THE IMPORTANCE OF QUALITY LEADERSHIP IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE NORTHERN PROVINCE WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE WESTERN REGION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

This study made an attempt to investigate the impact that quality leadership has on organizations, in particular public schools. It presupposes that, without quality leadership, the institution will be so directionless as to die a natural death. Leadership is thus the difference between performing and non-performing schools.

Through random sampling, a diverse group of principals was selected to participate in the study, also representing both primary and secondary schools. Questionnaires were distributed to all participants where they had to answer a variety of questions within a specified time. Data collected was analyzed and interpreted.

The findings of the research confirm that quality leadership, displaying traits such as high qualifications, extensive experience, leadership skills and the ability to put plans into action, does, after all, impact on quality education. It is therefore essential that leadership skills be taught to all aspiring leaders in order to have capable and creative citizens in future. Investment in leadership at all levels should be embarked upon as a matter of urgency.

APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis by *JAPHTA MMAKGOSI MAMETJA* is accepted in its presence form by *Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership, University of the North* as satisfying the thesis requirements for the degree M.DEV

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LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

1.   INTRODUCTION

To be successful, every group or organization must have a leader.   Without a leader, such a group or organization will move toward randomness and failure (Kimbrough and Burkett 1990:1) . Lussien (1997:390) quoted Pacetta and Gittiness stating that the major reason for employee failure is poor leadership.

Schools are no exception.   The Principal is the most important administrator and leader of the school.   The quality leadership by the Principal will differentiate effective from ineffective schools.

Schools that have been identified as being successful in reaching their goals have often reported that the Principal is a key figure in that process (Hart and Bredeson, 1996:146).   In fact it has been observed that the leadership structure of the school will seldom rise appreciably above the quality of leadership furnished by the Principal (Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990;1).

In the same way as it is difficult to imagine a nation or community without a leader, it is equally difficult to imagine how an organization can survive without

leadership. That itself calls for the importance of leadership. A group without leadership behaves like an individual without cerebral cortex (Graumann and Moscovici, 1986:133). Without leadership, an organization is like a lifeboat adrift in turbulent seas with no oars, no compass, no maps – and no hope (Nanus 1992:1). Quality leadership by the school Principal is therefore essential to achieve educational excellence. Robbins and Alvy (1995:1) have noted that effective Principals should not be a luxury that schools only occasionally enjoy. Rather, effective leadership is the right of all schools.

- Hunter, et. al (1995:19) observed that certain factors which were prevalent in most schools prior to the ushering in of democracy in South Africa in 1994, impacted negatively on the quality of education; inequality of resources, administrative inefficiencies and the weakness of governance structures. The following indicators were highlighted:
- Poor access to basic infrastructure such as electricity, running water and
- telecommunication.
- Children walking long distances to school, especially in farming areas.
- High drop-out rates.
- Many school-going age children do not attend school at all.

1.1. NORTHERN PROVINCE

This study will be conducted in the Northern Province. The latter is one of the nine provinces in South Africa located in the upper part of the country,

adjacent to neighbouring countries of Zimbabwe(north), Botswana(west) and Mozambique (east). It stretches from Warmbaths in the south to Messina in the north. Its neighbouring provinces are Mpumalanga, North West and Gauteng. It is a largely rural province characterized by high unemployment and high levels of illiteracy with few small towns and Pietersburg as its capital city. The majority of schools have been inherited from former homelands of Lebowa, Venda and Gazankulu. They have scarce resources, dilapidated buildings erected by communities themselves, with the majority of such schools having no running water or electricity. These schools are characterized by high drop-out rates, high repetition rates and the majority of them are largely vandalized.

1.2. WESTERN REGION

Educationally, the Northern Province has been divided into SEVEN operational regions, one of which is the Western Region or Region 1, as it is sometimes called. It stretches from Warmbaths to Steilloop and from Thabazimbi to Bakenberg. It is divided into four districts, namely Warmbaths, Palala, Bakenberg and Mahwelereng, and it comprises approximately 650 schools. Schools have been inherited from the former administrations of Transvaal Education Department, Lebowa and House of Delegates which embodied the following types: farm schools, community schools, model C schools, state schools as well as private schools. In 1996, the South African Schools Act classified these schools into two main categories, namely: public schools and independent schools. This constitutes the area of study.

2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Given the above scenario, one would be inclined to conclude that quality education is a function of resources, location and low enrolment of learners. Observations made in the Western Region is that there is a lot of high failure rate in Grade 12 caused mainly by laxity and lack of commitment by both educators and learners.

However, some schools, coming from impoverished background without basic necessities such as laboratory, library, water or electricity, have consistently produced excellent results in Grade 12, even better than some schools that are well-resourced. On the other hand, some schools with relatively better facilities are amongst the worst in terms of results in the region. Where is the problem?

This study will attempt to indicate that leadership skills are more important than resources or they even supplement them as some poor schools, with little or no resources, are equal to task in terms of performance and learner achievement. A good example is the school out in the Vaalwater farming community that produced a 100% pass in Grade 12 in 1999, against all odds, where most learners have to travel between 5 and 10 kilometres daily on their way to and from school. Lack of quality leadership in schools, thus impact negatively on the quality of education, as another site of social development.

3.   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objective of the research will be to investigate the contribution of leadership to quality education, more specifically; one wishes to find out how various aspects of leadership are related to the quality education. By implication, the focus of the study will show that, irrespective of the level of resource of the school, mediocre leadership will result in poor quality education. The output of school education is therefore linked to the policies and directives of leadership.

In his commentary on leadership, Cunningham was quoted by Sergiovanni and Carver (1980:266), explicating the complexity as well as the directedness of leadership:

> *'It is the curious blending of leading and following, provoking*
> *and calming, disturbing and stabilizing, but always in a posture*
> *of movement, generating new strength and capability along the*
> *way.'*

4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research will seek to answer the following questions:

4.1. Is leadership related to the educational level, experience, management skills and planning?

4.2. Is the management style of the school leader having an impact on quality education?

5. RATIONALE

The school is not an island, operating in isolation. It is a miniature representation of society, the mirror through which the community can be seen. If the quality of education is provided, the community will be developed and the people's lives will improve with better health and educational services, housing and technological advancement. Poverty will be combated and all will be creative in utilizing the community's resources, entire community's progress toward the good life or lean toward mediocrity in daily living. (Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990:1).

Central to this study is the mediocre leadership prevailing in most schools, which affects performance. As a result, such schools will also struggle to produce quality leaders and the community will be faced with a bleak future of hollow leadership characterized by corruption. Schools that perform have strong leadership that motivates the learners and educators to perform even

better. Instruction, curriculum, quality assessment and leadership all contribute to a quality school (Robbins and Alvy, 1995:108). Leadership in a school is a quality of expectation that emerges from the influence over resources and the legitimization of a person to use these resources in the leadership of the school faculty, staff and students

(Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990:108).

6. HYPOTHESES

H1: Leaders with high level of qualification produce quality education.

H2: Leaders with extensive experience produce quality education.

H3: Leaders with leadership skills produce quality education.

H4: Leaders with democratic management produce quality education.

H5: Leaders with autocratic management style produce poor quality education.

H6: Educators who score highly on the above combined factors would produce quality education than those who score less.

7. DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS/TERMS

7.1. PRINCIPAL

The Principal is in the highest position of authority, and is formally charged with the running of the school. The word "Principal" is derived from "Prince"

and means : first in rank, degree, importance and authority (Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990:3).

The literature on leadership confirms the leadership role of the Principal. According to Roe and Drake (1980), the Principal of a school is viewed from almost every quarter as being the leader of the school; he/she has been hired to lead and that teachers want him/her to lead. Hall, et.al (1986:3) contends that the role of the Principal has changed from the traditional autocratic pastoral mission towards a leading professional.

Commenting on the complex challenges facing the Principal, Murphy and Louis (1994:10) observed that the Principal must learn to lead, not from the "apex of the organizational pyramid, but from the centre of a web of personal relationships". There is not doubt that the Principal occupies an important position at school and s/he is seen as the Head Teacher as well as the educational leader at school.

Rosseau (1982:10) states that the Principal should more or less be :

- a person of higher rank, of character or importance
- a man who takes a leading part
- a main beam
- a rafter, girder, or truss
- someone who fights a duel
-

This is supported by Blumberg and Greenfield (1980:17) who cited Knezevich (1975) on the responsibilities of Principals as follows :

"The Principal in a public school, whether at the elementary or secondary level, is a Counselor of students, the school disciplinarian, the organizer of the schedule, the supervisor of the instructional programme, the pupil-relations representative for the attendance area, the liaison between teachers and superintendent, the director and evaluator of teaching efforts, the manager of the school facilities, the supervisor of custodial and food-service employees within the building, and a professional leader".

The importance of principals as school leaders cannot be overemphasized. Robbins and Alvy (1995:1) maintain that on daily basis, principals must solve complex problems of practice, deal with demands and conflicts from parents and students, and maintain an intense work schedule filled with drama.

Principals' days are full of surprises ranging from total bliss to totally unexpected happenings. They display, on daily basis, different roles to different people, thus

To this one you are a shoulder to cry on, to that one you are a talking post, to another, you are a whipping post, to another, you are the cause of all the troubles that ever existed. (Cook and Mack, 1983:57)

7.2. QUALITY

The word *quality* comes from the Latin word, "qualis" meaning "what kind of" and it is defined as that which best satisfies and exceeds customers' needs and wants (Sallis, 1996:12). However, as the needs keep on changing, the definition expands too, hence, it becomes difficult to define quality. It is that concept one cannot define but "you-know-it-when-you-see-it" (Doherty 1994:7). Quality is in the eyes of the beholder (Goetsch and Davis 1997:1). It is seen in the eyes of the customer and it is thus a customer-driven concept.

