AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF A SCHOOL MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAMME IN THE ONDANGWA EAST EDUCATION REGION OF NAMIBIA

A half-thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS IN EDUCATION: EDUCATION LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Of

RHODES UNIVERSITY

By

JOSIA S UDJOMBALA

October 2006

ABSTRACT

The study set out to investigate the perceived effects of the Leadership Development Programme, a two-years training programme for school principals in the Ondangwa East Educational Region of Namibia. The objective has been to find out whether the training curriculum and content were related to what participating principals thought they needed to help them to do their work better, and improve their schools.

Data were collected through interviews with two of the first group of nine principals who have completed the training.

The study has found that the Leadership Development Programme helped the participating principals to experience personal changes and professional growth. Through the process of participatory action research, the Leadership Development Programme has been able to bring together theory and practice. It has also helped the principals to recognize their responsibility for planning, implementing and evaluation of action, and problem solving initiatives in their schools.

The study has also found that the Leadership Development Programme recognized, and therefore applied, the element of experiential/adult learning. Although the Programme has had its basic core curriculum, its content and training process have been flexible in the sense that the Programme tried first to establish what participants knew, and then assisted them to gain a new and enquiring perspective on their knowledge and practice, which helped them to become reflective practitioners.

While the study could not establish with a degree of certainty as to what extent the principals have taken up the processes of the training Programme in their schools, it has, however, found that there are many positive changes brought in about schools during the time the training was running. Secondly, while the study could obviously not establish s direct link between every change and the inputs made by the training Programme, it concluded, however, that the Programme at least brought about changes in the mindsets of principals, which were conducive to teaching and learning. What was important, though, was the question of how many of the initiatives were still bearing fruit three years after the training has taken place.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study would not have been possible without help from many people. I would like to acknowledge with gratitude the encouragement I have received, particularly from my supervisor, Dr Clive Smith, Lecturer at the Rhodes University, who guided and advised me patiently throughout.

I am most grateful to the two school principals I interviewed in the Ondangwa East Region, for their unreserved preparedness and willingness to share with me their experiences and perceptions of the Leadership Development Programme.

I am most indebted to Mr Ockie Coetzee who offered his flat to my wife and I during our stay in Windhoek for our study contact sessions.

I would like to give particular thanks to my sister Hilkka and Mr D K Nandi (Oubaas), both of whom, in many ways, have been my source of inspiration and hope. The same thanks goes to Mr A Caparros for giving me help and advice as well as for proofreading and commenting on my thesis.

There are many others who have given me assistance who I cannot name individually, but whose help I have greatly appreciated.

Lastly, I owe a great deal to the encouragement of my family. Our daughters: Piipa, Ndjepi and Kandaambe have patiently missed my company and attention during their school holidays. I thank them so much for their understanding. My dear wife Maria, who has been my main source of encouragement and hope for success, has helped me in innumerable other ways. To her I owe more than I can say.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context

As the twentieth century was drawing to a close, the challenges and opportunities which emerged in the management of education in all parts of the world, were of increasing complexity and diversity. Managers and administrators of education – whether their work was based in the classroom or lecture room, in the study of the head teacher or college principal, or in the local authority office or national department – all faced major and generally increasing pressure. These resulted from a number of factors: the ever-widening horizons of education itself, the rapidly changing economic, social and political context of educational management, and the continuing significant change in social expectations concerning the education service. To all who were concerned with maintaining, developing and improving understanding in educational management, and thereby improving its practice, the challenges and opportunities were both daunting and exciting (Hughes, Ribbins and Thomas 1987: xi).

In the new millennium the pace of change affecting educational issues is likely to show no sign of slackening. National governments, anxious about the performance of schools and conscious of the link between achievement and economic growth, continue to impose new demands and to expect results within tough and often unrealistic timescales. The requirements range widely and may include the curriculum, teaching and learning, staff management, budgeting and external relations, all within a framework of 'school improvement' (Middlewood and Lumby 1998: vii).

As the future in education faces ever-increasing change, the need is greater than ever for (school) managers and leaders who are skilled in the ability to influence their institutions' future. Equally relevant, as far as the future is concerned, the shift in many countries over recent years to the self-management of schools and colleges has brought a double-edged pressure. On the one hand there is greater freedom for schools and colleges to shape their

own futures; on the other, there is a far greater necessity in a self-managing world with an emphasis on performance of individual schools to succeed – or close down (Middlewood and Lumby 1998: viii).

In March 1990, Namibia became Africa's newest independent country. With a strong commitment to democracy and human rights, the young nation embarked on an enormous journey to redress the economic and social imbalances caused by decades of separate and unequal development based on race and ethnicity. Nowhere have these inequalities been more evident than in the sphere of education (Snyder 1991: v).

The Namibian education system had been characterised by acute disparities, inequities and tensions. Policies of racial discrimination had left a legacy of differential allocation of resources (including human) to different racial groups. Some schools had highly skilled principals, while others had principals with limited training (as teachers) (Ministry of Education and Culture [MEC] 1993: 19).

Reform efforts and calls for school restructuring have, since independence, attempted to change the nature of the relationships between principals of schools and their constituencies. Principals are expected to show accountability, include parents in decision-making and mobilize resources (MEC 1993: 46). All of these changes link schools with their environments, ultimately increasing the impact of the external environment on the management and control of the internal functioning of schools (Preedy, Glatter and Levacic 1997: 31).

At the same time, the public was demanding that schools become more efficient and improve their academic performance. Their meagre teacher training hardly qualified school principals for their increased responsibilities. There were increasing demands for the in-service training of school principals in order to equip them with the knowledge and skills that would enable them to cope with the challenges of change.

Internationally too, since the end of the Second World War, the rate of education innovation has accelerated year by year, and the demands on the management skills of school leaders have increased commensurately (Poster 1987: 1).

To respond to, and to address, this need in Namibia the MEC created a Task Force on the rationalization of roles and functions of inspectors, education officers, subject specialists, and school principals. One of its primary responsibilities was to help develop accountability in school principals towards their communities. In achieving this goal, the MEC realized that it was necessary to go into partnership with, and invite the active participation of, its local communities, public and private enterprises, and those international and foreign agencies committed to promoting Africa's development (MEC 1993: 162). In my view, this was the most feasible manner in which management development was to reach every principal, every teacher, every classroom and every learner.

The aspirations of the MEC to put up a programme that would ensure an efficient and effective use of its resources was not a unique one, because according to Stewart

> As organizations compete to become more effective by making better use of their resources, the human resource comes under close scrutiny in terms of its skills and experience and how far they match the needs for meeting future organizational goals. In those organizations that are used to change and where change is seen as evolution rather than revolution, fear and anxiety are not likely to exist. Such organizations have learnt how to handle change; they have learnt how to involve everyone, they have learnt how to communicate and they have learnt how to initiate and introduce change. They have become learning organizations (Stewart 1996: v).

It was in the light of the above principle, therefore, that an array of training courses/programmes for school principals was introduced, especially for those working at schools in the former disadvantaged areas, since they were the ones with the teacher training I referred to earlier. While some of these courses/programmes are the initiative of the MEC itself, offered through and by the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED), a directorate in the Ministry responsible for staff and curriculum

development, others are offered by Volunteer and other Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

Because of the limited scope of my study, I have chosen to focus on one training programme only, the Leadership Development Programme (LDP), offered by the Institute for Educational Career Development (IECD), an incorporated association not for gain, and my special area of concentration will be the Ondangwa East Region.

The Institute for Educational Career Development is a Namibian NGO, and has been receiving funding from the Hans Seidel Foundation, a German donor organization. Being an in-service training programme, the Leadership Development Programme strives to produce managerial success and professional development by linking theory and practice through the application of leadership skills. Secondly, the IECD has involved itself in this training activity as a way of assisting the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC) with the achievement of its vision of ensuring access, quality, equity and democracy (IECD 2000: 1).

The Leadership Development Programme is a two-year training programme for the professional development of school principals, and it consists of six modules, which are: personnel management, budget and plant management, school governance, communication and conflict management, curriculum and resources management, and effective school management. Each of these modules is sub-divided into different units, consisting of a theoretical and a practical component, followed by an assessment phase.

The first group of nine principals from the Omuthiya Circuit in the Ondangwa East Educational Region joined the programme in 2002, which they completed towards the end of the following year, 2003.

1.2 Research question

In the context of what I have said in the preceding paragraphs, the question is then: What are the perceived effects of the Leadership Development Programme for school principals in the Ondangwa East Educational Region?

1.3 Research goals

I became interested in investigating the schools principals' perceptions of the effects of the school management/leadership training programme in the Ondangwa East Educational Region. My interest is aroused firstly by the fact that, since its introduction to Ondangwa East Educational Region in 2003, no inquiry into the outcomes of the IECD's Leadership Development Programme has ever been done. Secondly, I am interested to find out whether the training experiences are related to what participants think they need to do their jobs well, and to improve their schools. Thurlow (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 17), observed that, besides the training of school leaders in South Africa being characterised by a variety of short-term, uncoordinated courses offered by a wide array of providers, one of the problems with respect to such courses is that their design is often based on untested perception of principals' needs, rather than on a thorough needs assessment.

Is Namibia perhaps an exception?

I am quite hopeful that, besides giving feedback to the IECD, this study will be of interest to those associated with school management/leadership training and development in Namibia.

1.4 Methodology

I chose to work within the interpretive paradigm, an umbrella for a host of different approaches that, although sharing some common assumptions, often originated from

different fields of academic endeavour. This approach views the social world as being of a "much softer, personal and humanly-created kind ... which selects from ... recent and emerging techniques – accounts, participant observation, and personal constructs for example" (Cohen and Manion, as cited in McFarlane, 2000: 27). This approach is appropriate for this research because it denotes that reality is constructed by the human mind and its central endeavour is "to understand the subjective world of human experience" (McFarlane, 2000: 27).

As a tool in the collection of data, I chose to conduct in-depth, open-ended, one-on-one interviews, which afforded me an opportunity to have a face-to-face encounter with my respondents, a situation that facilitated my understanding of their individual and personal perceptions and experiences regarding the training programme, as expressed in their own words. To allow my respondents freedom of expressing themselves clearly, I conducted the interviews in Oshindonga, the vernacular of the respondents, which I later translated to English during the process of transcribing the data.

I elaborate more on this topic in Chapter Three.

1.5 Definitions of terms used

1.5.1 School leaders

For the purpose of this study, this term is used to refer to school principals only.

1.5.2 Ondangwa East Educational Region

The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC) in Namibia is, for administrative convenience, divided into seven educational regions of which Ondangwa East is one, and this is the area of focus as far as this study is concerned.

1.5.3 Circuit

Due to the vastness of educational regions, and also to ensure that effective educational services are rendered to schools, regions are further divided into small units consisting of a cluster of schools under the supervision of an inspector of education. These units are referred to as circuits. The Omuthiya Circuit referred to in this study is one of those in the Ondangwa East Educational Region, and this is the circuit where the Leadership Development Programme was first introduced in the region.

1.6 The structure of the thesis

In chapter two I present an overview of the literature I studied to gain insight into what it says about management/leadership training programmes in Southern Africa, as well as in the other parts of Africa and elsewhere.

In chapter three I explain the research framework within which this study was conducted, and give an account of why I considered the interpretive research tradition as the most appropriate and suitable for this study. In addition to the exposition of the methodological background, Chapter Three also includes an account of the various methods of data gathering and analysis employed in this thesis.

In chapter four I present the main findings on how principals perceived the effects of the Leadership Development Programme. These are presented in the form of themes that emerged from the data analysis. Throughout the chapter I let the reader listen to the voices of the respondents by quoting the two principals as much as possible.

In chapter five I discuss the findings and the insights which developed at each stage of the process of interpretation. The discussion of the effects of the Leadership Development Programme is done in the light of what the literature says about current international thinking on training programmes for school principals.

In chapter six I present the conclusions of the study. These are the conclusions that have developed from the combination of insights which emerged from the data analysis and literature study. Recommendations are made about those aspects that need to be pursued further.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

> A cursory survey of the titles and content of recent books on management and the titles and content of current management education and training programmes would reveal "change" and "change management" as probably the subjects most often referred to. Such a result would suggest that the interest in managing change in organizations is growing with the rate of change itself. This is to be welcomed, however, since it indicates a recognition of the urgency of the change (Stewart, 1996: 2).

In this chapter I look at what the literature says about leadership and management training and development in general as well as literature that refers specifically to school leadership training, not only in Namibia or sub-Saharan Africa, but internationally as well. This is in line with what Wise, Nordberg and Reitz say about the role of a literature review in the social sciences. In their view, it is

> ... a general, retrospective survey of previous writings pertaining to one's problem. It is obviously imprudent and wasteful to proceed with any study without knowing what has gone before. One should, therefore, make every effort to evaluate previous work on the subject he has chosen or perhaps in the general field he has chosen (Wise, Nordberg and Reitz 1967: 37).

I focus on five areas of training namely, (1) the development of training programmes for school leaders in the 19th and 20th centuries; (2) what training and development is, its purpose and importance; (3) identification of training needs; (4) benefits of training and development, and (5) adult learning.

2.2 The development of training programmes for school leaders in the 19th and 20th centuries

I draw extensively on Bundrett's (2001) review of this topic in this section. Murphy (as cited in Brundrett 2001) suggested that other nations might avoid pitfalls when

developing their own school leadership development programmes by analysing carefully the history of school leadership development and the intellectual debate surrounding the topic (p. 229).

According to Willower and Forsyth (as cited in Bundrett 2001: 229), formal training for school leadership has been relatively rare outside the USA, where university programmes for the preparation of school principals and superintendents can be traced back to the 19th century. In England programmes that offer systematic training and development opportunities for senior staff in schools only began to develop in the 1960s, with the first chairs in educational management being established in the 1970s (Brundrett 2001: 229).

According to Brundrett (2001), the "first formal training programmes in school administration did not come into existence until the early 1900s" (p. 230). Citing Glass, Murphy and Forsyth, Brundrett says this was a period of "ideology" or an "ideological era" in the preparation of school administrators, whereby the "proper role of education was considered to be instruction" and therefore "much of the limited education which educational administrators received was in instruction" (p. 230).

The first half of the 20th century was described as a "prescriptive era" (Campbell, Fleming, Nowell and Bennion, as cited in Bundrett, 2001: 230), which saw a period of "ferment" in school administration (Murphy, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 230). According to Brundrett, there was, during this period, "considerable criticism in the popular press about the way in which schools were managed" and new views of leadership were articulated "emphasizing the commercial imperative and the role of the educator as a social agent" (p. 230).

The late 1930s saw educational management training being recreated to mirror the higher status professions in the wider society (Callahan, and Callahan and Button, as cited in Brundrett, 2001: 231) and, since science held hegemonic status at the time, educational administration was recast as a science (Culbertson, Greenfield, Griffiths and Murphy, as cited in Brundrett, 2001: 231). Brundrett says

> Commentators thus see this as a period that can be characterized, either in whole or in part, as a scientific era, an era of science, an era of behavioural science, a period of theory and science, or of behavioural scientist [*sic*]. (p. 231)

The epoch from the Second World War to the mid-1980s saw the development of the conception of educational administration as an applied science (Sergiovanni, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 232) and as a theory-dominated subject area based on disciplines external to education (Culbertson and Farquhar, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 232). As part of this reconceptualization dramatic changes in the content of courses were undertaken in order to ensure the professionalization of school administration (Farquhar, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 232).

The latter years of the 20th century saw the redefinition of school management training. This was called the "dialectic era." According to Brundrett, this turbulence was fuelled by devastating attacks on the quality of preparation of educational administrators that were more severe than those seen earlier in the century. Almost every element of principalship training was the subject of harsh critique, "including recruitment procedures, content, instructional techniques, quality of faculty membership and standards of performance" (Brundrett 2001: 232).

Partly in response to such concerns the National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEEA) was founded in 1985 (Brundrett 2001: 232). Its mandate was to come up with reform programmes. It produced three influential documents relevant to education administration including:

- the Leaders for America's Schools report;
- the publication of Griffiths's prestigious and significant address to the American Educational Research Association;
- a University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) – sponsored volume of papers (Griffiths, Stout and Forsyth, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 233).

Together, these documents were very important in crystallizing the debate on the profession (Murphy, as cited in Brundrett: 2001: 233) and gave the impetus to the formation of the National Policy Board of Educational Administration (NPBEA) in 1998. The NPBEA swiftly released a report suggesting major changes to principalship preparation, followed by series of occasional papers and national conferences designed to take the reform agenda forward (Brundrett 2001: 233).

The 1990s saw the continuation of this reform agenda with the publication of the report Principals for our Changing Schools: Preparation and Certification (National Commission for the Principalship, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 233), which outlined 21 functional domains of professional knowledge required by school leaders.

These practical steps to improve school administration preparation programmes have enjoyed a sophisticated inter-relationship with a sustained academic critique such as in the seminal Handbook of Research of Educational Administration (Boyan, as cited in Brundrett 2001: 233) and most recently in an influential text by Murphy and Forsyth (Brundrett 2001: 233).

2.3 Training and development: what it is, its purpose and importance

According to De Cenzo and Robbins (as cited in Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner 2002: 247), training is a learning experience in that it seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his or her ability to perform the job.

> Training can, therefore, be regarded as a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, or skills behaviour through learning experience [*sic*], in order to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organisation (Gerber et al 2002: 467).

To this, Jones, George and Hill add that training and development helps to ensure that organisational members take on new responsibilities, and adapt to changing conditions (Jones et al 2000: 363).

According to Stewart

> Its (training and development – my addition) contribution to organisation performance and effectiveness is primarily through the development of people as individuals, as work groups and as members of the wider organisation. This contribution is achievable by applying understanding of human behaviour developed in the social sciences to the purpose of achieving beneficial change defined by the organisation (Stewart 1996: 19).

McFarlane (2000: 89), citing Shakeshaft, refers to training as a "commitment to prepare reflective leaders for complex educational organisations in diverse, multi-cultural environments". He sees training as the facilitation of the development of agents for change by exposing the participants to professional education courses, field-based experiences and cooperative learning opportunities and reflection.

McFarlane (2000: 89) also sees training as the development of vision in the participants: "The ability to dream and to take risks in the sense of moving education institutions toward an imagined ideal." He says that this should be accomplished through the facilitation of a dialogical process among organization participants, in which the influence of individual vision on the implementation of taught skills like the preparation of budgets and the drawing up of time tables is explored.

Training is regarded therefore as an essential component of an organization and is considered a major management tool to develop the effectiveness of the organisation's most important resource: its people. Warren (as cited in Van Dyk and Loedolff 1992: 148), adds that if training function is to fulfil this mission "... the behaviour change brought about by training must be measurable in terms of the organisation's requirements".

