AND C SCHOOLS
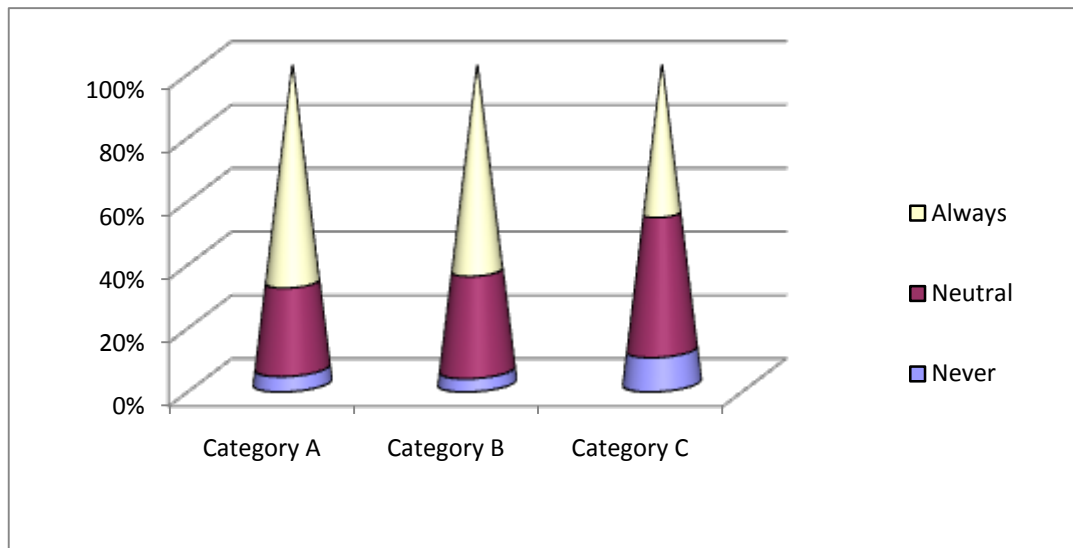
Self-control also belongs to the self-dimension of EI and is related to one's behaviour. Sterrett (2000:5) believes that self-control refers to our ability to deal aptly with stress, control our emotional moods or outbursts, our adaptability and our ability to balance rational and emotional considerations. According to the research findings, the respondents from Category A schools possessed 80% self-control, while the respondents from Category B schools possessed just over 70% self-control, and respondents from Category C schools had 60% self-control.

GRAPH 51: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF SOCIAL COMPETENCY IN CATEGORIES A, B AND C SCHOOLS
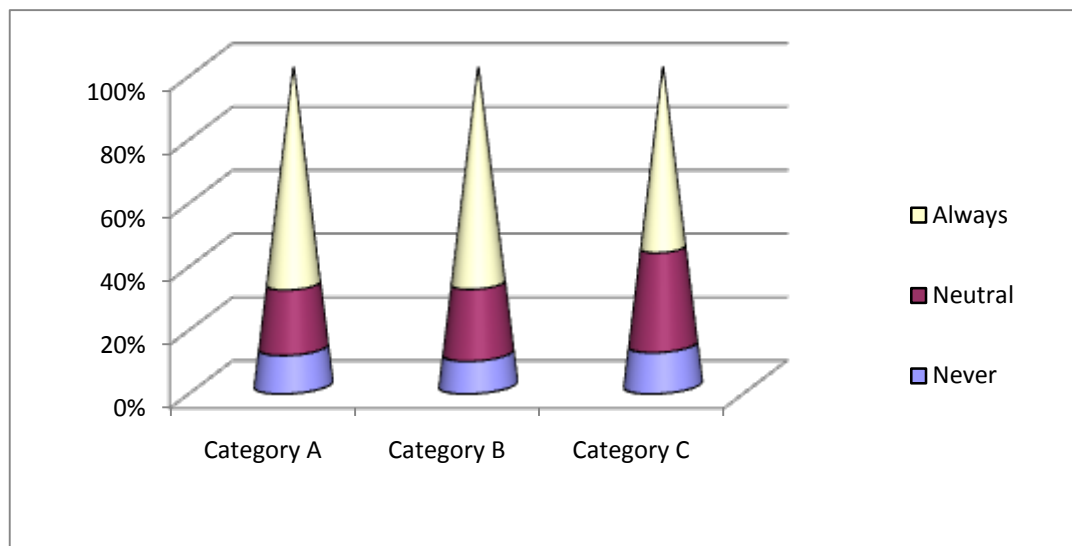
Altogether 80% of the respondents from Category A and B schools performed well on the social competency, which relates to social behaviour. Altogether 75% of the respondents from Category C schools performed well. This competency, according to Sterrett (2000:6), refers to one's ability to find common ground and establish rapport with others, thereby reducing the possibility of conflict, one's ability to persuade and convince others, one's ability to establish positive relationships, and being likeable and having integrity. It is interesting to note the closeness of the scores in all three categories of schools with regard to this component of EI.

