Guidelines for Capacity Building and School Management Development in primary schools.

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher makes a further attempt to point out the necessity of competence and to determine the major and minor needs for capacity building in selected South African and Norwegian schools; also to provide guidelines on how to go about building capacity in order to empower themselves.

5.2 Major and minor needs determined during the Empirical survey

Table 5.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major needs</th>
<th>Minor needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff development (SA)</td>
<td>Conflict management (SA &amp; Norway)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening skills (SA)</td>
<td>Time management (Norway)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing change (SA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial management (SA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational theories (SA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining discipline (SA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff appraisal (SA &amp; Norway)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Guidelines will be given to address the major and minor needs identified during the empirical survey. These guidelines are more flexible and adaptable. The implementation and application of these guidelines are also easier to follow than those that are fixed elements of a model. A model is rigid with elements that are fixed and that are most of the times difficult to implement in the practical situation.

The contents of Table 5.1 for capacity building will now be elucidated as follows:

5.2.1 Major needs that need to be addressed

- Staff development
- Listening skills
- Motivational theories
- Staff appraisal
- Managing change
- Maintaining discipline
- Financial management

5.2.2 Guidelines for South Africa and Norway

5.2.2.1 Staff development

Staff development is a factor of concern, because 50% of the principals as respondents evaluated their competencies towards staff development as excellent and good, while 50% of the principals as respondents evaluated themselves as average. This response indicates a definite need for staff development as a competency that, in future, needs to be
mastered by principals. The researcher's guidelines for staff development are therefore as follows:

- Teachers' training programs must provide teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to work in collaboration with each other and to be able to assume leadership roles.
- Courses in teacher leadership, human relations and group processes have become crucial in educating teachers toward empowerment.
- Principals should know their staff members well, because not all staff members are interested in empowerment/capacity building. Many teachers feel that their main responsibility is teaching and that they do not want to be burdened with the myriad responsibilities of school management. Some teachers not only avoid leadership, but they also dislike a position of power. The researcher therefore stresses the importance of knowing your staff members well, because, on the other side of the scale are some teachers who would like to get involved and be exposed to the opportunity to participate in managerial activities.

Guidelines for empowerment and capacity building include three areas: knowledge, status and access to decision-making (Steyn, 1998:133).

- **Teacher knowledge**: Knowledge per se is power and an expansion of knowledge is an obvious step towards empowering teachers.

- **Status**: Status refers to the ability of teachers to view themselves and others "with dignity and respect and to exercise their craft with quiet confidence" (Steyn, 1998:133). Staff status improves when teachers are granted the authority to address issues such as finances, curriculum materials and personnel and if they perceive positive consequences resulting from their actions.
- **Access to decision-making:**

Teachers' access to knowledge refers to the ability of teachers to acquire information and skills by means of participative management. It requires opportunities to develop decision-making skills. Research on shared decision-making in schools builds a strong case for more professional, autonomous roles for teachers which could enhance the quality of staff performance in schools for the following reasons:

1. Increased participation of staff is a powerful means of improving the quality of staff performance due to enhanced ownership.
2. Shared decision-making enhances control by extending its influence over a wide range of decisional issues.
3. Increased decision-making improves job satisfaction.
4. Higher performance of both teachers and learners is achieved.

Apart from the implications for teachers being empowered by means of teacher training and development programs, empowerment also has implications for principals of schools. If teacher empowerment implies sharing of power and the development of leadership skills among teachers, it is logical that it has implications for the principals who play a pivotal role in this process. A few major implications will be emphasized:

1) **Changing school structures**

Mechanisms for teacher participation in school management, such as departmental structures, staff meetings and different school committees, have existed for many years, although the degree of authority granted to teachers varies considerably. Such committees, however, are often chaired by principals and do not operate under independent authority.
Teachers are usually constrained by agendas and items selected by the principal and they are only relegated to “fill in the details”. Principals are uncomfortable with shared decision-making and often appoint a committee of allies. Very often these teachers’ views do not represent the views of all the staff and are they the least qualified to represent the staff. They are usually also easily manipulated by the principal.

Democratizing schools and empowering teachers implies that the schools’ structures need to change in order to allow for greater participation. These structures need to be designed to promote empowerment through participation. The school organization should be structured in such a way that hierarchical differences are diminished and that teachers are given professional autonomy and collegial involvement in decision-making.

2) Sharing power

The most common failure of principals stems from an inadequate understanding of people, whether they are students, staff or parents. Principals express their belief in people by delegating responsibility and trust. The principals who cannot delegate cannot get the best input from their staff.