In recent years there has been a growing realization that good management of schools does not happen without training (Adams, 1987: 1). Adams, a head teacher of the John Taylor High School in Staffordshire in the United Kingdom, says that an awareness of "our deficiencies in this respect was highlighted by the introduction of large

comprehensive schools and the increasing complexity of running any school, whatever its size and type" (Adams 1987: 1).

For Van der Wagen (1994: 161) training is learning, which is often a response to a need, a creative response to the environment in which an individual perceives that "the acquisition of skills, knowledge and other abilities will enable him or her to better cope with a changing and complex environment".

However, Van der Wagen (1994) cautions that the success of any training depends largely on its nature and form. He says

> In the past, training has most often been in the form of short, formal sessions that bear little or no resemblance to circumstances in the workplace. Being highly theoretical and overly simplistic, much training fails to interest the trainee at all. Even where it is enjoyable and relevant, it is often argued that the impact of training is minimal and that no measurable changes occur in performance (Van der Wagen 1994: 160).

As far as training providers are concerned, Fullan (1996) says that training, or professional development for (school) leaders, has become a necessity due to the limitations of the traditional education administration route where abstract theorizing, lack of problem and skill focus, distance from actual settings, and absence of mechanisms for application and follow-through have made university-based programs relatively ineffective. He says

> As the pressure for improvements intensified during the 1980s, and as research and practice repeatedly identified effective leadership as a key to reform, the university model came under increasing fire. It did not contribute to the improvement of administrative practice, which was desperately needed (Fullan 1996: 336).

Stein and Gewirtzman (2003: 4) say that (in-service) training is of paramount importance because "there are no formal accountability mechanisms to ensure that university program graduates learn anything useful for their future practice". They add

> Aspiring (school – my addition) leaders pay their tuition, take the required courses, receive state certification, and move into school leadership positions. Whether or not they are able to lead instruction and improve student learning is not considered a reflection of the effectiveness of their preparatory program (Stein and Gewirtzman 2003: 4).

Given the above, Stein and Gewirtzman say that it should come as no surprise that scholars and practitioners alike have identified a gulf between administrative training programs and the tools, skills, and knowledge necessary for successful practice. For them, training is a viable response needed by educators to changes in the environment in which they work.

Sharing the same view are Davidoff and Lazarus (2002: 147) who say that changing syllabi, changing approaches to teaching and school management, and changing laws about forms of discipline mean that teachers and school principals are constantly faced with having to adjust to new circumstances. They say

> This can become very stressful if they are not given support to cope with all these demands. Without ongoing programmes and processes to encourage and support staff development, schools become out of touch with educational trends and teachers lose the sense of renewal and inspiration which is an essential part of meaningful education (Davidoff and Lazarus 2002: 147).

They add that fir staff development programmes to be effective they must be developed around the particular needs of the individual staff and should be linked to the vision of the school.

A similar view is held by Cunningham and Cordeiro (2003: 273) who, while citing Shakespeare's famous line which says "We know what we are but not what we may become", say that training must be proactive and closely tied to school values, priorities, goals and strategies. It must also support the development and implementation of new, improved approaches to education. Referring to the importance and indispensability of training, they say "educators recognize that training is crucial in helping schools to achieve the high standards that are expected of them (p. 273), and that it should play a transformational role within the organization.

Robinson and Latchem (2003: 128) say that the quality of leadership and management is one of the most significant variables in delineating effective and efficient schools, "... yet in many countries the provision of training and professional development is minimal or absent." They indicate that to achieve effective schools all evidence points to a clear need for training and professional development for school managers, and also indicates that open and distance learning has an important part to play in meeting this need.

Cheatle (2001: 146) believes that the investment an organization makes in its employees through training is very often the hallmark of quality and success and makes the difference between organizations who succeed and those who do not.

Expressing the concerns of educational policy makers about school leadership development is Huber (2004), who says that in view of the ever-increasing responsibilities of school leaders for ensuring that quality of schools, "school leadership development has recently become one of the central concerns of education policy makers" (p. 676). He notes with concern, though, that, "while there may appear to be an international consensus about the important role of school leaders and their development" (p. 676), on looking more carefully, however, it is apparent that not many countries have engaged in this issue more rigorously.

2.4 Identification of training needs

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999) define a training needs assessment as the determination of the gap between what employees must do and what they actually can do. They say,

> It therefore deals with identifying the gap between current and expected results, which implies a performance deviation. There should be a prescribed standard with which the employee should conform, and if the employee fails to do so, a deviation necessarily exists. The standards must be known during the period of determining training need if any useful comparisons are to be made (Erasmus and Van Dyk 1999: 108).

According to Van der Wagen (1994), before training can begin, a training needs analysis is necessary to determine the training need. He says

> The first step in preparing a training session is to decide what is to be taught in terms of learning outcomes. By deciding in advance the outcomes desired, the trainer has a very clear idea of what needs to be achieved by the staff member. It is highly rewarding for a staff member to achieve a goal that has been spelt out before the training commences. It gives a sense of direction and motivation. The other reason is the sense of achievement for the trainer when he/she sees that learning has occurred and that they too have been successful in training correctly (Van der Wagen 1994: 103 – 104).

According to Van der Wagen (1994: 104) learning outcomes, also known as training objectives, have three parts, namely: the definition of the task to be performed; the standard required, and the conditions/circumstances under which the task is to be performed.

Like Van der Wagen, Mello (2002), too, says that the first step, needs assessment, involves determining why specific training activities are required and placing the training within an appropriate organizational context. He says that a needs assessment involves three levels of analysis, namely: organizational, task and individual. At an organizational level, "the training is considered within the context of the organization's culture, politics, structure, and strategy" (p. 274). He says that this analysis considers how the training will assist the organization or unit in meeting its objectives and how the training may affect day-to-day workplace dynamics between and among different units. It also considers the "cost of training relative to the benefits that may be expected and considers the opportunity costs of forgoing the training" (p. 274).

With regard to the second level of assessment, the task-level, Mello says it "involves looking at specific duties and responsibilities assigned to different jobs and the type of skills and knowledge needed to perform each task" (p. 274). According to him this level also considers whether the learning can or should take place on or away from the job, the implications of mistakes, and how the training can be designed to provide the employee with direct feedback on his/her performance.

The third level of assessment, on the other hand, considers the people to be trained. Mello says that this level requires

> ... an analysis of their existing levels of knowledge and skills as well as factors relating to their preferred learning styles, personality, interpersonal styles in interacting with others, and any special needs individual employees might have, such as physical or mental condition [*sic*] that might need to be addressed in the design of the training (Mello 2002: 274).

Buckley (1985) says that in determining training needs, trainers and trainees are usually placed in the dilemma of conflict of perceptions, and that needs are there as perceived, commonly by the trainers and trainees. He argues that it is the responsibility of trainers to try and define these areas continuously. He says

> In the relatively new area of educational management it can be too easy for some trainers to move in with copious information, a cognitive input which does little to improve the performance or contribute towards a more effective principalship. A scheme can only be justified when it can be shown that it is contributing towards the improvement of skills and competencies of participants (Buckley 1985: 29).

Buckley feels that there is a heavy responsibility on those who organize training programmes to seek ways of learning about and understanding the needs of the clients. He does, however, caution that there are also grave dangers if those with academic qualifications in management and organizations "come with a mission to enlighten those whom they perceive as ignorant, incompetent schoolmen, lost in the ramshackle world of education" (Buckley 1985: 29).

Buckley identifies three possible approaches to examining training needs, namely: for trainers to meet with participants before they embark upon a training programme to discuss their needs with them, or to seek feedback from participants who have undergone a training programme to ascertain to what extent their needs have been met.

According to him, the latter evaluation method certainly provides the trainers with valuable information but it is always retrospective and therefore of no help to the

participants who have completed the programme. Contrary to this approach, Buckley suggests that visits to participants in their schools before training begins, offer valuable gains. He believes that such visits "can allay fears, establish a relationship and provide valuable information for trainers on the particular needs of individuals. It is also valuable to meet a participant first in the more secure environment of his/her own school" (Buckley 1985: 30).

The third process Buckley identifies for the identification of training needs is to involve participants in the planning of all or part of the programme, by gathering them together a considerable time before the course begins. He believes that the consequence of such consultations is a vast amount of information about the areas of activity of the principal. However, Buckley cautions that,

> The danger is that lists of needs can readily become categories for cognitive content, which are only helpful for the improvement of conceptual skills. They do not clarify the appropriate method for the training of skills (Buckley 1985: 30).

He therefore suggests that it is very useful to discuss with participants not only what they wish to learn about during the training, but also "how they would wish to learn it" (Buckley 1985: 30). The reason, according to Buckley, being that such mature and experienced adults often have clear views on which methods of learning work for them. However, he cautions, "there are problems in seeking the needs directly from the participants themselves because sometimes expectations are raised, which may not be satisfied for various reasons" (Buckley 1985: 30).

A different view is offered by Rainbird (2000) who says it is common for some employers to expect employees to take responsibility for their own training. In quoting a manager at Standard Life she says,

> In the past, people tended to wait for their managers to suggest training. Now, we expect people to identify the training they need to do their present job and to develop their role in the future. We believe everyone in the organization should be learning, because if you don't develop, you won't remain employable in an environment that is changing so rapidly (Rainbird 2000: 248).

Cheatle (2001: 148) believes that, given the complexity and range of training and development needs in most organizations, it is useful to have "as a starting point a model by which training and development strategies and investment can be managed, regardless of the organizational setting". Cheatle (2001: 148) also believes that identifying training needs is a key stage in the training cycle, designed to answer the questions "what actually is the training that is required". To address this question successfully, Cheatle says a number of preliminary pieces of information must first be gathered through the following questions:

- What are the organization's goals?
- What tasks must be completed for the organization to achieve these goals?
- What behaviours are necessary for each job-holder to complete his/her tasks?
- What deficiencies if any do job-holders have in the knowledge, skills or attitudes required to deliver these behaviours?

Cheatle (2001: 149) says that the answers to the above questions "will in turn help determine the knowledge, skills and attitudes required that in turn determine the training needs involved."

Cheatle (2001) concludes saying that,

> ... the information that may be required to adequately assess organizational training needs includes the organization's overall business or development strategy; a more local or departmental business plan or set of objectives; individual job descriptions; and material gleaned from performance appraisal on individual post holders. In training jargon, the first two components are often referred to as 'top down' training needs and the latter 'bottom up' training needs. Indeed, large organizations may well describe their training and development plans and strategies in this way, denoting the separation between organizational, departmental and individual needs (Cheatle 2001: 150).

Whatever training needs are identified, Huber (2004) says the training and development of school leaders has to be based on a clear conception of the aims of education in

general and of teaching-learning processes at a school in particular. He says this idea "has to shape the programmes with regards to contents, methods, patterns in terms of timetabling, etc" (Huber 2004: 679).

Huber continues to say that in a world of changing and diverse values, leadership development must not be subject to a technocratic management-oriented paradigm. He says further that a more broadly defined understanding of leadership includes morals and the political dimensions of leadership in a democracy. "Leadership in a democratic society is embedded in democratic values, such as equality, justice, fairness, welfare and a careful and reflective use of power" (Huber 2004: 680). He therefore suggests that training programmes for school leaders should include all these considerations.

In citing Sirotnik and Kimball of the University of Washington, Huber (2004: 680) says that quality leadership preparation programmes "must be organized around, and guided by, an explicit set of values expressed in the program philosophy and working assumptions". He strongly recommends that training and development programmes should enable participants to reflect upon their own values in particular, and that the training content should aim to enable the individual participant to develop rather than simply be made suitable to fulfil certain fixed school leadership roles effectively.

Kydd, Crawford and Riches (1998) see needs identification and prioritization as the foundation stones of an effective staff development programme. They say that needs identification "is a process that should be handled sensitively and efficiently but not mechanically" (Kydd et al. 1998: 130), and has to take account of the needs of individuals, groups, and the whole school.

Kydd et al. (1998) identify four principles that are at the heart of an effective approach to needs identification These are:

One, it is important not to lose sight of the intimate link between staff development and school development.

> School improvement depends on a staff development policy and programme that balances the needs of individual heads with the school's own development needs. Staff development must view holistically the personnel and professional lives of principals as individuals. Thus it becomes the sum total of formal and informal learning experiences accumulated across individual careers. The agenda then is to work continuously on the spirit and practice of life-long learning for all principals (Kydd et al. 1998: 131).

Two, Kydd et al. (1998) say there is a need for staff to be fully involved in the process of needs identification.

> The more they (the staff) are encouraged to contribute to the identification of needs, the more staff development can play a key role in an overall strategy for professional and institutional reform. It is important that needs identification happens sensitively and systematically. It is a valuable inset activity in its own right. Properly handled, it can promote professional reflection (Kydd et al. 1998: 131).

Three, Kydd et al. (1998) say the third principle arises from its potentially threatening nature since it involves revealing a gap between present and desired performance. They emphasize that needs identification should be handled sensitively, with an emphasis on development, not remediation. Then it can "support innovation, ensure a match between needs and provision, and provide a basis for deciding priorities" (Kydd et al. 1998: 131).

Four, they say that needs identification must be followed by needs analysis from which emerge decisions about priorities for action. They say

> Nothing is more frustrating for staff to go through a complex needs identification process only to hear nothing further of its outcomes. The ultimate sin is to carry out a needs identification exercise and produce a programme that fails to reflect what it revealed (Kydd et al. 1998: 131).

2.5 Benefits of training

Huber (2004) says that training and development can have immeasurable benefits for the principals of schools, for example

- it qualifies school leaders to understand the complexity of the system along with the different individuals and groups involved as well as the interactive and collaborative relationships between them;

- it enables school leaders to develop influencing relationships and lead proactively;

- it familiarises school leaders with the potential stumbling blocks that may exist and how these obstacles can become challenges that will be overcome;

- it qualifies school leaders to intervene appropriately whenever challenges and obstacles occur in the school;
- it helps them to shape their schools in a way that the teachers who work there can then ideally be more reflective in supporting their learners to achieve better learning outcomes, and

- through training and development, "school leaders become facilitators of change who effectively support teachers in their work with pupils" (Huber 2004: 679).

Mullin (2002) says that since the purpose of training is to improve knowledge and skills and to change attitudes, it can thus lead to many possible benefits for both individuals and the organisation. According to Mullin (2002: 694), training can:

- increase the confidence, motivation and commitment of staff;

- provide recognition, enhanced responsibility, and the possibility of increased pay and promotion;

- give a feeling of personal satisfaction and achievement, and broaden opportunities for career progression; and

- help to improve the availability and quality of staff.

Training is therefore the key element in improved organisational performance. Mullin says:

> Training increases the level of individual and organisational competence. It helps to reconcile the gap between what should happen and what is happening – between desired targets or standards and actual levels of work performance (Mullin 2002: 694).

Stewart (1995) says failure to do training is often a reason why planned change does not work, or why organisations respond too late or ineffectively to environmental change. He believes that the training function has a number of contributions to make to the management of change. According to him, the first, and perhaps the most critical "is to ensure that the people issues and implications of change are raised and understood by organisational decision makers" (Stewart 1995: 209).

A second benefit lies in helping individuals, especially managers, develop their ability to cope with change itself. Stewart says

> Personnel development programmes and team development activities can be designed to build the coping skills required to live easily with the ambiguity and uncertainty which invariably accompany change (Stewart 1995: 209).

Thirdly, Stewart (1995) believes that training or management development enables mangers to fulfil their responsibilities for developing their own staff. He believes that managing the learning process as it occurs in doing work is an essential component of a learning organisation, which requires managers who are effective developers of people. He says "training can help managers in this through appropriate support mechanisms and materials" (Stewart 1995: 210).

Fourthly, Stewart (1995) says that appropriate training can develop in managers at all levels the knowledge and skills required to gain commitment to change – an essential ingredient in managing change. He says

> Trainers can also provide direct consultancy and advisory services on applying change processes in particular contexts, and as part of this, provision of training activities can make a contribution to overcoming the three barriers of knowing, believing and agreeing (Stewart 1995: 210).

Stewart (1995) continues to indicate that it is often the case that a specific change will create a need for new knowledge and skills to be available within the organisation and to enable individuals to continue to perform effectively. He says

> Training and development contributes here through diagnosing training needs and implementing appropriate strategies to meet them. The management of change can never be complete or effective unless arrangements exist to develop the necessary ability to meet the consequences of a given change (Stewart 1995: 210).

Stewart (1995) further believes that it is a proper and useful function of training and development to encourage and enable individuals and groups to both regularly review their current performance and to raise their heads above the parapet to survey the operating environment.

Mello (2002) says training involves some kind of change for employees: change in how they do their jobs, how they relate to others, the conditions under which they perform, or changes in their job responsibilities. He says:

> Although some employees may find any kind of change threatening, change that results from employee training and development has nothing short of win-win outcomes for both employees and employers. Strategically-targeted training in critical skills and knowledge bases adds to employee marketability and employability security that is critical in the current environment of rapidly developing technology and changing jobs and work processes (Mello 2002: 273).

Mello (2002) says further that organisations can benefit from training beyond general efficiency measures, when they create more flexible workers who can assume varied

responsibilities and have a more holistic understanding of what the organisation does and the role they play in the organisation's success. He says

> Providing employees with broader knowledge and skills and emphasising and supporting ongoing employee development also help organisations reduce layers of management and make employees more accountable for results. Everyone (employees, employers, and customers) benefits from effective training and development programmes. The key strategic issue then becomes how to make training effective (Mello 2002: 273).

Mello (2002) advises that for organisations to provide effective employee training and development, key decision makers must consider employee training from the investment perspective. He thus says:

> Training and development quite frequently involve short-term costs (for design and delivery of the learning activities) and long-term benefits. Particularly with issues of employee development, there may be no return on investment for the immediate time period Mello 2002: 273).

2.6 Adult learning

In broad terms, adult learning can be defined as the education of, and learning by, adults, aimed at assisting learners in fulfilling their roles as educators, workers, citizens and as parents" (Erasmus and Van Dyk 1999: 96).

For Gravett (2001: ix) the term adult learning/adult education refers to "activities intentionally designed for the purpose of bringing about learning among those whose age, social roles or self-perception define them as adults".

But, what are the characteristics of the adult learner?

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999), Gravett (2001), Rogers (1989) and Stewart (1995) say, in their respective writings, that adult learning encompasses the following characteristics:

- **Adult learning is goal – or need – oriented**

Adult learners direct their learning to satisfy their own needs and meet their personal goals and objectives. According to Stewart (1995), this simply means that the focus, subject and content of training and development must be seen as relevant by adult learners in their own terms. "The general point here is that training and development is only likely to be effective to the extent that it relates to real needs and personally relevant objectives" (Stewart 1995: 161).

Rogers (1989) also indicates that while there are people who are drawn to learning for learning's sake, most adult learners are strongly motivated by wishing to acquire skills and knowledge that they can use in immediate and practical ways. She says

> As a tutor, the nearer you can make the learning to the real world, the more acceptable it will be and therefore the more quickly and effectively your students will learn. The obverse is true, too: offer adults learning that they consider irrelevant and they may well become sulky and difficult (Rogers 1989: 48).