6.5   SECTION D: CHANGE TO SECTION 21 STATUS PROCESS

Section D included questions regarding the change to a Section 21 status school/SMS. Question 1.1 concerned the success of the *process* of change to Section 21 status. Respondents had a choice ranging from:

Strongly disagree   -   1

Disagree   -   2

Neutral   -   3

Agree   -   4

Strongly agree   -   5

The results were as follows:

TABLE 9: Success of the process of the change to Section 21 status

CATEGORY	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
A	0	1	6	7	3
B	8	6	3	2	0
C	4	5	5	3	0

As is evident from the table above, three of the seventeen respondents from Category A schools strongly agreed that the actual process of change to Section 21 status had been a success; seven respondents agreed; six remained neutral; and only one respondent disagreed. No respondents from Category B schools, however, strongly agreed that the process had been a success; only two respondents agreed; three remained neutral; six disagreed; while eight strongly disagreed. Likewise, in Category C schools, not one respondent strongly agreed that the process had been a success; three respondents agreed; five respondents remained neutral; five disagreed and four strongly disagreed.

Regarding the process of change to Section 21 status, TWO open-ended questions were asked. The respondents identified the following as the positive aspects:

•   More interaction and common goals.

•   More say in matters.

•   The development of a sense of ownership and autonomy.

•   Implementation had been fostered.

- A sense of self-management had developed in the school.
- Community involvement.
- The standard of work had improved.
- More planning and organising and CMSs.

The following aspects were identified as negative aspects:

- A lack of skills to effectively establish a SMS, as well as the mismanagement of funds.
- A lack of support and direction from the Education Department (District Offices).
- A lack of financial support.
- Too much bureaucracy in matters and decisions.
- The socio-economic environment made SMSs difficult to implement and run.
- Ineffective management.
- The academic results were poor.
- The educators were poorly motivated.
- Disciplinary problems were escalating.
- Planning was time-consuming.
- Many respondents experienced change as threatening.
- Too many compromises had to be made.
- Some schools were closing down, as there were no funds and other resources available.

The outcome of the process of the change to Section 21 school is reflected in the table below:

TABLE 10: Outcome of the process of the change to section 21 status.

CATEGORY	MUCH WORSE	WORSE	SAME	BETTER	MUCH BETTER
A	0	0	0	7	4
B	6	5	4	2	0
C	2	3	7	3	0

The respondents from Category A schools felt that the transition to Section 21 status had been for the better, or that the change had led to much better opportunities for all. Six respondents from Category B schools, however, felt that the situation at their schools was much worse; five believed that it was worse; while seven respondents felt that there had been no change in the circumstances. Three respondents felt that the outcome of the adoption of Section 21 status was positive, while none felt that it was much better. The respondents identified the following as positive aspects regarding the outcome of the process of change to Section 21 status:

- They could now purchase what they needed.
- More roleplayers were involved.
- More planning in advance.
- Stricter financial control had emerged.
- Teamwork had improved.
- Discipline had improved.
- All stakeholders were now held more accountable for the effective running of the school.

The respondents identified the following as negative aspects of the outcome of the process to change to Section 21 status:

- Misuse of funds.
- The process had not been properly implemented.

- The poor socio-economic circumstances of the neighbourhood had a negative influence/impact on the school as a whole.
- There was a lack of resources and certain people tended to monopolise the situation.
- The process of change was believed to be impractical and time-consuming.
- There was a lack of departmental involvement.
- The school buildings were deteriorating.
- The morale of the educators was very low.
- It had a negative impact on the curriculum and extramural activities, as a result of a lack of resources.
- A frustrated SGB.
- Poor results/status.
- Many stakeholders resisted change.
- Some schools had been closed.
- Many educators had been redeployed.

6.6 Self-managing schools, change management strategies and emotional intelligence

Whilst changes are inevitable, a change to a self-managing school could lead to better opportunities or worsen an existing situation, according to the data presented. Some SMSs experienced more interaction; greater community involvement; more say in matters; more planning and organising; more change management strategies; a sense of ownership; greater autonomy and an improvement in the standard of work. However, other schools experienced change as threatening, time-consuming and compromising. They identified various negative aspects of becoming an SMS. They stated that they lacked skills in establishing an SMS; that there was a lack of financial support; and that there was insufficient support and direction from the DoE. The socio-economic environment in which schools were situated had also adversely affected the change to SMSs. It was also stated that the change to an SMS had led to ineffective management, poor results, poorly motivated educators and escalating disciplinary problems.

However, the performance of a Category A school presiding in the same poor socio-economic environment, contradicted these perceptions. What did this school do differently to obtain an above 85% matriculation pass rate?

According to the results, in SMSs where CMSs were being carried out effectively and all the stakeholders were involved, there was an improvement in school performance. Although Category B and C schools also used CMSs such as the development of a vision, planning and organising and teamwork, the non-involvement of *all* stakeholders as well as the failure to concentrate on CMSs such as communication, praise and incentives, and evaluation and feedback, hindered their performance. Armstrong (2008:3) states that people are the most important resource in any organisation. It is through the people element that all other resources are managed. These change management strategies involve working with people and therefore require people skills. EI, which consists of a self and a social dimension, is therefore needed to assist in using these CMSs and enhancing the involvement of roleplayers in the implementation of these CMSs. According to the results based on the model of EI, the respondents from Category C schools performed poorly in self-awareness (aware of own feelings, values and goals); self-control (ability to balance rational and emotional considerations); and empathy (to understand and listen to others). These are the very properties deemed necessary for communication, teamwork, praising and rewarding others, and providing constructive feedback.