The key issues for principals are the questions when, what, and how to “let go”. The question is also asked on what premises decisions to delegate are made, for example to delegate duties of demanding nature or to recognize the professional development of staff members.

It is often difficult for principals to “let go” and to then delegate responsibilities to teachers. They feel that they don’t have the necessary control. Skilled principals, however, have saved
themselves much time and have created a tremendous sense of
ownership by practicing delegation.

If principals pay careful attention to teachers’ talents and interests
when matching the teacher to the task, teachers are empowered. It
implies that principals must learn to share tasks and power. Principals
should convince staff members that they are valued and their
contributions are appreciated.

3) Adapting to their leadership role

Staff desire committed, positive and decisive leadership, but they also
want to be listened to and have their views considered by principals.
As teachers empower themselves to become more involved in
management and leadership, the traditional role of the principal as the
head, will have to move to principals as colleagues. This means that
principals will find their effectiveness diminishing to the extent where
they fail to rely on leadership as the primary means by which to gain
the co-operation of teachers.

Principals who feel threatened, have a desire for power and they want
total control over everything and everybody. They often demonstrate
autocratic leadership styles that is irreconcilable with empowerment.
A laissez-faire leadership style on the other hand poses problems with
regard to the direction in which the school is moving.

Teacher empowerment requires leaders with a strong sense of
direction, who are confident and who are willing to become an equal
partner as well as a facilitator in the decision-making process.
The more power that is given away, the more powerful leaders become. If principals themselves are not empowered in school management functions, it follows that they cannot share what they don’t possess.

4) **Providing opportunities for co-operative actions**

Few staff members possess the necessary group processing skills that are needed to reach a consensus in the group’s decisions. Principals should provide opportunities for their staff in staff meetings to develop skills in communication, problem analysis, conflict management and brainstorming. Peer interaction is a crucial element in empowering teachers for effective decision-making. There is a need to break down the isolation accompanying teaching.

Principals should find as many ways as possible to recognize their teachers’ competencies, because this represents an important empowering tool.

5) **In-service-training of teachers**

In-service-training is seen as an indispensable contribution from principals in the process of empowering their teachers. In-service-training creates the opportunity to break down the isolation among staff members and to build new networks, to develop self-confidence, to expand subject knowledge and educational knowledge. It involves teachers in projects and allows them opportunities where they can participate in organizational matters and have access to the decision-making process.
6) **Implementing teacher empowerment**

Principals should approach teacher empowerment with caution as not all teachers are prepared to assume a collegial relationship (Erlandson & Bifano, 1987:35). It is also possible that teachers can become saturated with decisional involvement. Some of the decisions are not appropriate for them to become involved in. The staff’s inability should, however, not be an excuse because it would be the responsibility of the principal to develop the necessary skills through appropriate staff development programs.

The following recommendations are made for the empowerment of teachers:

- **Create a climate for risk-taking**

  Principals should believe that their staff has the ability to make good decisions and also that staff should participate in decision-making as better decisions could be made as a result of their participation. The opportunity to make mistakes should also be seen as a learning opportunity.

- **Provide opportunities for collegiality**

  It is often difficult for principals to delegate responsibilities to teachers. Skilled principals can save themselves a lot of time and create a tremendous sense of ownership by practicing the art of delegation. The act of delegating should be seen as a compliment to the teacher involved. Delegation is an important tool to use in staff development.
• **Develop communication skills**

Communication among staff members is important if the staff is to experience their meaningful contribution. All staff members should feel that they have a say in matters. Existing communication channels, such as staff meetings, departmental meetings and learning area meetings could all be utilized to develop the communication skills of teachers.

• **Networking with other principals who successfully empowered their staff**

Principals who are using participative decision-making should develop their own support system. By making contact with other principals who are experiencing similar problems, a forum can be established for encouraging teachers and giving them an opportunity to share successes, to analyze failures and to develop new strategies (Steyn, 1998:136-137).

In a new education dispensation, the governing bodies and principals in South Africa need the participation of their first line managers which is their teachers, in order to perform their own functions effectively. Empowerment involves teachers as leaders rather than committee members who merely advise the principal about managerial matters. Teachers are professionals and have a reservoir of knowledge, skills and talents that should be tapped by principals (Bezzina, 1993:23).

If South Africa is to succeed in its attempts to transform education, the teachers must be free to make informed decisions and to share equal power in schools. A major challenge that faces principals in teacher empowerment, is the shift from being the sole authority to sharing authority in schools. Their new role places them now both at the top
and at the bottom of the hierarchy. They should no longer ignore the very people who can make or break the school – the teachers.