Peters and Austin (1985:101) maintain that quality is about passion and pride. It starts with people having love in whatever they are engaged in. They must have a gut feeling for their work and take pride in their efforts.

The role of the leader is crucial in determining quality. The quality of the service rendered is perceived both by the person delivering it and the one receiving it (Sallis 1996:22). Quality management will thus lead to improved performance (Pegg 1997:119). For that to happen, an enabling environment and a conducive climate are absolutely essential. This view is supported by quality pioneers Dr W. Edwards Deming and Dr Joseph M. Juran who have long held that 85% of an organization's failures are failures of management-controlled systems and that workers only contributed 15% of what causes failure (Goetsch and Davis, 1997:218).

One of the principles of quality leadership is to be obsessed with quality. This implies that commitment to quality has to be a prime role for any leader (Sallis, 1996:76). In fact, in education, quality makes the difference between success and failure. To achieve quality, the Principal will have to meet or exceed the needs of all role players attached to the school. In educational institutions, quality will thus embrace "effectiveness, efficiency and accountability" (Doherty, 1994:7).

Ultimately, quality is about more than being "nice to customers and smiling" – it is rather about listening and entering into a dialogue about people's fears and aspirations (Sallis, 1996:34).

7.3. LEADERSHIP

Leaders have been described as individuals who, by their actions, facilitate the movement of a group of people towards a common or shared goal (Robbins, 1997:418). Agreeing to that, Johnson and Johnson (1987) stated that a leader, as a group member, exerts more influence on other members than they exert on him (Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990:106). On the other hand, Saddler (1987:147) observed that leaders are people who can get others to comply without exercising force or authority. All three approaches seem to agree that leadership is an influence process.

A leader is the individual, whereas leadership is the function or activity the individual performs. Leadership is absolutely essential to sustain the activities

within organizations. During trying times, in particular, only strong leadership will enable an organization to survive, let alone prosper (Nanus, 1992:1).

Leadership may mean different things to different people, depending on the situations under which they operate. Pigors (1935) sees it as a process of mutual stimulation, which, by successful interplay of relevant differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause. Stating the same thing in a different manner, Stogdill (1950) reflected it as a process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. This is also the view held by Lussien (1997:390) who observed leadership as the process of influencing employees to work toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

For any leadership to be effective, it has to ensure that members of a group or organization meet their individual needs and achieve the purposes that brought them together (Lindgren, 1982:77). To that end, a visionary leadership that unites all members is needed. Such leadership will define what the future should look like, align people with that vision and inspire them to make it happen (Kotter, 1996:25).

Leadership has to be relevant to a particular situation and conform to the expectation of its followership. Teachers, for instance, expect to be led by a competent principal who has had a good broad grasp of educational principles that would enable him/her to understand their daily problems. He must have

"been through the mill" for him/her to assume the principalship
(Lindgren, 1982:77).

It is clear that without followers, leaders cannot exist nor can leadership function apart from a particular setting. Roe and Drake (1990:107) maintain that without people and without purpose leadership is but a hollow term.

7.4. MANAGEMENT

The most important functions of management are planning, organizing, leading and controlling (Lussier, 1997:10). Kotter (1996:25) further includes the following : budgeting, organizing and problem solving.

There is therefore a thin line of demarcation between leadership and management. We have Managers who are unable to lead as well as leaders who cannot manage. For an organization to succeed, a balance has to be maintained between good leadership and good management. Kotter (1996:29) believes that most organizations are underled and overmanaged.

To comprehend the concept of management, we contrast it with leadership, for, the twin concepts are like two sides of the same coin :

Botes (1994:6) sees the Manager as a special type of a leader.
Covey (1993:246) advises that we should "manage from the left and lead from the right". He maintains that :

- Leadership deals with decision-making
- Management deals with speed

Kotter (1996:26) states that:

- Management is about coping with complexity.
- Leadership is about coping with change.

Writing for *Training Magazine*, Bennis (1989:45) compares Leaders and Managers as follows :

- Managers maintain; Leaders develop
- Managers administers; Leaders innovate
- Managers focus on systems structure; Leaders focus on people
- Managers imitate; Leaders originate

  Robbins (1997:419) has these differences:

- Management focuses on inanimate objects
- Leadership focuses on raising human potential

He went further by citing Hopper, who wrote that : *You manage things; you lead people.*

The two major functions of leadership and management are therefore inseparable and intricately entwined. Principals cannot be effective leaders without performing management functions. On the other hand, Principals cannot push aside leadership activities while performing as Managers. (Kimbrough and Burkett, 1990:30-31).

7.5.   PUBLIC SCHOOL

It is the educational institution that is controlled by the State in contrast to an independent school that is privately owned. A public school may be an ordinary public school or a public school for learners with special education needs (SASA 1996:10). According to the same Act, every public school is a *juristic person*, with legal capacity to perform its function.

8.   ORGANISATION OF THE REPORT

CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION

- Background to the study is outlined
- Problem statement is formulated, indicating the main objectives of the study
- Definition of key concepts

CHAPTER 2 : LITERATURE REVIEW

- Previous study on the similar topic analysed in literature, conceptual and theoretical formulations that are explicit or implicit in the study well outlined

CHAPTER 3 : METHODOLOGY

- Collection of data, formulation of hypothesis, ineterpretation of data, validity and reliability and other study techniques used thoroughly explained.

CHAPTER 4 : DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

- Exposition of the findings of the study

CHAPTER 5 : CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. MYTHS ABOUT LEADERSHIP

Before embarking on the qualities and process of leadership, it is important to discard myths on leadership itself, as they tend to spread wrong beliefs that it is the terrain of the chosen few.

(a)   "that leaders are born not made"

Many of the most prominent leaders reveal that far from being "naturals" for leadership positions, they had to learn to lead, often by painful lessons of trial and error (Smith 1997:11). Goetsch and Davis (1997:216) who assert that leadership, attitudes and behaviors can be learned, even by those who do not appear to have inborn leadership potential confirm this. There are certainly no little girls or boys who arrive in the world equipped with the ability to organize, plan, set objectives and satisfy the other requirements of the effective leader (Bird 1992:13).

Hence, leaders turn out to be ordinary people who are equipped with skills and techniques of leadership. The latter is a position that can be learned and occupied by anyone. A leader must have followers and at the same time followers are leaders-in-the-making or potential leaders.

(b)   "that leadership is a rare skill"

This is also referred to as for-all-seasons myth: "once a leader, always a leader" (Smith 1997:12). As a result of this myth, unwarranted assumptions are made that a leader who is successful in one sphere will be equally successful in another setting. That a successful teacher in the classroom will certainly be a successful Principal.

The opposite usually occurs in that a person who is a leader in one setting may fail dismally in another area. Smith (1997:12) expresses the same opinion that when leaders are drawn from their areas of strength and become overcommitted with unfamiliar responsibilities, they serve neither their followers nor themselves well.

To overcome this myth, Goetsch and Davis (1997:216) advice that organizations should create an environment that brings out the leadership skill of all employees at all levels. Each employee has an equal chance of being developed or reshaped as an effective leader.

(c) "to be a successful leader, a Manager has to be hard"

Smith (1997:15) is also referring to it as anger myth or intensity myth that "leaders are more emotionally intense than the rest of us".

This myth rests squarely on Douglas McGregor's *Theory X* in which he postulates that the average human being dislikes work and will avoid it if possible; thus he must be controlled, directed and implicitly or explicitly threatened so he will work to achieve the organization's goals (Roe and Drake). As a result, *Theory X* leaders tend to be hard on people, they use a strong language and every now and then threaten subordinates with disciplinary action if they do not shape up.

The result of this myth is that an emotionally charged leader does not lead to high productivity (Mol 1995:29). On a short-term basis, jolts of fear do electrify performance though in the long run it ends up with a total destruction of the organization, to the relief of bruised workers (Smith 1997:16).

There will also be a mass exodus of skilled workers who do not want to work for a boss "whose emotional repertoire is limited to anger, sullenness and sarcasm" (Smith 1997:16). Thus, according to Mol (1995:30), the secret of effective leadership is to be hard on standards and soft on people.

2.2. EXPERIENCE

Advertisements for leadership positions are always linked to the previous experience or job history. By assumption, the power of experience translates into leader effectiveness. That an individual needs several years of experience before s/he can be considered for promotion, shows its importance indeed.

It is true that some inexperienced leaders have been outstanding failures in the past, while at the same time highly experienced leaders were among the least successful. So experience alone is hardly enough to make an individual a successful leader. Mere experience, without the imagination to use it constructively and creatively, is likely to be more handicap than advantage (Getty 1973:19).

On the other hand, we should not loose sight of the fact that "leadership is situational" (Guthrie and Reed, 1991:10). There is no doubt that experience as a selection criterion can assist in choosing the best candidate in a job interview. What has been ignored all along is the fact that the situation in which experience is obtained is rarely comparable to new situations.

Robbins ((1997:423) asserts that where previous experience has been in substantially similar situations, successful past leadership experience should be a reasonably good predictor of future leadership performance. He feels that drastic differences in the job itself, support resources needed, organizational culture as well as follower characteristics will simply add to the misery of the newly appointed leader.

2.3. QUALITIES OF LEADERSHIP

Literature is abound with an endless list of the qualities required of good leaders – some are more varied while others hold more common views. Contrary to popular belief, Goetsch and Davis (1997:215) maintain that leadership is not a

function of charisma. They argue that simply dressing for success and developing a charismatic personality will not make one a good leader. Instead, they quote Peter Drucker (1990) who sees leadership as mundane, unromantic and boring, whose major essence is just performance.

On the other hand, Lindgren (1982 : 78) contends that most leaders need a certain degree of charisma to be successful. His understanding of a charismatic leader is one whose attractiveness has a certain irresistible and inexplicable hold over his/her followers. Graumann and Moscovici (1986 : 243) express a similar view in that charisma is seen as an exceptional trait that takes on revolutionary meaning within a society governed by tradition, with Hitler and Mussolini cited as typical examples.