- **Adult learners bring accumulated life experience with them**

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999) say that the adult learner brings a great deal of quality experience to the learning situation, which implies that the learners themselves are sources of information that can be used by the trainer, for example in group discussions and simulations.

Rogers (1989), too, says the best-designed adult learning aims to build on all the advantages and minimize the disadvantages of the rich experience adults bring with them. She says:

> As adults we have experience of the world and probably also some experience of the subject we have enrolled to learn. For this reason we will usually have a great deal to contribute, even if we are also much more likely to be sceptical and challenging (Rogers 1989: 52).

Rogers continues to say that it is essential, then, to solicit and use the experience of adult learners.

> Failing to do so risks rejection of the message. Positively, by inviting comments, you eventually arrive at a much richer and denser picture of the world, and one that is therefore more relevant to real life. The more students are involved by offering their own experience, the more they are likely to internalise the learning (Rogers 1989: 53).

Gravett (2001) says that adults enter education/training events with a large quantity of experience that varies from individual to individual. He says

> The heterogeneous life experience of adults holds several implications for teaching. Life experience is linked intimately to an adult identity – to adults their experience is who they are. Therefore, if adults' experience is devalued or ignored, they may feel that they are being rejected as persons. Secondly, adults' experience can serve as a rich resource for learning – for the adult learners themselves and for fellow learners (Gravett 2001: 8).

Gravett (2001) says that experience can sometimes also be an obstacle to learning. He says that adults often have well-established attitudes, convictions and thinking patterns and may find it difficult to learn new ways of thinking and doing if these contradict their beliefs and experience. He says

> Their experience can also result in expectations and attitudes regarding what learning comprises and what the roles of the teacher entail. This may lead to a discrepancy between adult educators' conceptualisation of their role and the expectations of learners (Gravett 2001: 9).

Gravett (2001) says that the need to explore learners' views on and expectations of education, and to engage in negotiations with them about the educational process, is evident. Therefore, he says

> Course structures and procedures, as well as ground rules for interaction, should be explicitly named and discussed with learners. If this is not done, learners whose expectations are not met are likely to become confused and resistant. This requires that the educator establishes a cooperative learning climate (Gravett 2001: 9).

- **Learning is continuous**

According to Stewart (1995), what this means in practice is that individuals are learning all the time and not just when they are being educated or trained. Work, home and social activities and experiences are just as important in development as more formal or traditional training activities such as courses. Stewart says this has two important implications: firstly, formal training activities should not ignore the realities of other learning contexts. He says an example of this in practice is the holistic approach to management development which views participants as whole individuals rather than simply managers, and as people who need to manage their development in terms of home and social settings as well as in the work context. Secondly, training and development can and should utilise methods which manage the learning process outside of formal settings.

- **Memory, ageing and speed**

Gravett (2001) says that learning material that learners experience as meaningful and significant is encoded at a deeper level and placed in an organising structure so that it can be recalled more easily. He says that isolated and factual information, as well as information that does not relate to the individual's organised knowledge, is easily forgotten.

Gravett (2001) says that from research it seems that ageing indeed influences the speed of learning negatively, especially when the material that is learned does not relate to adults' experience, or conflicts with their existing knowledge. However, when new material relates to adults' field of expertise, they tend to learn fast. She says that the "average older adult observes more slowly, thinks more slowly and reacts more slowly than the average young person. In general, therefore, older adults need more time to learn new material" (Gravett 2001: 5).

He, however, cautions that educators and adult learners should not confuse learning speed with ability, because even adult learners have a remarkable ability to learn.

Rogers (1989), too, says that imposing one pace on a group is not an effective way for the group to learn, because in any given class there are wide individual differences between learner abilities. She says that "if the pace is fixed to suite the fastest it will demotivate the majority; if it is right for the middle band it will alienate both the brighter and the slower learners" (Rogers 1989: 45). According to her, research has consistently shown that the older one gets, the more likely one is to sacrifice speed for accuracy in learning, and the more one is likely to want more information before making a response. She says

> Scores of different experiments have shown that if adults are asked to learn something new under time pressure, the older they are, the more likely they are to become confused and to make mistakes. When no clock watching is involved, there is no difference in performance (Rogers 1989: 45).

Rogers further says that when no allowance is made for the increase in individual differences which age and experience bring, when the decline in short-term memory is ignored, and where teachers simply plunge on bearing the whole load of information, packing every moment with fresh and complex details, then some classroom situations of monstrous futility and waste can develop (Rogers 1989: 9).

- **Adults' readiness to learn is linked to their life role and life tasks**

Gravett (2001) says the reasons why adults learn are complex. She says it is often argued that adult learners seek education out of a sense of need. However, in some work-related programmes, for example where training and staff development form part of the conditions of employment, participants might have little or no sense of need, and this is why Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999) say that adult learners

> ... are ready to learn when they experience the need to learn, or when they experience the need to attempt something that will help them lead a more successful life, and which is directed at realising their full potential (Erasmus and Van Dyk 1999: 97).

2.8 Conclusion

It can be concluded that training and development of staff is a key strategic issue for any organisation. It is the means by which organisations determine the extent to which their human assets are valuable investments, and they (organisations) need to take a holistic view of training and development, particularly with regard to the kinds of staff and the skills and knowledge bases necessary to achieve strategic objectives. Changes in how work is performed and the organisational contexts in which work is conducted mandate that organisations conduct specific, targeted, strategic training and development initiatives as a prerequisite for continued success (Mello 2002: 273).

Our schools are no exception. If schools are to become effective learning organisations, then the creation of conducive environments for effective learning is central, which makes the provision of effective training and development for principals both an entitlement for the individual and a prerequisite for the organisation (Middlewood and Lumby 1998: 18).

The literature on the cognitive functioning of adults and the general characteristics of adult learners provided valuable insights into ways in which adult learners can best be approached and assisted in their learning endeavours. However, as Gravett (2001: 16) advises, "it is important to always bear in mind that even though learners might share characteristics, they remain individuals with unique life histories and needs".

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The term methodology refers to the way in which we approach problems and seek answers. In the social sciences, the term applies to how research is conducted. Our assumptions, interests and purposes shape which methodology to choose. When stripped to their essentials debates over methodology are debates over assumptions and purposes, over theory and perspective (Taylor and Bogdan, as cited in McFarlane 2000: 13).

The aim of methodology is, in Kaplan's (1973) words:

> To describe and analyse the methods (used in the research/study), throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences, relating their potentials to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge. It is to venture generalizations from the success of particular techniques, suggesting new applications, and to unfold the specific bearings of logical and metaphysical principles on concrete problems, suggesting new formulations (Kaplan 1973: 118).

The above suggests that the aim of methodology is to help us to understand, in the broadest possible terms, the process itself, not only the products of scientific inquiry.

In designing a research project, clarity about the objectives of the study as well as about the assumptions on which the study is based, is essential. The assumptions help determine the research tradition within which the study is conducted.

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, (as cited in McFaralane 2000: 13), say that understanding the philosophical issues in research helps to clarify the research design, which includes decisions about the basic research approach, methods to be used in the research, types of data needed, including the and tools for their collection, and their analysis.

As I indicated in Chapter One, with this study I investigated the perceived effects of a school management/leadership training programme in the Ondangwa East Region. The objectives of the study were, once again, to investigate the school principals' perceptions of the effects of the Leadership Development Programme offered by the Institute for Educational Career Development. I also wanted to find out whether the training experiences were related to what participants thought they needed to do their jobs well and to improve their schools.

3.2 The research paradigm

The terms "paradigms", "traditions", "approaches" and "frameworks" are often used interchangeably (Cohen and Manion, as cited in McFarlane 2000: 16). Guba (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 15), says that for research purposes a paradigm refers to a basic set of beliefs that guide action, specifically in terms of disciplined inquiry.

According to Creswell (1994: 6), the interpretive approach is termed the constructivist, the naturalistic, the postpositivist or postmodern approach. It began as a countermovement to the positivist tradition in the late 19th century. In the interpretive

paradigm, the researcher begins with individuals and sets out to understand their interpretation of the world around them. Theory is emergent and must arise from particular situations; it should be "grounded" in data generated by the research act (Cohen and Manion, as cited in McFarlane (2000: 16). This implies that theory does not precede research, but follows it.

The researcher works directly with participants' experience and understanding. The data thus yielded will be glossed with the meanings and purposes of those people who are their source. The theory so generated must make sense to those to whom it applies. The aim of scientific investigation for the interpretive researcher is to understand how this glossing of reality goes on at one time and in one place and compare it with what goes on in different times and places. Thus theory becomes sets of meanings which yield insight and understanding of people's perceptions. These theories are likely to become as diverse as the sets of human meanings and understandings that they are to explain. From an interpretive perspective the hope of a universal theory which characterises the normative outlook gives way to multifaceted images of human behaviour as varied as the situations and contexts supporting them (Cohen and Manion, as cited in McFarlane 2000: 16).

As I indicated earlier on, the nature of my inquiry is qualitative, qualitative in the sense that the study is expected to produce "descriptive data – people's own written or spoken words and observable behaviour" (Taylor and Bogdan, as cited in McFarlane, 2000: 18). Apart from participant observation, the qualitative researcher talks with people about their experiences and perceptions. More formal individual or group interviews are conducted. Relevant records and documents are examined, and the findings, understandings, and insights that emerge from all these and subsequent analysis are the fruit of qualitative inquiry (Patton 1990: 38).

According to Creswell (1994: 6), the direction for designing all phases of a (qualitative) research study is provided for by the assumptions of ontology and epistemology. On the ontological issue of what is real, in qualitative research the only reality is that constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation. Thus multiple realities exist in any

given situation: those of the researcher, the individuals being investigated, and the reader or audience interpreting a study. The qualitative researcher needs to report objectively these realities and to rely on the voices and interpretations of informants. On the epistemological question, the relationship of the researcher to that being researched, the qualitative stance is that the researcher interacts with those he/she studies, whether this interaction assumes the form of living with or observing informants over a prolonged period of time, or actual collaboration. "The researcher tries to minimise the distance between him- or herself and those being researched" (Creswell 1994: 6).

Again, Creswell (1994: 145) mentions six underlying assumptions or basic characteristics of the qualitative mode of inquiry, which are:

- Qualitative researchers are concerned with process, rather than outcomes or products.

- Qualitative researchers are interested in meaning – how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world.

- The qualitative researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires, or machines.

- Qualitative research involves fieldwork. The researcher physically goes to the people, settings, site, or institutions to observe or record behaviour in its natural setting.

- Qualitative research is descriptive in that the researcher is interested in the process, meaning, and understanding gained through words or pictures.

- The process of qualitative research is inductive in that the researcher builds abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories from the data..

A qualitative inquiry strategy emphasizes and builds on several interconnected themes. Patton (1990: 39) identifies the following:

Naturalistic inquiry	Studying real-world situations as they unfold naturally; non-manipulative, unobtrusive, and non-controlling; openness to whatever emerges – lack of predetermined constraints on outcomes.
Inductive analysis	Immersion in the details and specifics of the data to discover important categories, dimensions, and interrelationships; begin by exploring genuinely open questions rather that testing derived (deducted) hypotheses.
Holistic perspective	The phenomenon under study is understood as a complex system that is more than the sum of its parts; focus on complex interdependencies, data not reduced to a few discrete variables and linear, cause-effect relationships.
Qualitative data	Detailed, thick description; inquiry in depth; direct quotations capturing people's personal perspectives and experiences.
Personal conduct and insight	The researcher has direct contact with and gets close to the people, situation, and phenomenon under study; the researcher's personal experience and insights are an important part of the inquiry and critical to understanding the phenomenon.

Dynamic systems	Attention to process; assumes that change is constant and ongoing whether the focus is on an individual or on an entire culture.
Unique case of orientation	Assumes each case is special and unique; the first level of inquiry is being true to, respecting, and capturing the details of the individual cases being studied; cross-case analysis follows from and develops on the quality of individual case studies.
Context sensitivity	Places findings in a social, historical, and temporal context; dubious of the possibility or meaningfulness of generalizations across time and space.
Emphathetic neutrality	Complete objectivity is impossible; pure subjectivity undermines credibility; the researcher's passion is understanding the world in all its complexity – not proving something, not advocating, not advancing a personal agenda, but understanding; the researcher includes personal experience and emphathetic insight as part of the relevant data, while taking a neutral non-judgemental stance toward whatever content may emerge.
Design flexibility	Open to adapting inquiry as understanding deepens and/or situations change; avoids getting locked into rigid designs that eliminate responsiveness; pursues new paths of discovery as they come to surface.

3.3 The method: an interpretive case study

In this study I chose to make use of the interpretive case study as a method. As a qualitative method, the interpretive case study is anticipated to provide a researcher with an in-depth description of a specific programme, practice, or setting. This view is shared by Yin (2003:1) who says that as a research strategy, the case study is used in many situations "to contribute to our knowledge of individual, . . . and related phenomena." He continues to say that the distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. I believe, therefore, that the interpretive case study method allows me to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of the real-life experiences of the Leadership Development Programme by those who participated in it (Yin 2003: 2).

According to Yin (2003), critics of the case study method believe that the study of a small number of cases can offer no grounds for establishing reliability or generality of findings. Others feel that the intense exposure to study of the case biases the findings. Some dismiss case study research as useful only as an exploratory tool. Yet researchers continue "to use the case study research method with success in carefully planned and crafted studies of real-life situations, issues, and problems" (Yin, 2003: 2).

The site of the study was the Ondangwa East Educational Region, comprising Ohangwena and Oshikoto political regions. As I indicated in chapter one, for administrative convenience and to decentralize the educational services, the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture is divided into seven educational regions, and Ondangwa east, which is the site of the study, is one of them. The two reasons why I chose this region are firstly, this is the region where the training of principals under the Leadership Development Programme first started. Secondly, being a staff member in the region myself, and a resident of the Ohangwena Political Region, it has been easy and convenient for me to contact the principals I interviewed, and it saved me time and other expenses in terms of traveling long distances. The idea of choosing settings convenient to

the researcher is supported by Patton (1990: 184) who refers to "... what can be done within the constraints of time and resources".

3.4 Data collection

Cohen and Manion, as cited in McFarlane (2000: 27), define data gathering tools as "... that range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which is to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction." Data collection procedures in interpretive research involve four basic types: observation, interviews, study of documents and visual images.

I chose to make use of unstructured and in-depth, open-ended, and face-to-face, one-on-one interviews. Taylor and Bogdan (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 64) say the hallmark of in-depth interviews is learning how people construct their realities – how they define, and experience the world. Patton (1990: 357) views in-depth interviews as "a chance to try to get inside another person.

Unstructured and open-ended interviews afforded me the possibility of modifying (when it became necessary) my line of inquiry, following up on interesting responses and investigating underlying motives in a way that no other data-gathering tool could. Patton (1990: 357) writes that open-ended questions enable the researcher to understand and capture the points of view of the other people without predetermining those points of view through prior selection of questionnaire categories. The interview schedule was used with some degree of flexibility. The advantage of using the semi-structured and open-ended interviews is the flexibility it provides which enabled me to ask more in-depth questions, when required, while ensuring that the interview remained focused. Taylor and Bogdan (1998: 88) say that in stark contrast to structured interviewing, (unstructured and in-depth) qualitative interviewing is "flexible and dynamic." They say

> By in-depth qualitative interviewing, we mean repeated face-to-face encounters between the researcher and informants directed toward understanding informants'

> perspectives on their lives, experiences, or situations as expressed in their words (Taylor and Bogdan 1998: 88).

Like in observation, in interviewing the respondents I came on slow initially, and tried to establish rapport with them by asking non-directive questions at the beginning, and learnt what was important to them before focusing the research interests (Taylor and Bogdan 1998: 88).

I decided to use a tape-recorder to enable me to capture the entire stories as were told by the respondents in their own words. Before using it, I had to get confirmation from each respondent that they did not mind the interview being recorded. When functioning well, the use of a tape-recorder increases the accuracy of data collection, and permits the interviewer to be more attentive to, and have an eye contact with the interviewee throughout the interview. It also helped me in making notes of important matters that put me in a better position to formulate follow-up questions.

The first group of principal trainees who successfully completed the Leadership Development Programme in the Ondangwa East Region comprised nine principals. Their inspector of education provided me with the names. Rather than asking her to select interview participants for me, to avoid the temptation of handpicking a group of principals whom she thought would put the training programme in a good light, I decided to speak to these principals myself. This was time-consuming but helped me identify tow potentially information-rich principals to interview.

I then explained to them in detail the purpose of my study and my intention to interview them, and asked them to participate in the research. I also showed them a letter from the regional director of education giving me permission to conduct the research in the region. They agreed and we then set a date for the interview.

I selected these two principals purposefully as I believed that they would answer my research question. According to Schumacher and McMillan (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 47), the researcher is looking for information-rich key informants who are likely to be

knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena the researcher is investigating. Patton writes as follows about sampling:

> There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what's at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources Patton 1990: 184).

In addition, because interviews are time-consuming to record and transcribe, especially when in-depth, open-ended interview questions are used, as in the case of my study – the duration of each interview was approximately three hours – I felt that interviews with two information-rich respondents would provide me with sufficient data to work with.

Schumacher and McMillan (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 46) use the term "purposeful sampling" in cases where understanding, and not generalization, is the goal of the study as is the case in my study.

Although the respondents' use of English was of average standard, I decided to conduct the interviews in Oshindonga, their vernacular, to enable them to express their feelings, thoughts, experiences and perceptions clearly and fully. When I took this option I was fully aware of the fact that translation of the data into English had the risk of meaning being missed or misinterpreted. However, I believed more was to be gained by allowing the participants to use their vernacular. It enabled them to express themselves freely and fluently and it enhanced our rapport.

3.5 Data analysis

Analysing qualitative data can sometimes be a complicated task, and a time-consuming one. According to Schumacher and McMillan, and Delamont, (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 67), data analysis focuses on the establishment of patterns in the data. In their view, pattern seeking consists of the establishment of relationships between categories. The identification of relationships forms the basis for the writing up of research, and

determines the links between subdivisions or subsections of an academic thesis. For Schumacher and McMillan the researcher, in trying to identify patterns, is really looking to understand the complex links between various aspects of people's situations, mental processes, beliefs and actions.

As with the data collection, the procedures for analysis are unique and specific to interpretive research. Bogdan and Biklen in Cantrell, (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 67),say that "Analysis involves working with data, organising it, breaking it down, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what it be learned and deciding what you tell others". Patton (1990) also says that there are no set rules for analysing data, there are only guidelines. He says, "There are no absolute rules except to do the very best with your full intellect to fairly represent the data and communicate what the data reveals given the purpose of the study (Patton 1990: 372).