5.2.2.2 Listening skills

Another matter of concern is the fact that 40% of the respondent principals are sometimes good listeners and 10% of them indicated that they are rarely good listeners. Therefore the researcher provides the following guidelines to these principals:

The importance of listening

The ability to listen and understand is one of the most important skills of an effective manager. Senior and middle management managers devote approximately 60% to 80% of their total working time to communicate work related matters to their staff. Much of this directly involves the art and skills of listening.

In many ways listening is the most crucial of all communication skills, yet it is probably the most neglected (Puth, 1994:64). Listening should not be confused with hearing. Hearing is merely a physical process of perception, whereas listening is a complicated process of absorbing, judging and acting upon what is heard.

Barriers to listening

The problem with the listening process is that it is not seen as a problem. We assume that it is easy, because we do it all the time. We rarely know that we have not listened successfully and attentively.
The following according to Puth (1994:66) are some of the most important barriers to effective listening:

- Listener has preconceived ideas.
- Listener thinks that he or she knows more than the speaker.
- Listener is worried about something else (e.g. time, personal concerns).
- Listener is tired or feels physically uncomfortable.
- Listener is afraid of the speaker, envious, prejudiced, anxious or overeager to put his or her own ideas across.
- Speaker mumbles, coughs, has a heavy accent, etcetera.
- Speaker uses words open to many interpretations.
- External interferences, interruptions or distractions.

**Guidelines for effective listening**

- Use empathy in communication

The key to effective listening is empathy. Empathy means to understand, but doesn't necessarily involve agreement. If the listener has enough confidence in his or her own beliefs and attitudes, he or she will be less defensive and he or she will be able to understand new information, even if it conflicts with what they believe.

- Recognize your prejudices

Prejudice is a major barrier to good listening. Ideally, listening should be totally free of prejudice. Since this is practically
impossible, the best thing to do is to recognize your prejudices and to make a conscious effort to discard them.

- Keep an open mind and be aware of trigger words

Effective listeners try to identify and to rationalize words and phrases that upset them emotionally and which may impair their ability to perceive and to understand. The emotional impact of such trigger words can often be decreased through free and open discussions with friends and associates.

- Find an area of common interest

Effective listening is much easier if you are interested in the topic under discussion. If you are tempted to declare the subject boring and switch off mentally, ask yourself whether you cannot use some of what is being said. Does the speaker not perhaps have some worthwhile idea?

- Resist distractions

Poor listeners are readily influenced by distractions, even in a face-to-face situation. A good listener instinctively fights distractions. Sometimes distractions can easily be eliminated or reduced by closing a door, turning off a radio, or moving closer to the speaker. If this cannot be done, you have to increase your level of concentration.
Learn to concentrate

Listening is not a passive exercise, but requires energy and effort. If you are ill or tired, you cannot possibly listen effectively. To listen effectively, you have to be convinced that what you are about to hear is relevant to you. Adopt an attitude of "what's in it for me?" to everything you hear. When something worthwhile is being said, you won't miss it.

Be a critical listener

As you listen, weigh up what the speaker says and the conclusions that he or she draws. If you notice any weakness in the argument, keep it in mind when it is your turn to speak or when the time for discussion comes.

Hold your fire

Over stimulation in listening is almost as bad as under stimulation, and together the two constitute the twin evils of ineffective listening. Perhaps the most common barrier to effective listening is to mentally prepare an answer while the other person is speaking. As a result the listener responds by "shooting from the lip" and misfires verbally. If you are silent, attentive and receptive, you can tune in to the speaker's gestures, subtle meanings, inner feelings and unstated messages. Learn not to become excited about a speaker's point until you are sure that you understand it thoroughly.
- Listen for ideas

Good listeners focus on central ideas, rather than trying to memorize every fact. Learn to recognize the characteristic language in which central ideas are usually stated.

- Ask questions

The best way to double check your understanding of what a speaker has said, is to ask questions in order to clarify and amplify a point. An intelligent question indicates interest, but be careful of a hostile or belittling question. Politeness is the key word and ensures that your timing is right.

- Capitalize on thinking speed

People talk at a rate of about 125 words per minute, yet we can think quite effortlessly at a rate of 400 words per minute. The difference between talking speed and thinking speed creates a tremendous barrier for effective listening. The good listener uses excess thinking time to advantage, rather than allowing his or her private thoughts to intrude. It is not difficult to develop techniques for using spare thinking time to aid effective listening. You can either anticipate what is going to be said, mentally summarize what has been said, mentally questioning what is being said, or listen between the lines by giving attention to tone and volume, facial expressions, gestures and movements.
- Make sure that you understand

If you are at all unsure whether you have understood a speaker correctly, briefly state what you think he or she has said by asking, “Is that what you meant?”