Guthrie and Reed (1991 : 11) see quality leaders as those who possess a vision of what their organizations should be like, that they know how to motivate and inspire those with whom they work as well as to understand strategic thinking essential to guide their organizations.

Smith (1997 : 3) agrees that leaders should have the ability to develop a vision but adds that such leaders should be able to translate visionary words into actions. Complimenting the above traits, Getty (1973 : 94) asserts that effective leaders should be innovative and get along with people, have the initiative, dependability, thoroughness and follow-through, and possess job knowledge and skill. Referring to them as principle-centered leaders, Covey

(1992:31-37) stresses the fact that they must be service-oriented and believe in other people while radiating positive energy, leading balanced lives.

Pointing to principals as school leaders, Robbins and Alvy (1995 : 262-265) maintain that they should lead by example, leading through learning and communicating effectively. They vividly expressed leading by example in this manner: "What you do speaks so loudly I can't hear what you say!" This point has been succinctly put by Sallis (1996:78) that leaders must learn to be more like a coach and less like a boss and further that they must *walk the talk* and understand that change happens by degree, not by decree.

On effective communication, Goetsch and Davis (1997:211-213) agree that good leaders are able to communicate their ideas clearly, succinctly and in a non-threatening manner. They further assert that high levels of productivity and commitment to accomplishing organizational goals are key indicators showing that good leadership exists. Guthrie and Reed (1991:232) agree with this contention and add that effective leaders should have self- confidence and high need for achievement as well as relevant technical, conceptual and interpersonal skills.

According to Kimbrough and Burkett (1990:110) certain personal traits such as physical appearance, fluency of speech, persistence, expertise, decisiveness, knowledge and emotional control, may now be a basis for leadership influence. Schermerhorn (1996:102) who further adds flexibility, honesty and integrity as

well as intelligence expresses similar traits.

Getty (1973:93) cited other views from individual experts as follows :

- "You must have tenacity, that is the greatest quality. Without it, no man can possibly succeed" (Daniel Guggenheim)
- "Loyalty – the greatest characteristic trait" (P. McCormick)
- "Understanding how to work with people, along with personality represented 75% of the necessary equipment" (Alfred Sloam – GM)

In the same vein, studies conducted on the effective leadership displayed by the head teachers in the *Ten Good Schools*, revealed the following :

> *They appreciate the need for specific educational aims, both social and intellectual, and have the capacity to communicate these to staff, pupils and parents, to win their assent and put their own policies into practice. Their sympathetic understanding of staff and pupils, their accessibility, good success humor and sense of proportion and dedication to their task has won them respect of parents, teachers and taught. Such leadership is crucial for success* (Hall, et. al. 1986:6).

Thus, the qualities of leadership alluded to above lay the firm foundation in determining the success and survival of groups and organizations. Fielder and

Garcia (1987:1) aver that some top executives get the credit as well as the blame for the success or failure of their organization. Their observation is that although technology plays an overriding part under some conditions, effective leadership has often times compensated for the lack of equipment and resources.

2.4. SOME BASIC LEADERSHIP QUALITIES

2.4.1. COMMUNICATION

Leadership and communication go hand in hand. In essence, leading has to do with influencing others through communication. John Kotter says leadership is about coping with change; that leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future – they therefore align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles (Robbins 1997:418). Hence, without communication, leadership is but a hollow term. Leadership is based on communication.

Scott Cutlip, one of the greatest journalists and mass communication scholars of this century, warns leaders not to leave internal communication to chance or to the grapevine. His observation is that communication does not always permeate the total organization with the necessary speed and accuracy to achieve maximum performance (Puth 1994:46). Charles Kettering, inventor and GM Executive, agrees with this contention and further adds that we can

communicate an idea around the world in 70 seconds, but it sometimes takes years for an idea to get through one-quarter inch of human skull (Adler and Elmhorst 1996:99).

On the other hand, Kroon(1990:373) asserts that good communication helps to reach objectives, to contain costs and increase productivity. Conversely, poor communication can be equally costly, as Adler and Elmhorst (1996:99) contend that because of listening mistakes, letters have to be re-typed, appointments rescheduled, shipments re-routed productivity is affected and profits suffer. It is therefore clear that communication makes the difference between success and failure for the organization as a whole.

Greenberg and Baron (1995:362) advise that leaders can learn to become better communicators by keeping their messages brief, clear, and avoiding the use of jargon when communicating with those who may not be familiar with specialized terms. Bird (1992:94) expresses a similar view that leaders should avoid as much as they can use of unfamiliar jargon but he goes further to indicate that if technical terms are unavoidable, leaders should be sure to explain them if there is any doubt that someone may not know what they mean.

Goetsch and Davis (1997:290-299) warn leaders against making the mistake of confusing "telling" with "communicating" and "hearing" with "listening". A person with a highly sensitive hearing, for instance, can be a poor listener; while a person with impaired hearing can be an excellent listener. While communication may involve hearing and telling, it is much more than that.

When we speak we don't always say what we truly mean. Also that what is said is not always what is meant. Bergreen (1988:123) has succinctly put this point when he analyzed closely what teachers say in class in contrast to what they actually mean. These are everyday phrases that can easily be misinterpreted by learners:

TEACHERS' ROUNDABOUT PHRASES

WHAT THEY SAY	WHAT THEY MEAN
"Are there any questions?"	*"Tell me if you understand what I just said to you"*
"Shape up or ship out"	*"Settle down, be quiet, or you will be in trouble"*
"What in the world is this?"	*"Your handwriting is illegible, hard to read, or not what I expected to hand in"*

2.4.2. DECISION MAKING

Leadership is decision making, and to lead, is to make decisions. Principals, as school leaders, are seen as highly rational decision-makers with a strong sense of personal and professional integrity (Blumberg and Greenfield 1980:23). Agreeing to that, Kroon(1990:181) further maintains that leaders are expected to make rational decisions, irrespective of the uncertainty and risk that result from a changing environment.

A decision is a judgement. It is the process of selecting one course of action from among two or more alternatives (Goetsch and Davis 1997:257). On the other hand, Drucker (1967:7, 124) says a decision is rarely a choice between right and wrong, instead, it is at best a choice between "almost right" and "probably wrong". His assertion is that one does not make a decision unless there is disagreement.

The importance of decision making lies in the fact that the work of an organization cannot proceed until decisions are made. Smith (1997:82) has clarified this point that leaders make key decisions by which organizations rise and fall and for which leaders themselves are praised or blamed.

Supporting this view, Goetsch and Davis (1997:258) are of the opinion that decisions play the same role in an organization that fuel and oil play in an automobile engine – they keep it running. Surveys conducted by Hall et.al.(1986:188) revealed that worst principals, as school leaders, were those characterized by "inconsistency of decision making" while the best run schools had *"clear decision-making process"*.

The guiding principle of the best decision is the cost-effectiveness i.e. it rests on the maximum benefits that can be derived by most people. Schermerhorn (1996 : 201) asserts that at a minimum, the benefits of a chosen alternative should be greater than its costs. Similarly, Bird (1992 : 57) expresses the same

view that an effective decision is one that produces the desired result with minimum fuss, cost and effort.

Drucker (1967 : 95), on the other hand, believes that the most time-consuming step in the decision-making process is not making the decision but putting it into effect. He says that unless a decision has "degenerated into work" it is not a decision – it is at best a good intention. There is no doubt that decisions made by leaders have a significant impact on the entire organization, including its productivity.

Consultation is very important in the decision-making process – leaders should always make an attempt to reach a consensus with affected role players. Guthrie and Reed (1991:243) point out that where there is group participation, feelings of satisfaction are enhanced, creativity is encouraged, participants' acceptance and commitment to the decision are strengthened.

Goetsch and Davis (1997:258) further advise that even though it may seem unfair to conduct a retrospective critique of decisions that were made during the heat of battle, leaders should have their decisions evaluated as part of their accountability as well as to improve their decision-making skills. Schermerhorn (1996 : 201) agrees to that and further contends that leaders should be willing to depersonalize the situation and avoid the hero's fallacy by which he refers to the tendency to be blind to one's own.

mistakes. Studies conducted by Kraft (1972:299) and Bagish (1966:12) revealed that teachers want to be full partners in decision-making. They are no longer content with teaching only, but want to help determine the curriculum, set academic standards, work on building plans and even on the budget (Mabeba 1985:84).

According to Smylie (1992), teachers appear substantially more willing to participate in all areas of decision-making if they perceive their relationships with their principals as more open, collaborative, facilitative and supportive. They are much less willing to participate in any area of decision-making if they characterize their relationships with principals as closed, exclusionary and controlling (Murphy and Louis 1994:27).

2.4.3   DELEGATION

Leadership is the process of influencing employees to work toward the achievement of organizational objectives. According to studies conducted by Ceel Pastermak (1994), the majority of employees derive job satisfaction from the skills displayed by their leader; and Paceta and Gittiness (1994) found out that the major reason for employee failure is poor leadership (Lussien 1997:390). One of the key leadership skills contributing to the organization's success is delegation.

Schermerhorn (1996:90) has defined delegation as the process of distributing and entrusting work to others. Bird (1992:126), however, feels that it is not just work which can be delegated – monitoring and decision-making can also be delegated down to the lowest possible level. It is therefore the prerogative of leaders, in controlling their organizations, to determine when, how, and to whom responsibilities are to be delegated. To those leaders who fear delegation, Emerson's advice is to "always do what you are afraid to do". Bird (1992:113-115) lists some of the reasons advanced by leaders who are afraid of delegating :

* "I can do the work more quickly myself"
* "I spent 15 years learning the job and now you expect me to hand it over to someone barely out of school"
* "My staff are already overloaded. If I delegate it will break the camel's back"
* "I have to keep in touch with what is going on. If I delegate I will no longer have my fingers on the pulse"
* "If I delegate the work, mistakes will be made which we cannot afford"
* "I have no suitable staff to whom I can delegate"
* "I have tried it before and it did not work"

It is clear from the above remarks that leaders who are not delegating work fear that handing over such responsibilities to their subordinates, will diminish their own authority.