Taylor and Bogdan (19998: 142) say that because qualitative data analysis is an intuitive and inductive process, most qualitative researchers analyze and code their own data.

In the light of the above, I decided to employ the widely used method of coding through content analysis. I identified categories or themes based on patterns and ideas that emerged from the data. This is what Patton (1990: 372) calls inductive analysis, because patterns, themes and categories of analysis emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection and analysis. The process of coding and content analysis I used in analysing of data is primarily based on the steps and guidelines as suggested by Cohen & Manion (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 68).

In the first place, I transcribed the taped interviews verbatim, while noting, not only the literal statements, but also the non-verbal and paralinguistic communication. In the process, I set out to understand what the respondents were saying rather than what I expected them to say. I read the transcriptions a number of times, which provided a context for the emergence of specific units of relevant meaning and themes that were relevant to the research question. I then organized the content into naturally occurring

units, each conveying a particular meaning. I treated all the data with equal value and suspended as much as possible my own meaning and interpretations, and only identified the meaning from the data in their raw form (McFarlane 2000: 89).

Then I organised the units into meaningful clusters, at which point I used colour codes for each cluster, which I used on the transcripts. After grouping the units into a meaningful cluster, I went through them once again, eliminating irrelevant, repetitive and overlapping information. Lastly, I then reduced the data volume by grouping together clusters that appeared to be related into themes. I decided on the most descriptive wording as headings for those themes (McFarlane, 2000: 89).

Finally, I attempted to discount findings, which tied in well with what Taylor and Bogdan (1998: 142) say, that the final activity (in data analysis) involves attempting to discount findings, that is, understanding the data in the context in which they were collected.

The themes that emerged from my data will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.6 Validity and reliability of the study

In defining validity and reliability, Hammersley (as cited in Silverman 2003: 232) says validity means truth: interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers; while reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions.

To ensure validity I thought it was a good for me to interview first the inspector of education heading the circuit from which my two respondents were selected, and also the managing director of the Institute for Educational Career Development (IECD), to get their respective perspectives of the effects of the Leadership Development Programme (LDP) on the participants. It was after I had interviewed the two principals that I compared their responses with those given to me by both the inspector of education and

the managing director of IECD, with a view to determine whether they corroborated one another. To a large extent, they did. Silverman (2003: 233) refers to this form of validation as triangulation, derived from navigation, where different bearings give the correct position of an object.

Secondly, while interviewing the respondents I deliberately asked the same question in different ways or repeated it at a later stage in the interview to test consistency in the responses.

Thirdly, I took my findings back to the respondents for them to verify and certify them as valid. Silverman (2003: 233) says that taking one's findings back to the subjects being studied, where they (the subjects) verify one's findings can make one become more confident of their (findings) validity. He says this method is known as respondent validation.

Finally, I attempted, at all times, to keep my personal conclusions and inferences at bay, and only recorded what the respondents said. I also tried my best to be as consistent as possible. Silverman (2003: 227), in citing Clive Seale, says high reliability in qualitative research calls for low-inference descriptors, which involves recording observations in terms that are as concrete as possible, including verbatim accounts of what people say, rather than researchers' reconstructions of the general sense of what a person said, which would allow researchers' personal perspectives to influence the reporting. This I have done. I make generative use of direct quotes from the research participants in my data presentation.

3.7 Ethical implications

Cavan (1977) says:

> Ethics is a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others. Being ethical limits the choices we can make in the pursuit of truth. Ethics say that while truth is good, respect for human dignity is better ... (Cavan 1977: 97).

Another view is expressed by Bennaars (1993:15), who says ethics stands for a set of established norms guiding human conduct.

This study was conducted with the full knowledge and permission of my professional supervisors: my Regional Education Director, and the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture. Although there has not been any formal correspondence between us, my intentions were discussed with them in detail. I provided each of them with a copy of my research proposal. They approved of it, and said they would be looking forward to reading my research report. To facilitate my easy access to schools, however, I had to request my Director to provide me with written permission that I needed to show to the principals. This was granted, giving me easy access to school principals.

The management of the IECD was also consulted, and gave their approval to the investigation of the perceived effect of their training programme. They promised to give me their full support and co-operation in this endeavour. For my part I provided them with a copy of my research proposal.

Informed consent was obtained for all interviews, and I assured the respondents that they were not running any risk by becoming participants in the research. All interviews were tape-recorded with individual respondents' permission.

To put my respondents at ease, and to build a situation of mutual trust and respect, I assured them of anonymity and confidentiality. I used the following pseudonyms for the two respondents and their institutions:

* Mr Kongo – principal of the Babangutu Primary School
* Mr Mokoto – principal of the Malope Junior Secondary School

Finally, I undertook to give each of my respondents a copy of my report.

3.8 Limitations of the methodology

Since Ondangwa East Educational Region is my duty-station, and being familiar with the situation there, I have some pre-conceptions about how school principals manage their schools. There is a possibility that I have been biased either in the collection of data or in their interpretation. However, having been aware of my feelings and the likely areas of my bias, I have tried to be as objective as possible throughout the study.

Secondly, being a senior official and the supervisor of the respondents, I anticipated they would be tempted to tell me only those things they thought I would want to hear. Having thought of this possibility before the interviews, I made it clear to them from the start that our professional relationship should not be an obstacle to free, frank and open interviews. I am confident this was the case.

As far as interviews are concerned, their limitations lie in the fact that people say and do different things in different situations. Since the interview is a particular kind of situation, one cannot assume that what a person says during an interview is what a person believes or will say or do in other situations (Taylor and Bogdan, as cited in McFarlane, 2000: 68). Taylor and Bogdan say further that if researchers do not directly observe people in their everyday lives, they will be deprived of the context necessary to understand many of the perspectives in which they are interested. However, because my research interest was in the participants' perceptions I have relied on interviews alone for my data.

3.9 Conclusion

In this chapter I have discussed the interpretive approach as the research paradigm I chose for this study. I have also outlined the research method and tools for data collection and analysis employed in this work. I pointed out the setting of the research, and briefly explained the selection of the respondents. The ethical issues that I considered in carrying out the research, as well as the limitations of the methodology were highlighted.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

In section 3.5 of the previous chapter I described how the raw data from the interviews were analysed and broken down into categories, or themes. In this chapter I present the data, based on the one main theme with its sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis.

Since this is an interpretive study, thick description and narrative means will be used as a way of communicating a holistic picture of how principals perceive the effects of the Leadership Development Programme. Their voices will be heard throughout the chapter. The thick description and quotations will provide a lens through which the reader can view the informants' world.

4.2 Perceived effects of the Leadership Development Programme

My respondents indicated that their participation in the Leadership Development Programme was worthwhile, and that they have benefited tremendously from this

exercise. It has, in their view, enabled them to manage their schools differently from the way they used to before their training. The following are key themes that emerged in the data.

4.2.1 Professional growth

On the question whether the Leadership Development Programme has been able to help the principals who participated in the training to grow professionally, both Messrs Mokoto and Kongo said that their involvement in the Leadership Development Programme had enabled them to do things such as school development planning, financial management, personnel management, and the management of external relations with better understanding than they had been able to do before their training. They said they were happy because some of these skills and knowledge acquired from the training were part of their expectations at the time they joined the programme. Mr Kongo, for example, said that he expected this training "to improve my skills in the areas of budgeting, managing people and establishing sound relations with parents and communities. Today I can proudly say that these expectations have been met, fully".

The following areas of professional growth were identified by the participants.

4.2.1.1 Improved personal relationships

An area of perceived change was the improved personal relationships between principals and their staff. Mr Kongo said that the Leadership Development Programme has helped him to realise that effective education at his school depends largely on the quality of relationships between him and his staff, which itself relies "on the level of expertise which I, as principal, can employ in the development and maintenance of this basic relationship".

Mr Mokoto also said that from this programme he has learnt to get on effectively well with his staff. He said:

> I have learnt how to get on effectively well in working with my staff, and how to share with them whatever education-related information I have. I have also learnt to analyse problem situations and propose for solutions, which I always find easier to discuss with my staff and members of the school board before implementing them. For example, a change in the starting time of the school, which I used to decide single-handedly, is now discussed with my staff before a change is implemented. Their participation in matters such as this one is very important to me now.

According to him, consultation with his staff has been made possible by the sound and healthy relations that exist between him and his them in the school, which was not the case before his training.

I asked the principals how the relationships had been improved. Mr Mokoto said he has learnt that for healthy principal-teachers relationships to exist and flourish there must be "a good tone or school spirit" in the school, where the principal and the staff "feel they belong together". He said the Leadership Development Programme has helped him to discover that there are "ingredients of school spirit" that he should encourage. One of these ingredients is mutual respect. Others are shared ideals and shared activities. He said respect is one thing that cannot be demanded; it can only be earned.

> Respect grows as one person sees in another qualities he/she admires. This relationship of mutual respect is necessary between the principal and staff in a school if there is to be a good school spirit. But it can only be given to who earn it and can only thrive when I, as principal, nurture it.

Mr Kongo, too, said that healthy relationships in the school are most easily achieved and developed amongst people who hold the same "views" and have the same "ideals". Before his training he said he found it extremely difficult to "align" his staff because they "were drawn from different backgrounds". The Leadership Development Programme has enabled him to face this diversity and to encourage his staff to work together for a common goal, by mere motivation, another skill he said he acquired from the training. He said that he is the one to set the tone and standards, but "it is only when the staff voluntarily accept these standards as good that group feeling and school spirit can grow".

When these standards have developed, then any one falling short is regarded by all with disapproval, and there "is a common sense of shame when someone has brought disgrace on the good name of our school".

Lastly, Mr Kongo spoke about shared activities as another element that is important in bringing about school spirit, which, according to him, is a pre-requisite for healthy staff relationships in the school. He said at his school they have formed teacher clubs such as tea club and other informal societies through which experiences, responsibilities and successes are shared. He said:

> These are the things that encourage group feeling in our school. Even failure may prove helpful by facing the group with the common challenge and of rectifying the failure. Pride in the group thus swells and becomes a significant force towards the ultimate goals of a strong school spirit.

4.2.1.2 School development plans

According to Messrs Kongo and Mokoto the Leadership Development Programme made them realise that in order for them to be able to provide direction to their schools, to be able to establish priorities, to provide a mechanism for reviewing progress, and also to create room for and encourage the involvement of their staff in the life of their schools, they needed to have school development plans in place. Mr Mokoto said that they had "learnt that school development planning is the creation of realistic targets for the school, which, over a period of time, address the school's strengths and weaknesses and bring about improvement in the teaching of learners".

According to Mr Kongo school development plans give teachers confidence, especially in knowing that there is direction, and that "not everything has to be thought about, coped with and responded to at once". He further indicated that such plans enable teachers "to concentrate on the most important aspects of their work, which is the teaching of learners, more effectively".

When I asked how school development plans are developed and whose job it is to develop them in their schools, Mr Mokoto said that although he, as principal, has to take the lead, "I do not formulate the plan on my own, because if I do, the possibility is that the targets it contains may not be agreed upon by everyone". He therefore involves every staff member in the process of school development planning.

Mr Kongo, too, expressed a similar approach. He said that from the Leadership Development Programme he had learnt about the importance of involving other staff members in the process of planning, because the non-involvement of staff "causes upset and antagonism among the very staff for whom the planning is intended". What this implies is that the involvement of staff members in the process of school development planning ensures a sense of ownership which, in turn, encourages commitment to such plan.

I further wanted to find out how easy or difficult it had been for the principals to put into practice the skills for developing school development plans they had acquired from the Leadership Development Programme and also what the advantages were for the schools to have such plans in place.

In responding to this question Mr Mokoto said that the process of school development planning was not easy, "but once one involves other members of staff, it is only then that it becomes easier because various ideas are brought forward which, if harmonised, are then translated into plans". According to him, school development plans help to provide a direction to the school, establish priorities, enable the school to control the rate and speed of its development, and "allow for the appropriate involvement of others in the life of the school".

4.2.1.3 Parent involvement

Messrs Kongo and Mokoto said that before their training they had a tendency of sidelining and keeping parents out of the affairs of the school, because they believed that

a "professional skill such as teaching must be carried out without interruption or interference". They acknowledged that the Leadership Development Programme had changed this attitude, and today they are encouraging parents to take "a greater interest in the school and get a better understanding of what is going on in the classroom". According to them, they have thus come to realise that no satisfaction can be drawn from their pre-training past in which "children at school became culturally and intellectually divorced from their families and found on leaving school that they were misfits in their own communities".

Getting parents involved in the life of the school, had not, according to Mr Mokoto, been an easy task and he had been "faced with a difficult challenge of changing their attitudes". He said that one common attitude of parents, whether they are educated or not, is that school to them is a place for book learning.

I asked Mr Mokoto whether they, as a school, have been able to change the attitude of parents and if so, how they did that. He said they had succeeded, and "one way of getting them involved is by opening the school to them so that they could come and sit alongside their children as they learn, or use the facilities of the school for literacy classes or recreation".

Mr Kongo said that another way of doing so is to invite the parents into the classroom "as teacher aides so as to utilise the skills and energy of those who have the greatest vested interest in the learners".

A third way of getting parents involved in the life of the school which both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto are making use of at their schools is to urge parents to visit their schools and to talk to teachers about their children. According to them this method "ensures that the parents get an accurate idea of how their children are getting on, which helps the teachers to clear up with the parents any misunderstandings there might be".

Mr Kongo has established in his school a parent-teacher association, a platform through which "parents are invited and encouraged to support the school in practical ways such as fund raising for teaching equipment or do some improvements to school facilities". This, according to him, requires of him and his staff to open the school doors for the parents, inviting them to share in the life of their school and "discover how best they can help with their children's education".

What I learnt from Mr Kongo is that in his school, the Malope Junior Secondary School, there is a formalised home-school partnership contract, signed by Mr Kongo himself and the parent of each child at this school. According to him, in the contract "the school agrees to such obligations as to promote the best possible learning atmosphere for everyone, to record attendance and inform parents of any irregularities, and to invite parents to discuss matters of mutual concern".

The parents, on the other hand, agree to a similar range of obligations, and pledge to keep their children's attendance regular and punctual, to support the code of conduct of the school, and "to keep in contact with the school regarding the children's progress".

When asked about other benefits for the school, apart from a formalised home-school partnership contract, which are a direct result of parent/community involvement in the life of the school, Mr Mokoto said that his school had benefited tremendously from this involvement. He said:

> To help us in keeping away the animals from our school premises, our parent community collected some funds that enabled us to put up a school fence. Now we can always lock the entrance gate everyday after school. Secondly, as you can see, there are three blocks of three classrooms each at this school, the staff room and an office for the principal. Only one three-classrooms block was a provision from the Ministry of Education. The rest are an initiative by the school and its parent communities.

According to him, this provision by the parent community has helped to address shortage of classroom space at his school.

Mr Mokoto, too, acknowledged that his school has also benefited from the parent involvement. He said:

> We used to experience classroom accommodation shortages for the learners before, and have always looked up to the government to provide us with classrooms. After my training, however, and the formation of a partnership with the parents, we managed to raise funds that enabled us to construct at least six classrooms, a staff room and a library.

Just like Babangutu Primary School, today the Malope Junior Secondary School is also able to provide sufficient classroom space to its learners.

4.2.1.4 Personnel management

According to my respondents one of the most important aspects they learnt from the Leadership Development Programme was personnel management. Under this module, Mr Kongo said that he had come to understand that "the most important task of a school principal is to manage human resources available at the school".

In response to the question as to what it was they were trained in in this module and to what degree this had expanded their skills and knowledge in managing human resources at their respective schools, Mr Mokoto said that during their training they were introduced to the following units: staff selection, staff development, staff motivation, staff appraisal, staff supervision and discipline, keeping staff records, managing meetings and managing conflicts.

- **Staff selection**

Mr Kongo acknowledged that the Leadership Development programme has completely changed his old practice of not considering applicants on merit and of ignoring applications from those unknown to him when selecting teachers. He said that the "tendency was to consider and recommend for appointment candidates from our own

communities, irrespective of their professional and academic suitability for the position". According to him what mattered then was the provision of employment to those closest to them.

The training programme has changed this philosophy, and, according to Mr Kongo, today "the School Board and I are ensuring that the right person with the most appropriate skills is appointed". He added, however, that while they, in all cases, try to appoint someone with the appropriate skills, "sometimes we think it is more important to have a committed teacher in the classroom rather than leaving the post unfilled simply because no-one with exactly the right combination of skills can be found".

When I asked him to explain to me what it is that they do differently to have vacancies filled at their school, Mr Kongo said that a vacancy on the school establishment offers them an opportunity for a reassessment of needs. He said "in some cases it will be desirable to find someone who can offer the same combination of skills as the person who has left the staff, but on many occasions it may be better to rationalise or to introduce new skills". To give an example he said:

> Mathematics may have been fragmented among several members of staff because it was a subject in which no-one was really qualified and which no-one really wanted to teach. Irrespective of what subjects were taught by the teacher who left the school, this may be an opportunity for us to secure the services of a mathematics specialist.

He said in assessing needs, he always consulted with the rest of the school management, with the School Board, and where possible, with other members of staff, to ensure that there is democratic participation of all involved in the school.

Mr Kongo continued explaining that after the assessment of needs the next step is the advertisement of the position. What he learnt from the Leadership Development Programme, he said, was that, no matter whose responsibility it is to place the

advertisement, "care should be taken that the information submitted is clear, correct, and complete, and that it is submitted as early as possible".

In response to a question concerning how he would handle a situation where a staff member gave a very short notice period, Mr Kongo explained that it was true that some types of appointment can be vacated on a twenty-four-hours' notice. In other cases a month's notice is required. However, he explained that:

> A month does not normally allow sufficient time for advertising and filling of the vacancy. I have therefore developed an atmosphere among my staff which encourages them to give notice of their intention to leave as early a date as possible, so that the post can be filled with minimum disruption to the activities of the school.

When applications have been received, candidates are selected and short-listed, before they are interviewed. During selection Mr Kongo said that they study the documents carefully to determine "whether the applicants meet the advertised requirements, their previous employment record, and the care which the applicant has taken in filling out the application form".

After interviews, appointments are then finalised. Mr Kongo emphasised that throughout the process of selecting staff, members of the School Board are always involved and no decision for appointment is made "until they are absolutely certain that they have made the right choice for the position".

- **Staff development**

My respondents said that from the Leadership Development Programme they learnt that the concept of staff development recognises that all people can and may improve their capabilities and become more efficient at what they do, provided they are afforded an opportunity to do so. Mr Mokoto said that sometimes individuals need "another trusted person to help them identify those areas in which they need to better their performance". He was positive, though, that what he had learned is that once the areas have been

identified, "there are various ways in which we can get others to assist us in the process of self-development".

I asked Mr Mokoto to tell me whether it had been possible to apply this concept of staff development in his school, and if yes, whose responsibility it was to initiate such training. He said staff development was taking place at his school, and that responsibility for initiating training is shared by those in need of training, the school management and sometimes the regional office personnel. He said:

> Teachers who are in need of development are actually the ones in the best position to initiate training. They are likely to have a fairly strong awareness of their own training needs. My experience is that if they wait for others to organise training for them, they may find that their training needs are not satisfied at all.

Personally, Mr Mokoto has an interest in arranging training for his teachers. He said that as "chief administrator of the school" he has a responsibility for ensuring that education takes place efficiently. If, in his view, education is not taking place in an efficient manner, probably because teachers are incompetent or lack confidence, "I initiate in-service training for them".

I asked them how training needs are identified. Mr Mokoto said that the teachers themselves know in what areas they are in need of training. However, as a principal he and his school management know in what areas of classroom management the teachers are falling short. But, according to him, this is not enough. He said:

> This intuitive knowledge is not sufficient for the development of a fully adequate training programme. Detailed questionnaires completed by teachers normally point more clearly to the areas in which training is needed. Since this approach is too scientific and consumes quite a lot of time, in our school we usually resort to a brainstorming approach, through which a great deal has always been achieved, depending on the openness and honesty of the teachers.

Mr Mokoto went on to explain that in the brainstorming process one staff member is chosen to write up on a flipchart all the ideas suggested by the other members of staff.

Teachers call out the problems they experience, each of which is written down without discussion or comment. He said:

> When no one has any more suggestions, members of staff start discussing problems briefly and group together those that are related. Only after this do we have detailed discussion of each of the problems and the sort of training needed that is likely to overcome it. During this discussion there is no particular reference to the teacher who first identified the problem. It is discussed in general terms, but obliquely as it is experienced at our school.

What happens after the training needs have been identified? Mr Mokoto explained that before looking for outside assistance, they make use of the skills they have available at their school to train others. He said:

> We make use of our more experienced teachers on the staff to help those who are less experienced, and also those with higher qualifications to help those whose training has been less thorough. Even two teachers experiencing similar problems do, by discussing their problem with each other, work out a solution.

He indicated that once everything possible has been done to use the skills available within the school, "it may be necessary to look for an outside assistance, either from our neighbouring schools, or from the regional office".

According to Mr Mokoto there are a number of ways in which they conduct training for their staff. Depending on the type of problem which is being addressed, some styles may be more appropriate than others. He said that he has "learnt how important it is to provide variety, and not to make use of the same format every time, and also to adapt each of the styles used to the local conditions and the problem being addressed".

According to him, they try different training formats at their school, some of which are the following.

* A teacher sits in on the lesson of a competent teacher, observes what takes place, "and discusses, afterwards, what has been observed".

* A teacher plans a lesson, discusses it with a more experienced teacher, makes adjustments to the lesson plan in the light of the discussion, "and then have the experienced teacher attend the lesson presentation".

* Two or three teachers of the same subject do their lesson planning together, "exchanging ideas and discussing difficulties as they go along".

* A workshop session is held, during which one or more experienced teachers demonstrate particular teaching techniques. "The less experienced teachers try these out over the following two weeks and then at a further workshop their successes and difficulties are discussed".

* A workshop can also be arranged at which teachers set tests or examination questions, and then work out the answers to one's questions. In this way, Mr Mokoto said, "weaknesses in the wording of the questions or in the allocation of marks will come to light, and get addressed".

* Sometimes workshops are arranged for practical subjects during which the "less confident teachers do their practical work under the supervision of more skilled teachers".

As far as management and disciplinary problems are concerned, Mr Mokoto said that the staff meet for a brainstorming session, during which time problem areas are identified.

> Thereafter, the meeting breaks up into smaller groups, each group working on possible solutions to one of the problems. After a set time the groups all come together again. At this stage the possible solutions are discussed and decisions are taken on action by all members of the group, or one or more members of the group are asked to read an article or a section of a training manual, and lead a training session based on what they have read.

- **Staff motivation**

Mr Kongo said that what he has learnt from the Leadership Development Programme is that "the key to effective school management is the ability to get results from other people, through other people and in conjunction with other people". He said that he was able to achieve this condition in his school by helping his staff experience job satisfaction.

> This is known as intrinsic motivation which comes from within, and not extrinsic motivation which is too often based on fear. Results will then be the best that teachers can produce and are always trying their best to be in line with the overall goals and ethos of the school.

In answer to the question as to how he achieved this condition, Mr Kongo said that there are four principles of staff motivation that he learnt from the Leadership Development Programme and that he applies these in his school. These are participation, communication, recognition and delegated authority. He said that it has become customary for him to involve his staff in decision-making and in matters which affect them directly, something he only came to know and practise after his training. He said:

> The more they are involved, the more they develop a sense of ownership in decisions and are prompted to help in achieving the objectives. Involving staff in decision-making does not alter the fact that I remain accountable for taking the final decisions and for their results.

With regard to communication, Mr Kongo learnt that if staff members are informed about the objectives and the results achieved, they are inclined to co-operate more and feel that they are part of the group. He said that:

> The opposite is also true: if staff do not know what they are supposed to be achieving, they are likely to show little interest and have little motivation. I do not only inform my staff about results, but also about changes and progress that have been made.

On the aspect of staff recognition Mr Kongo indicated that the Leadership Development Programme has taught him that if staff members receive the necessary recognition for work well done, they will be inclined to work harder. "It is really working in my school. I give recognition to my teachers as persons and not just as human resources, and the co-operation I get from them is very good".

He further explained that the Leadership Development Programme has also taught him that as a principal of a school, to be able to motivate his staff he should be prepared to delegate authority to capable people on his staff thereby employing what he called a "participatory management style". He said that:

> In this way a person's post is enhanced, and this serves as a means of personnel development. Delegated authority also means that more people are allowed to make decisions themselves in connection with their work, within the set guidelines.

In support of what Mr Kongo said, Mr Mokoto added that he, too, has learnt that "as a principal I should not only have some knowledge of my staff, but should also bear in mind all the different factors which can enhance or weaken motivation".

When asked what these factors are he said they are "personal needs of human beings, factors inherent in the work situation, management methods and the social system as reflected in the community".

I asked Mr Mokoto to elaborate on what he had just said, and how he applied these in his own school situation. He said that what he has learnt is that the needs of every person should be taken into account, such as the need for recognition, the need to achieve, the need to be a valued person in the community, the need for self-respect and for friendship.

> For example, a teacher who occupies a post temporarily has a need for work security. At our school I try to help enrol such teachers in the available in-service training programmes and encourage them to do their best once they get in. Knowing that once enrolled, their jobs are secured until they have completed their courses before they are eventually appointed permanently. This gives them some

> hope to get on with their work, and in many cases these are my utmost motivated staff members. Their commitment to work is immeasurable.

He further explained that merit awards and internal promotions are some of the aspects that he uses at his school to recognize teachers' achievement.

> I have learnt that the non-recognition of achievement has a demotivating effect on teachers and can lead to high staff turnover. Secondly, I have also learnt that a sense of responsibility should be cultivated as well as pride in the quality of work done. This is what I am trying out at my school, and it appears to be working, judging from how enthusiastic my teachers are.

As far as the work situation is concerned Mr Mokoto said that what they have learnt from the Leadership Development Programme is that factors related to work itself may also affect levels of motivation, for instance the type of work, the opportunities and challenges of the work and the opportunities for creativity and renewal.

> Monotony and routine can sometimes be demotivating. While there is little that I can do about my staff's academic responsibilities, on the non-academic side I try to rotate some routine activities so that boring chores do not always have to be done by the same person. I think my staff appreciate this arrangement.

The other thing Mr Kongo acknowledged to have learnt from the Leadership Development Programme is that the quality of management affects staff behaviour, attitudes and effort.

> I have learnt that communication is of great importance. Teachers like to know and should know what is expected of them and how their tasks form part of a total plan. This should be coupled with competent and just leadership which sets out acceptable tasks together with clear guidelines.

In addition, Mr Kongo said that his teachers are motivated to work harder by "merely knowing that I value their efforts".

With regard to community factors Mr Kongo said that what he has learnt is that if the community's values differ from those of the teacher, they will undoubtedly have a demotivating effect on him/her. Secondly, he has also learnt that the personal lives of teachers, such as their relationships with their families, will also influence their behaviour. "As a principal I have little control over such motivating factors, but have also learnt that I cannot just ignore them, but have to deal with the situation should it have a negative effect on a teacher's school work". He further explained that after his training he now has taken it upon himself that:

> ... as a recognized leader of the community, I have the responsibility for helping my staff members get satisfaction from their profession and move towards the fulfilment of their needs and objectives. I have learnt that it is through improving levels of motivation that these needs and objectives can be met.

- **Staff appraisal**

Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto acknowledged to have learnt from the Leadership Development Programme what staff appraisal is and the reasons why it should be done as part of personnel management.

According to Mr Kongo, what he learnt is that staff appraisal should be directed towards helping a teacher to become as effective as possible in the teaching/learning process, and also towards meeting a teacher's needs for professional development. He said they have been taught not to "view appraisal as a mechanism for fault-finding and criticising, but as a means of building the teacher's positive self-image and motivation to be as good a teacher as possible". He said that, according to their training, staff appraisals should be used to recognise the achievements of teachers and help them to "identify ways of improving their skills and performance". Secondly, they should help teachers and their school management to "determine whether a change of duties would help teachers' professional development and improve their career prospects". They should help in identifying teachers' potential for career development, with the aim of helping them, where possible, through appropriate in-service training, and also to help "teachers having

difficulties with their performance, through appropriate guidance, counselling and training".

Mr Mokoto, too, indicated that from what he understood under this particular concept is that teachers, too, need to participate in their own development, becoming able to analyse and reflect on their own competencies. From this, he said that "teachers are likely to become independent thinkers and doers". He said that for the majority of teachers, "this requires a change of attitude, and this can only come from a willingness to review continually what takes place in the classroom and the school, and the effects particular actions have on others".

Asked whether staff appraisal is working well in their school, both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto responded in the negative. The reason that they do not apply the system in the schools is simply because "in Namibia the system seems to have been permanently suspended for teachers. It is really a pity that the reintroduction of the performance appraisal system has been delayed for some time now". However, they are quite hopeful that one day the Ministry of Education in Namibia will reintroduce the system. "It is important that it does".

- **Staff supervision and discipline**

My respondents have learnt that, as school principals, they are the persons responsible for the efficient management of their respective schools. They are both the administrative leaders and educational leaders, and that they are there to ensure that successful teaching and learning are taking place for all the learners in the school. Mr Mokoto said that because he cannot teach all the learners himself, nor can he carry out all the educational or administrative tasks single-handedly, he must delegate some of his tasks to teaching and non-teaching personnel, depending on the nature of the task. He said:

> However, the responsibility for everything which takes place in the school remains with me as a principal, and I need to ensure that delegated tasks are

> actually carried out on time, and in a proper manner. Therefore, I need to supervise, to oversee the work of others in the school.

How does he do supervision if he, too, has his own classes to teach and an office to run?

In answering this question Mr Mokoto said that through meeting with his senior management members, individually or in a group, "I usually get feedback on the administrative functioning of the school, including curriculum implementation". According to him, he ensures that he remains active in the school, and by visiting classes, talking to teachers, learners and parents, "I keep myself informed about the school community, its people and events. At the same time, I am setting a good example to others of self-discipline".

What is it that he looks at when visiting classes? How is this activity helpful to himself and his teachers?

On this question Mr Mokoto said that during class visits he observes such indicators of learning as conduct of teachers and learners towards each other, "whether there is a quiet working atmosphere in the classroom and whether there appears to be a positive attitude of discipline from within". This activity, according to him, does also afford him an opportunity to support weak teachers who find difficulties with discipline or in lesson preparation. "In so doing, I do not help to establish a sense of professional purpose, but actually prevent potential misconduct by teachers and learners" He added, however, that stronger action is usually taken where teachers do not respond to his leadership or fail in their duties.

What disciplinary procedures does he employ in his school?

Mr Mokoto indicated that, although there are laid-down disciplinary procedures for public servants, they have formulated their own which are agreed upon by all members of staff. "Although unique for our school, they are within the framework of the Public Service Act of Namibia".

He said that often a disciplinary problem takes time to become apparent, "but once it does, and depending on its gravity, the first step is to give a verbal reprimand, pleasantly but firmly". He said this is stated within the context of the teacher's professional responsibility, "and it is given in the privacy of my office". In cases where the reprimand did not result in improvement, as a second step, a written warning is issued, "of which a copy is kept in the file of the staff member concerned". If there is still no attempt to improve, "the third stage of a disciplinary procedure is to report the case to the School Board who may decide to refer the matter to the regional office, after which a disciplinary hearing may be constituted for the staff member".

Lastly, Mr Mokoto said that at times he encounters some serious cases of misconduct that need immediate reporting to the circuit inspector and the regional office. An example of such is of a teacher who engages in a sexual relationship with a schoolgirl.

> Our School Board is very strong against this conduct, because we feel that such teacher has abused his position of trust and is therefore unfit to be in charge of learners. Even if the relationship has not resulted in the girl becoming pregnant, but we have strong evidence of the teacher's misconduct, we usually recommend for his immediate suspension or transfer to another duty-station.

- **Managing meetings**

Before their training, both Messrs Mokoto and Kongo acknowledged to me that they hated holding staff meetings because, according to Mr Kongo, staff meetings had been "platforms for accusations and counter-accusations and finger pointing, taking up much of our time, and achieving very little, sometimes nothing at all". Mr Mokoto acknowledged that the Leadership Development Programme had changed his attitude towards meeting and made him realize that "meetings are an essential practical aspect of running a school", and that the success of every meeting depends largely on the co-operation and support the chairperson receives from the participants. He said that the chairperson "should thus be fully aware of people's attitudes to meetings".

Mr Kongo also acknowledged that this unit had introduced to him a number of problems and benefits associated with meetings. As a school principal he says he spends "a considerable amount of time attending or managing meetings", and the Leadership Development programme has taught him how important it is for him to use his time efficiently and effectively during such meetings. He said:

> Today I can confidently say that we are running successful meetings at our school, and use them as a management tool for planning activities, informing staff members of activities, motivating a team spirit, co-ordinating activities, solving problems and building cohesion in the staff room.

Asked what it is that they do differently from what they used to do before his training that has contributed to the successfulness of their meetings, Mr Kongo said "we have developed some ground rules which are really helping us to get more out of meetings, in less time, and often, with less stress". He said that he does not need to be the chairperson every time they hold a staff or management meeting, and the ground rules help anyone chairing the meeting to have it going, and eventually being successful. Due to time constraints, it has not been possible for me to attend any of their meetings to observe the proceedings.

When I asked him to elaborate on these ground rules he said that one of them is for the meeting to stay focused. He said that meetings sometimes fail because they go off target, or grind down over a single point for too long. At their school, they ensure that "there is always an agenda for the meeting with an approximate discussion times. This helps to keep everyone focused".

Another ground rule Mr Kongo mentioned is of getting ideas flowing. He said that he and the other members of the management team ignore their status during the meetings, so that all of them are on equal footing. He said "pulling rank during the meeting, or seeking revenge for criticism afterwards is sure to stop other people from contributing". According to him, his leadership function during meetings is to encourage people to

express and discuss ideas freely, and when "some staff members do not contribute, I ask them for their opinions. They then start talking".

Mr Mokoto on the other hand said that another way of holding successful meetings is to always expect some conflict during meetings. He said that he had learnt that not all conflict is bad.

> Some conflicts are good, if arguments don't get personal and people are not driven into 'this is my position' stance. Personal criticism may reflect tensions over another problem, and too little criticism may reflect fear or a sense that nothing real will come from the meeting. I therefore encourage a higher level of open criticism, aimed at ideas, and not at people. I think this is really working well in our school.

Mr Mokoto has also, according to him, cultivated a culture of spreading the power around. He said that he has learnt, and this is what he now practises at his school, that if success depends on the cooperation of other people at the meeting, "it is often best to let them decide, as a group, what ideas they will use. He said that he has noticed that if people are given a hand in deciding policies or procedures, "they have more of a stake in seeing them work".

> Involving staff members in decision-making during meetings helps to lower their anxiety and absenteeism, and raises the quality of their work. But the involvement must be real, because unless the people can help to define the problem and potential solutions, and choose which path of action to take, they may end up distrusting me as a principal for creating such a situation.

Mr Kongo further explained that they have also created a process of following through, implying that they do always have someone writing up action steps during each meeting. He said:

> Action steps include a summary of what was decided on each item, what each person has agreed to do, specific deadlines, and the time and purpose of the next meeting. At the next meeting, our first order of business is always the status of the action steps of the previous meeting.

He said this helps to "clarify the outcomes of the meetings and makes action more likely".

- **Managing conflict**

The two principals I interviewed learned from the Leadership Development Programme that conflict does not only have a negative connotation, but that "it can also be used constructively in favour of the achievement of the objectives of the school", said Mr Mokoto. He further explained that the training programme has helped him understand that conflict represents energy, and when managed and channelled correctly, "it can serve as a driving force to increase productivity and render the necessary change".

In response to the question about as to what is it, in the experience of the principals, that is usually the source of conflict, and how they handle or manage such conflict when it has arisen, Mr Kongo said that in his school conflict is usually between different departments on the use of limited resources, "for example over the use of the only available overhead-projector in the school". According to him, other areas in which conflict does occur are those of "clashing of interests, cultures and sometimes politics".

Mr Kongo, however, said that he does not try to suppress conflict, "but to manage it effectively so that its constructive nature can be increased to the benefit of the school".

How does he do that? In answering this question Mr Kongo said that he appeals to his staff for a common objective. He said:

> I usually appeal to my staff members who may for example have diverse political points of view and cultures, to work towards a common objective such as the achievement of the goals of the school. Such appeals have been quite helpful so far in the sense that they promote interaction between conflicting members, and that the interdependence of individuals who are in conflict with each other is emphasised, which brings them closer to conciliation.

Mr Mokoto, on the other hand, said that conflict in his school used to stem from a situation where his different departments used to function in isolation from each other, "when the flow of information was somewhat inadequate and without proper coordination". He said that after his training he developed two techniques to overcome this problem. He said that he established "groupings" and "contact points" in his school.

In his explanation of groupings Mr Mokoto said that the departments have been "redesigned so that points of coordination are reduced". He said that through this re-arrangement "every department is now allowed independent access to resources".

As far as the "contact points" are concerned, Mokoto said that his heads of department have been given the responsibility for promoting the flow of information and effective communication between the departments. He believed that "if knowledge on the other departments' work and work methods is obtained and made known to others, conflict tends to decrease".

He concluded by saying that every school has an inherent potential for conflict, and it is the task of the principal "to familiarise himself/herself with the sources and consequences of and solutions to conflict as a management skill".

4.2.1.5 Timetabling

The other benefit that principals feel they have derived from the Leadership Development Programme is skill in timetabling. Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto said that before their training they used to experience difficulties in drawing up the school timetable. Mr Mokoto said:

> This was something that we did not learn to do during our teacher training, and when I became a school principal, nobody had ever introduced me to the intricacies involved in timetabling either. And the unfortunate part had been that nobody among my staff has been able to give me assistance in this regard as they, too, have been in the same category as myself before my training.

According to Mr Kongo, the Leadership Development Programme was an eye-opener for him. He came to realise that a well-planned timetable can enable the school to implement the curriculum effectively, and "provided there is no unforeseen disruption of the planned activities, all learning and teaching should proceed in a smooth and orderly manner".

Asked what it is that he now does differently from what he used to do, Mr Kongo said that before his training he used to draw up a timetable daily, or make use of the same timetable "in terms of period sequence throughout the week". According to him, this bored both teachers and learners, as it did not offer any variety or change. Secondly, he never used to consult anybody when drawing up the timetable, as he thought that consulting teachers would only "complicate matters".

Today, however, Mr Kongo said that with the skill and guidelines that he learned from the training programme, he now prepares his timetable well in advance of the start of the term. He said that he has even been able to involve others in the process of timetabling, "because I realised that when I, for one or other reason, will not be at the school, I can always delegate the responsibility for timetabling to my colleagues, and ensure that the school is moving, even in my absence".

Mr Mokoto, too, said that his timetable for a given academic year is prepared well in advance. He said, "shortcomings of the current academic year's timetable are determined during the last school term, in preparation for the following year". This he does by consulting his subject heads and by finding out which teachers will still be at his school the following academic year. As far as subject choices are concerned, Mr Mokoto said that he had also learnt to find out in advance which subjects/grades every teacher would like to teach, "taking into account their qualifications, abilities and major subjects, something that I used not to consider before I underwent this training".

With regard to the actual process of a timetable, both Mr Kongo and Mokoto agree on certain procedures. The first draft is provisional. Before they decide on its final form,

they usually consult their staff, either individually or at a staff meeting. "Following our discussions, I can make any necessary modifications and then compile the final form", said Mr Kongo. According to them, the other thing that they do differently today is to ensure that lessons are of correct duration in accordance with the specifications provided by the Ministry of Education. Mr Mokoto said that he tries to produce what he called "a well-balanced timetable". He said:

> When timetabling I ensure that all learners benefit from the teaching of the available teachers for certain grades, and place those subjects which need special times, for example physical education, before break. I do also ensure that teachers who teach more than one subject get a fair distribution, in order to prevent a monotonous pattern.

4.2.1.7 Financial management

The last aspect that principals said they were introduced to during their training was of financial management.

Schools in Namibia do not get any funds from the Government, they only receive supplies in the form of materials and equipment. Hence, when one speaks of finances in schools, one refers to money that is collected by schools themselves in one way or another, to enable them to take care of extra academic and social needs in the schools and to supplement what the Government provides. These amounts are called "school development" funds.

The principals whom I interviewed said that they were introduced to two aspects of financial management in the Programme: sources of school development funds and how to account for such funds.

Asked whether the training programme introduced them to something new, something that they did not know before they received training, Mr Mokoto said that before his training he was only aware of one source of school development funds - the contribution by parents. But after his training he said that he now realises that "sources of school

development funds cannot be limited to parent contributions only. There are other sources that can be explored".

What are examples of these other sources?

On this question Mr Mokoto said:

> At our school for example, we are making use of opportunities such as fund raising. We generate funds through activities such as sponsored walks, competitions, festivals, dancing and bazaars. These are the avenues that we did not know of before, or simply ignored, because we had been under false impression that our communities would not be interested in supporting our school through such activities. I now realise how wrong we had been.

Apart from fund raising activities, Mr Kongo said that they also rely on stakeholders' contributions for their income. He said:

> We have learnt from the Leadership Development Programme that it is not illegal to solicit funds from any organization for the school, as long as such request carries the approval of the School Board, and the consent of the circuit inspector.

According to him, today his school is getting some funds from business organisations, private individuals who are not necessarily parents, well wishers, non-governmental organisations, development agencies and charitable organisations. He said that as long as "a well motivated letter is written, indicating the reasons why funds are needed by the school, it is amazing to see how helpful these bodies are, and they really come forward with contributions".

Concerning the accounting of the school development fund, Mr Mokoto said that they were made aware of the fact that "once school development funds have been collected and become part of the school budget, it is important that a proper accounting system is effectively implemented".

In answer to the question of what system he has in place to ensure effective accounting for the collected funds, Mr Mokoto said that before his training he used to run the school development fund single-handedly, but today he has established a school financial

committee mandated to oversee the school fund. He said that in consultation with the School Board members, he has established principles that need to be observed in handling school development funds. According to him, any money received by the school should be acknowledged by issuing a receipt. In addition, an internal audit system is in place at the school. He said, "This is one way of providing the school management with objective assessment of whether systems of control are working properly". He also said that for every purchase made, the school gets a receipt which is filed chronologically. He said it is important "especially when we have to reconcile our income with our expenditures, because when we present our books to the parents, they usually want to see all proof of transactions entered into by the school".

Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto said that during their training it had become clear that "the ultimate accountability for effective management of school finances lies with them as principals of schools".

4.2.1.7 English language proficiency

On the question whether the respondents could describe any personal changes that have become evident in the principals who participated in the Leadership Development Programme, Mr Mokoto, the principal of the Molope Junior Secondary School, said that the Leadership Development Programme has been quite useful to him in various ways. He said:

> Previously, because of my poor background knowledge in the English language, I used to be ashamed of speaking the official language in public. Even when I had to make announcements at school, I usually did so in the vernacular, which is Oshindonga. But after the training I became so confident of myself and did not really care about the mistakes I make while speaking the official language. I realised that this was the only way I could learn the language – by speaking it.

Was improvement in the English language proficiency a requirement by the programme, or one of its intended outcomes? On this question Mr Mokoto said:

> No, it was not. But having known my limitations in the language, and having known that the training would be conducted in English, I was fully determined to

> make use of the opportunity to practise the language. The group work had helped much in giving the opportunity that I aspired for.

On the question as to what else in the Leadership Development Programme they thought has contributed to their sense of self-confidence, they said that the training was based on issues of practice, which helped to broaden their exposure to practice-oriented activities. According to Mr Kongo the programme was "based on the reality of our workplace and the day-to-day practice. We were introduced to new skills on how to manage matters in the schools, for example, skills in problem solving through proper analysis".

4.3 Reflections on the Programme's Process and Content

I asked the two principals to tell me how they had experienced the training programme process; to what extent they were involved in the solution of problems at their respective schools and to what degree they thought the Programme was related to their needs.

Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto said that they found the training Programme process to be stimulating and inspiring in the sense that they were not mere listeners only, but that they were "taken as partners in the process of training. We were not only trainees, but participants in the programme".

What does this mean? Mr Mokoto explained that the training Programme was comprised of three sessions or stages, of which two were contact sessions and the third a school visit by the Programme facilitators, in which the participants were required to work, practically changing the "face" of their schools. He said:

> The first session involved a theoretical aspect of the training. Although the programme already had a set of basic topics in which we were to receive training, this session was also used for a kind of brainstorming to find out from us what it was that we already knew, what it was that we needed training in, and what our expectations of the programme were. This session afforded us the opportunity to share our experiences and successes, hurts and failures. It also helped to reshape and re-inform the content of the training programme, as our facilitators indicated that the programme content was very much flexible.

Apart from what Mr Mokoto said, Mr Kongo said the first session also served as a platform for bringing together theory and practice. He said, "While we shared the reality and experiences from our schools, the training programme facilitators shared with us the insights from theories and literature on school management".

According to them, it was towards the end of this session, which lasted for two weeks, that they were asked to formulate projects related to problem solving with the ultimate aim of changing and improving their respective schools. Mr Mokoto said:

> We were expected to come up with at least two project proposals, depending on the uniqueness of our school situations, that we had to carry out in order to bring about change, and improve our schools. Projects could either be of a short- or long-term nature. There was some flexibility in the sense that we could change or modify the projects after we had discussed them with our respective members of staff, and other stakeholders where necessary.

The second session which, according to Messrs Kongo and Mokoto, was held four months later, served as feedback on the finalisation, and possibly implementation, of the projects by the principals, staff and communities. Mr Mokoto said:

> During the second session, while we still received some theoretical training in some aspects of management, emphasis had been on sharing of information among ourselves regarding the practical issues, the successes and difficulties we had, not only in coming up with viable projects and implementing them, but also in convincing our staff and other stakeholders in participating in the process of school change and development. In fact, we spoke beyond theory during the second session.

Mr Kongo said that, for him, the second session was the most important session

> ... because we could learn from one another on how to succeed in certain matters. Despite the uniqueness of our school situations, it was so interesting to learn that in many cases there were similar strategies and mechanisms that could be applied and work successfully in two or more different schools. This has been very much helpful.

According to Mr Mokoto, the third session involved visits to the individual schools by the programme facilitators. He said:

> During this session, the facilitators did not become involved in the project implementation process, other than being what they were: facilitators, soundboards, observers and recorders. They acted as facilitators, giving direction and receiving feedback about our experiences in the schools. I think the feedback assisted them, too, in informing the content of the training programme.

When asked to give me their final comments on the training programme, Mr Mokoto said that all along he had known what his job description as a principal entailed, but the problem had been the lack of know-how. He said:

> I had known that as a principal I am to ensure that there is, for example, a school development plan at the school, but the problem had always been how to do it, whom to involve and so on. This training has helped me in acquiring a variety of management skills that I am able to utilise in the management of my school today.

Mr Kongo, too, echoed the same sentiment. He said lack of the know-how to manage staff and other aspects of school management had been a problem for him. He said:

> One of my expectations at the time I joined the Leadership Development Programme was to acquire some skills in the areas of effective personnel management and building and solidifying sound relations with the parent communities. I always had a feeling that good relations with the parent communities could benefit the school in many ways, but I did not know how to go about establishing them then. Today I can proudly say that this expectation has been met, and as I said earlier in the discussion, our school is reaping the benefits of the sound relations with the parent communities.

4.4 Conclusion

These findings are from the data collected from two different school principals. The problem with presenting the data in this integrated way, in place of two separate cases, is that it could be seen to do an injustice to either one, since what they have in common appears to take precedence over how they differ. That may give an impression that they are identical, which is not the case. In my presentation I have tried to keep a balance of quotations from each respondent, depending on the volume and richness of each respondent's answers.

Notwithstanding how interesting the data are, they do not speak for themselves. The messages and meanings remain hidden and need careful teasing out. In the next chapter I am going to discuss the findings and try to understand and give meaning to the effects of the Leadership Development Programme as perceived by the school principals.

With regard to the extent to which these changes have been sustained and even expanded upon, I refer the reader to the summary in section 5.4 of this study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In chapter three I explained that this research is qualitative in nature and that by adopting this approach, the researcher is both the collector and interpreter of the data. To render a higher level of validity to the research, in the previous chapter I tried to bracket myself as much as possible to enable the interviewees' perceptions and interpretations of the effects of the Leadership Development Programme to come forward.

The discussion of the data in this chapter leaves me with the same problem of keeping my personal opinions and perceptions at bay. However, I feel that the only way to judge my interpretation of the data is for the reader to first read the previous chapter before reading this one.

This study investigates the perceived effects of the Leadership Development Programme for principals in the Ondangwa East Educational Region. When discussing the data I shall in some cases first refer to typical practice in Namibian schools (which might not necessarily be reflected in the data) and then discuss what the principals who have been trained under the Leadership Development Programme do differently.

From the data presented in the previous chapter it is evident that, in the principals' view, the Leadership Development Programme has helped them to grow both personally and professionally. I discuss the themes and their sub-themes in a similar sequence to that in the previous chapter, but under two broad headings – perceived outcomes of the Programme and the process adopted by the Programme.

5.2 Perceived outcomes of the Programme

5.2.1 Human relationships

A school is a community of living, active people who need to be held together as an efficient, happy unit. A good principal should therefore possess high qualities of leadership, which usually come with knowledge and experience and an understanding of people and human relationships (Everard and Morris, 1996).

Sound and functional human relationships can exist in a school if there is a corporate spirit among its members, where the principal, staff and learners feel they are a team, and there is a sense of togetherness. Mr Mokoto referred to this as "a good tone or school spirit" in the school, where the principal and staff "feel they belong together".

Such relationships are not easily built up but, once established, have great staying power. The principal should therefore take the initiative for, although he/she cannot produce it or compel it, there are certain things he/she can do to prepare an environment in which

sound human relations will flourish. Mr Mokoto referred to these things as "ingredients of school spirit", and mentioned mutual respect as being one of such "ingredients" that should be encouraged in the preparation for an environment for sound human relationships in the school.

The second "ingredient" for sound relationships is the shared ideals. Group feeling is most easily developed amongst people who hold the same views and have the same ideals. This is difficult in a school which draws its staff and learners from different backgrounds, but can be encouraged by a principal who wants it.

In all societies there is an accepted code of behaviour which is the basis of orderly relations among people. But it is not the law that makes the majority of people abide by the code. It is the inner acceptance of these standards as right and good. Similarly, in a school, the rules and accepted standards of behaviour can be enforced by the threat of punishment, just as law is enforced by courts. But, as Mr Kongo observed, "... it is only when the staff voluntarily accept these standards as good that group feeling and school spirit can grow".

The acknowledgement by Mr Kongo that he has, after his training, been able to set the standards in his school and influence his staff to have a high regard for moral virtue, beauty, goodness and hard work, can be interpreted to mean that the Leadership Development Programme had turned him into a transformational leader with high levels of referent power (Burns 1978). To be able to influence others, a principal needs to have high levels of self-confidence and a strong conviction of the moral righteousness of his/her beliefs, or at least the ability to convince his/her staff that he/she possesses such confidence and conviction, and communicates a vision or high level goal that captures the commitment and energy of his/her staff. In this vein, Shakeshaft (as cited in McFarlane (2000: 89), says training programmes should aim to develop in the participants "the ability to dream and to take risks in the sense of moving education institutions toward an imagined ideal".

The third "ingredient" is the shared activities, where the principal breaks down the barriers that separate groups so that there are occasions when the school is like a family. All share a common task or enjoy a social occasion or perhaps in mixed age groups follow their several interests. This can be done through morning assemblies, concerts, exhibitions, school matches, clubs and societies, and so forth, in which the whole school participates, including the learners. Through such activities, experiences, responsibilities and successes are shared. This is the experience of Mr Kongo. He said:

> These (the activities) are the things that encourage group feeling in our school. Even failure may prove helpful by facing the group with the common challenge of rectifying the failure. Pride in the group thus swells and becomes a significant force towards the ultimate goals of a strong school spirit.

The Leadership Development Programme has not only enabled the principals to build sound relationships within their schools, but also with the schools' outside environments – the communities – thereby opening schools to their environments. They become open systems (French and Bell 1995: 89). Through this system principals allow their schools to influence and also to be influenced by their environment. The purposes and goals of the schools are thus aligned with the needs of the environment. Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto realised that no satisfaction can be drawn from their pre-training past in which "children at school became culturally and intellectually divorced from their families and found on leaving school that they were misfits in their own communities".

Involving parents and members of the school community in the life of the school is an everyday battle. Mr Mokoto said that it has not been an easy task for him, and that he had been "faced with a difficult challenge of changing their attitudes". They regarded school as a place for book learning. The idea that children can learn from their own farming, their own markets or by studying their own water supply – especially if this is done outside the classroom – may well strike them as suspect, if not time-wasting nonsense. To overcome their natural suspicion, it is necessary to gain their confidence and enlist their participation wherever possible. Mr Mokoto said:

> One way of getting them (the parents/communities) involved is by opening the school to them so that they come and sit alongside their children as they learn, or use the facilities of the school for literacy classes, or for recreation.

Parent/community involvement in the life of the school can therefore be divided into two forms of involvement: the instructional and the non-instructional forms. The first form of involvement has a more direct impact on teaching than the second form, and as such has a much greater influence on learner learning. An example of this form of involvement is where Mr Kongo invites the parents into the classrooms "as teacher aides so as to utilise the skills and energy of those who have the greatest vested interest in the learners".

The second form of parent involvement, the non-instructional form, does not have a direct bearing on learner learning. Being members of the school boards for example, or being invited to schools to support them in matters such as fund raising or doing some improvements on the physical facilities of the schools does not have a direct impact on teaching and learner learning.

There are many other ways of building relationships between schools and their parents/communities. The most important conclusion I draw from the data is that, when eventually established, there are numerous benefits for the schools. This was confirmed by Mr Mokoto when he said:

> We used to experience classroom accommodation space for the learners before, and have always looked up to the government to provide us with classrooms. After my training, however, and the formation of a partnership with the parents, we managed to raise funds that enabled us to construct at least six classrooms, a staffroom and a library.

5.2.2 School development plans

From the data it is evident that planning ahead is the best insurance cover for schools who wish to ensure that their success levels are sustained. Principals who want to achieve and maintain high standards of education in their schools should understand that these

standards do not come accidentally. Success and high quality in education need to be planned for.

School development planning provides schools with the opportunity to set objectives and performance target levels in various areas of school life which contribute to the improvement of teaching and learning. Mr Mokoto said:

> I have learnt that school development planning is the creation of realistic targets for the school, which, over a period of time, address the school's strengths and weaknesses and bring about improvement in the teaching of learners.

Schools, like other organisations, need to have a clear picture of where they are, where they hope to go, how they hope to get there, and what strategies to use for monitoring progress towards the attainment of the set goals. Plans help schools achieve their goals in systematically and also allow the staff to have a clear and coherent view of the priorities of the school and the direction to be followed in pursuit of the school's improvement. Mr Kongo said:

> School development plans give teachers confidence especially in knowing that there is direction, and that not everything has to be thought about, coped with and responded to at once. They enable teachers to concentrate on the most important aspects of their work which is the teaching of learners more effectively.

To develop a sense of ownership, school development planning should be a collaborative process involving various stakeholders. Involvement of stakeholders will facilitate resource mobilisation without which school development plans may never be translated into action. Mr Mokoto says, "I do not formulate the plan on my own, because if I do, the possibility is that the targets it contains may not be agreed upon by everyone". This view is echoed by McNie, White and Wright (as cited in McFarlane (2000: 96) who say that involving other people in the process of (school development) planning has "an additional benefit of ownership of the planned change by the people involved, ensuring the plan's credibility and acceptance of suggestions for change".

From the data I can thus interpret that school development planning serves quite a number of purposes:

- It facilitates the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning.
- It allows staff members to be involved in the development of the school, thus giving them a sense of ownership.
- It allows school development to take place in a systematic and logical manner.
- It is a tool that helps to create thinking and self-reviewing schools.
- It is a strategy for the efficient management of resources as the allocation of resources is driven and informed by priorities.
- It creates coherence and gives direction to school development, thus avoiding wastage of time and resources.
- It allows school principals to have insight into the strengths and weaknesses of their schools, thus making relevant intervention possible.

Messrs Kongo and Mokoto's schools apply action planning where new objectives and new development plans are carried forward and reviewed systematically at the end of each planning cycle. This provides for continuous improvement.

In conclusion, school development plans are not documents developed to decorate the principals' offices, but rather instruments whose main purpose is to guide the development programmes of schools by addressing the learning needs of the children, being sensitive to the capacity of the staff and taking into account the views of the parents. This can only become possible once stakeholders are part and parcel of the

school development planning process because, as Mr Kongo said, the non-involvement of other members "causes upset and antagonism among the very staff for whom the planning is intended".

5.2.3 Staff recruitment, selection and appointment

I have learnt from the data that a vacancy in a school is an opportunity for the management to rethink roles, and that one should therefore be wary of automatically adopting the job description of a teacher who has departed. Whatever job description is developed, it should also be open to revision after appointment as a candidate may emerge with unforeseen talents that one may wish to exploit. Mr Kongo and his management team and School Board are aware of this possibility. He said:

> In some cases it will be desirable to find someone who can offer the same combination of skills as the person who has left the staff, but on many occasions it may be better to rationalise or to introduce new skills.

After the development of the job description the vacancy should then be advertised. Choice of advertising media as a means of increasing or decreasing the number of applicants for a post has the advantage that the strength of the advertising can be increased if the first attempt does not provide enough or suitable candidates. Whether further advertising increases the quality as opposed to quantity of applicants will depend on whether the format and location of the advertising are only such that they reach those who are desperately seeking employment or whether they will also reach others who are not so engaged but might be drawn by an attractive opportunity. For this reason Mr Kongo said:

> Care should be taken that the information submitted (for advertising) is clear, correct, and complete, and that it is submitted as early as possible (to reach and allow potential applicants enough time to apply).

Upon receipt of applications, a process of candidate short-listing is entered into to determine the eligibility of applicants, after which interviews are then conducted. It is

from interviews that the most suitable candidate is recommended for appointment to the post.

I noted with particular interest how democratic and transparent the process of recruitment, selection and appointment of staff has become by involving members of the school management staff and school boards, as opposed to the traditional practice where the principal was the sole player in the process, exposing the system to all sorts of abuse and favouritism. Democratisation of education is one of the major goals of the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MEC 1993: 41), and by applying this democratic principle, the schools are thus facilitating the realisation of the Ministry's broader goals. Mr Kongo said:

> Throughout the process of selecting staff, members of the school board are always involved, and no decision on appointment is made until they are absolutely certain that they have made the right choice for the position.

The application of the principles of democracy in organizations is not something new. The Human Relations period in management (1930s to 1940s) had strong undertones of democratic principles and was originally referred to as the era of "democratic human relations", but later simply as the "human relations era" (Campbell, Flemming and Newell, as cited in McFarlane, 2000: 79). The basis of this democratic emphasis was laid by Dewey in his opposition to Taylor's Scientific Management (French and Bell 1995: 66). He was convinced that greater participation by for example teachers in management and decision processes (in this particular instance, the process of teacher recruitment) would change the quality of the school's organisation and the level of relationships among its members.

5.2.4 Staff development

Principals have the responsibility of ensuring that the schools in their charge are steadily advancing steadily along the path of success. The success of the school is usually measured by the quality of teaching and learning going on as evidenced by the

achievement levels scored by its learners. Schools have to develop their capacity to deliver, which is best achieved through the improved capacities of their teachers.

Mr Mokoto recognized this responsibility, and said:

> As chief administrator of the school I have the responsibility for ensuring that education takes place efficiently. If, in my view, education is not taking place in a more efficient manner, probably because teachers are incompetent, or lack confidence, I initiate in-service training for them.

Staff development is a critical ingredient in the process of teacher development and professional growth. Regardless of the adequacy of the teachers' pre-service training or preparation, no one in the teaching field will ever be adequately prepared at an entry level to remain current for an entire career. It, therefore, remains the duty and task of the principal, as Mr Kongo said, to organise and conduct staff development programmes to ensure teacher effectiveness in an ever-changing educational environment.

The application of Organisation Development (OD) is one way of ensuring that schools and staff continue to develop. Schmuck and Runkel (1994: 5) define OD as a planned and sustained effort at system self-study and improvement, focusing on change in norms, structures, and procedures, using behavioural science concepts and methods. OD engages members themselves in the active assessment, diagnosis, and transformation of their own organisations.

While OD was not a explicitly part of the Leadership Development Programme what is actually taking place at Messrs Kongo and Mokoto's schools is in many respects OD. For example, according to the principals they involve all members of their staff in identifying teacher development and training needs, either by direct observation or by brainstorming. Depending on the nature and degree of the problem, they either make use of their internal resources and expertise or they invite the assistance of an outside change agent. Mr Mokoto said:

> We make use of our more experienced teachers on the staff to help those who are less experienced, and also those with higher qualifications to help those whose training has not been thorough. Even two teachers experiencing similar problems do, by discussing their problem with each other, work out a solution. Once everything possible has been done to use the skills available within the school, it may be necessary to look for an outside assistance, ...

What is being applied at these schools is the classic OD change procedure originally formulated by Kurt Lewin (as cited in French and Bell 1995: 82), namely:

- Unfreezing: This enables a group to become aware of a need for change. A climate of openness and trust is developed so that the group is ready for change.

- Moving: Using the survey-feedback technique, a team diagnoses where it is and develops action plans to get where it wants to go. This is the application of gap theory used in OD (French & Bell 1995:)

- Refreezing: Once the plans have been carried out and an evaluation has confirmed the success of the change the group institutionalises the change by virtue of it becoming part of the routine life of the organization.

This process of diagnosis and feedback, problem solving and review make up the basic steps in an action research, that I discuss in detail in sub-section 5.3.

Perhaps it is important to conclude here with Marland's (1986: 35) observation that no institution can develop people nor can one person develop another. All personal development is self-development. It occurs when people use their opportunities to increase their skills, knowledge, competence and confidence. It is the task of the school leadership to create conditions in which this growth can take place. Individual development needs to feed into the group's or institution's goals or vision. This is what a learning organisation is all about.

5.2.5 Staff motivation

Everard and Morris (1996: 20) define motivation as "getting results through people" or "getting the best out of people". People are best motivated to work towards goals they have been involved in setting and to which they feel committed (Everard and Morris, 1996: 20). The discussion of the school development planning process in the previous section is evidence of this. If people do not feel committed towards a given result or activity, the traditional approach to motivation at the principal's disposal is that of the carrot and stick – reward and punishment. Mr Kongo said, "The more they (the staff) are involved, the more they develop a sense of ownership in decisions and are prompted to help in achieving the objectives".

Generally, people work in order to satisfy some needs. The need may be to achieve fame or power, to serve other people or simply to earn the money to live. It may be the rather negative need to avoid punishment. Maslow (as cited in Everard and Morris 1996: 20), suggested that it was useful to think of human needs as being at different levels in a hierarchy. The principle behind the hierarchy is that, starting from the bottom, the needs at each level have to be satisfied to some extent before one can think about the needs at the next level. These are:

- Self-realization: achievement and psychological growth
- Ego: status, respect and prestige
- Social: friendship, group acceptance and love
- Security: freedom from danger and freedom from want
- Physiological: food, drink, shelter, sex, warmth and physical comfort.

Mr Mokoto said:

> I have learnt that as a principal I should not only have some knowledge of my staff, but should also bear in mind all the different factors which enhance or weaken motivation, such as personal needs of human beings, factors inherent in the work situation, management methods and the social system as reflected in the community. The needs of every person should be taken into account, such as the

need for recognition, the need to achieve, the need to be a valued person in the community, the need for self-respect and for friendship.

According to Everard and Morris (1996: 25) there are seven principles of motivation that principals apply in motivating their staff. There is evidence of all seven in the data:

- Achievement: This is a measure of the opportunities one has to use one's full capabilities and make a worthwhile contribution. It includes the possibility for testing new and untried ideas

- Responsibility: This is a measure of freedom of action in decision-making, style and job development. Mr Kongo indicated that he allows his staff to make decisions for themselves in connection with their work, within the set guidelines, thereby allowing them to experience a sense of pride.

- Recognition: This is an indication of the amount and quality of all kinds of feedback, whether good or bad, about how someone is getting on in the job. Mr Kongo said, "I give recognition to my teachers as persons and not just as human resources, and the co-operation I get from them is very good".

- Advancement: This refers to work experience that prepares one for possible promotion – within or outside the school in which the staff currently works. By delegating some of their functions and authority, Messrs Kongo and Mokoto afforded their staff an opportunity to experience responsibilities that give their teachers the confidence that, should a vacancy occur in a higher position, they are likely to stand a chance for promotion.

- Participation: This is the degree to which staff members feel they are part of the system, that they are genuinely involved, especially in the setting of school goals and in decision-making processes. Mr Kongo said:

> The more they (the staff) are involved, the more they develop a sense of ownership in decisions and are prompted to help in achieving the objectives.

- Communication: Teachers are inclined to become motivated, work harder and co-operate more if they are constantly informed about the objectives and the results achieved, and also about the tasks they are expected to perform. Mr Kongo said:

> I have learnt that communication is of great importance. Teachers like to know and should know what is expected of them and how their tasks form part of a total plan. This should be coupled with competent and just leadership which sets out acceptable tasks together with clear guidelines.

Mr Mokoto echoed the same sentiment when he said:

> The opposite is also true: if staff do not know what they are supposed to be achieving, they are likely to show little interest and have little motivation. I do not only inform my staff about results, but also about changes and progress that have been made.

- Security of tenure: This is the measure by which someone is ensured of his/her job, not only for today, but for tomorrow as well. For example, how can teachers, especially the professionally unqualified ones who are normally appointed temporarily, be motivated when they know that tomorrow they may not be employed? They, like any other person, will need some job security so that they can work with some degree of enthusiasm. The Leadership Development Programme has enabled Mr Mokoto to work out a strategy of motivating them, and getting them committed to work. He said:

> A teacher who occupies a post temporarily has a need for work security. At our school I try to help enrol such teachers in the available in-service training programmes and encourage them to do their best once they get in. Knowing that once enrolled, their jobs are secured until they have completed their courses before they are eventually appointed permanently. This gives them some hope to get on with their work. Their commitment to work is immeasurable.

In the light of principles of motivation it is worthwhile to look at the X and Y theories of motivation, developed by Douglas McGregor (French and Bell 1995: 71). Theory Y represents an optimistic view of human nature and attitude. Theory Y leaders (or managers) believe that people see work as a natural phenomenon, that they accept responsibility and in fact seek it. They believe that under the right circumstances people can derive satisfaction from their work and will work hard. They will help to achieve organisational objectives provided they understand them. In short, Theory Y presupposes that people are not inherently lazy and mental or physical effort associated with work is as natural as relaxation, that people are intrinsically motivated and seek self-actualisation. Theory Y managers assume that people relish work and eagerly approach their work, seeing it as an opportunity to develop their creative capacities. Theory X managers, on the other hand, assume that people must be constantly coaxed into getting their work done because they are presumed to be intrinsically lazy.

While people will need some money to live a more comfortable life, especially in the world of today, it is very interesting to learn from the data that neither of the two principals interviewed mentioned higher salaries as a potential motivational factor. The impression I get here is that people can work at their best when they are achieving the greatest satisfaction from their work (Everard and Morris 1996: 20).

5.2.6 Staff appraisal

In the context of the effective management of people, some form of feedback about performance is vital. If staff appraisal is seen in this light, then the way in which it is managed becomes fundamental to staff management in any school.

According to Bush and Middlewood (1997) the purpose of appraisal relates both to improving individual performance and to greater school effectiveness and efficiency, the latter ultimately being the school's key purpose, i.e. learner learning. Mr Kongo said that staff appraisal should be used to recognise the achievements of teachers and help them to "identify ways of improving their skills and performance".

The aims of appraisal therefore place emphasis on recognition of achievement, career development, professional development, and where there are those having difficulty, providing guidance, counselling and training. In this regard Mr Kongo said:

> Appraisal should not be viewed as a mechanism for fault-finding and criticising, but as a means of building the teachers positive self-image and motivation to be as good a teacher as possible.

Although proposed for introduction in Namibia in 1996 during the then Ministry of Education and Culture's rationalization process, the appraisal system for teachers has never taken off the ground. Its implementation has been complicated by a lack of expertise in the country on the how it should be implemented. For example, it has not been possible for the Ministry of Education to find answers to questions like whether teaching can be measured quantifiably and thus objectively assessed, or whether qualitative data should be preferred, with the risk of accusations subjectivity. Hence, despite their skills in teacher appraisal acquired from the Leadership Development Programme, these principals could not officially implement the system at their schools.

The indefinite suspension of the implementation of the appraisal system for teachers in Namibia suggests, therefore, a lack of leadership and initiative in the Ministry of Education, and a continued dependence on foreign expertise. This is disempowering for the Namibian educators. Schools and the general management of education in this country will remain characterless as long as the education system continues to import its mindscapes, models and concepts rather than inventing them.

Messrs Kongo and Mokoto, however, while regretting the non-implementation of the appraisal system for teachers, remain hopeful that "one day the Ministry of Education in Namibia will reintroduce it. It is important that they do". The teachers' unions are currently engaged in negotiations with the Government on this issue. Unions argue that their members, in the absence of the appraisal system, are at a disadvantage.

5.2.7 Meetings

Meetings are of crucial importance in co-ordinating efforts and effecting change, and a very important part of the principal's role is to ensure that they are vehicles for communication and action rather than confusion and frustration.

Some people hate meetings and feel that they are a waste of time, where very little is achieved. This was also the attitude of Messrs Kongo and Mokoto before they underwent training. To them "meetings had been platforms for accusations and counter-accusations and finger-pointing, taking up much of our time, and achieve little, sometimes nothing at all". This attitude changed after their training and today they are saying "meetings are an essential practical aspect of running a school", and that the success of every meeting depends largely on the co-operation and support the chairperson gets from the participants.

Messrs Kongo and Mokoto's new views and attitudes towards meetings correspond with the views of Everard and Morris (1996: 25) who said meetings which are considered to be a nightmare can become effective by "helicoptering" above the hurly and burly of the discussion, asking what is to be achieved, being aware of the behavioural process at work and trying to structure the meeting in such a way as to channel positively the energies of those involved.

Today Messrs Kongo and Mokoto are convinced that in order for a school to have effective meetings, it is essential for principals and their staff to develop some standard procedures or ground rules which can help them to get more out of meetings, in less time, and often, with less stress. For example:

- Attendance: Attendance should be determined by the nature of the meeting, i.e. is it a management meeting, a staff meeting, departmental meeting or general meeting at which everyone is welcomed? Participants may change according to

the agenda item. For a management meeting for example, it may be appropriate to have a fairly junior person sit in or make a presentation. People not directly affected by the meeting to be held should not attend the meeting as it may turn out to be boring for them, especially if matters to be discussed will be of no interest to them. Similarly, principals need to ensure that people needed at a meeting actually attend, because to miss a meeting can waste valuable time of the members, particularly if the missing member's agreement is needed for some key action. This is from the data.

- Preparation: Ability to prepare depends on the circulation in good time of an agenda for the meeting. Key items for inclusion in the notice of a meeting are:
  - date, time, place and intended duration of meeting;
  - people attending and roles, e.g. chairperson, secretary, etc;
  - purpose of meeting – decision-taking, information-giving, information-exchange, brainstorming;
  - agenda items with, for each item, relevant documents, and a note of the persons responsible for introducing them.

- The use of time and meeting structure: Efficient use of time depend largely on having and keeping to a structure which suited to the purpose and membership of the meeting. Everard and Morris (1996: 55) suggested that "an invaluable piece of equipment at any meeting is a flipchart on which key ideas, information or proposals can be recorded for all to see". According to them, advantages to be gained from this "common-sense but underused" item are the following:
  - The discussion is focused;
  - Ideas are not lost, accidentally or otherwise;
  - Flipcharts are a useful record on which minutes can be based, and against which minutes can be checked;
  - Time is not wasted while individuals repeat ideas which they feel have not been heard or considered by the meeting;

- Recorded ideas, e.g. alternative proposals, can be dealt with in sequence, and those who have put forward an idea can take a full part in all discussions in the confidence that their views will in due course be considered.

Turning meetings which are considered to be fruitless and non-productive into effective, fruitful and productive meetings will probably require the application of the S-T-P problem-solving theory. Schmuck and Runkel (1994: 252) said it is important, as a first step, to realise that there is a problem that needs to be identified and that good problem solving requires readiness. But, before starting with actual problem solving, it is important to use survey-data-feedback to provoke discussion and focus attention, "thereby heightening readiness" (Schmuck and Runkel, 1994: 251).

Schmuck and Runkel (1994) defined a problem in the S-T-P problem solving theory as being a gap between a present situation and a desired target. A problem can be specified by describing the existing situation (S) and the desired target state (T), while a solution is described as a procedure, plan, or path (P) that will be followed to get from the S to T. They also said that when people state something they do not like about the present situation (S), they are also likely to think of how things might be better (T) and of actions (P) that might move the (S) in the preferred direction.

Before their training, Messrs Kongo and Mokoto saw meetings as being fruitless, non-productive and a waste of time (S). Their ideal was to have effective, fruitful and productive meetings (T) at their respective schools. In the course of their training they were equipped with some skills on managing effective meetings. They, in consultation with their respective staff, established procedures that they called "ground rules" (P) and they applied in their meetings.

But how will the principal and his/her staff know that the meeting they just have held has been successful or not? Schmuck and Runkel (1994: 187 - 188) suggested four features that characterise effective meetings:

- A balance of task and maintenance: To have effective meetings, groups must learn to fulfil both task functions, which carry forward the meeting's work requirements, and maintenance functions, which help group members develop satisfying interpersonal relationships. Task functions include initiating ideas on work procedures, seeking information or opinions from others, giving information or opinions, and summarizing what has occurred in the meeting. Maintenance functions include ensuring that others have a chance to speak, ensuring that listeners have a chance to check on what they have heard, reconciling disagreements, sensing group mood, and being warm and responsive toward others. Mr Kongo said that he encouraged people to express and discuss ideas freely, and when "some staff members do not contribute, I ask them for opinions. They then start talking".

- Group orientation: This is the degree to which members engage in self-oriented rather that group-oriented behaviour. Unproductive behaviours such as fighting, withdrawing, blocking, avoiding, depending on the formal leader, expressing indifference, sandbagging, and keeping agendas hidden are directed toward individual needs rather than toward the task at hand. Schmuck and Runkel (1994) said that:

> Self-oriented behaviour may be a problem when it delays accomplishment of the main task and leaves members dissatisfied, but groups often allow individuals to take up everyone else's time for their own purposes. If this can be done aboveboard, the group should not avoid it, and an individual should not be afraid to ask (Schmuck and Runkel 1994: 188).

Mr Kongo said that he and the members of his management team ignore their status at meetings so that all of them are on equal footing. This encourages a spirit of teamwork. He said "pulling rank during the meeting, or seeking revenge for criticism afterwards is sure to stop other people from contributing".

- Shared leadership: The third feature of effective meetings is a shared leadership – implying any behaviour that helps the group carry forward its work or satisfy

members' needs in constructive ways. Leadership is needed for planning and preparing for the meeting, setting goals by building an agenda, keeping records of the proceedings, evaluating how well activities meet the goals and how satisfying and helpful interpersonal processes are, and planning ways of following through on plans. Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto said that they do not need to chair meetings every time they are held, but share this activity with other members of staff. Secondly, at their meetings, they agree on what each person has to do, thereby sharing the responsibilities.

- Follow-through: The fourth readily observable feature of effective meetings, follow-through, occurs after the meeting. If, for example, requests pour into the secretary's or heads of department office for information about items discussed at the meeting, the meeting was probably ineffective in relaying that information. If staff members of a particular department grumble in the staff room about a decision made at a meeting, they probably did not feel free to contribute their own views. Tasks that are implemented with commitment and dispatch, however, give evidence of adequate preparation at the meeting. Mr Mokoto said that at his school there is always someone who keeps track of what decisions have been taken on each item, which helps to "clarify the outcomes of the meetings and makes action more likely". He says

> Action steps include a summary of what was decided, what each person has agreed to do, specific deadlines, and the time and purpose of the next meeting. At the next meeting, our first order of business is always the status of the action steps of the previous meeting.

5.2.8 Conflict management

Hodgkinson (1991: 40) says that conflict that grows out the self-interest of individuals is an essential element of organisational life. Conflict should therefore be seen as a permanent aspect of organisations and be managed and utilised as part of the leader's most basic challenges.

Everard and Morris (1996: 92) define conflict as clashing points of view or interests. In a school, conflict usually arises when people hold diametrically opposed opinions. Mary Parker Follet (as cited in Hoy and Miskel 1996: 12), thought that conflict was "not necessarily a wasteful outbreak of incompatibilities, but a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for enrichment of all concerned".

According to De Beer et al. (1998: 21), there are three schools of thought regarding conflict, namely:

- The traditional school of thought where conflict is regarded to be destructive, and that all conflict must therefore be eliminated.
- The behavioural school of thought where conflict is believed to be inevitable and therefore present in all organisations.
- The interactive school of thought where conflict, because of its inevitable nature, is encouraged.

They found conflict usually follows a fixed pattern of cause, management and solution. The pattern implies firstly, that there is always a reason for the conflict – it does not just happen. Mr Kongo said

> In my school, conflict is usually between different departments on the use of limited resources. For example, (it is) over the use of the only available overhead-projector in the school. Secondly, conflict does occur because of clashing of interests, cultures, and sometimes politics.

De Beer et al. (1998: 21) suggested six potential causes of conflict: identical objectives, competition for scarce resources, personal differences, different perceptions, communication problems and uncertainty about responsibilities.

Secondly, the conflict must be managed when it emerges. Mr Kongo said that he does not try to suppress conflict, "but I try to manage it effectively so that its constructive nature can be increased to the benefit of the school".

Thirdly, the results of the conflict must be determined, because this can have a negative or positive impact on the school. In dealing with conflict at his school Mr Kongo usually appeals to his staff members to work toward a common objective such as the achievement of the goals of the school, and believed that the results have always been positive. He said:

> Such appeals have been quite helpful in the sense that they promote interaction between conflicting members and that the interdependence of individuals who are in conflict with each other is emphasised, which bring them closer to conciliation.

Lastly, the conflict is resolved and settled. Sometimes both the school and those involved will benefit from the conflict. Mr Mokoto said that what he had learnt from the Leadership Development Programme is that conflict does not only have a negative connotation and impact, but "it can also be used constructively in favour of the achievement of the objectives of the school. It can serve as a driving force to increase productivity and render the necessary change".

In dealing with conflict at his school it is important that, as Mr Kongo said, he does not try to suppress conflict. It is dealt with as soon as its presence is recognised. Everard and Morris (1996: 94) suggested that if the conflict is between staff members for example, where the principal is not implicated, his/her job my well be to step in as the mediator, "to try to understand the point of view of each protagonist individually and to bring each one into a problem-solving state of mind"

5.2.9 English language proficiency

Improving language proficiency was neither a training programme requirement, nor was it an intended outcome. However, principals feel that it was a positive indirect outcome of the Leadership Development Programme. By providing time and space to the principals to use and practise the language during their period of training the Leadership Development Programme has indirectly contributed to the participants' improved use of the English language.

A larger percentage of principals in the Ondangwa East Region were taught and trained through the medium of Afrikaans, and have therefore little or no background knowledge of the English language.

When Namibia became independent on March 21, 1990, English not only became the official language, but also a medium of instruction in schools. School principals were not prepared for this sudden change, nor were language upgrading programmes designed for them. As a result, they found it extremely difficult to communicate to their colleagues, learners and the communities in English and they have, in most instances, resorted to the use of a vernacular. This has been confirmed by Mr Mokoto when he said:

> Previously, because of my poor background knowledge in the English Language, I used to be ashamed of speaking the official language in public. Even when I had to make announcements at school, I usually did so in the vernacular.

The fact that the Leadership Development Programme required each participating principal to present to other participants his/her projects proposals for them to advise on the viabilities of such a proposals, and also due to the fact that the principals were required to report back to others on progress they had made in the implementation of their respective projects, and also due to their participation in group discussions, principals were thus encouraged to practise the English language. At the end of the day they became more comfortable in using it while minding less and less about the mistakes they made. Mr Mokoto confirmed once more:

> But after the training I became so confident of myself and did not really care about the mistakes I make while speaking the official language. I realised that this was the only way I could learn the language – by speaking it.

Wallace (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 159), refers to the self-directedness of adult education, which implies that adults have their own objectives in learning and will pursue these irrespective of the objectives set by someone else. Because adults themselves choose to take part in the learning process they are internally motivated to accomplish

their objectives. These characteristics complement Cranton's (1994: 6) emphasis on the practical nature of adult learning resulting from adults' interest in the solution of immediate problems, such as this of language.

From the data presented in the previous chapter I concluded that not only English language proficiency of the participating principals improved, but that their sense of self-confidence has also been given a boost.

5.3 The training processes

The principals had clear views about their experiences of the training process adopted by the Leadership Development Programme. I discuss this under two headings.

5.3.1 Participatory action research

Cohen and Manion (1994) describe action research as:

> ... situational – it is concerned with diagnosing a problem in a specific context and attempting to solve it in that context; it is usually (though not inevitably) collaborative – teams of researchers and participants work together on a project; it is participatory – teams of researchers and participants work together on a project; it is participatory – team members themselves take part directly or indirectly in implementing the research; and it is self-evaluative – modifications are continuously evaluated within the ongoing situation, the ultimate objectives being to improve the practice in some way or another (Cohen and Manion 1994: 186).

Action research is probably the best example of current thinking about the link between training programmes and problems of practice as a way of bringing together theory and practice. Mr Mokoto said that their first contact session served as a platform for bringing together theory and practice. He said, "While we shared the reality and experiences (practice) from our schools, the training programme facilitators shared with us the insights from theories and literature on school management".

Writers such as McNie, White and Wright and Murphy and Bolan (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 95), see action research as an important strategy in training processes. According to McNie et al., in referring to training programmes in Africa, action research causes principals and their staff to recognise their responsibility for planning, implementing and evaluating problem solving initiatives in their own schools. I have referred to some examples of these initiatives in the previous sections, such as the school development planning and staff development which these schools embarked upon.

McNie et al., indicate further that in action research the word "training" has completely disappeared, meaning that throughout the process of action research the responsibility for change shifts from the trainer to practitioners at the grass roots level. One of the advantages of this approach is that it facilitates change within the unique culture of each school. The principal and staff work together to generate their own solutions and actions within their own school context.

The fact that the principals devised their own project proposals, and the fact that the finalisation and implementation of these projects were subject to the approval of the school staff (and the school communities where applicable) is significant in the sense that it created a sense of ownership and commitment to the planned change by all involved, which consequently ensured its success.

The school visits by facilitators and the feedback which was given during the third session had a four-fold significance: firstly, the feedback helped the school staff to evaluate their project and modify it accordingly. Secondly, it served as useful information to the facilitators to revisit the content of their training programme to see whether it was compatible with the realities of the local school situations. Mr Mokoto said, "I think the feedback assisted them, too, in informing the content of the training programme". Thirdly, although the facilitators, when they visited the schools, did not become involved in the project implementation process, their position of "giving direction" ties in well with what Wallace (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 98), says about off-the-job training. He says off-the-job training is not enough for improving on-the-job performance – implying

that training programmes can only be effective when they become an integral part of a wide, all-encompassing commitment to continuous and on-the-job training. Lastly, it helped to sustain in the long term the influence of the training programme in the participants' schools.

Participatory action research – where the facilitators, principals, staff and communities were involved – was successfully applied in this training process. This is one of the reasons why Mr Kongo could proudly say that it was possible for his school to establish and solidify sound relations with its community, which is benefiting the school in many ways, ranging from improving the school's physical infrastructure to the instructional involvement of parents.

5.3.2 Adult learning

During the first contact session the Leadership Development Programme embarked upon the process of "brainstorming" as a way of finding out from the participants what they knew, what their priority training needs were and their expectations of the programme. Mr Mokoto said, "This session afforded us the opportunity to share our experiences and successes, hurts and failures".

Adults bring to the learning process a wide range of experience, knowledge, interests and competence. According to Cranton (1994: 79), this is one of the characteristics of adult learning. Cranton (1994: 79) says that, viewed from different angles, adult learning is a complex concept which is difficult to define. She, however, focuses on the rich variety of experience and expertise adults bring with them to the learning situation, which they are often eager to share with other participants in the learning process.

The opportunities for participants to share their experiences was an indication of the programme's acknowledgement of their expertise, the contribution they could make to the training. Secondly, the involvement of principals in sharing with others their experiences and expertise introduced an element of relevance and helped to break down

the traditional divide between facilitators and participants. I refer again to what Messrs Kongo and Mokoto said, "We were taken as partners in the process of training. We were not only trainees, but participants in the programme".

Adult learning is self-directed – implying that adults have their own objectives in learning (Cranton 1994: 6). The issue of improving their language proficiency referred to earlier in the chapter is an example. Mr Kongo had a burning desire to acquire skills that would enable him to manage personnel effectively and to build sound community relations. Wallace (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 97), says that adults will pursue their objectives irrespective of the objectives set by someone else. The fact that adults choose to take part in the learning process, indicates that they are internally motivated to accomplish their objectives.

Lastly, it is clear from the data that the adult learners could influence the selection of the content, activities and assessment of the training programme. Both Messrs Kongo and Mokoto, when they joined the training programme, found that they were taken as "partners in the process of training", and became "participants in the programme". Mr Mokoto said, "It (the first session) also helped to reshape and re-inform the content of the training programme, as our facilitators indicated that the programme content was very much flexible". Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (as cited in McFarlane 2000: 98), say that, adult learners should have a say in both the content of the programme and the method of delivery.

5.4 Summary

In this chapter I have looked at two important aspects that emerged from the data: what the principals perceived as the key outcomes of the Leadership Development programme and their perceptions of the training process.

In the literature review I referred to current international thinking on training programmes for principals. The data here suggest that the Leadership Development Programme

complied with what are considered to be the organisational building blocks, the core functions of organisational life referred to in Schmuck and Runkel (1994): meetings, conflict management, decision-making, problem solving and communication.

The flexibility of the programme content and its training process ties in well with Furtwengler, Hurst, Turk and Holcomb's (1996: 521 - 522) idea of a core curriculum with flexible components based on authentic problems of practice.

In the principals' view, many positive changes were brought about in their schools during the time the Programme was offered. While I can obviously not establish a direct link between every change and the input made by the Programme, it is fair to say that it brought about changes at least in the mindsets of the participating principals, which were conducive to change. What was significant to me when I visited the schools for interviews in November 2005 was how many of the initiatives were still bearing fruit three years after the Programme had ended. In addition, the Programme was still fresh in their minds and they exuded continued enthusiasm for what it had sought to achieve.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The focus of my study has been on the perceived effects of a Leadership Development Programme, a training programme for principals in the Ondangwa East Region, to see what it was that school principals thought they had learned and benefited from the training programme which they can use and apply in their work, and whether the programme, in their view, had enabled them to do their job well.

In this chapter I present the summary of my main findings, talk about the potential value of my study, and make some recommendations for further research as well as for training support that could be considered for teacher-trainees aspiring to become school principals. Finally, I show a critical awareness of my work.

6.2 Perceived Effects of the Leadership Development Programme

As was discussed in section 4.2 of the data presentation chapter, the involvement of school principals in the Leadership Development Programme has helped them to experience personal changes and to grow and develop professionally.

As far as the personal changes are concerned, the training did not only help them to become self-confident in carrying out their duties and responsibilities at schools, but it has also helped them to have their personal relationships with staff at their respective schools improved (refer to section 4.2.1.1 of chapter four).

With regard to professional growth the study has found that the principals believed they have become better and more effective managers, with a better understanding of their responsibilities and relationships compared to their knowledge and performance before their training. They were also able to provide evidence to substantiate their views.
The Leadership Development Programme has not only made them realise the importance of certain aspects of school management, such as timetabling and managing finances, but it has also enabled them to draw up school development plans, involve parents in the everyday life of the schools, and manage personnel through: proper staff selection, staff development programmes, staff motivation, effective staff meetings and effective conflict management.

In a nutshell, the study has found that, in the view of those interviewed, the Leadership Development Programme has helped the principals to do their job better and with some

level of confidence. They believe the training has enabled them to create a conducive and attractive environment for teaching and learning.

The study has also found that the content of the training programme corresponded squarely with what literature considers as a core curriculum of any training programme for school principals.

6.3 The value of this study

I am hopeful that this study will be of value in the following respects:

- The study will serve as a thought-provoking piece of work to both the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture on one hand, and the University of Namibia and the colleges of education in the country, via the Ministry of Higher Education, Vocational Training and Employment Creation, on the other, regarding the preparation of future and the training of current school leaders. This may require these institutions to review the content of their current formal teacher training curriculum.

- I also believe that this study will be of interest to other institutions and organizations associated with school management training and development in Namibia.

- With this study I hope to convey a sense of the significance of training and development for school principals in the Ondangwa East Educational Region.

- It also provides valuable feedback to the Institute for Educational Career Development who may want to revisit some aspects of this training programme as time progresses.

6.4 Recommendations

At present there are a number of training agencies, especially here in the northern educational regions, which offer training to school principals. Sadly though, while the existence and operation of such agencies carries the blessing of the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, their training programmes remain unevaluated and their operations are un-coordinated.

I would therefore recommend that the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture develop a training policy that stipulates acceptable standards for training programmes. Besides recognizing such training agencies, the Ministry needs also to supervise and co-ordinate the training to ensure that principals are not given a raw deal. The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture does not need to fund these programmes. It needs only to approve and recognize them, provided they meet the laid-down training standards. The participants, whose attendance should count as official duty, should pay their own fees. To make the training programmes more attractive, the diplomas awarded to participants after their successful completion of the programme should be recognised for other purpose too, such as salaries. In this regard, there is, therefore, a need for training agencies to have their training courses accredited by our formal education and training institutions such as the University of Namibia and others. The IECD is already moving in this direction.

During the past few decades the task of a school principal has undergone a radical change. Traditionally the principal was merely the head teacher and the task of leading a school was of a limited complexity. A school principal required only professional training and experience in teaching to manage a school. De Wet (1981) points out that the traditional view was that a competent teacher within a certain number of years of experience, and the right personality, was well-equipped for the task and the demands of principalship. The ability needed by the incumbent to perform the administrative and managerial tasks could be developed through experience.

However, as a result of the increasing complexity both of the school as an organisation and the environment in which schools operate, today a principal is subjected to changing demands in respect of his/her management tasks. Managerial training is now expected in addition to educational training (Lipham and Hoeh, as cited in McFarlane, 2000: 97). Whereas the principal's task used to focus mainly on teaching it has now changed to a more management-directed task. This implies that the school principal can no longer be expected to perform his/her duties in a hit-or-miss fashion. In this regard it is necessary for principals to receive both academic and professional training in educational management. In addition, educational training should train teachers to teach and prepare them for the demands of promotion positions. Various researchers, such as Boshoff (1980) and De Wet (1981), have suggested that the successful completion of a course in educational management should be a recommendation when teachers are appointed in promotion posts.

Today, very few – if any – Namibian school principals have undergone formal management training to enable them to cope with their managerial duties. As they ascend the promotional ladder, they have to perform more tasks for which they have received no initial training. This is still the case in Namibia. Indications are that the principal's task continues to increase in complexity. The question, therefore, is no longer whether or not the principal has a managerial task, but how well he/she is equipped for his/her managerial task. I think it is only a question of time before people will advocate that the successful completion of a course in educational management should be a requirement for an appointment to a principal's post. In this regard Buckley (1985: 27) writes, "A head needs certain basic knowledge and skills preferably before taking the appointment of head or at an early stage of his/her career as a head".

On the other hand, it is also equally true that the attainment of a qualification in educational management does not guarantee that a person possesses managerial abilities. But, I feel that such training will at least be a starting point in getting everyone who aspires to become a school leader equipped until such time as he/she gets on-the-job and other forms of training.

My second recommendation therefore is that the Directorate of Higher Education, in conjunction with our teacher training institutions, look into the possibility of including such a component in the curriculum of formal teacher education. Such management training of school principals should comprise two aspects, namely: basic management training (the academic-professional component) followed by a management development programme (in-service training), the latter being similar to what agencies such as the IECD are offering. The present school situation is not conducive to site based management training. Basic management training should therefore be undertaken by formal teacher training institutions. This recommendation would require teacher trainees to decide early on when they enter colleges or universities whether they wish to follow a managerial or a teaching career.

Current training efforts are a hotchpotch of one-day, one-week, or short-term programmes that hardly address the training needs of school principals. Until a basic management training programme is put in place, school principals will, in my view, continue to receive piecemeal training and Namibia, especially the northern educational regions, will continue to have educators appointed to leadership positions without systematic training or preparation.

Thirdly, while consideration is being given to the recommendations made above, I wish to propose that, as a stopgap, the University of Namibia and the colleges of education re-introduce the subject School Organisation and Administration in the teacher-training curriculum. Such a subject component will introduce teacher trainees to some basic elements of school and educational management.

6.5 Future research

Although it is outside the scope of this study, I think there would be value in someone investigating what direct or indirect bearing the Leadership Development Programme has had on the quality of teaching in the classroom and on learner performance. The

principals in this study believe they have been able to create conducive and enabling environments for teaching and learning.

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