- Exercise your listening skills

Good listeners make a point of attending and listening to a variety of presentations difficult enough to challenge and develop their mental capacities.

The reward of listening

By listening effectively you will:

- add to your knowledge
- encourage people to open up
- improve your interpersonal relationships
- save time, energy and even money
- eliminate misunderstandings
- facilitate the identification of problems and grievances

5.2.2.3 Motivational theories

According to the questionnaire, Table 4.40, the respondent principals themselves have a need for further training in motivational theories. In Table 4.32 the respondent principals also indicated that they don’t know how to motivate their staff members. From the feedback 50%
of the respondent principals indicated that they sometimes know how to motivate people, while 10% of them rarely know how to motivate people.

Principals have to be competent in order to motivate their staff members and management teams and to adapt to new educational changes in the fast changing education system in South Africa.

Motivational theories can be separated into two major categories:

- Content theories
- Process theories

**Content theories on motivation**

Content theories are concerned with identifying specific factors that motivate people.

Motivational theories in this category are:

- Maslow's need hierarchy

Every teacher wants to feel good about doing his or her job. That's called employee satisfaction. Employee satisfaction is made up of several factors, but they can be related to five levels of need as was first described by a psychologist in the 1960's, Abraham Maslow. The needs start with the most important physical needs until self-actualization is reached.
• Hygiene theory (Two-factor theory, Frederick Herzberg)

This theory has on the one hand the extrinsic factors like salary, job security, working conditions and status. These are factors that are external to the job and that are found in the environment of work. On the other hand there are the intrinsic motivators like achievement, recognition, responsibility, possibility of growth. These factors are built into the job itself.

• Existence Relatedness Growth theory (ERG) Clayton Alderfer

This is a content motivation theory that proposes that individuals have existence, relatedness and growth needs.

I. Existence: These are needs that are satisfied by such factors as food, air, water, pay and working conditions.

II. Relatedness: These are needs that are satisfied by meaningful social and interpersonal relationships.

III. Growth: These are needs that an individual satisfies by making creative or productive contributions.

Process theories on motivation

Process theories focus on the question: “How does motivation occur?”

• Expectancy Theory – Victor Vroom

Vroom defines motivation “as a process governing choices among alternative forms of voluntary activity” (Schreuder, et.al. 1994: 78).
Four assumptions underpin this theory:

1) People join organizations with **expectations about their own needs**, motivations, and past experiences. (These influence how individuals react to the organization).

2) An individual's **behaviour is a result of conscious choice** people are free to choose those behaviours suggested by their own expectancy calculations.

3) People **want different things from the organization** (e.g. good salary, job security, advancement and challenge).

4) People will **choose among alternatives so as to optimize outcomes** for them personally.

**Goal-setting Theory (Edwin Locke)**

Goal: “What is the individual consciously trying to do?” (Schreuder, et.al. 1994:79).

Lock’s contribution to goal-setting theories include:

1. **Difficult goals lead to higher task performance than do easier goals.**
2. **Specific goals lead to higher performance than do vague goals such as “do your best.”**
3. The mechanisms by which goals affect performance are directing attention and action, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence and motivating a search for appropriate performance strategies.
4. Feedback seems necessary in order for goal-setting to work because it allows people to compare their performance against their goals.
5. A commitment to goals is necessary if goals are to affect performance. Expectation of success and degree of success affect goal commitment.

6. Individual differences in factors like personality and education are not generally related to goal-setting performance.

Lock's goal-setting theory proposes that an individual's goals and intentions are the primary determinants of behaviour.

**Theory X and Theory Y (Douglas McGregor)**

Most managerial actions flow directly from assumptions managers hold about their subordinates.

McGregor referred to these contrasting sets of assumptions as **Theory X** and **Theory Y**.

Managers with Theory X assumptions have the following views of people:

- The average person dislikes work and will avoid it if possible.
- Because people dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened.
- The average person prefers to be directed and controlled by someone in authority.

The opposite assumptions characterize the Theory Y manager:

- Work is as natural as play or rest.
- Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards for achievement.
- Under proper conditions, people accept and seek responsibility.