They therefore prefer keeping themselves busy all day on relatively simple and routine work. All that leaders must do is to decide what they should do themselves, the rest should be delegated.

On the other hand, Smith (1997 : 90-92) points out at the benefits of delegation, as follows:

- leaders must delegate to survive as individuals and for the organizations to thrive.
- By delegating, leaders increase the quality and speed with which decisions are made
- Appropriate delegation frees busy leaders to spend their time on more important matters; while passing on less important tasks to subordinates.
- Subordinates are trained to assume more and more important responsibility – such empowered employees are more ready to assume leadership responsibilities.
- The increased level of satisfaction among employees prevents them from seeking work elsewhere, saving the organization considerable expenses of recruitment and training.

The mixing of delegated tasks is absolutely essential less employees will associate delegation with drudgery – the most unpleasant and time-consuming tasks. Smith (1997:93) advises that delegated tasks should fit in with the subordinates' career path and that leaders should spell out clearly responsibilities, reporting requirements as well as performance measures.

Covey (1993:127) agrees to that and adds that leaders should become a source of help, the advocates, and not the feared adversaries. They must provide resources, remove all obstacles, sustain actions and decisions, give vision and provide training where necessary.

When all is said and done, and tasks are delegated to specific individuals, the leader's time will focus on the real work and the subordinates will be happier and be more productive, the whole organization will thrive well and continue producing more leaders rather than followers.

2.4.4 MOTIVATION

According to Kimbrough and Burkett (1990:31) leadership is the force that motivates people to do things they could not ordinarily do. Motivation, on the other hand, is seen as the set of processes that arouse, direct and maintain human behaviour toward attaining some goals (Greenberg and Baron 1995:126). This implies that motivation is the drive to exert more effort. All employees are expected to perform to the minimum standards set or at the minimum level effort. On the other hand, it becomes very difficult, if not impossible, to get the employees to perform at the maximum level effort – unless they are motivated to do so.

Goetsch and Davis (1997:212) have drawn a distinction between motivated and inspired employees.

According to them, inspiration means motivation that has been internalized and therefore comes from within employees. They then went further to indicate that motivated employees commit to the organization's goals whereas inspired employees make those goals their own. Quality leadership will therefore seek to unify all employees, to influence and inspire them to make a total, willing and voluntary commitment to either reach or exceed set goals.

Kimbrough and Burkett (1990:124) have identified several techniques that principals, as school leaders, can use to motivate their staff to work hard:

- Thank you notes
- Publication of special projects
- Public recognition of accomplishments
- Listening attentively to what teachers say
- Organizing think-tank sessions and engage appropriately in informal discussions
- Responsiveness to the feelings expressed, no matter how minor
- Encourage sharing of ideas
- Publicize the innovative ideas of the school in State and National journals
- Use outside consultants skilled in student motivation

Bird (1992:32-35) also stresses the fact that recognition of even a small success is worth a lot in terms of motivation. He goes further to indicate that the effect of recognition of achievement, say in the form of a pat on the back, can be quite dramatic but the achievement itself need not be.

Leaders should, as far as possible, exude enthusiasm for work and the accomplishment for goals to set a role model for their subordinates. They should send a message of what standard of performance is to be expected. Authorities like Kimbrough and Burkett (1990 : 124) have also advocated that when teachers perceive of the principal as a person that will move heaven and earth to provide the services and resources they need, a new culture develops for working hard and for high expectations of achievement. They firmly believe that demonstration of ability to see that teachers have resources they need when they need them is a powerful motivator.

Greenberg and Baron (1995:154) observed that today's work ethic motivates people to seek interesting and challenging jobs, instead of just money. Bird (1992:35) agrees to that, but goes further to list several attributes of such an interesting work:

- An element of variety
- Difficult enough to offer challenges
- Dynamic environment
- Freedom to initiate or make changes
- Having part in the decision making
- Knowing what it is all for and why things are done in a particular way
- Meeting and being involved with other people

It is the leader's responsibility to arouse and sustain expectations in order to increase workers' willingness to pursue set goals.

In the same way, the leader must keep the employees' motivation strong by making sure that expected rewards are attainable. From the above discussion, it is clear that a sense of achievement, recognition, amount of responsibility as well as interesting work have emerged as powerful motivating factors that every leader should strive for. There is no doubt that motivation remains an absolutely vital factor in determining the success or failure of organizations.

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CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. WHAT IS RESEARCH?

Healy (1993: 2) defines research as any process by which information is systematically and carefully gathered for the purpose of answering questions, examining ideas or testing theories. He goes further to say that the information so gathered, must be organized, evaluated and analyzed, for it to be useful.

Agreeing to that, Mabeba (1995: 168) also cited Van Dalen, who defines research as a careful, critical search for solutions to problem that plague and puzzle mankind. Stated differently, research is therefore a specific way of conducting an investigation (Mouton and Marais 198: 156). Neuman (1991: 1), who contends that research is a way of going about finding answers to questions, supports this.

The starting point of any research would thus be to select a suitable topic, then refining it into a specific problem for it to be investigated and finally a solution presented.

3.2. UNIT OF ANALYSIS

The unit of analysis emanates mainly from the problem statement and tells the researcher how to go about collecting the data. It refers to the type of unit a researcher uses when measuring variables. It also helps to guide the researcher to avoid logical errors in causality.

It is difficult to understand how a researcher goes about choosing units of analysis, but the guiding principle will be the theory examined as well as the researcher's concerns (Neuman 1997:114). In this study, the individual principal as a school leader, is the unit of analysis. The focus will thus be on the leadership qualities, style and skills displayed by the individual school leader. However, as the comparison is made between schools in terms of performance, the school as an organization becomes the unit of analysis with the primary focus still being the school leader. According to Bailey (1987:37) the micro-level of research studies the individual as a unit of analysis whereas the macro-level of research focus on large-scale studies.

3.3. SAMPLING

It is usually not practically feasible for all members of a particular population to participate in a particular study. Hence a sample, involving a smaller group of selected people, is often used and the researcher would generalize results to a larger group.

Neuman (1991:201-208) defines sampling as a process of systematically selecting cases for inclusion in a research project; with each element having an equal chance of being selected in a random process. Huysamen(1998: 2) agrees to that and defines a sample as a relatively small subgroup of cases from the population.

In this study, simple random sampling was used to select a group of principals to participate in a research, as representative data for the entire Western Region.

3.4. HYPOTHESIS

In order for us to acquire or gain information, we need to develop the problem statement formulated earlier into a specific, testable prediction (Graziano and Rankin 1993: 165). The prediction thus becomes the hypothesis statement.

A hypothesis is a statement or proposition to be tested. It is a tentative answer to a research question (Neuman 1991:123). If we think that a relationship exists, we first state it as a hypothesis and test the hypothesis (Bailey 1987:41). A hypothesis is thus a tentative explanation for which the evidence necessary for testing is at least potentially available.

Neuman (1991:109) identified the following characteristics of the hypothesis:
- It has at least two variables
- It expresses a cause-effect relationship between the variables
- It can be expressed as a prediction or an expected future outcome

- It is logically linked to a research question and theory
- It is falsifiable, i.e. it is capable of being tested against empirical evidence and shown to be true or false.

It is interesting to note that the testing of hypotheses result in relative rather than absolute truths. According to Neuman (1991: 109), scientists do not say they have proved a hypothesis or the causal relationship it represents, because proof denotes finality or absolute certainty or something that does not need further investigation. Instead, Neuman says evidence merely supports or confirms the hypothesis, it does not prove it. This is to allow future investigation to be carried out about the same matter.

Thus, a hypothesis is a statement of what ought to be, and can be shown through investigation to be right or wrong. As Bailey (1987: 41) puts it, a hypothesis is clearly not a statement of wishful thinking or of value. It is merely a statement of what the researcher thinks the facts are.

The following hypotheses were formulated in this study:
- Leaders with high level of qualification produce quality education
- Leaders with extensive experience produce quality education
- Leaders with leadership skills produce quality education
- Leaders with democratic management produce quality education
- Leaders with autocratic management style produce poor quality education
- Leaders who plan regularly produce quality education

- Leaders who score highly on the above combined factors would produce quality education than those who score less.

3.5. DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUE : QUESTIONNAIRE

According to Neuman (1991: 30), it takes skill, practice and creativity to match a research question to an appropriate data collection technique. As this study is based on descriptive survey, use has been made of questionnaires. Rabothata (1982: 64) defines a questionnaire as a list of questions put to a number of persons in order to collect data for the analysis of educational, social, personal and physical conditions. It is a form with well-constructed questions that is widely distributed to all respondents in a sample for completion. Self-administered questionnaires are more appropriate in dealing with sensitive issues as they offer complete anonymity (Babbie 1992: 277). On the other hand, if respondents have a diverse background such as age, gender and educational background, exactly the same wording may not have the same meaning. This leads us to explore the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires.

3.6. ADVANTAGES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE
- Compared to the face-to-face interview or telephone interview, it is by far the cheapest and can easily be conducted by a single investigator
- Questionnaires can be send to a wide range geographical area
- Respondents can complete the questionnaire at their own pace and at their most convenient time.

- It is useful in describing the characteristics of a large population (Babbie 1992:278).

- It is highly impersonal and therefore avoids interviewer bias.

- It can be very effective with a high response rate for a target population that is, for instance, well educated (Neuman 1991:251).

- It can be constructed in the language of the group being investigated (Huysamen 1994:128).

3.7. DISADVANTAGES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

- It has a low response rate

- It often appears superficial in its coverage of complex topics

- It is generally weak on validity and strong on reliability

- Questionnaires mailed to illiterate respondents are not likely to be returned; if completed and returned then the questions were probably misunderstood.