A definite link between the three concepts SMSs, CMSs and EI has become apparent from the data collected and analysed.

6.7 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an in-depth presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings of the research. A brief discussion was presented regarding the procedures used to ascertain the relevant information as well as how this collated information would be used in this chapter. Thereafter the various sections of the questionnaire were dealt

with. In Section A, the personal details of the respondents of the six schools were presented quantitatively, using tables. A qualitative analysis and interpretation of the findings were then presented. The researcher then grouped the findings in respect of Section B, which covered the CMSs put into place for schools to cope with the change to Section 21 status. The schools were grouped according to their matriculation results in 2008, as received by the Education Department. Schools that produced an 85% pass rate were categorised as Category A schools; schools with a 50% pass rate were categorised as Category B schools; and schools with a pass rate under 30% were categorised as Category C schools. There were two schools in each category. The researcher presented the findings of the categories in tables and also used graphs to highlight the differences between the schools.

The researcher focused on the following CMSs: vision, planning and organising; communication, teamwork; training and development; praise and incentives; and evaluation/feedback in order to ascertain whether these strategies had assisted schools in their transition to SMSs. Section C covered the findings pertaining to EI. Sterrett's self-assessment sheet (Sterrett, 2000:24) was used to ascertain the level of EI development among the respondents of the selected schools. The findings were then qualitatively analysed using the six-facets EI model, which is referred to as the K-A-B model of EI. This was done in order to ascertain whether EI had contributed to the performance within the three categories of schools. The last section in this chapter covered the change to Section 21 status. The findings of the respondents were grouped according to the positive and negative aspects of the *process* of the change and the positive and negative aspects pertaining to the *outcomes* of the change to Section 21 status.

In Chapter Seven, the researcher will make recommendations regarding the use and acquisition of emotional competencies as a vehicle that could facilitate SMSs. In so doing, the researcher will also suggest strategies that could be implemented to facilitate SMSs.

CHAPTER SEVEN
IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the implications, based on the analysis of the findings in chapter seven, and the recommendations for a way forward are made. These are aimed at enhancing the performance of SMSs. This will be followed by concluding remarks on the influence of EI on CMSs in SMSs.

7.2   IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A multi-site case study approach was selected in order to obtain information regarding the change to SMSs. There was also a need to ascertain which change management strategies were required to effectively bring about the change and the influence of EI on this process.

Section A of the questionnaire revealed that Category A schools were female dominated, had more experienced (teaching for more than 20 years) and better educated educators (the majority had degrees, in contrast to the educators at Categories B and C schools). It was interesting to note that the best qualified educator, who possessed a Master's Degree, was in a Category C school. Whilst English, Afrikaans and IsiXhosa as home languages were prevalent in the respondents of Categories A and B schools, it was noted that there were no respondents in Category C schools whose home language was either English or Afrikaans. These findings could form the focus of future studies.

An analysis of the findings of the investigation further revealed that there was a great amount of involvement of the principals, SMT members and Level One educators in Category A schools, which had a matriculation pass rate of above 85%, in the following change management strategies: the establishment of a vision, planning and organising,

teamwork, training and development, communication, praise and incentives, and evaluation and feedback. There was also a great contribution by the SGB members. However, in Category B schools, which had a matriculation pass rate of 50%, the SGB members were less involved. The principal, SMT members as well as the Level One educators were less involved in such processes as teamwork, communication, praise and incentives, as well as feedback and evaluation. In Category C schools, which had a matriculation pass rate of between 25% and 30%, the stakeholders were either not involved or not effectively involved in the execution of the before-mentioned CMSs. There was very little, if any, constructive involvement of the SGB members in Category C schools. Very little emphasis had been placed on communication, praise and incentives as well as evaluation and feedback processes in Category C schools on becoming SMSs.

According to the results based on the EI model, Category A schools performed well (80%+) in both the self and social dimensions. However, Category B schools fluctuated between 50% and 80% in both dimensions, while Category C schools fluctuated between 30% and 80%.

As a leader, you are judged by the results you receive on a given task. In the case of schools, principals are mainly judged by the results/performance of their Grade Twelve learners. This is, however, not done in isolation: your competence is also judged. Armstrong (2008:4) explains the concept competence as being concerned with one's knowledge and skills. This refers to what people need to know and be able to do to perform their work well. Thus, when people judge Grade Twelve results, they need to know what level of competence the leader (principal) has attained and applied in order to achieve those results. Having knowledge and skills is important, but a lot of emphasis is lately being placed on *how* the work is actually carried out. Armstrong (2008:4) refers to this as behavioural competencies. Simply put, it refers to your behaviour whilst using your knowledge and skills that leads to effective performance (Armstrong, 2008:4). Since everyone is different, these behavioural competencies will vary. Essentially, they refer to those personal characteristics that people bring with

them to their groups, teams, and work and which become evident when they are communicating, leading and working with others.