Theory Z (William Ouchi)

This theory is based on a Japanese Management technique, and is an extension of McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y. Theory Z addresses the culture of the whole organization. Culture is the way of life that exists at the organizational level. Culture involves:

- long-term employment
- consensual decision-making
- individual responsibilities
- slow evaluation
- slow promotion
- informal control system with explicit measures of performance
- moderately specialized career paths
- extensive commitment to all aspects of the employee’s life

Major components of the theory Z as applied to schools are:

- Skills training
- Shared control and decision-making
- Trust, subtlety, intimacy
- Motivation through self-interest
- Equitable reward system
- Quality Education

Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory can also be useful in the process of staff motivation.
All the motivational theories mentioned in this section were taken from Schreuder, et al. (1994:78-83).

5.2.2.4 **Staff appraisal and commendation**

In the current South African education system there is no longer an appraisal and commendation system in place for teachers. During the interviews the staff appraisal and commendation system was of great concern to all the respondent principals. All of them felt that the intrinsic motivators are not enough to motivate their staff members. Something has to be done to address the current situation.

Some of the respondent principals felt that just a mere “thank you” is not enough and that, if it was financially possible, they would like to give a financial reward to a staff member for outstanding performance. During the old dispensation with the annual merit awards for teachers, financial reward was possible. This system, however, is no longer in use.

Some of the old model C schools still make use of a small financial incentive, but not all schools are financially able to give such incentives. During the researcher’s visit to different schools, the researcher was elated to come across a school where a commendation system without financial reward, was in place. According to the principal it works very effectively.

The principal said, “As a management team we have identified staff appraisal and commendation as a need in our school that have to be addressed. We went to the drawing board to have an in depth look at what can be done. The staff members work very hard, put in extra hours and have to adapt to change in the new educational dispensation that challenges every staff member every day.”
The management team agreed, after hours of thinking and conversations with staff members, to the following commendation system:

The management team manages this commendation system—The head of department have a booklet with pink slips and whenever a teacher puts in extra effort the concerned teacher receives a pink slip signed by the head of department with the following words, “Thank you, the management team appreciates your effort.” When a teacher has received three of these pink slips, the head of department then informs the principal about the teacher’s efforts. The principal completes a certificate with the heading “From the principal’s office” to thank the staff member and to assure him/her that he/she as principal, takes notice of his/her hard work.

The teachers can include these certificates with their application forms when they are applying for promotion posts. Some of the teachers have framed their certificates and hung them against the classroom or office walls.

The commendation system did not stop at the principal’s office. The principal also brought this extra effort from staff members under the attention of the school governing body. Each teacher, who has received a certificate from the principal, also received a certificate with the heading, “From the School’s Governing Body” to say thank you. These above-mentioned certificates were handed to the specific teacher in the principal’s office and the chairman of the school’s governing body is also present.”

According to the principal his staff members have accepted this system of staff commendation very well.
5.2.2.5 Managing change

According to the questionnaire (Table 4.23) 70% of the principals as respondents evaluated themselves as excellent and good in order to manage change, while 30% are average in managing change. This response is of real concern seeing that South Africa’s education system is currently in a stage of radical change. Therefore it is important that principals should be competent in managing and implementing all these changes as smoothly and effectively as possible.

The researcher refers back to chapter 3 for guidelines where the management of change is discussed in detail. See chapter 3.4.2.

The following aspects of managing change is discussed in the previous chapter:

- The meaning of change and the change process
- Change is a process and not an event – illustrated by Fullan (1991:48)
- Images of effective leaders in promoting change (Louis, 1994:6)
- Six characteristics of the effective leader in promoting change
- "Do" and "don't" assumptions about change
- To manage change – make use of the Fishbone theory

5.2.2.6 Maintaining discipline

Respondent principals indicated in Table 4.20 that they need capacity building in this above-mentioned management area.

The most important fact in maintaining discipline is to keep in mind that discipline at schools starts with the principal, management team and staff members.
If staff members are not on time in their classrooms then the learners will adopt to such behaviour. If teachers are not prepared and don’t exactly know what they want to do – the learners will act accordingly.

It is very important that teachers plan their day and make sure that the learners know exactly what is expected from them. The principal should stress this point if he experiences disciplinary problems in his or her school. The principal and teachers should be “visible” during the changing of classes to maintain discipline.

Under the new legislation, corporal punishment can no longer be implemented. Therefore each school should have a disciplinary system in place that will address the positive, as well as the negative behaviours of the learners.

A long-range goal of education is that learning will eventually lead to intrinsic rewards.