- In addition to the above disadvantages, Neuman (1991:251) observed the following:

a) conditions under which questionnaires are completed cannot be controlled, for instance, a questionnaire completed during a drinking party by a dozen laughing people may be returned along with one filled by an earnest respondent.

b) though extreme intentional lies are rare, such serious errors may go undetected, for example, an impoverished 70 year old woman living alone

on a farm may claim to be a prosperous 40 year old male doctor living in a suburb with three children.

c) On the other hand, someone other than the sampled respondent, say either the spouse or a new resident, may open the mail and complete the questionnaire.

However, full awareness of the inherent flaws or weaknesses of questionnaires may partially assist in resolving them.

3.8. RESPONSE RATE OF QUESTIONNAIRES

❖ Low response rate of questionnaires can create bias and weaken validity.

❖ Factors that result in low response rate include negative attitude by respondents towards surveys in general, concerns about maintaining their privacy as well as poorly designed questionnaires.

❖ Babbie (1992:267) considers the following to be acceptable response rates : 50% - adequate; 60% - good; 70% - very good.

❖ According to Neuman (1991:247) most researchers agree on the following response rates : below 50% - poor; over 90% - excellent; 10-50% - common for mail questionnaires.

❖ However, the above response rates are merely guidelines as they do not have statistical basis. Babbie (1992: 267) maintains that a demonstrated lack of response bias is by far more important than a higher response rate.

❖ Mouton (1991:88) found out that, empirically, it has been possible to demonstrate that the more interesting the respondent finds the topic, the more highly motivated he/she will be, which in turn results in an increase in the response rate.

❖ For the purpose of this study, 60 questionnaires were distributed to various types of schools as per sample: primary/secondary; former model C, former farm schools, former community schools, and former Indian schools representing the following ex-Departments: DET, TED, HOD and Lebowa. Out of 60 questionnaires, 45 were returned which is a response rate of 75%, representing both the primary and secondary schools at a ratio of 15:30 respectively.

3.9. OBSTACLES IN QUESTIONNAIRES

❑ *Memory decay* – according to Smith, the researcher has to accept that there is a natural decay in the ability of respondents to remember events (Mouton, 1991:87)

❑ *Omniscience syndrome* – according to Bristol et.al. (1973), this is the tendency of respondents to appear to believe that they are capable of answering any question. It is therefore important for researchers to be sensitive to this so as to avoid the inclusion of responses that are not authentic.

❑ *Threatening questions* – respondents may be ashamed, embarrassed or afraid to give a truthful answer.

❑ *Social desirability bias* – Selltiz et.al. succinctly state that most persons will try to give answers that make themselves appear well-adjusted, unprejudiced, rational, open-minded and democratic [quoted by Mouton, 1991:88]

❑ *Acquiescence response set* – refers to the tendency to answer yes or no to virtually all the items in a questionnaire. Setto (1937) found that respondents were more likely to agree with a statement than to disagree with the inverse of that statement (Mouton 1998:87).

3.10. VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

According to Neuman (1997:141), validity is an overused term and sometimes, it is used to mean *true* or *correct*. Basically, it refers to methodological soundness or appropriateness, such that, when a researcher says that an indicator is valid, it is valid for a particular purpose and definition. Babbie (1992:132) agrees that validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration. Therefore validity is basically concerned with whether the concepts being investigated are actually the ones being measured or tested.

To estimate how adequately the questionnaire has measured a particular topic under investigation, Rabothata (1982:72) advises that one procedure that can be used is to interview a random sample of the respondents and obtain their views on the same topic covered.

On the other hand, Mabeba (1985:175) lists the following aspects that influence the validity of the questionnaire:

> *Do the questions pertain to the subject?*
> *Are the questions clear and unambiguous?*
> *Will the questions have to be answered by many respondents to be valid?*
> *Do the responses show a reasonable range of variation?*

While it is always important to anticipate threats to validity, procedures should be created to try to eliminate them or even reduce them. Even though some measures are more valid than others, one cannot achieve absolute accuracy about validity. Validity must, thus, always be understood in relative terms.

3.11.   RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Reliability tells us about the questionnaire's dependability and consistency. If one has a reliable questionnaire, the same result is expected for the same thing measured. Similarly, if the questionnaire registers different results for the same object then it would be unreliable because of lack of consistency. Thus, reliability is about consistency of results.

Babbie (1992:130) maintains that problems of reliability arise whenever we ask people to give us information about them, thus, we ask:

Questions that people don't know the answers to.

People about things that are totally irrelevant to them.

Questions that are complicated.

From the above, it is clear that a person who had a clear opinion the first time, may have a different interpretation of the question when asked for the second time – creating a reliability problem.

3.12. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RELIABILITY AND VALIDTY

Validity and reliability usually compliment each other, but sometimes conflict with each other

A questionnaire can be reliable but invalid

Reliability is necessary for validity and is easier to achieve than validity

If a questionnaire has a low degree of reliability or validity, then the final results would be questioned

Perfect reliability and validity are virtually impossible to achieve, but remain ideals that researchers strive for.

3.13. QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THIS STUDY

Questionnaire consists of *seven* main sections as follows:

A. background information of the Principal:
   age, gender, experience and qualification

B. school background:

relevant statistics, including exam results

C. planning and control of work by the Principal:

includes activities such as staff development, class visits, financial management, staff meetings, etc. taking place during contact teaching time.

D. school management and leadership:

whether the principal is successful in staff motivation, developing vision, handling conflict at school, negotiating with role players, leading change, etc. preferred leadership style e.g. autocratic, democratic, etc. choice of questions distinguishing two types of leadership: empowering and directive rank-order of essential courses

E. school facilities:

whether available or not e.g. electricity, telephone, laboratory, etc.

F. general matters that include open questions and spaces for comment

Utmost care has been taken to adhere to the following principles in the drafting of the questionnaire:

a) avoiding use of jargon, slang and unfamiliar abbreviations as far as possible

b) great care has been taken to avoid ambiguity, confusion and vagueness in the framing of questions to arrive at adequate answers.

c) Avoiding emotional language and prestige bias.

d) Non-usage of double-barreled questions, i.e. those having two or more questions joined together.

e) As far as possible use of leading questions was avoided.

f) Questions asked were also related to the working experience of any principal of a school.

g) Absolute anonymity was guaranteed in that respondents did not have to reveal their identities.

If aspects mentioned above were not complied with, the questionnaire would have a low degree of reliability and validity.

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CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

## 4.1. DATA ANALYSIS

4.1.1. AGE DISTRIBUTION:

The age distribution of respondents reveal that the majority of Principals who participated in the research come from the age-group [41-50yrs] which represents 53,3%. This age distribution can be illustrated as follows:

TABLE 4.1 : AGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS

AGE GROUP	FREQUENCY	%
30 years and less	1	2.2
31-40 years	7	15,6
41-50 years	24	53,3
51 years & above	13	28,9

TOTAL = 45

Fig 1: Age distribution


AGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS
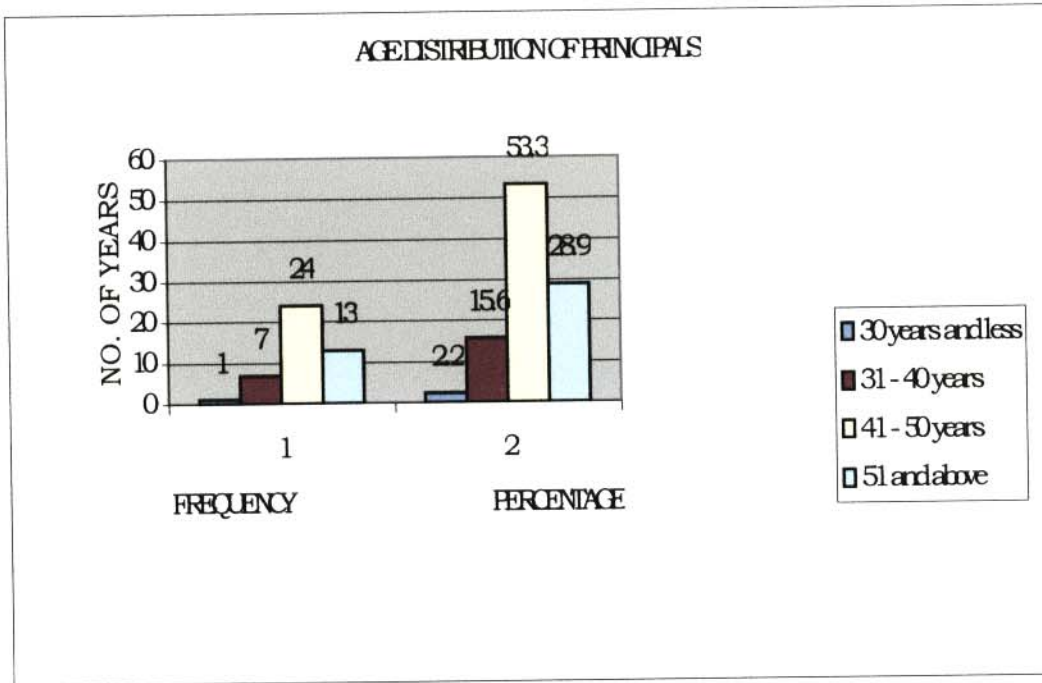
4.1.2. GENDER DISTRIBUTION:

The gender distribution reveals an overwhelming majority of respondents, i.e.

86,7% being male Principals while a mere 13,3% are

female Principals.