The questionnaire focused on the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, values, perceptions, personalities and behavioural interactions of the research respondents, and the responses were graphically presented to facilitate the interpretation thereof. Based on these, the following inductions were made. It is not the extraneous influences, the future challenges/threats, such as alcohol and drug abuse or HIV and AIDS, nor past imbalances, such as the lack of resources, that make a difference, as was proven by Lillies, which achieved a pass rate of over 85%, although situated in the heart of a socio-economically deprived community. It is what lies within that makes the difference. The principal, staff, members of the SGB and the learners at Lillies all worked together. The principal was well aware of his own strengths and weaknesses, as well as those of his team, and used this knowledge to mobilise the school in a positive direction, thereby attaining excellent results. Although the members of the SGB were not professionals and did not occupy influential positions in society, they were actively involved in the running of the school. The educators were involved and committed in their teams and were praised for their efforts. To reiterate the words of Oliver Wendell Holmes, "What lies behind us and what lies before us are tiny matters compared to what lies within us."

Leaders, although being accountable for the management of other resources, are ultimately also accountable to themselves. Armstrong explains this by stating that when you are dealing with others, you are dealing with immediate issues, anticipating problems or a way forward, responding to demands or a crisis and developing new ways of doing things. You are therefore personally involved; you are therefore responsible not only for others, but more importantly, for yourself. Leaders have the ability to delegate tasks, but at the end of the day, they cannot delegate everything (Armstrong, 2008:3). Therefore, they have to rely on own resources to ensure that certain tasks are carried out. The resources that leaders use include skills, general know-how, competencies, time, and a large amount of resilience and determination.

Leaders may receive valuable support, advice and assistance from others, depending on the way they deal with other roleplayers.

Good leaders should also be able to conduct a "social analysis" (Goleman, 1996:118). This implies that they must be aware of others in the group, their moods, how they feel, their concerns and the motives for their actions. Such insight places leaders in a better position to provide the necessary support and praise. If teachers were more sensitive to each other's feelings, reactions, moods and concerns, they would most probably be able to communicate more effectively and be able to lead, initiate and organise group activities more effectively.

Since there is a need to be accountable and work with people, leaders need to be able to influence them in a positive way. This entails learning how to effectively manage the emotions of others. In working with people, good communication is vital. In order to get a message across, the moods, feelings, concerns and beliefs of the people involved in whatever mode of communication taking place, will influence the final interpretations and, with that, the final decisions to be taken.

7.2.1   Training and support systems

At the heart of any leadership or management programme for personal development should be the need to improve self-knowledge and awareness of others' reactions. There is no "one size fits all" in organisations; in other words, a variety of leadership styles must be prevalent to deal effectively with different people.

When it comes to making decisions and acting, feelings and thought processes are of equal importance. Goleman (2004:4) believes that intelligence is meaningless if emotions are withheld. Armstrong (2008:51) offers a convincing argument about the human element in organisations. He states that there are two crucial points to consider when dealing with organisations. Firstly, organisations are continuously changing, due to changes in the community, the environment, within the organisation itself or within the

people in the organisation. Secondly, organisations are made up of people, who work together to achieve the goals of the organisation. At some time, organisations will have to be adjusted to suit the strengths and attributes of the people that are available. Organisations that do this will be effective since the people component has been considered, as opposed to organisations that ignore the human element.

Whilst SMSs have many benefits, they also create numerous challenges. The implementation of training programmes and support services needs to be addressed. SMSs have also created the need to establish groups/structures that will facilitate communication processes that will enable them to become aware of their unique strengths and weaknesses. Good communication processes should also assist in providing clarity in respect of their vision. A clear vision will motivate schools to try new approaches to efficiently and effectively maintain their self-managing status. This implies a constant need to monitor, evaluate and assess their progress in relation to worldwide transformation. More importantly, SMSs should be provided with support from District level to meet challenges, while staff should receive continuous training in professional development. School development teams must plan for staff development programmes when completing their whole school evaluations and preparing their SIPs.

This could be completed by following three stages in planning a development programme, as depicted below:

FIGURE 7:   Stages in Planning a Development Programme

Implement training for
the particular
competency.

Assess current situation
and identify weaknesses
(competencies) that
need to be
developed/honed.