According to Diaz, Neal & Amaya-Williams (1990:71), sound classroom management should empower learners to accept responsibility for their own behaviour and learning. Classroom discipline, on the other hand, is a strategy implemented by teachers to control or to develop a learner’s inner self-regulation, which Kohn (1996:83) maintains, helps learners in choosing desirable behaviours and turns them into “ethical and compassionate” people. In addition to self-regulation, Diaz, et al. (1990:73) advocate the development of self-control in learners which enables them to regulate their behaviour according to the teacher’s expectations even in the teacher’s absence. The practical significance of teacher-perceived self-efficacy and the importance of classroom management and discipline in helping learners to become responsible for their own learning and behaviour, are that both can lead to improved teacher performance and increased learner achievement. This would ultimately lead to effective discipline in schools.
5.2.2.7 Financial management

70% of the respondent principals evaluated their financial management as excellent and good. There are, however, 20% of the respondents who evaluated themselves as average and 10% who evaluated their financial management as poor which is a matter that needs to be addressed. In Table 4.40 the respondent principals also indicated that they would need training in financial management to further their own training and development and to manage their schools effectively financially.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 (Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996) makes provision for two types of schools in our education system, namely, public schools and independent schools. With reference to the funding of public schools, Section 34(1) of the South African School’s Act 84 of 1996 (Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996:24) states that “the State must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress of past inequalities in education provision.”

The greater portion of the education budget is spent on educators’ salaries, thereby allowing only a small percentage for resources, materials and other supplies to schools. The State thus may not be able to meet all the financial-related requirements of schools.

The prior-mentioned realities of funding public schools in South Africa, has given rise to the idea of community assistance in the financing of schools. Section 36 of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996:24) states that “a governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the State in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners at the school”.

This section of the Act clearly allows for community financing of schools. Bray (1996:495) contends that community financing is a vital source of
supplementary funds for education, particularly where governments are unable to meet all the needs of their people. This aspect of financing public schools highlights the principal’s role in managing the finances of the school in an effective and efficient manner. The South African Schools Act has therefore, in essence, changed the role of the principal with regard to school financial management as an important aspect of the overall management of the school.

One of the biggest changes that have taken place in education over the years is the local management of schools. Communities have a greater role in running the school than they had in the past. This has given schools much more freedom in managing their affairs, and opened the door to better ways of managing the available money. At the same time it has posed considerable challenges for principals and members of governing bodies for many of whom much of the work of managing finances on this scale is new.

When considering the importance of financial school management in the general management of the school, it would be pertinent to echo Paisley (1992:81) when he stresses that of all kinds of information in the school system, none is more important than financial information since all the activities of the school and its ultimate performance rely on soundly managed finances.

With regard to the budget, it can be stated that the essence of the budget is that it represents “the school’s financial plan and its preparation and control is an integral part of the process of management” (Nathan, 1991:89).

Knight (1993:46) states that published studies of financial devolution worldwide are in general in agreement that the role of the principal is enhanced. He or she is seen as more important, more of a manager and as the key figure in the school.

With regard to the changing role of the principal in collaborative decision-making, chapter four of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996
(Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996:2 –28) places the responsibility for the financial management of the school in the hands of the governing body of the school. Thus the principal as member of the governing body cannot make decisions on his own. The principal has to consult with all stakeholders on the governing body in relation to financial management of the school. The very nature of the Act encourages collaborative and participative decisions. Therefore, if a principal is not accustomed to such a form of decision-making, he or she will now have to change their style of management to suit the changing circumstances. Extension of financial management makes it more difficult for principals to be autocratic. They will need to work more closely with their governing body and to win support from their staff. They will be forced to delegate more and communicate more with their staff, learners and parents.

Levacic (1991:120) stressed that the prime responsibility for financial management will, in most cases, rest with the principal and be shared in varying degrees by a senior management team, with local circumstances determining the degree of involvement of particular governors. These are the key people in schools on whom the emerging task of financial management will rest. The participation and involvement of staff, the enhanced role of governing bodies and increased accountability have provided some limitations.

Since financial management of schools is a relatively new concept in the majority of South African schools, it may be vital that training programs are implemented and advice is given to principals and prospective principals. With reference to this, Hill (1989:107) remarks that, as we advance from a system where principals were not required to manage considerable amounts of finances and budgets, to systems of managing considerable amounts of finances and budgets, it is clear that principals are in need of training and advice. Banchard, Lovell & Ville (1989:99) echo this view when they mention that with the rapidly changing role of the principal it goes without saying that training is essential and vital.
Without the necessary training any new system is threatened with failure. Therefore, even in conditions and circumstances in which change is welcomed, “initial enthusiasm can quickly turn to frustration and anger if not supported by well-thought-out programs”.

With regard to the budget as a tool in financial school management, the views of Jackson (1994:53) are very relevant where it is contended that whether we approve of it or not, the delegation of budgets to schools has meant that words like accountability, clients, efficiency, effectiveness and managers are with us and are not going away.

As South Africa moves towards the year 2002, principals are going to have to accept the extension of their chief executive role, and probably the subsequent displacement from the core act of teaching. They will need to be the people with the vision of where the school is going and with the managerial expertise to plan and budget that journey.

5.2.3 Minor needs

- Conflict management (South Africa)
- Time management (Norway)

5.2.4 Guidelines for minor needs

5.2.4.1 Conflict management

Some of the respondent principals indicated in Table 4.40 that they, as managers, would need further training and development in conflict management. The respondent principals evaluated their competency towards conflict management in Table 4.22 as follows: 10% excellent, 70% evaluated themselves as good and 20% as average.
Conflict has been defined as any situation in which two or more persons or groups perceive that their goals are incompatible, according to Achoka (1990:43). Conflict has pervaded society since the time of Genesis. According to Achoka (1990:43) even Max Weber realized this in 1904. To him, conflict could not be excluded from social life, and peace was simply a temporal exchange of conflict.

Causes of conflict can be attributed to many factors:

First: human factors:

- When teachers are dissatisfied or cannot realize their status aspirations, they can compensate for it by fostering conflict within the school.
- People who are authoritarians, but have low self-esteem, tend to misinterpret the behaviours of others and initiate conflict.
- Interest groups with different goals will apparently run into conflict.
- At times a conflict situation is complicated by several perspectives that combine in order to arouse it.

Second: structural factors:

- Structural factors related to the school, cause conflict.
- Achoka (1990:44) indicated that, the larger the school, the greater the number of conflicts and the higher the rate of conflict intensity.
- Schools’ bureaucratic characteristics, like high degrees of specialization, correlate with conflict.
- Overloading, which is the presence of an overwhelming amount of information requiring the consideration of the decision-maker, could
result in intentional or unintentional ignorance of the needs and rights of others and may result in conflict.

**Third:** conflict can be caused by conflict-promoting interactions:

- These could take place on both interpersonal or intergroup levels.
- Such interaction could lead to domination, competition, and provocation.
- In domination interaction, one party attempts to control the behaviour of the other party.
- In competitive interaction, each side tries to gain something that the other side wants.
- When interaction involves provocation, intentional or unintentional harm is inflicted on the opposite person.

**Fourth:** communication problems may cause conflict.

- The problems involved include noise, semantic differences and insufficient exchange of information.
- Any distortion of information for either the sender or the recipient is noise.
- Semantic problems, on the other hand, occur when some words mean different things to different people. This impedes communication.
- Insufficient exchange of information could mean lack of clear and unambiguous information about the other’s point of view, which is necessary for clarification of the situation.

Conflict can either destroy or construct. Positive conflict could perform an indispensable function in keeping the organization dynamic. Robbins (1971:65) underscored the same point by stating that "without conflict,
there would be few new think through ideas; organizations would only be apathetic and stagnant. Nonetheless, all conflicts in the organization must be dealt with effectively.

Approaches to manage conflict could be categorized under avoidance, use of force, use of third party, and rational techniques according to Achoka (1990:45).

**Avoidance** includes withdrawal and isolation techniques. The assumption here is that silence is golden. Avoidance is the most natural and instinctive human response in a conflict situation, but it is important to keep the nature of conflict in mind. In certain circumstances, this could be the worst response by a principal. The principal adopts a “let’s wait and see” attitude. At times, a deadlock is initiated, leaving the situation static. Nobody wins, but then no one loses either. Avoidance techniques are useful in dealing with structural factors. At times it could be effective, but only temporarily.

**Use of force** assumes that one party is in a super-ordinate position to the other. It involves the use of coercion and suppression. In coercion, one party tries to make the other one yield from feared, or actual injury by use of implied or explicit threats. The use of force technique may be most useful in cases where there are special interest groups with differing goals or values and interpersonal provocation. According to Achoka (1990:46), this is the quickest and neatest method of conflict management. But it may serve only to mark the end of one conflict and the beginning of another precisely.

**The third party technique** is used mostly when the conflict involves super-ordinates and subordinates. This could be an issue involving the reward system. The mediator serves to clarify the position of both parties and suggests compromises. This technique allows hostility to
be directed toward the arbitrator and not toward any of the differing parties. It is most convincing if either party in the end feels it has won something.

The rational approach technique includes compromise, persuasion and confrontation. To compromise would mean splitting the differences between the two groups. There are no winner and no loser. Confrontation assumes that the parties in conflict have the potential to resolve the problem without accommodating different points of views. This process of confrontation requires eight stages namely; definition, review of the problem, development, debate of alternatives, search for, and evaluation of, solution, weighing and selecting the appropriate solution. Achoka (1990:46) claimed that this is the best method of resolving interpersonal or group conflict. For apparent reasons, facing an opponent to discuss an issue, gives an opportunity to either party to try and objectively understand the other. Perhaps misunderstanding, caused by communication barriers, could then be resolved.

The researcher’s conclusion is that the principal must accept the fact that conflict is part and parcel of all social organizations. The school depends on the principal’s ability to resolve conflict. The principal must also be aware of the type of conflict. Each type of conflict brings lessons to be learned, but they must each be resolved. The school is a place where different people with unique values and attitudes meet. Not all the conflict resolution mechanisms that are used by the principal may be appreciated by all the staff members. Nonetheless, the possibilities for resolving conflict must be sought. A noteworthy point is that each conflict might warrant a different resolution technique.

An unmanaged or mismanaged conflict has the tendency to escalate and become independent of its initial cause. It could also continue after the initial cause has been forgotten.
No conflict resolution is reached through "pure luck". Successful conflict management involves artistic sensitivity. This statement, the researcher argued, grows out of both theoretical knowledge and the experience of the principal.

5.2.4.2 Time management

Causes of time wasting include among other things:

Teachers and principals usually say that a lack of time is one of the biggest obstacles that prevent them to attend to their obligations and responsibilities. A principal once said, "I work hard to apply myself to my job and I keep trying to reallocate my time, but no matter how hard I work at it, I can't escape that nagging feeling that I've got more work to do and I've got more people to see than I can handle" (Fox, 1965:59).

Another principal added to this statement by saying, "On the average I put in more time on my job than anyone in the system. I'm at school by seven or seven-thirty and don't get away until six or six-thirty. If I don't have to come back for some activity, I generally take some work home. I'm at the office Saturday mornings and some Sunday afternoons. My wife has resigned herself to being a schoolman's widow. It's not that I don't want to spend more time with my family but I can't do my job without some time to be alone" (Fox, 1965:60).

Most people's problem is not the fact that they work hard and long hours, but that they don't work efficiently. Successful people get more done in less time. They use their time effectively.

5.2.4.2.1 Time wasting

According to Schreuder, et al. (1994:34), time wasting is when the principal keeps himself/herself busy with tasks that is important, but
not urgent; urgent but not important; only partly worthwhile or not important or urgent at all.

To use time meaningful is to keep oneself busy with tasks that are both important and urgent.

Causes of time wasting include among other things:

- Lack of clear goal-settings, preferential tasks and planning
- Inefficient delegating
- Try to do too much at one time
- To be personally unorganized
- Unnecessary and/or too long meetings
- Chance visitors
- Crisis management
- Telephonic interruptions
- Inability to say “no”
- Insufficient self-discipline
- Too few and/or poorly trained support staff
- Incomplete and/or delayed information
- Administrative red tape
- Not to complete tasks
- Procrastination (the thief of time)
- The reading of waste mail
5.2.4.2.1 A daily "do-list"

Categorize all preferential tasks in an A, B and C category and then define the preferential tasks in each category, example, A1, A2, A3.

- A = very important and urgent
- B = less important and less urgent
- C = unimportant; can be postponed.

Complete tasks in order of importance: first A tasks, then B tasks and lastly C tasks.

It is very important to have realistic target dates and to try and keep to it. These realistic return or target dates can also serve as an extra motivational factor to complete tasks.

Complete one task at a time. Fox (1965:70) said, "If you cut down on the number of balls you are trying to juggle in the air, you will stand less chance of dropping a ball."

The Pareto-principle, according to Bird (1986:15) states, "If all items are arranged in order of value, 80% of the value would come from only 20% of the items, while the remaining 20% of the value would come from 80% of the items."

According to this principle, two items (20%) out of a "do-list" of ten items need to be identified as important/urgent to be completed immediately (80% of value). The other eight items (80%) can be postponed because they represent only 20% of the total value. This ensure that you don’t get bogged down by less important activities.
5.3 Conclusion

The guidelines, as set in this chapter, are aimed at equipping the principal with information necessary for capacity building, as well as addressing problems that may occur at his/her specific school.

Major needs determined during the empirical survey were:

- Staff development
- Listening skills
- Managing change
- Financial management
- Motivational theories
- Maintaining discipline
- Staff appraisal and commendation

Addressing the above-mentioned needs that were determined at selective schools will lead to Capacity Building and School Management Development.

In chapter six, the researcher will briefly give an overview of the study, address the research problems, indicate the shortcomings of the research, as well as motivate recommendations with regard to Capacity Building.