TABLE 4.2 : GENDER

GENDER	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
MALE	39	86.7
FEMALE	6	13.3

FIG 2: GENDER
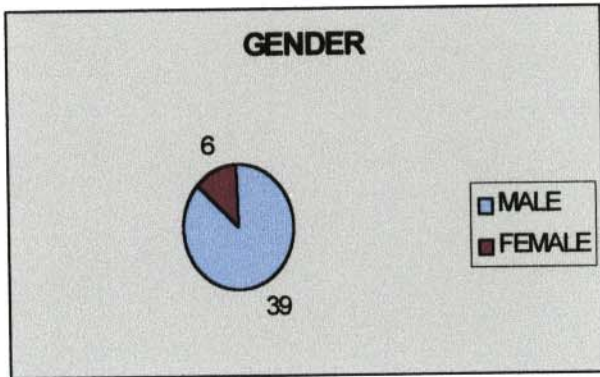
4.1.3. HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS

44,4% of the respondents have post-graduate degrees as their highest qualifications while 6,7% of the Principals have even higher qualifications up to a Doctoral degree:

TABLE 4.3 : HIGHEST QUALIFICATIONS

QUALIFICATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
GRADE 12 + DIPLOMA	11	24,4
GRADE 12 + DIP + DEG	11	24,4
GRADE 12+DIP+SEN DEG	20	44,4
OTHER	3	6,7

4.1.4. EXPERIENCE

The majority of respondents (13.3%) have 7 years experience as principals of schools, while 8.9% have 22 years, 15 years, 5 years and 1 year. In all 55.6% of respondents have an experience of less than 10 years, while 24.4% have an experience of between 20 and 30 years.

4.1.5 PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

The majority of respondents have three-year training in their teachers' diploma, representing 31,8%. Only 6,8% of the respondents have one year's professional training.

TABLE 4.4 : TRAINING IN TEACHERS' DIPLOMA

| YRS IN PROF. TRAINING	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
1	3	6,8
2	10	22,7
3	14	31,8
4	13	29,5
5	4	9,1

Total = 44   Frequency missing = 1

Fig 3: Professional training
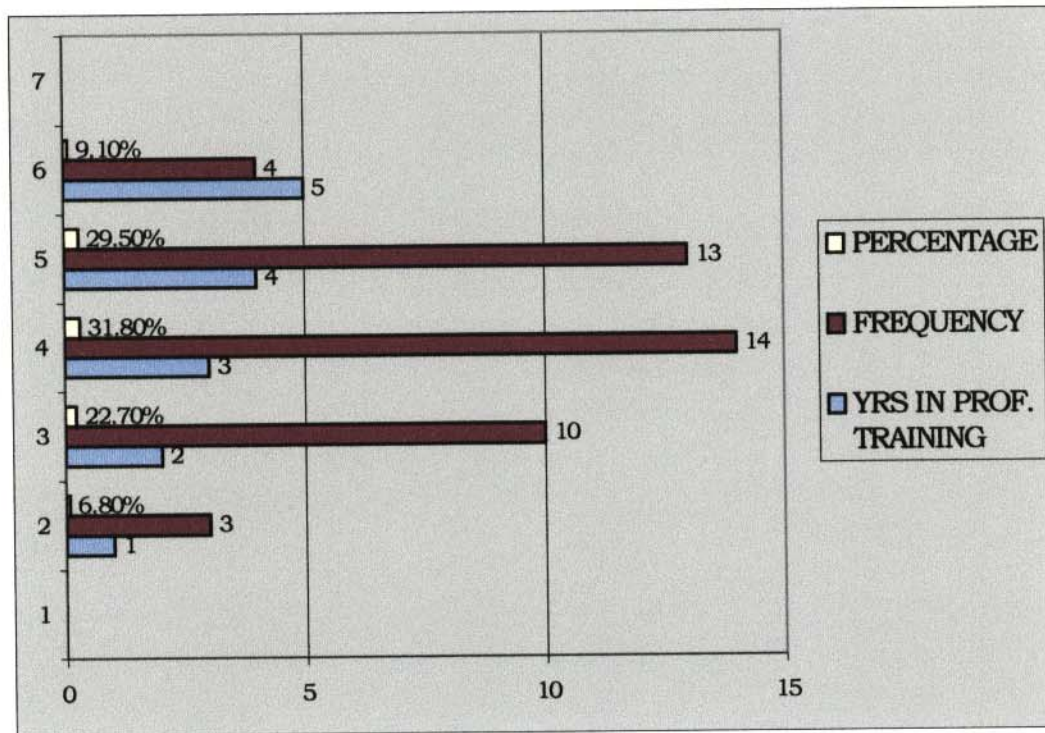
4.1.6. TYPE OF SCHOOL

The majority of respondent at 66,7% are Principals of Secondary Schools and
only 33,3% are in the Primary Schools:

TABLE 4.5   :   TYPE OF SCHOOL

TYPE OF SCHOOL	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Primary	15	33,3
Secondary	30	66,7

Fig 4: Type of schools
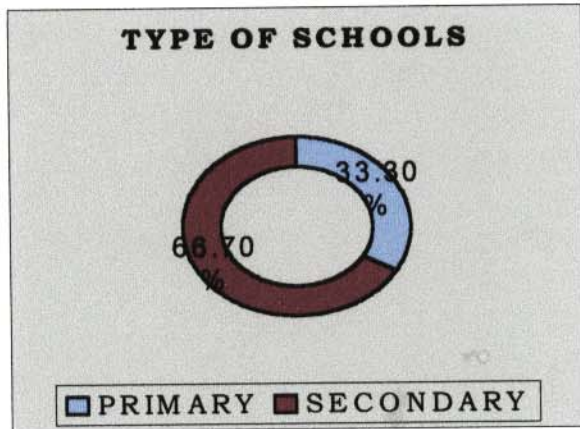
4.1.7. NUMBER OF EDUCATORS

The school with the highest number of teachers has 40 teachers and the least number is 2. 11,4% of schools surveyed have 20 teachers each while 6,8% have 7 and 14 respectively, and 9,1% have only 8 teachers each. This shows great inequality in the distribution of human resources.

4.1.8. NUMBER OF CLASSROOMS

Another inequality is found in the distribution of physical resources, i.e. classroom accommodation. Three schools or 7,3% of the respondents reported only three classrooms each for all grades, whereas three other schools have 26, 29 and 30 classrooms respectively. Overcrowding is thus evident in the former schools in that a secondary school with five grades is expected to have a minimum of five classrooms. Anything less than that will result in overcrowding and some classes attending in makeshift classrooms.

4.1.9. PLANNING AND CONTROL

A whooping 71,1% of respondents said that they engaged quite a lot in planning and control of work which included aspects of financial management, control of lesson preparation, class visits, management by walking around (MBWA), holding staff meetings and staff development. A further 13,1% agreed that they do a great deal of planning and control of work. Only 15,6% of the respondents felt that they engaged *a little* in the planning.

TABLE 4.6 : PLANNING AND CONTROL OF WORK

HOW OFTEN	PERCENTAGE
A lot	71,1
A great deal	13,3
A little	15,6

Fig 5: Planning and Control of work
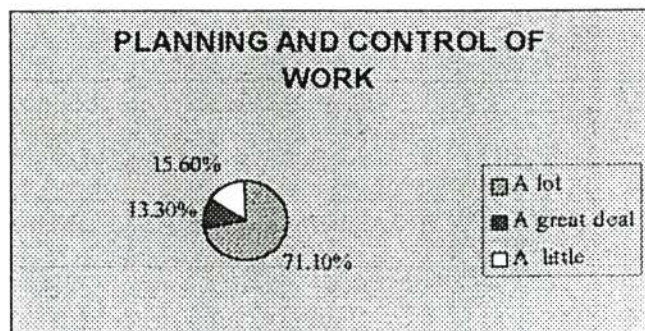
4.2.1. LEADERSHIP STYLE

None of the Principals associated themselves with an autocratic leadership style. 15,6% indicated that they were predominantly democratic, while 13,3% were predominantly participative. However, 55,6% of the respondents felt that they had a combination of all three leadership styles: autocratic, democratic and partcipative, while 15,6% showed a combination of democratic and participative styles.

Fig 6 : Leadership style
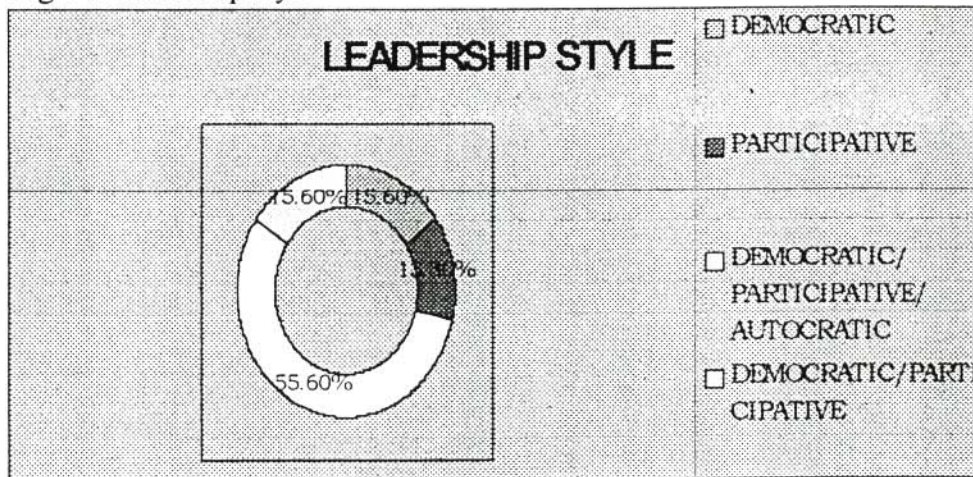
4.2.2. LEADERSHIP TYPE

Using D. Smith's survey to determine which leaders are directive or empowering, results revealed that 72,7% of the respondents showed inclination towards empowering leaders and 11,4% showed signs of directive leaders, while 15,9% had characteristics of both.