Plan for
programmes/workshops
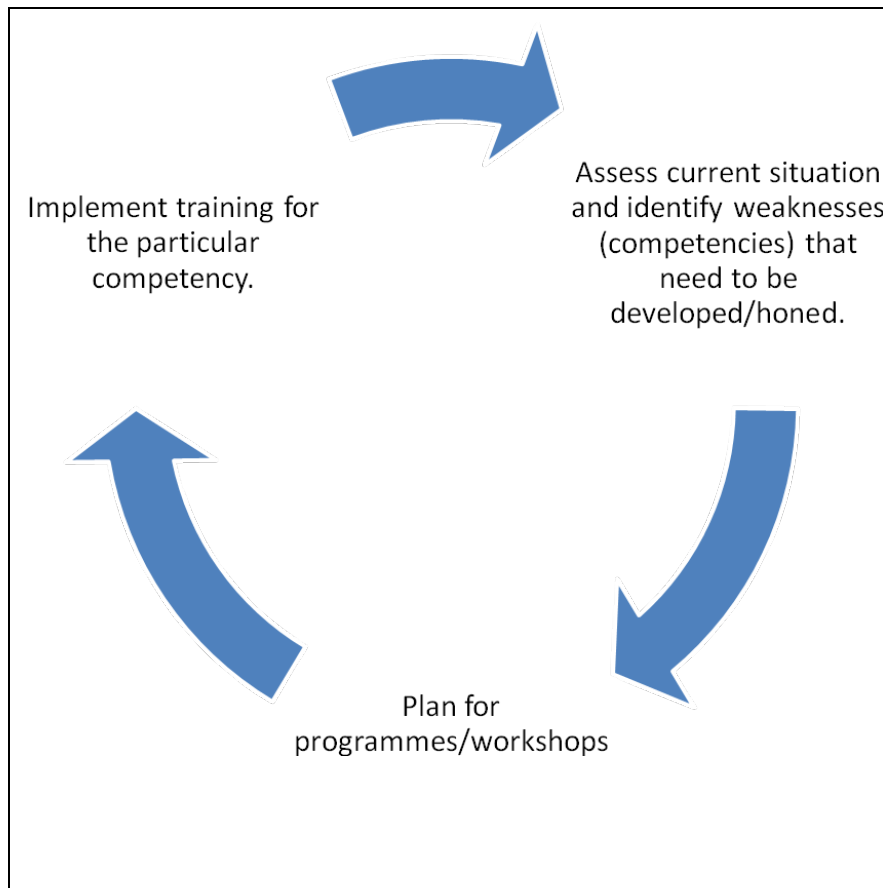
The principal and staff should be aware of their own personal strengths and weaknesses. Based on these, developmental programmes must then be identified and implemented. Thereafter, the situation must be assessed to see if there has been an improvement.   The team must then move on to identify other weaknesses.   All stakeholders should learn how to work with others, since teamwork lies at the heart of SMS structures. The challenge to the District level is that of constant monitoring and evaluation to maintain schools that are more responsive, more effective, more efficient and more accountable.   The Education Department should also ascertain what has happened in other countries, such as New Zealand and Australia, and use the findings in a constructive manner. We should be able to learn and adapt the education systems

and school structures to accommodate for the strengths and weaknesses identified in other countries.

7.2.2   Fiscal management

All stakeholders need to learn how to budget appropriately by addressing the requirements of their school, to facilitate the efficacy of SMS. Executing such a mammoth task requires certain additional financial, budgetary and interpersonal skills and curriculum knowledge. The principal and his management team will need to co-operate effectively with their counterparts in order to facilitate the entire process. This means that the principal and his/her management team need a strong sense of interpersonal intelligence, since they are working with groups of people from diverse backgrounds, with varying skills and competencies. They also have different personalities and preferences, goals and interests.

7.2.3   Resistance to change

According to the results, there is also the need to overcome resistance to change; every attempt must be made to overcome resistance to change. A point of departure would be to analyse the likely effect of change and the extent to which it may be resisted, by whom and why (Armstrong, 2008:133; Smith, 2008:16-17). Establishing what the change will be and working out how the organisation will benefit is not enough; in-depth thinking as to the possible change and how the following questions can be answered, is required (Armstrong, 2008:133):

- Will the change alter job content?
- Will it introduce new and unknown tasks?
- Will it disrupt established methods of working?
- Will it rearrange team relationships?
- Will it reduce autonomy or authority?
- Will it be perceived as lowering status?

- Will it lead to job losses?
- Will it result in loss of pay or other benefits?

It is also important that we answer questions regarding issues such as the benefits in pay, status, job satisfaction, career prospects and increase in performance that accompany the change as all the stakeholders need to know how the change will affect them. Feedback to all stakeholders should be provided on a regular basis.

7.2.3.1   Involvement and communication

It is believed that man will never be able to completely overcome resistance to change, but that it can be reduced by means of involvement and communication. By involving the people in the change process, they are given an opportunity to raise and work through their concerns and provide input regarding the form of change and how it should be introduced as well as executed (Armstrong, 2008:134). The primary aim of this involvement is to get a "buy-in" or sense of "ownership" (Clarke, 2007:15). People are more accepting of the changes that they were part of bringing about, as it is *their* changes. Besides the involvement, the first crucial step in the entire process, according to Armstrong (2008:134) and Fullan (2004:58-59), is to develop and communicate a clear picture of what the future entails.   Armstrong (2008:134-5) has outlined the following ten points as guidelines for change management:

1. The achievement of sustainable change requires strong commitment and visionary leadership.
2. Proposals for change should be based on a convincing business case, supported by a practical programme for implementing the change and reaping the benefits.
3. Change is inevitable and necessary. It is necessary to explain why change is essential and how it will affect everyone.

4. Hard evidence and data on the need for change are the most powerful tools for achievement, but establishing the need for change is easier than deciding how to satisfy it.

5. People support what they help to create. Commitment to change is improved if those affected by change are allowed to participate as fully as possible in planning and implementing it. The aim should be to get them to "own" the change as something they want and will be glad to live with.

6. Change will always involve failure as well as success. The failures must be expected and serve as lessons learnt.

7. It is easier to change behaviour by changing processes, structure and systems than to change attitudes.

8. There are always people in organisations who can act as champions of change. They will welcome the challenges and opportunities that change can provide. They are the ones to be chosen as change agents.

9. Resistance to change is inevitable if the individuals concerned feel that they are going to be worse off – implicitly or explicitly. The inept management of change will produce that reaction.

10. Every effort must be made to protect the interests of those affected by change.

When people are not clear about the future, they are normally confused and thus resist the process. Armstrong (2008:134) strongly believes that the following questions, *viz.* why change is necessary, what the changes look like, how they will be achieved and how the people will be affected by it, should be clearly outlined and communicated. By keeping people informed via written communications, the Internet and especially face-to-face meetings or discussions will eradicate unnecessary fears.

Category A schools has revealed that by having committees and distributing leadership amongst team members, they were able to reduce the resistance to change and create an environment in which all the stakeholders were involved. This required leadership with emotional understanding, since emotions such as trust, support, involvement,

commitment to teamwork and willingness to experiment, when addressed, help to defuse resistance to change and builds capacity throughout the educational environment (Fink, 2005:112).

7.2.4   Discipline

Another important strategy is *discipline*. We always complain about the lack of discipline in our learners, but learners emulate their educators. What are we doing incorrectly? Discipline starts with *YOU.* In order for SMSs to prosper and attain a level of sustainability, discipline must be involved. Principals need to become more committed and disciplined in their approaches. They need to train their SGB members as well as their staff to be disciplined, starting with basics such as punctuality and commitment. Principals must empower their staff members and encourage them to attend workshops to develop their EI. These workshops must be offered during vacation periods, or over weekends, so that there is minimal disturbance of the teaching and learning situation.

Whilst schools that focus on CMSs such as vision, planning and organising, communication, teamwork, training and development, praise and incentives and evaluation and feedback attain excellent pass rates indicative of high performance, emotional intelligence and discipline should be regarded as fundamental aspects that contribute to sustaining SMSs.

7.3   CONCLUSION

Firstly, it would appear that SMSs have many advantages. Secondly, well-planned CMSs could assist in attaining an effective SMS. Thirdly, EI could be the determining factor that enhances or leads to effective SMSs.

The pressure upon secondary schools to become self-managing entities is great. The development of our human resources lies at the heart of growth, reconstruction and

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development challenge. Intelligence alone does not adequately prepare those in management positions for challenges, the nature of change or the expected performances. Goleman (1996:36) states that those with a well-developed EI, "that people who are emotionally adept – who know and manage their own feelings well, and who read and deal effectively with other people's feelings – are at an advantage in any domain in life". This implies that adeptness facilitates constructive interaction. Knowledge and insight about the moods of the people we interact with could therefore have immense benefits for various contracts/meetings and subsequently determine the atmosphere and modus operandi prevalent in the school as an organisation. Having EQ, being aware of one's own feelings and that of others, enables managers to communicate well with others in informing them of the expected changes, telling them how they could contribute to the changes and in so doing, motivating all stakeholders to buy in to the change, thus promoting and facilitating the entire change process, as each stakeholder now sees himself/herself as contributing to the overall success of the school as an organisation. Their self-esteem is developed, and this gives them a sense of purpose in life, as they are no longer operating in isolation, but are contributing to the overall success of the school. People with a well-developed EI are thus more productive and effective, since their interpersonal intelligence skills will enable them to be better able to understand others, i.e. what motivates them, how they work and how to work cooperatively with them. In schools, we deal with people at different levels, namely the parent component, staff (teaching and non-teaching), and learners. In order to effectively bring about change, we need to look at our greatest asset – people – and utilise their strengths to create effective SMSs.

With the rapid changes occurring in the educational system, we need to have teams in place that can empathise, persevere, communicate clearly, make sound decisions, solve problems and constructively work in teams. In other words, there is a need for emotionally intelligent people in SMSs. It would therefore be appropriate to develop programmes of instruction in EI for implementation in schools. All stakeholders should receive this instruction, as it would benefit the overall functioning and performance of schools.

Dann (2008:11) expresses the opinion that since our EI is both innate and shaped by our circumstances as well as the environment, it can be enhanced in adulthood if we could increase our ability to be proactive and accelerate our learning. Learning is a lifelong process and since improvement cannot be achieved solely by attending a training course or reading a book, something needs to be put into place (Dann, 2008:76). Courses in EI should be incorporated into the teachers' courses so that every teacher's EI can be honed or, if not in existence, developed. Tertiary institutions should therefore include a course of EI for teachers. They learn how to work with learners, but not how to work with other adults. Since there is a need for more collegiality in schools and the emphasis is increasingly placed on clusters, educators need to be emotionally intelligent in order to bring about effective changes. Teachers in training focus on the contents of their subjects, curriculum planning and management, but no time are made available to develop their EI. In the real teaching situation, in the current education system, the move is more towards group or "cluster" working and moderation; thus our educators should be geared towards this. They need to be trained how to work with other educators, sharing ideas and work plans. Interpersonal as well as intrapersonal skills development would enable them to effectively co-operate within these structures, contributing to the overall improvement in the education system of our time and for decades to come.

It is evident from the literature reviews as well as the research carried out, that skills associated with EI develop throughout life. It is also evident from the research findings that EI influences the management strategies introduced in order to cope with or adapt to the changing organisational climate prevalent at SMSs. It is therefore imperative that training and sustained developmental activities that will improve emotional competencies in schools be implemented, thus ultimately enhancing the efficacy of these schools as organisations. To put it simply, in order to ameliorate the performance of SMSs, concentrate on your assets … people.

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APPENDIX A
LETTER TO ACTING DISTRICT MANAGER

19 Myrdal Crescent
Lovemore Heights
PORT ELIZABETH
6070

1 June 2009

MRS. L.M.T. MBOPA
Private Bag X3915
North End
PORT ELIZABETH
6056

Dear Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS

I hereby request permission to conduct research at six (6) high schools, *viz.* 2 top performing schools, 2 average performing and 2 poor performing schools in the district of Port Elizabeth.

The high schools in the Eastern Cape have been given a self-managing status (Section 21 status). The research will focus on what changes the schools had to make to cope with this transformational process. Furthermore, the effect Emotional Intelligence has on the efficacy of these schools will be determined.

Questionnaires will be issued to members of management and Level One educators, who are eager to participate in the research. The results of this research will be of value to the individual schools participating in the research as well as to the Department of Education.

I will sensitise the applicable principals before conducting the research.

I assure you that there will be minimal disruption of the school programme, as the willing respondents will complete the questionnaires during their private time.

Hoping that you will consent to this research being undertaken.

Yours in education,
SS PATHER (MRS)

APPENDIX B
LETTER FROM THE ACTING DISTRICT MANAGER

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ethel Valentine Building * Sutton Road * Sidwell * Private Bag X3931 * North End * Port Elizabeth * 6056 *
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA * Tel. 0414034420 * Fax: 0414510193 *
Website: ecprov.gov.za * e-mail: tandeka.mbopa@edu.ecprov.gov.za

Mrs S.S. Pather
c/o Morningside High School
Port Elizabeth

(Fax: 041 3608892)

Dear Mrs Pather

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS: PORT ELIZABETH

I refer to your letter dated 09 February 2009 and received on 25 February 2009.

Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct your research on the following conditions.

1. your research must be conducted on a voluntary basis:
2. all ethical issues relating to research must be honoured:
3. your research is subject to the internal rules of the school, including its curricular programme and its code of conduct and must not interfere in the day-to-day routine of the school

Kindly present a copy of this letter to the principal as proof of permission.

I wish you good luck in your research

Yours faithfully

L.M.T. MBOPA
ACTING DISTRICT DIRECTOR: PORT ELIZABETH
/ab

25 February 2009

APPENDIX C
LETTER TO DISTRICT MANAGER

19 Myrdal Crescent
Lovemore Heights
PORT ELIZABETH
6070

1 June 2009

MRS. G. SAUER
Private Bag X3915
North End
PORT ELIZABETH
6056

Dear Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS

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I assure you that there will be minimal disruption of the school programme, as the willing respondents will complete the questionnaires during their private time.

Hoping that you will consent to this research being undertaken.

Yours in education,
SS PATHER (MRS)

APPENDIX D
LETTER FROM THE DISTRICT MANAGER

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ethel Valentine Building * Sutton Road * Sidwell * Private Bag X3931 * North End * Port Elizabeth * 6056 *
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA * Tel: 0414034420 * Fax: 0414510193 *
Website: ecprov.gov.za * e-mail: tandeka.mbopa@edu.ecprov.gov.za

Mrs S.S. Pather
c/o Morningside High School
Port Elizabeth

(Fax: 041 3608892)

Dear Mrs Pather

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS:
PORT ELIZABETH**

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3. your research is subject to the internal rules of the school, including its curricular programme and its code of conduct and must not interfere in the day-to-day routine of the school

Kindly present a copy of this letter to the principal as proof of permission.

I wish you good luck in your research

Yours faithfully

**L.M.T. MBOPA
ACTING DISTRICT DIRECTOR: PORT ELIZABETH**
/ab

25 February 2009

02/06/09

APPENDIX E
COVERING LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN ESTABLISHING SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS.

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a PhD (Education) student in the Faculty of Education at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU). My supervisors are Prof. N. Botha and Dr.L.Greyling.

Over the past few years there was rapid societal change, which brought into effect management and curricular changes in our schools as organizations.

When schools were given a Section 21 status (a self-managing status), it meant that more authority with regard to the day-to-day functioning of the school was devolved to schools, but it also implied that schools had to be accountable for their actions. The learners' results, the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) and the School Improvement Plan (SIP) were some of the measures put into place to monitor the performance of schools and to ensure accountability. An enormous amount of responsibility was thus entrusted onto those at the schools to accommodate the changes.

The focus of this research is to determine the influence of the emotional intelligence (EQ) of individuals on the strategies that have to be put in place when schools are given a self-managing status. The title of my research is therefore:
THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN ESTABLISHING SELF-MANAGING SCHOOLS. (A MULTI –SITE CASE-STUDY.)

As researcher, I need your co-operation to complete a questionnaire consisting of 3 sections and which should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. Your participation should be voluntary. Please note that your input will be treated as confidential and the research findings will be made available on request. In keeping with ethical considerations, a consent form will be issued prior to the distribution of the questionnaires.

Please also add any comments you wish to make.

Thank you for your time and attention. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Saraswathi. S. Pather.
(Researcher)

Contact details: HOME: 041 3682178
                 CELL : 0846963604

Section A - Personal Details

Please circle the number for the applicable option.

1. Gender	Male	1
	Female	2

2. Age	20 – 29	1
	30 – 39	2
	40 – 49	3
	50 – 59	4
	60+	5

3. Home Language	English	1
	Afrikaans	2
	Xhosa	3
	Zulu	4
	Other (state)	

4. Current Position	Educator	1
	Head of Department	2
	Deputy principal	3
	Principal	4
	Member of the School Governing Body(SGB)	5

5. Years teaching	1 – 4	1
	5 – 9	2
	10 – 19	3
	20+	4

6. Highest level of Education	Grade 10	1
	Grade 12	2
	Teachers diploma	3
	B.Sc., B.A., etc.	4
	B. Hons., B. Ed., etc.	5
	Masters	6
	Doctorate	7

7. Please specify any non-academic, self-empowering courses (for example: mind power courses, etc.) that you have completed:

Section B – Change Management Strategies

1. Vision for School

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.1 Emphasis was placed on developing a vision for my school during the initial stages of establishing its Section 21 status.	1	2	3	4	5

1.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not ← → Very					Effectiveness Not ← → Very				
1.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

2. Planning and Organizing

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
2.1 Planning and organizing were used in my school whilst establishing its Section 21 status.	1	2	3	4	5

2.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not ← → Very					Effectiveness Not ← → Very				
2.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

3. Communication

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.1 An improved communication system was implemented in my school whilst establishing its Section 21 status.	1	2	3	4	5

3.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not ← → Very					Effectiveness Not ← → Very				
3.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

4. Teams

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.1 Teams played an important role in establishing my school's Section 21 status.	1	2	3	4	5

4.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not → Very					Effectiveness Not → Very				
4.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

5. Training and Development

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.1 Emphasis was placed on training and development in establishing my school's Section 21 status.	1	2	3	4	5

5.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not → Very					Effectiveness Not → Very				
5.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

6. Praise/Incentives

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1 Substantial use of praise/incentives was utilised in establishing my school's Section 21 status.	1	2	3	4	5

6.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not → Very					Effectiveness Not → Very				
6.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

7. Evaluation/Feedback

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5

7.1 Provision was made for evaluation and feedback in establishing my school's Section 21 status.

7.2 Rate the involvement and effectiveness of:	Involvement Not ← → Very					Effectiveness Not ← → Very				
7.2.1 Principal	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7.2.2 SMT	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7.2.3 Educators	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7.2.4 SGB	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7.2.5 Yourself	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7.2.6 Other (specify)			3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

8. If you would like to comment on any of the above or other strategies for managing change effectively, please use this space to make your input.

Section C – Self-Assessment

How often are the following applicable to you?	Never ←————→ Always				
1. I am aware of the physical reactions (twinges, aches, sudden changes) that signal a "gut reaction"	1	2	3	4	5
2. I readily admit mistakes and apologize.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I let go of problems, anger, or hurts from the past and I can move beyond these.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I generally have an accurate idea of how another person perceives me during a particular interaction.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have several important things in my life that I am enthusiastic about, and I let it show.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can easily meet and initiate conversation with new people when I have to.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I take a break or use another active method of increasing energy when I sense that my energy level is getting low.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have little trouble taking prudent risks.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I "open up" with people appropriately – not too much but enough so that I don't come across as cold and distant.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I can engage in an interaction eith another and pretty well size-up that person's mood based on non-verbal signals.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Others usually feel inspired and encouraged after talking to me.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I have no trouble making presentations in front of groups or conducting meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I take time every day for quiet reflection.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I take initiative and move ahead on tasks that need to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I refrain from making up my mind on issues and expressing my opinion until I have all the facts.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I have a number of people I can turn to, and I ask for their help when I need it.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I try to find the positive in any given situation.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I can deal calmly, sensitively and proactively with the emotional displays of others.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I can usually identify the emotion I am feeling at any given moment.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I am generally comfortable in new situations.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I neither bury my anger nor let it explode on others.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I can show empathy and match my feelings with those of another person in an interaction.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I can keep going on a big projct, despite obstacles.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I am respected and liked by others, even when they don't agree with me.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I am clear about my own goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I express my views honestly and thoughtfully, without being pushy.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I am good at managing my moods, and I seldom bring negative emotions to work.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I focus my full attention on another person when I listen to them.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I believe the work I do day-to-day has meaning and value to society.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I can effectively persuade others to adopt my point of view without coercing them.	1	2	3	4	5

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Section D: The Change to Section 21 Status Process

1.1 Do you agree that the **process** to change to Section 21 status was a success?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.2 Regarding the **process** to change to Section 21 status, what was:

a) The most positive aspect?

b) The most negative aspect?

2.1 Compared to the way the school was run prior to its Section 21 status, how would you describe the current situation? (The **outcome** of the process)

Much worse	Worse	Same	Better	Much Better
1	2		4	5

2.2 Regarding the **outcome** of the process to change to Section 21 status, what was:

a) The most positive aspect?

b) The most negative aspect?

**Thank you for the time and effort
you have put into answering this questionnaire,
your assistance is highly appreciated.**