Fig 7 : Leadership type
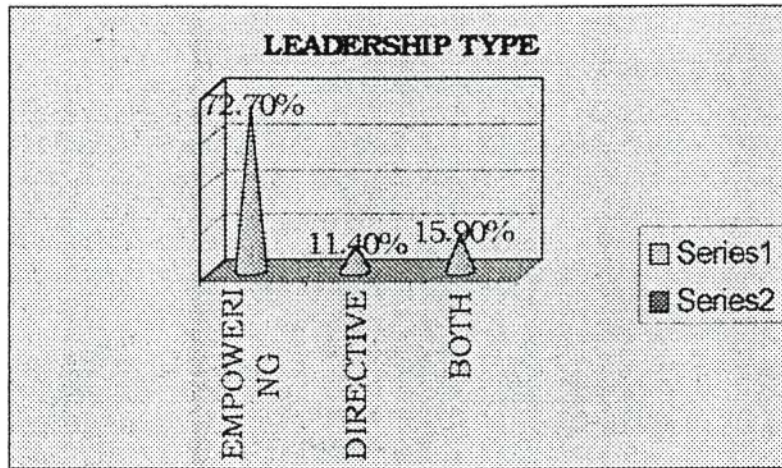
4.2.3. SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

35,6% of the respondents recorded a success rate of over 75% in dealing with leadership matters such as motivating staff, providing clear vision for the school, displaying adequate competence as leaders, **insolving educators in** decision making, handling conflict at school, leading change, etc. At the bottom of the ladder we have 17,8% of the respondents who are less successful.

4.2.4. OPEN DOOR POLICY

95,6% of the respondents admitted that they practiced an open-door policy with only 4,4% who indicated that they were not in favour of it.

Fig 8: Open door policy
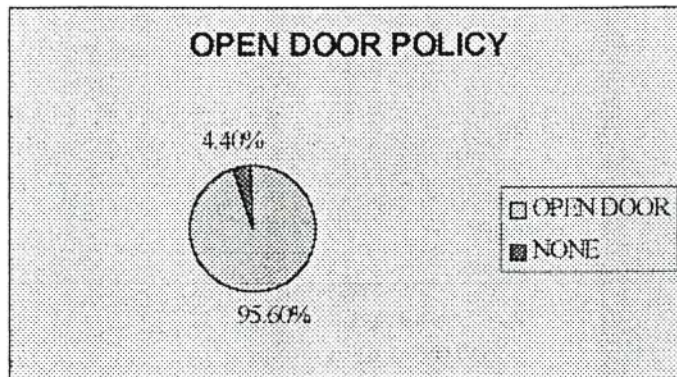
4.2.5. RANK-ORDER OF ESSENTIAL COURSES

The majority of the respondents are in favour of the following rand-order of training courses that can be offered to principal, arranged according to their degree of significance:

RANK	COURSE
1	school management
2	school law
3	school finance
4	customer service
5	human relations
6	teacher appraisal
7	personnel administration
8	training on curriculum 2005
9	negotiation
10	public speaking

4.7. AVAILABILITY OF SCHOOL FACILITIES

TYPE OF FACILITY	% AVAILABLE
A. SCHOOL LIBRARY	26,7
B. SCHOOL HALL	24,4
C. STAFF ROOM	46,7
D. LABORATORY	24,4
E. SPORTSFIELDS	62,2
F. WATER SUPPLY	60
G. ELECTRICITY	62,2
H. TELEPHONE	53,3
I. DUPLICATOR/PHOTOCOPIER	53,3
J. OVERHEAD PROJECTOR	33,3
K. TYPEWRITER	75,6
L. COMPUTER	33,3

* N0 RESPONSE FOR F,G,K = 6,7%

* NO RESPONSE FOR THE REST = 3,3%

From above, it is clear that 75,6% of schools surveyed have at least a typewriter, while 62,2% have electricity, and 60% have running water on school site. On the other hand, 73,4% of schools do not have a laboratory, 71,1% do not have a school library and 64,5% say they do not have an overhead projector.

TABLE 4.8. CULTURE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

ITEM	% AGREEABLE
A. EDUCATORS IN THE SCHOOL ARE COMMITTED TO TEACHING AND LEARNING	84,5
B. PARENTS ARE INVOLVED IN SCHOOL ACTIVITIES	53,3
C. SCHOOL HAS DISCIPLINED ATMOSPHERE	95,5
D. LEARNERS COMPLETE THEIR HOMEWORK	84,5
E. EDUCATORS ARE PRESENT AT SCHOOL MOST TIME	84,5
F. GOOD QUALITY EDUCATION IS PROVIDED FOR LEARNERS	86,7

95,5% of the respondents are positive that their schools have a disciplined atmosphere for teaching and learning, and 84,5% agree that educators attached to their schools are committed to teaching and learning. 86,7% of the respondents agree that good quality education in provided for learners, that 84,5% confident that educators are present at the school most of the time. About 53,3% agree that parents are involved in school activities.

4.3. RESULTS

4.3.1. PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT ANALYSIS

TABLE 4.15 : ....vs RESULTS

	RELAT.	P-VALUE
a. number of years as Principal	0,32386	0,0389 *
b. total school enrolment	0,30323	0,0681
c. number of teachers	0,14396	0,3755
d. number of classes	0,36438	0,0245 *
e. school man. & leadership	0,12364	0,4412
f. planning & control of work	-0,08629	0,5917

*significant at P < 0,05

According to table 4.15, there is a positive correlation between results and experience, i.e. as the number of years as Principal increases, there is also an improvement in results. This can be accepted at the probability value of

0,0389, significant at P< 0,05. Similarly, there is a positive correlation between number of classes and results in that as the classroom accommodation increases, classroom/learner ratio is reduced and results improve. This is also accepted at the probability value of 0.0245, significant at P < 0,05.

The positive correlation that might seem to occur between results and other variables such as school enrolment, number of teachers as well as school

management and leadership is so statistically insignificant that it is of little or no value. The progressive increase of these variables have little impact on the results. It is also interesting to note that, though of no significant value, there is a weak negative correlation between results and planning & control of work which suggests that schools that are producing good results do very little monitoring and control of work because the machinery is well-oiled and the system well in place.

TABLE 4.16 : ……………. VS EXPERIENCE

	REL.	P-VALUE
a. total school enrolment	0,38736	0,0135 *
b. number of teachers	0,41785	0,0048 *
c. number of classes	0,30109	0,0558
d. school manag. & leadership	-0,14678	0,3360
e. planning & control of work	-0,16944	0,2658

* significant at P < 0,05

Table 4.16 indicates positive correlation between experience and the total school enrolment as well as between experience and the number of teachers. In the former, it implies that increase in the school enrolment enhances experience, qualitatively speaking. The relationship is accepted at the probability value of 0,0135, significant at P < 0,05. In the latter, there is even a stronger positive correlation accepted at the probability value of 0,0048, significant at P < 0,05.

This means that an increase in the number of teachers at an institution will result in an increase in experience. The positive correlation that exists between

the number of classes and experience is so little that it is statistically insignificant. The negative correlation between experience and school management and leadership as well as between experience and planning & control of work is also highly insignificant.

TABLE 4.11: ....VS ENROLMENT

	REL.	P-VALUE
a. number of teachers	0,83491	0,0001 *
b. number of classes	0,86462	0,0001 *
c. school manag. & leadership	-0,03179	0,8456
d. planning & control of work	0,08859	0,5867

   * SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0,05$

From the above table, it is clear that there is a high positive correlation between enrolment and the number of teachers as well as enrolment and the number of classes. As the enrolment increases, the number of teachers increase likewise. Similarly, an increase in enrolment will result in an increase in the number of classes. Both relationships are accepted at the probability value of 0,0001 significant at $P < 0,005$. This relationship is strong at 0,83491 and 0,86462 respectively.

TABLE 4.12 : ....vs   NUMBER OF TEACHERS

	REL.	P-VALUE
a. number of classes	0,84437	0,0001 *
b. school manag. & leadership	-0,06075	0,6593
c. planning & control of work	0,03937	0,7997

* significant at P < 0,05

The above table reflects a high positive correlation between the number of classes and the number of teachers accepted at the probability value of 0,0001, significant at P < 0,05. That means an increase in the number of classes will result in the increase in the number of teachers. There is, however, a weak negative correlation between school management & leadership and the number of teachers in that with an increase in the number of teachers, there is a decrease in the school management and leadership. A very weak positive correlation exists between planning & control of work and the number of teachers.

The relationship that exists between school management & leadership and the number of classes as well as between planning & control of work and the number of classes is also insignificant. There is a positive correlation between planning & control of work and school management & leadership. This relationship is accepted at the probability value of 0,0001, which is significant at P < 0,05.

4.3.2. HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypotheses were formulated as follows :

H1:   Leaders wit high level of qualification produce quality education.

   (HQ = Highest Qualification)

H2: Leaders with extensive experience produce quality education.

   (EXPR = Experience)

H3: Leaders with leadership skills produce quality education.

   (SML = School Management & Leadership)

H4: Leaders with democratic style produce quality education.

   (LS = Leadership Style)

H5: Leaders with autocratic style produce quality education.

   (LS = Leadership Style)

H6: Leaders who plan regularly produce quality education.

   (PC = Planning and Control)

H7: Leaders who score highly on the above combined factors would produce

   quality education than those who score less. (combined)

TABLE 4.13 : ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE |SAS SYSTEM|

DEPENDENT VARIABLE : RESULTS

HYPOTHESES	DEGREE OF FREEDOM	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F – VALUE	Pr > F
H1 : HQ	3	4162.57312924	1387.52437641	14.30	0.0278 *
H2 : EXP	18	16206.5061354	900.36145197	9.28	0.0455 *
H3 : SML	11	6674.02131264	606.72921024	6.25	0.0789
H4&5 : LS	3	1316.10099548	438.70033183	4.52	0.1235
H6 : PC	2	3104.16622018	1552.08311009	16.00	0.0251 *
H7 : COMB	37	39164.6459930	1058.50394576	10.91	0.0358 *

- SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.05

Using the above table, results of the hypotheses can be analysed as follows:

H1 : *that leaders with high level of qualification produce quality education is significant at the probability value of 0,0278 { P < 0,05 }*

H2 : *that leaders with extensive experience produce quality education is also significant at the probability value of just 0,0455 { P < 0.05 }*

H6 :   *that leaders who plan regularly produce quality education, th relationship is accepted at the probability value of 0,0251, significant at P<0.05*

H3-5: *hypotheses dealing with leadership style, whether democratic or autocratic, are far less significant in producing quality education and they are thus rejected at the P-value of 0,1235, P<0,05. Similarly, school management & leadership played a less significant role in producing quality education, and is rejected at the probability value of 0,0789, P< 0,05.*

H7:   *COMBINED VARIABLES: taking into account the combination of variables, the entire model or group of hypotheses become significant in producing quality education. Therefore, leaders who show combination of all these variables would produce quality education than those with fewer variables. A leader is thus ecpected to have high qualifications, extensive experience, leadership skills and the ability to plan regularly in order to produce quality education.*

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Is leadership related to the educational level, experience, leadership skills and planning? This is an important research question, which was formulated at the beginning of this study. The results of the research, aas shown in the previous chapter, have responded positively to the question, stressing that leaders who display a combination of variables such as high qualifications, extensive experience, leadership skills and planning on regular basis will certainly produce quality educaiton.

It has been proved beyond reasonable doubt that leadership emerges as a critical factor between success and failure or organizations. Education planners and policy makers should take congnizance of this in their endeavour to uplift the standard of education in our institutions. That children are failing at an alarming rate or educators are seen to be largely demotivated, calls for the strengthening of leadership at schools. As rightfully pointed out by Robbins and Alvy (1995: 1), effective principals should not be a luxury that schools occasionally enjoy, but a right that all institutions should have.

Elsewhere it was mentioned that it is a myth to think that leaders are born not made. Thus, leaders have to be equipped with skills and techniques to cope with complexity of their role. When leaders are appointed, training

should be provided to enable them to carry out their tasks effectively and efficiently. Leaders should be able to communicate clearly and to take decisions, even in the midst of uncertainty and risk, after all, to lead is to make decisions. Authorities should be able to back up leaders for whatever decision made. Principals should also be delegated with certain powers to maximize their productivity.

In a survey to find out which courses are the most essential, most Principals agreed that the top three be *school management, school law* **and** *school finance*, clearly indicating need for training in those areas. This also serves as an appeal to trainers to carry out need analysis before embarking upon training. Buckley (1985 : xi) agrees that the onus rests with those responsible for training to begin where the heads *are* and not where they would like them to be.

Principals were asked to comment to an open question whether the Principal should be trained prior to him/her assuming the principalship post, they responded as follows :

❖ *A teacher sho is told today that he/she is the principal should be trained as his knowledge and training is that of a teacher not a principal.*
❖ *There are labour laws, which the principal needs to know to be able to lead the school successfully. Therefore training is essential.*
❖ *If not trained he/she may blunder in carrying out his/her duties.*

The Principal is also a transformational leader, leading change. Most respondents agreed with the statement that during the period of transition, the principal's role changes from a stable definition to one of emergent definition. Their responses are:

❖ *Principals are not expected to be rigid*

❖ *Principals should be willing to change*

The implication of the statement above is that the principal's role is never fixed and absolute but keeps on changing with circumstances. Principals, as school leaders, are therefore faced with the dilemma of "managing the present while preparing for the future" at the same time [Buckkley 1985 : 22].

In conclusion, we wish to recommend as follows:

- Training whould be provided on an on-going basis and build confidence.

- Principals should acquire skills and strategies to cope with change.

- Training should be situational and assist Principals to maintain present stability while at the same time developing the school for the future.

- Principals should be confident in dealing with *communication, decision-making, delegating and motivating.*

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

USED

FOR

DATA COLLECTION

STUDENT : **MAMETJA JM**

DEGREE : **M. DEV**

INSTITUTION : **UNIVERSITY OF THE NORTH**

THE IMPORTANCE OF QUALITY LEADERSHIP IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE NORTHERN PROVINCE, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE WESTERN REGION

QUESTIONNAIRE

(To be completed by the principal of the school)

A.   BACKGROUND INFORMATION
        (Please circle the appropriate answer)

    1.   Age of principal

30 years and less	31 - 40 years	41 - 50 years	51 years and over
1	2	3	4

    2.   Gender

Male 1	Female 2

    3.   Highest Qualification

Grade 12 - Diploma	Grade 12 - Diploma University degree	Grade 12 - Diploma - Post graduate degree	Other Specify
1	2	3	4

    4.   Fill in the number of years of experience as Principal

	Years
At present school	
At other schools	
TOTAL	

    5.   Circle the appropriate number of professional training in your Teacher's Diploma

1	2	3	4	5

B   SCHOOL BACKGROUND

6   Indicate type of school. Please circle your choice.

Primary	1
Secondary	2
Intermediate	3

7   Indicate the total school enrolment

Boys	
Girls	

8   Indicate the total number of Educators at the school

Male	
Female	

9   Indicate the number of classrooms per grade

9.1   Primary

Grades	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No of classrooms							

9.2   Secondary

Grades	8	9	10	11	12
No of classrooms					

10   Indicate the rate of the ... ...

10.1   Primary : Grade 7 Results

Year	Pass %
Nov 1996	
Nov 1997	
Nov 1998	

10.2　Secondary : Grade 12 Results

Year	Pass %
Nov 1996	
Nov 1997	
Nov 1998	

C　PLANNING AND CONTROL OF WORK
(Please circle one digit per line)

11　How often do you engage in the following activities during contact teaching time?

		Not at all	A Little	Quite a Lot	A great Deal
A	Financial Management	1	2	3	4
B	Control of lesson preparation of Educators	1	2	3	4
C	Control of learner's written work	1	2	3	4
D	Conducting class visits	1	2	3	4
E	General School Administration	1	2	3	4
F	Control of monthly tests and memoranda	1	2	3	4
G	Management by walking around (MBWA)	1	2	3	4
H	Staff meetings	1	2	3	4
I	Staff development	1	2	3	4
J	Extra-mural activities	1	2	3	4

D　SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

12　To what extent is the Principal successful in terms of the following? (Please circle one digit per line)

		Not at all	Partly successful	Very successful
A	Promoting teaching and learning	1	2	3

3

B	Motivating staff	1	2	3
C	Providing a clear vision for the school	1	2	3
D	Displaying adequate competence as a Leader	1	2	3
E	Providing guidance to the School Governing Body	1	2	3
F	Regular interaction with parents	1	2	3
G	Regular interaction with learners	1	2	3
H	Involving Educators in decision making	1	2	3
I	Monitoring Educators' performance	1	2	3
J	Dealing with non-performing staff	1	2	3
K	Handling conflict at school	1	2	3
L	Negotiating with role player	1	2	3
M	Leading change at school	1	2	3

13   Which leadership style(s) do you practice?

Autocratic leadership	1
Democratic leadership	2
Participative leadership	3
All of the above	4
Other (Specify)	5

14   Do you practice the open-door policy? (Circle one answer)

Yes 1	No 2

15   It's more important for leaders in organizations:
      (Please circle one answer)

      A   1. To give workers responsibility and authority.
           2. To supervise the work of others carefully.

      B   1. To teach and learn
           2. To manage and direct.

C	1. To make most important decisions alone.
	2. To involve group members in important decisions.
D	1. To pay attention to the feelings of workers.
	2. To focus primarily on the performance of workers.
E	1. To show by example what hard work and long hours mean.
	2. To delegate tasks efficiently.
F	1. To keep Educators informed.
	2. To keep Educators motivated.
G	1. To listen to the opinion of Educators.
	2. To share their experience with Educators.
H	1. To develop vision and mission statements with all stakeholders.
	2. To develop vision and mission statements with HOD's
I	1. To accept work standards developed by Educators.
	2. To set high standards for worker performance.
J	1. To accumulate power
	2. To distribute power.

16   How essential are the following courses to you as the Principal. (Please rank them according to their significance from 1 - 10)

		Principals rank
A	School Law	
B	Training on Curriculum 2005	
C	School Management	
D	Customer Service	
E	Public Speaking	
F	Human Relations	
G	Personnel Administration	
H	School finance	
I	Teacher Appraisal	
J	Negotiation	

E   SCHOOL FACILITIES

17   Which of the following does your school have?
(Please tick one answer for each line)

A	School library	YES	NO
B	School Hall	YES	NO
C	Teacher/Staff room	YES	NO
D	Laboratory	YES	NO
E	Sportsfields	YES	NO
F	Running water on school site	YES	NO
G	Electricity	YES	NO
H	Telephone	YES	NO
I	Duplicator/Photocopier	YES	NO
J	Overhead Projector	YES	NO
K	Typewriter	YES	NO
L	Computer	YES	NO

F   GENERAL

18   During the period of transition, the Principal's role changes from a stable definition to one of emergent definition. Do you agree with this statement? Please comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

19   The Principal, as a school Leader, needs certain basic knowledge and skills - training should therefore be provided prior to him/her taking up the appointment of Principalship. Do you agree? Please comment.

_____

_____

_____

_____

20   The Principal should have a long-term planning as opposed to short-term planning? Please comment.

_____

_____

_____

_____

21   Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. (Please circle one answer per line).

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
A	Educators in the school are committed to teaching and learning	1	2	3	4
B	Parents are involved in school activities	1	2	3	4
C	The school has a disciplined atmosphere	1	2	3	4
D	Learners complete their homework	1	2	3	4
E	Educators are present at the school most of the time	1	2	3	4
F	Good quality education is provided for our learners	1	2	3	4

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION